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**EFFECTS OF JOB PRESSURE, OPPORTUNITY,
NEUTRALIZATION AND WORKPLACE
SPIRITUALITY ON WORKPLACE DEVIANCE: THE
MODERATING ROLE OF SELF-CONTROL**



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**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
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WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY ON WORKPLACE DEVIANCE: THE
MODERATING ROLE OF SELF-CONTROL**



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**Thesis submitted to
Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business,
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Kolej Perniagaan
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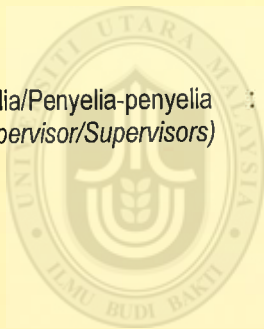
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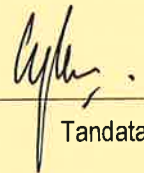
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ABSTRACT

This study adopted a fraud triangle theory-like framework to examine the relationship between the constituents of job pressure, opportunity, neutralization, and deviant workplace behaviour (DWB) among lecturers in Nigerian public higher educational institutions (HEIs). The moderating role of self-control on the relationship between job pressure, opportunity, and neutralization was examined. Also, this study examined the relationship between workplace spirituality and DWB. Partial least squares structural equation modeling was used to analyze the 356 valid questionnaires returned. The results indicate that neutralization mediates the negative relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance and the negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance. The findings suggest that faculty members may not justify or provide reasons to engage in interpersonal deviance despite their negative perceptions of institutional policy and ethical climate. Also, neutralization mediates the positive relationships amongst work pressure and interpersonal deviance and workload and interpersonal deviance. The results suggest that interpersonal deviance may be justified if lecturers experience excessive work pressure and workload. Further, self-control moderates the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization, which means lecturers with high level of self-control may not use ethical climate of HEIs as an excuse to engage in organizational or interpersonal deviance. This study also found a significant and negative relationships between workplace spirituality and organizational deviance, which implies that workplace spirituality may minimize organizational deviance. The findings demonstrate a mixed support for the fraud-like triangle theory. Therefore, it can be concluded that a high level of self-control overrides the tendency of individuals to neutralize or engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance. Limitations, suggestions for future research, theoretical, and practical implications are stated.

Keywords: organizational and interpersonal deviance, opportunity, job pressure, neutralization, self-control

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini mengamalkan rangka kerja seperti teori segitiga penipuan untuk mengkaji hubungan di antara tekanan kerja, peluang, peneutralan, dan tingkah laku kerja yang menyimpang (DWB) dalam kalangan pensyarah di institusi pendidikan tinggi awam (IPT) di Nigeria. Peranan swa-kawalan terhadap hubungan antara tekanan kerja, peluang, dan peneutralan turut disiasat. Juga, kajian ini mengkaji hubungan antara kerohanian di tempat kerja dan DWB. Pemodelan *partial least squares structural equation* digunakan untuk menganalisis 356 soal selidik yang sah yang telah dikembalikan. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa peneutralan mengantara hubungan negatif antara iklim etika dan penyimpangan interpersonal dan hubungan negatif antara dasar institusi dan penyimpangan interpersonal. Penemuan menunjukkan bahawa ahli fakulti tidak dapat mewajarkan atau memberikan alasan untuk terlibat dalam penyelewengan interpersonal walaupun mereka mempunyai persepsi negatif mengenai dasar institusi dan iklim etika. Juga, peneutralan mengantara hubungan positif di antara tekanan kerja dan penyimpangan interpersonal dan beban kerja serta penyelewengan interpersonal. Hasil kajian menunjukkan penyimpangan interpersonal boleh diwajarkan jika pensyarah mengalami tekanan kerja dan beban kerja yang berlebihan. Tambahan, swa-kawalan menyederhanakan hubungan negatif antara iklim etika dan peneutralan, yang bermaksud bahawa pensyarah yang mempunyai tahap swa-kawalan yang tinggi mungkin tidak menggunakan iklim etika IPT sebagai alasan untuk terlibat dalam penyimpangan organisasi atau interpersonal. Kajian ini juga mendapati hubungan yang signifikan dan negatif antara kerohanian di tempat kerja dan penyimpangan organisasi, yang membayangkan bahawa kerohanian di tempat kerja dapat meminimumkan penyimpangan organisasi. Secara keseluruhannya, penemuan menunjukkan sokongan bercampur-campur bagi teori seperti segitiga penipuan. Oleh itu, dapat disimpulkan bahawa tahap swa-kawalan yang tinggi mengatasi kecenderungan individu untuk mewajarkan atau terlibat dalam penyimpangan organisasi atau interpersonal. Batasan, cadangan untuk penyelidikan masa hadapan, implikasi teoretis dan praktis turut dipersembahkan.

Kata kunci: penyimpangan organisasi dan interpersonal, peluang, tekanan kerja, peneutralan, swa-kawalan

DEDICATION

The successful completion of my PhD programme is dedicated to the Almighty God, the Alpha and Omega of my life for His Faithfulness, Mercies and Grace upon me and my household. Also, I wish to dedicate this achievement to my beautiful wife, Elizabeth Ijeoma Adeoti and our blessed sons, Oluwatimilehin Michael Adeoti (Jr), Prince Joshua Oluwasemilore Adeoti and David Oluwatomisin Adeoti, for their sacrifices, love and prayers. I love you all.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average variance extracted
CI	Confidence interval
CMV	Common method variance
CRI	Composite reliability index
CVI	Content validity index
CWB	Counterproductive work behaviour
DHHS	Department of health and human services
DWB	Deviant workplace behaviour
EC	Ethical climate
ERI	Effort reward imbalance model
f^2	Effect size
FCT	Federal capital territory
FTT	Fraud triangle theory
GDT	General deterrence theory
GST	General strain theory
HEIs	Higher educational institutions
HTMT	Heterotrait-monotrait ratio
I-CVI	Item-level content validity index
ID	Interpersonal deviance
IP	Institutional policy
JDC	Job demand control model
NBTE	National board for technical education
NUC	National universities commission
OD	Organizational deviance
OYAGSB	Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business
PLS	Partial least square
S-CVI	Scale-level content validity index
SEM	Structural equation modeling

SMEs	Subject matter experts
SRMR	Standard root mean square residual
US	United States
VIF	Variance inflation factor
WHO	World health organization
WS	Workplace spirituality



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of study

Deviant workplace behaviour (DWB) is a global phenomenon that occurs across many occupations (Robinson, 2008). The present study is guided by the submission of Ackroyd and Thompson (1999) who defined workplace deviance as whatever an employee usually does at work which he/she is not supposed to do. In agreement with Bennett and Robinson (2000), the present study also considered workplace deviance as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of organizational and interpersonal deviance. Organizational deviance (OD) includes all forms of unruly behaviours exhibited by the faculty members towards the institution or her assets while those unethical acts whose primary targets are colleagues, students and other institutional members is regarded as interpersonal deviance (ID). Different countries have had a fair share and still experiencing manifestations of deviance with damaging consequences on the nations, organizations, and employees (Adedeji, 2013; Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012). Studies revealed that at least 32 - 75% of workers may exhibit tendency to commit theft in the organizations where they work (Bernardin & Cooke, 1993; Clark & Hollinger, 1983; Zemke, 1990) while 42% of women have experienced sexual harassment at work (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998).

Scholarly interests in workplace deviance are increasing because of the cost implications it brings to all quarters of the society. For instance, Hollinger and Adams (2010) reported that employee theft was responsible for about 45% retailers' inventory shortage in the United States in 2010. Similarly, Harris and Ogbonna (2006) found that the prevalence

of workplace deviance in the United States was estimated to result in organizational losses reaching up to \$200 billion per year. Also, the Canadian economy lost \$16.6 billion in 2012 due to workplace absenteeism (Nguyen, 2013) while various forms of deviant acts cost Australian employers from 6 to 13 billion Australian dollars in 1998 (Chappell & Di Martino, 2006). On the part of organizations, deviance can be a primary source of organizational failures (Hollinger & Adams, 2010). In addition, other damaging consequences on the organization include loss of customers, lowered productivity, poor performance (Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007), economic threats to the organization (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005; Bennett & Robinson, 2003), and increased absenteeism (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). On the part of employees, there have been reports of lower levels of self-confidence and psychological depression (Yıldız, 2007), job stress (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001) and impaired mental health of victims (Bowling & Beehr, 2006).

Deviant workplace behaviour takes place in all industries in most countries including higher educational institutions (Bell, 2011; Caza & Cortina, 2007; Lucas & Friedrich, 2005; Youmans, 2011). For instance, a survey of 1,043 students of a tertiary institution in the United States found that almost 75% of the samples have been subjected to uncivil behaviours in the university (Caza & Cortina, 2007). Bell (2011) cited several instances in which the victims of sexual harassment have sued the universities in the United States of America to courts. Also, Youmans (2011) found that the introduction of plagiarism-detection software did not stop the deviant act of plagiarism in California State University, USA. In Nigeria, the waves of sexual assault/harassment and other unethical acts are causing harm to the Nigerian tertiary institutions (Jekayinfa, 2013; Nigerian Feminist Forum, 2015; Ogunbodede, 2018). For instance, a study in Nigeria found that

nearly 51.3% of Nigerian female students have been sexually harassed in universities (Geidam, Njoku, & Bako, 2010), while many faculty members have been suspended or dismissed from the Nigerian public higher education institutions (HEIs) for their engagement in negative deviant acts (Adekoya, 2017; Dike, 2017; Ogunbodede, 2018).

The present study focused on the public higher educational institutions (HEIs) in Nigeria because education is the bedrock of the national development (ICPC, 2013) and every professional in both private and public establishments are products of educational system. To buttress the importance of educational sector to the national development, Youmans (2011) and Martin (2009) stated that plagiarism in the classroom may lead to plagiarism in the workplace, in government and online learning (Jackson, 2006), and in peer-reviewed publications (Long, Errami, George, Sun, & Garner, 2009). Also, negative deviance in Nigerian HEIs is a national problem as attested to by President Muhammadu Buhari on October 24, 2015, when he warned faculty members to desist from all forms of unethical acts and academic corruption at the 31st convocation and 40th anniversary of University of Ilorin, north-central, Nigeria (Babachir, 2015). Hence, if deviance is not remedied in HEIs, then the spiraling effects on the nation will be unimaginable.

News media reported that deviant behaviours are on the increase perpetrated by the management, academics, and non-teaching staff of various tertiary institutions in Nigeria and practical instances of unethical acts exhibited by the faculty members abound in Nigerian higher educational institutions (Jekayinfa, 2013). The major deviant acts noticeable on Nigerian campuses include sexual harassment, taking institutions' properties without authorization, spending excessive hours daydreaming, theft from co-workers, absence from lectures without prior notice to the students and academic

plagiarism. Others include awards of undeserved marks to selected students due to sexual or financial gratifications, failure to complete required syllabus, failure to undertake community service among others (Adebayo & Nwabuoku, 2008; Ajayi & Adeniji, 2009; Jekayinfa, 2013; Salami, 2010).

Specifically, on April 19, 2018, the management of Obafemi Awolowo University, Nigeria, suspended a professor in the faculty of management and accounting after his telephone conversation with a female student leaked to the public. In the said audio recording, the professor demanded for five rounds of sex to enable the female student pass his subject, which she had already failed (Ogunbodede, 2018). Also, on August 18, 2017, the governing council of Delta State University, Abraka, Nigeria, sacked 14 faculty members and 17 non-academic staff members for unethical acts such as plagiarism, sexual harassment, property theft, extortion of money from students, alteration of students' scores, and absenteeism (Dike, 2017). Similarly, Adekoya (2017) reported that on September 7, 2017, the governing council of Lagos state university sacked 15 faculty members, including the chapter chairman of the academic staff union of universities for their involvement in series of deviant acts. In a similar development, Makinde (2013) reported that the governing council of Ekiti State University in Nigeria dismissed six lecturers for offences, such as academic plagiarism, manipulation of examination scores, and sexual harassment. Also, it was reported that a professor and two other lecturers at the Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Nigeria, had their appointments terminated due to plagiarism (Adedeji, 2013). In a related development, a lecturer at the Federal Polytechnic Bida, Nigeria, was suspended for sexual harassment while another was forced to resign his appointment at University of Ilorin (Nwogu, 2016; Opara, 2016).

There are two school of thoughts on workplace deviance, and the debates centred on the destructive and constructive nature of deviance (Durkheim, 1984; Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2016; Warren, 2003). While some believe that deviance is necessary to advance social cause and move away from formalized structures (Durkheim, 1984; Warren, 2003), the other school of thought considered deviance as having destructive tendencies on a formal system (Morrow, McElroy, & Scheibe, 2011; Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012). Given the importance of education to the national development, there is a need to tackle deviance effectively in HEIs. Hence, the present study supports the school of thought which considered deviance as destructive. Therefore, the researcher focused on unethical acts which a faculty member engages him/herself in the discharge of his/her responsibilities. Furthermore, consistent with the mandate of President Muhammadu Buhari to confront negative deviance in all facets of Nigeria, the present study is a scholarly attempt toward responding to a national call.

1.2 Problem statement

Past scholarly efforts have focused on positive behaviours such as organizational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee engagement among others (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998). But in recent times, attention has shifted to behaviours that have negative consequences on the organization and organizational members (Agboola & Salawu, 2011; Lee & Ok, 2014). One of such behaviours is deviant workplace behaviour. Theoretically, many theories have been used to explain workplace deviance, such as theory of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), theory of distributive justice (Adams, 1965), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), theory of strain (Agnew, 1985, 1992) and theory of social learning (Bandura, 1963). However, the literature indicates a lack of application of the facets of fraud

triangle theory-FTT (Cressey, 1950). Although FTT is commonly used to explain unethical acts related to financial accounting, it has a theoretical value in the study of workplace deviance because fraud is a subset of unethical behaviour. Fraud and deviance have certain features in common. Firstly, both are deliberate, intentional, predetermined and calculated acts in the organization. Secondly, both are norms-violating behaviours and threaten organizational well-being and the well-being of organizational members. Thirdly, a good understanding of fraud triangle theory is essential in formulating preventive strategies against undesired behaviours such as deviance and frauds. Fourthly, the individual who engages in deviance or fraud understands the consequences of his/her action (Griffin & Lopez, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Therefore, the present study uses an FTT-like framework by adopting the facets of FTT (i.e. opportunity, pressure on the individual, and neutralization) to predict both organizational and interpersonal deviance among lecturers in Nigerian public universities and polytechnics.

Firstly, opportunity refers to the ability to override organization's internal controls mechanisms (Rae & Subramanian, 2008). It is viewed as an organizational factor because it is from the organizational procedures and practices that organization's shortcomings and weaknesses are discovered. Past studies have focused attention on organizational factors such as organizational justice/injustice (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013; Henle, 2005), organizational formal control (Detert, Trevino, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007; Higgins, 2012; Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2013), internal control weaknesses and lack of disciplinary action (Sausser, 2007). However, within deviance literature, studies on ethical climate seem to have been under-researched. In addition, institutional policy likewise may create or deny opportunity for faculty members to

behave unethically because lecturers' determinations to act morally or otherwise are expressively influenced by institutional policy and its effectiveness (Bommer, Gratto, Gravander, & Tuttle, 1987; Hegarty & Sims, 1979; O'Toole, 2000). Institutional policies give directions to deterrent measures and supervisors/HoDs may inspire behaviour through punishment and rewards policies thereby creating sound ethical climate (Trevino et al, 2005, 2006). However, past studies have not examined the relationship between institutional policy and deviance, especially among faculty members. Favourable ethical climate and effective institutional policies are required in Nigerian HEIs, but this is hard to attain (Adeniji. 2011). The reason can be traced to some Nigerian factors such as god-fatherism, favouritism, corruption, and weak deterrent measures (Inuwa, & Yusof, 2012; Jekayinfa, 2013; Olasehinde-Williams, 2006). Inuwa and Yusof (2012) found that organizational climate in Nigerian educational institutions does not encourage teaching and learning. Furthermore, Simha and Cullen (2012), Litzky, Eddleston, and Kidder (2006) and Martin and Cullen (2006) indicated that the relationship between ethical climates and unethical behaviours has remained largely uninvestigated.

Secondly, financial, non-financial, job-related, family and economic pressure can make subordinates engage in unethical acts (Albrecht, Albrecht, & Albrecht, 2008; Cressey, 1950). FTT's facet of pressure is considered a job-related factor because the multitude of tasks that are needed to be performed put pressure on academics. Albrecht, Albrecht, and Albrecht (2008) argued that pressure is job-related and may influence behavioural outcomes. Past studies reported that one of the most stressful jobs is teaching because it is associated with high workload, low salary, big class sizes, high emotional demands, high work pressure, student misbehaviour and low status (Burke & Greenglass, 1994;

Carlson & Thompson, 1995; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). According to the government reports on Nigerian public universities and polytechnics (2012, 2014), the workloads of faculty members relating to teaching, project supervision, research, publications and community services have increased in the recent times. For instance, the National board for technical education (NBTE) stipulates that a normal class size is 40 carrying capacity for any programme, but some public polytechnics admit above 200 students to a programme, probably to increase their internally generated revenue.

The Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB), the establishment charged with the responsibility of conducting entrance examinations into all tertiary institutions in Nigeria released a statement in March 2018 indicating that a total of 1,652,825 admission seekers wrote the March 2018 entrance examinations to Nigerian tertiary institutions (JAMB 2018 report). Unfortunately, the total carrying capacity of all the HEIs in Nigeria is less than 30% of the applications because of inadequate infrastructural facilities and insufficient manpower in HEIs. However, more than 50% of the admission seekers were admitted by the HEIs to generate higher revenues. The expansion has contributed to the increased stress level among faculty members (Adeoti, Shamsudin, & Wan, 2017b; Metcalf, Rolfe, & Weale, 2005).

Due to the enormous tasks of teaching, project supervision, publications, community services and other administrative responsibilities, it is essential to determine whether job pressure (work pressure and work overload) contributes to deviance among lecturers. Few scholars studied job demands and job stress, but not in relation to organizational and interpersonal deviance (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, & Stough, 2001; Houston, Meyer, & Paewei, 2006; Omar, Halim, Zainah, & Farhadi, 2011).

Neutralization centers on the cognitive and/or socially interactive stage before individuals exhibit a norm-contradicting behaviour (Sykes & Matza, 1957). Also, neutralization is considered a mediating variable to enhance to the original FTT and this position is backed by Chatzidakis, Hibbert, and Smith (2007) and Lim (2002). The accessibility of valid accounts in the run-up to a norm violation should increase the likelihood of its execution. In contrast, low accessibility of valid pre-behavioural accounts is assumed to prevent norm-contradictive behaviour (Fritsche, 2003, 2005). For example, whenever a faculty member experiences procedural, distributive and interactional injustice, he/she may cite injustice as a justification for engaging in unethical acts. If this holds true, a central aim of organizational and interpersonal deviance prevention programs should be the elimination of a deviant's neutralization repertoires (Bennett, Lehman, & Reynolds, 2000). The present study is located within the submission of Harvey, Weber, and Orobuch (1990) who stated that neutralization takes place before engaging in deviant behaviour.

Also, the present study identified the incompleteness of assumptions about the predictors of organizational and interpersonal deviance. First, Oliveira (2002, p.17) argued that "little attention has been paid to the investigation of spirituality as a cultural phenomenon that might influence organizational behaviour and induce organizational change". Secondly, Ayoun, Rowe and Yassine (2015) called for future studies on the relationship between workplace spirituality and unethical acts. Workplace spirituality has gained the interest of scholars and practitioners in the recent time (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Cavanagh & Bandsuch, 2002; Gotsis & Kortezi, 2008; Kahn & Sheikh, 2012), but studies on workplace spirituality are missing in most organizational and

interpersonal deviance literature, especially among academics (Guillén, Ferrero, & Hoffman, 2015).

Besides, most studies on workplace spirituality are largely theoretical rather than empirical (Gupta, Kumar, & Singh, 2013), but if properly managed, workplace spirituality may become an individual mechanism to control behaviour at work (James, Miles, & Mullins, 2011; Weitz, Vardi, & Setter, 2012). Therefore, since there is a scarcity of studies that examined the influence of workplace spirituality on deviant behaviour, the present study proposes theoretical linkages between workplace spirituality and both organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Furthermore, studies on the relationship between opportunity, job pressure, neutralization and both organizational and interpersonal deviance in HEIs are very rare (Bolin, 2004; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Davis, Grover, Becker, & McGregor, 1992; Haines, Dickhoff, LaBeff, & Clark, 1986; Yu, 2013), while the available literature on neutralization have reported inconclusive results because offenders have been found both with a solid belief in their moral obligations/beliefs and without (Cloward, & Ohlin, 2013; Hirschi, 1969; Schoepfer & Piquero, 2006; Sykes & Matza, 1957; Yu, 2013). Hence, Travis Hirschi, the protagonist of social control theory raised the question as to whether the offender develops neutralization techniques to neutralize unethical acts before or after wrongdoings. It is possible for offenders to either neutralize before or after committing unethical acts and this constitutes inconsistency since adolescents have neutralized both before and after norm-violating behaviour provided opportunity exists (Cloward & Ohlin, 2013; Sykes & Matza, 1957; Yu, 2013).

Based on these inconsistencies, the researcher considered the introduction of a moderating variable as essential, keeping in mind Baron and Kenny's (1986, p. 1174) definition of a moderator as a "variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable" The question of whether job pressure and opportunity as perceived by the academic staff would directly or indirectly affect their justifications which may eventually lead to engagement in deviant workplace behaviour remains unanswered. Therefore, since the moderating effect of self-control on the present model among academics in Nigeria is yet to be known, the researcher is optimistic that the level of self-control of faculty members (high or low) would impact on neutralization and both organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Although past studies have considered self-control in relation to revenge (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008), negative reciprocity beliefs, and trait of anger (Restubog, Garcia, Wang, & Cheng, 2010), the present study is different because self-control was treated as a predictor in those studies not a moderating variable. Hence, the present study considers a moderating variable to enhance fraud triangle theory by making efforts to determine whether opportunity, and job pressure can increase justifications for organizational and interpersonal deviance even when the faculty members have self-control. The next section raises some pertinent research questions.

1.3 Research questions

The broad research question is whether opportunity and job pressure increase justifications for organizational and interpersonal deviance notwithstanding the faculty members' level of self-control? Also, the present study asked specific questions as follows:

1. Does a relationship exist between the constituents of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and both organizational (OD) and interpersonal deviance (ID)?
2. Are there relationships between the dimensions of job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and both OD and ID?
3. Does neutralization mediate the relationship between opportunity (ethical climate and institutional policy) and both OD and ID?
4. Does neutralization mediate the relationship between dimensions of job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and both OD and ID?
5. Is there a significant relationship between workplace spirituality and both organizational and interpersonal deviance?
6. Does self-control moderate the relationship between opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and neutralization?
7. Does self-control moderate the relationship between dimensions of job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and neutralization? The next section highlights the research objectives.

1.4 Research objectives

The broad research objective is to determine whether opportunity and job pressure increase justifications for organizational and interpersonal deviance notwithstanding the faculty members' level of self-control. Also, the specific research objectives include:

1. To examine the relationship between the constituents of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and both organizational (OD) and interpersonal deviance (ID).
2. To examine the relationship between the dimensions of job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and both OD and ID

3. To examine the mediating role of neutralization on the relationship between opportunity (ethical climate and institutional policy) and both OD and ID
4. To examine whether neutralization mediates the relationship between job pressure (workload and work pressure) and both OD and ID.
5. To determine the relationship between workplace spirituality and both organizational and interpersonal deviance
6. To examine self-control as a moderator in the relationship between the constituents of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and neutralization.
7. To examine self-control as a moderator in the relationship between job pressure (workload and work pressure) and neutralization

1.5 Scope of study

The geographical coverage of this research is Nigeria. Nigeria has a population above 188,462,640 (Wikipedia, 2017; World Bank, 2015) and a total area of 923,768 km². Nigeria has 36 states categorized into six geo-political zones with the federal capital in Abuja (FCT). This study focused on faculty members in public HEIs in the north-central zone comprising Kwara, Kogi, Niger, Nasarawa, Benue, and Plateau states.

The choice of public HEIs is justified because it is claimed that are laxities in institutional policies of public institutions which create rooms for unethical acts (Omonijo, Uche, Nwadiafor, & Rotimi, 2013). Secondly, most reported cases of deviance in Nigerian HEIs took place in public HEIs. For instance, Geidam, Njoku, and Bako (2011) found that nearly 51.3% of Nigerian female students have been sexually harassed in Nigerian universities. Similarly, Adedeji (2013) reported that a professor and two other lecturers were dismissed for plagiarism at the Federal University of

Agriculture, Abeokuta. At the University of Lagos, Nigeria, a senior lecturer was sacked for raping a female admission seeker in his office (Nigerian Feminist Forum, 2015). Similarly, the governing council of Delta State University sacked 14 faculty members on August 18, 2017 for unethical acts such as plagiarism, property theft, alteration of students' scores, financial extortion from students, plagiarism and unauthorized absenteeism (Dike, 2017; Oni, 2015, 2016).

Public HEIs in the north-central region of Nigeria have more persistent incidents of deviance. It is on record that lecturers at Federal polytechnic, Bida and University of Ilorin have been suspended for sexual harassment and rape (Elijah, 2016; Oni, 2016; Opara, 2016). At the Ibrahim Badamasi University, Lapai (north-central), some lecturers were suspended for sexual harassment, financial extortion and other unethical acts (Awojulugbe, 2017). Similarly, the current Vice Chancellor of Kogi state university (north-central) made it clear in his inaugural speech that he would not tolerate any act of deviance (Oni, 2015). In a nut shell, negative deviance is prevalent in north-central zone. Also, activities of Boko haram in the north-east and parts of north-western states made these two zones inaccessible for the researcher (Aghedo & Osumah, 2012; Shuaibu, Salleh, & Shehu, 2015). Significance of the study is discussed next.

1.6 Significance of study

The adoption of an FTT-like framework to explain both organizational and interpersonal deviance provide theoretical support for the understanding of deviance. The study enhanced the model by introducing self-control as a moderator. In the original FTT, the relationship between the three components is assumed to be direct and the three facets treated as independent variables. But neutralization is not practical to be regarded as an independent variable because it is a cognitive process involved in justifying the deviant

act before it is committed. Therefore, the FTT-like framework adopted in the present study considered neutralization as a mediator. This is because social relationships are more complex and complicated (Barber, 1983; Lewis & Weigert, 1985) and the inclusion of a moderator and mediator reflect this without compromising the scientific hallmark of parsimony.

The findings of the present study added empirical evidence to the limited literature on deviance in Nigerian public HEIs. Practically, the results of this study will help policy makers in both federal and state ministries of education to formulate appropriate framework and policies to address interpersonal and organizational deviance in public HEIs. Also, the regulatory institutions such as the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and the National Universities Commission (NUC) will find this study helpful. For instance, results revealed that work pressure is positively to interpersonal deviance, which implies that the regulatory bodies need to think of ways to revisit the work pressure of faculty members.

Despite the manifestations of deviance among academics in Nigeria, past studies have not examined workplace spirituality in relations to workplace deviance in Nigerian institutions (Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2012; Ajala, 2013; Oluwole, 2008, 2009). This prompted the researcher to examine the relationship between workplace spirituality and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Also, the present study is in line with the vision of President Buhari to minimize unethical acts in all facets of Nigeria.

1.7 Key terms

Below are the operational definitions of the key constructs in this study:

Firstly, in agreement with Bennett and Robinson (2000), the present study considered workplace deviance as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of organizational and interpersonal deviance. Organizational deviance (OD) includes all forms of unruly behaviours exhibited by the faculty members towards the institution or her assets while those unethical acts whose primary targets are colleagues, students and other institutional members is regarded as interpersonal deviance (ID). Secondly, ethical climate is the faculty members' perception of right and wrong behaviours in organizations. Thirdly, institutional policy is any standard, statement, or procedure of general applicability adopted by the management of HEIs pursuant to authority delegated by law or the governing council.

Fourthly, dimensions of job pressure studied are academic workload and work pressure. Academic workload is operationalized as the professional efforts a faculty member devotes to activities such as teaching, research, publications, and community services (Adeoti, Shamsudin, & Wan, 2017b; Allen, 1996; Jex, 1998) while work pressure is the degree to which an academic works fast and hard with enormous responsibilities, but with limited time (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Furthermore, neutralization is a cognitive process that takes place before a deviant act is committed. It helps to neutralize self-blame, blame of others and justify unethical acts.

On the other hand, workplace spirituality is conceptualized as a framework of organizational values evidenced in the culture that promotes employees' experience of transcendence through the work process, which facilitates a feeling of attachments, completeness and joy (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Lastly, self-control is the ability

to overrule one's inner responses, as well as ability to interrupt undesired behavioural tendencies and refrain from acting on them. The next section indicates the arrangements of the present study.

1.8 Organization of thesis

The present study is divided into five chapters. Firstly, chapter one discusses problem statement, research questions, background of study, research objectives, scope of study, significance of study, and research structure. Secondly, the researcher reviewed the contributions made by different scholars in line with the present model. Furthermore, various theories were reviewed to support hypotheses. Additionally, chapter three gives a brief description of research philosophy, research design, data collection procedures, sampling technique, pilot study, methods of data analysis, measurement of variables and instrumentation while chapter four presents the results of the study based on PLS-SEM analyses.

Lastly, chapter five elaborates the key findings in consonance with research questions and objectives of study. In addition, it highlights theoretical, and practical implications of the study including research directions for future research. Chapter five also outlines limitations of the present study and conclusion.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The current section focuses on critical reviews of relevant literature pertaining to the current study. Also, it discussed fraud triangle theory and other supporting theories. Additionally, the section raised hypotheses on the bases of past empirical findings, practical realities/experience and theoretical views.

2.2 Conceptualization of deviant workplace behaviour (DWB)

Historically, the sociology of deviant behaviour can be traced to Marshall B. Clinard (1911-2010), an American professor emeritus of sociology. He propounded an early codification of deviant behaviour in 1957. However, since 1957 when the concept was first introduced, there has been no consensus among scholars and researchers as to a uniform definition of deviant behaviours because the same concept has been studied using different terminologies (Shamsudin, 2006). The commonest definition was given by Robinson and Bennett (1995) as any voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members or both.

In sociology, deviance describes an action or behaviour which violates social norms or formally enacted rules (Kaplan, 1975). Deviance is the absence of conformity to norms, rules and societal expectations. Also, Sackett and DeVore (2001) defined deviance as calculated behaviour on the part of an organizational member viewed as divergent and contrary to valid or legitimate interests of the organization while Warren (2003) explained deviance as behavioural departures from the norms of a reference group.

Also, deviance can be said to be different forms of behaviours or acts which are inconsistent with the rules and regulations of an organizational set up (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Hollinger & Clark, 1982). Because of the negative consequences of workplace deviance, many studies have been conducted on deviance under different descriptions among which are: wrongful behaviours (Shamsudin, Subramaniam, & Ibrahim, 2012), aggression (Doughlas & Martinko, 2001), cyber loafing (Lim, 2002; Lim & Teo, 2009), organisational misbehaviour (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999; Vardi & Weitz, 2004), anti-social behaviour of employees (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), anti-social employee action (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), non-compliant behaviours defined as breaking ethical rules or norms and behaviours that have negative implications on the organization such as being late to work, employee complaining about his organisation and violating organizational rules, among others (Puffer, 1987). Others are dysfunctional work behaviour (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998), and incivility in workplace (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Lim & Lee, 2011; Morrow, McElroy, & Scheibe, 2011; Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012).

Another term used to describe deviance is counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). CWB is described as behaviours in the workplace that is intentional and detrimental to an organization and its members, including such acts as theft, refusal to follow superior officer's instructions and doing work incorrectly (Fox et al., 2001; Mangione & Quinn, 1975). In addition, Shamsudin, Subramaniam and Ibrahim (2012) regarded deviance as wrongful behaviours described as acts which are inconsistent with the norms of the organization with tendency to harm the organization's interest or effectiveness in the long run. In brief, Ackroyd and Thompson (1999) regarded workplace deviance as whatever an employee does at work which he/she is not expected to do.

There exists positive and negative deviance, but most scholars focus on the latter. Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2004) offered a normative definition of positive deviance as intentional behaviours that depart from the norms of a referent group in honourable ways. However, most researchers have conceptualized deviance as a negative set of behaviours overlooking how organizations and their members partake in positive behaviours (Bhatti, Alkahtani, Hassan, & Sulaiman, 2015; Kidwell & Valentine, 2009; Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2007), but Kura, Shamsudin and Chauhan (2016), Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2004), and Warren (2003) found that deviance can be constructive and beneficial to an organization. For example, in academic setting, a faculty member who feels that the four-hour lecture allocated to him/her per week is inadequate to complete the required syllabus and decides to run a six-hour lecture per week at no extra cost to the students nor expecting over-time payment from the university, such a deviance is beneficial to the university. In general, positive deviance may thrive in an institution which creates opportunity for faculty members to explore their creativity, innovation and ingenuity.

The present research problem focused on negative deviance in Nigerian public higher education institutions (HEIs) because negative deviance seems to be more prevalent in Nigerian public HEIs than positive deviance (Omonijo et al., 2013). Hence, this study conceptualized deviant workplace behaviour as intentional and deliberate norm-violating behaviour exhibited by faculty members which causes harm to the institution, its assets/properties and colleagues/students and other stakeholders of HEIs. The next sub-section presents two different perspectives of deviance.

2.2.1 Management and sociological perspectives of deviance

The management perspective of deviance suggests that deviance is a negative phenomenon. Hence, most of studies focused on destructive aspects of deviance (Morrow, McElroy, & Scheibe, 2011; Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012). On the other hand, the sociological perspective argues that deviance is not necessarily negative as it allows employees room for personal expression to resist the formalized and organized control at work.

Firstly, deviance is a natural and essential fragment of any society. Since deviance can severely disrupt social order, it may seem like a paradox that it can be a good thing in the society. According to Durkheim (1984), deviance performs four essential functions. First, it affirms cultural norms and values. That is, deviance enables people to voice out against any formal structure, rules and practices considered as anti-culture or against the values of the people. For example, as the case in South Africa where the locals rose against the apartheid government which attempted to erode cultural norms and values of the people (The International Centre on Non-violent Conflict report, 2016; Kurtz, 2010). Also, deviance helps to distinguish right from wrong as some people who perceived wrong doings cannot keep mute. For example, some blacks have organized mass rallies and campaigns against racism in some western countries. Thirdly, deviance unites the workforce together, especially when the end-goal may offer benefits to the entire workforce. For instance, a collective industrial strike action embarked upon by faculty members in Nigerian universities to compel the management to implement favourable human resource policies or payment of legitimate outstanding allowances/salaries. And finally, deviance encourages social change. It implies that deviance may lead to reformation and change in any social context. For example, many

revolutions and changes all over the world were precipitated by people who were not ready to maintain the status quo. In the Nigerian academic setting, staff unions have embarked on mass protests to oust some corrupt Vice-Chancellors and Rectors of public universities and polytechnics, respectively. The protests have led to the dismissal and/or suspension of Vice-Chancellors and Rectors in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Federal Polytechnic, Kaura Namoda, and deputy rector at the Auchi Polytechnic, Edo State, among others (Agency Report, 2017; Ojomoyela, 2018; Oyedeji, 2017).

Although deviance is both constructive and destructive (Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2016; Warren, 2003), the present study was interested in the destructive deviance because in the Nigeria's context, it seems that deviance tends to be destructive rather than constructive because the deviant acts exhibited by faculty members tend to affect negatively the stakeholders in HEIs (Geidam et al., 2010; Jekayinfa, 2013; Ogunbodede, 2018). Hence, the present study adopted management perspective of deviance with the hope of minimizing negative deviance among faculty members in HEIs. The next sub-topic focuses on typologies of workplace deviance.

2.2.2 Typology of deviant workplace behaviour

Deviance encompasses a variety of undesired behaviours ranging from negligible to non-negligible issues such as spreading of rumours, personal aggression and theft (Wellen, 2004), workplace sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006), abusive supervision (Bello, 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), sexual harassment (Gutek, 1985; Martin & Hine, 2005; Ogunbameru, 2006), unethical decision making (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990) and other unethical acts detrimental to both the organization and organizational members.

The present study adopted the typology of workplace deviance put forward by Robinson and Bennett (1995). Robinson and Bennett (1995) stated that deviant workplace behaviours vary along two dimensions: minor versus serious, and interpersonal versus organizational. The main justification is because the deviant dimensions identified are applicable to tertiary institutions in Nigeria. Another justification is that other typologies focus on specific facets of deviance, but in real sense, employees engage in a wider range of voluntary behaviours that violate organizational norms. Also, the typology has been adopted widely by many authors (Akikibofori, 2013; Bhatti, Alkahtani, Hassan, & Sulaiman, 2015; Kura, 2014; Litzky, Eddleston, & Kidder, 2006).

Based on their former classifications of DWB in 1995, Bennett and Robinson (2000) categorized workplace deviant behaviours into either being directed towards individuals or organisations. The former category is referred to as interpersonal deviance, which harms individuals while the latter category is referred to as organisational deviance which harms the organisations and organizational properties. Similarly, Vardi and Wiener (1996) identified two types of deviant behaviours called type 'S' deviance and type 'O' deviance. The type 'S' deviance benefits oneself such as theft of goods for personal benefits while type 'O' deviance benefits the organization such as over-charging of customers on behalf of the organization. Also, when an employee becomes a whistle-blower and exposes his colleagues' fraudulent practices (voicing) instead of teamwork, such a behaviour is beneficial to the organization (Type 'O' deviance). Figure 2.1 presents the typology of deviance as adopted in the present study.

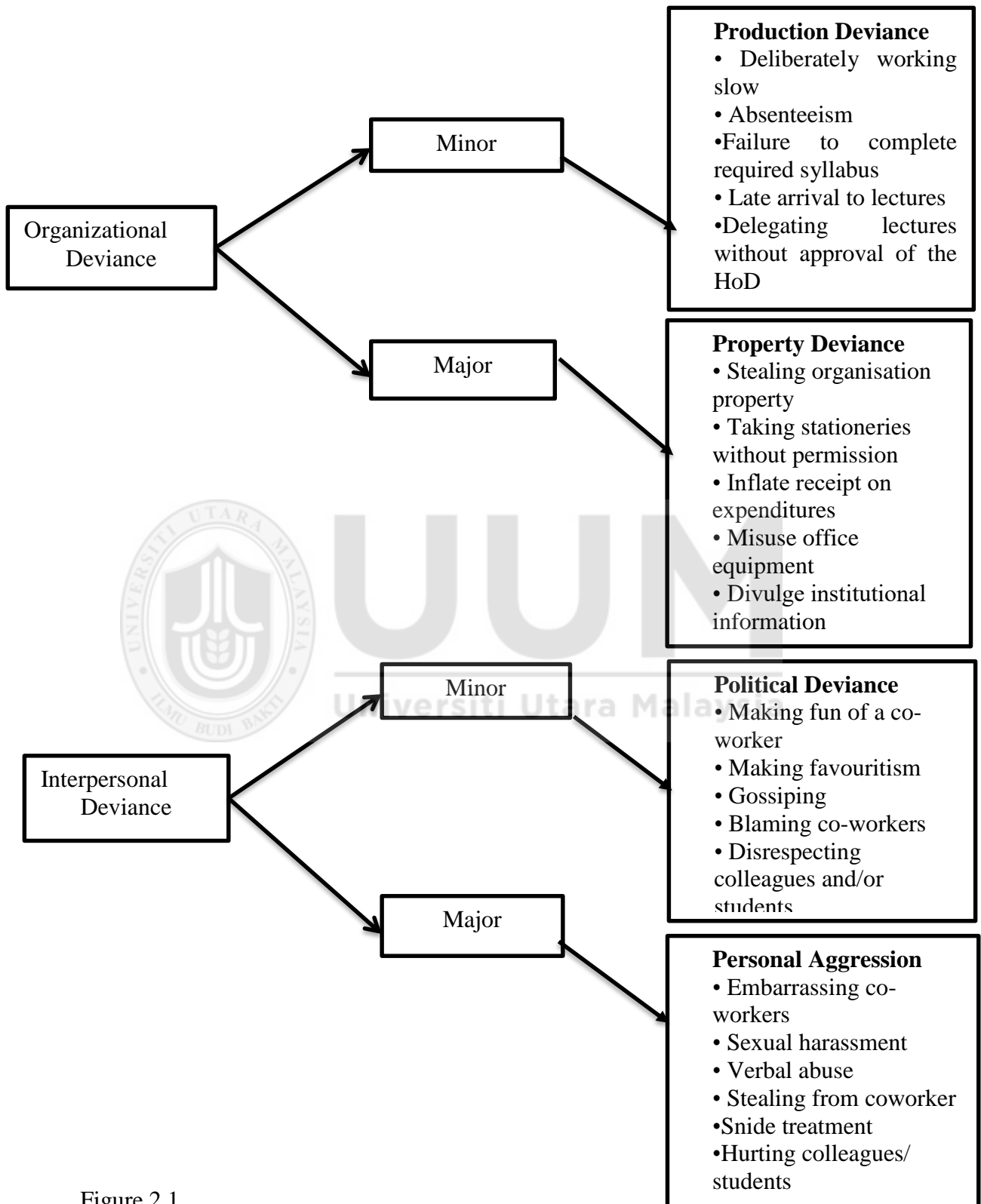


Figure 2.1

Typology of Deviant Behaviours

Sources: Bennett and Robinson (2000), Browning (2009), Muafi (2011), and Robinson and Bennett (1995).

Also, Shamsudin, Subramanian and Ibrahim (2012) conducted a study on wrongful behaviours among manufacturing employees in Malaysia. The authors identified four distinct wrongful behaviours namely: irresponsible behaviour, non-productive behaviour, loitering behaviour and regarded fourth factor as unidentified, which consisted of performing personal tasks during work hours. However, because faculty members do engage in a wider range of deviance which violates institutional norms, the deviance typology by Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) is adopted.

In agreement with Bennett and Robinson (2000), the present study considered workplace deviance as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of organizational and interpersonal. Organizational deviance includes all forms of unruly behaviours exhibited by the employees towards the organizations or its assets while those unethical acts whose primary targets are colleagues, students and other organizational members is regarded as interpersonal deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The next section presents the underpinning theory and other supporting theories for the present study.

2.3 Underpinning theories

From a theoretical perspective, different scholars have employed different theories to explain deviance. These theories are useful in understanding the manifestations of deviance at work, but the current study adopted fraud triangle theory-like framework to predict the internal conditions and a cognitive resource (neutralization/justifications) that may lead to both organizational and interpersonal deviance.

2.3.1 Fraud triangle theory

The main underpinning theory for the present study is the fraud triangle theory-FTT (Cressey, 1950). FTT is a theory designed to explain the purported circumstances that

must prevail before a decision to commit fraud can thrive. There are three facets of the theory. First, opportunity is created when there is loose internal control, weak corporate governance, and lack of deterrence measures, loose policy, and poor ethical climate (Rae & Subramaniam, 2008). Secondly, pressure simply means the emotional force, either job-related or financials pushing the would-be deviants (Lister, 2007). Thirdly, neutralization involves justifications by giving morally acceptable reasons for engaging in unethical acts.

The major contribution of this study is the adoption of an FTT-like framework to explain both organizational and interpersonal deviance because previous studies have not employed FTT in the study of deviance (Abdullahi & Mansor, 2015; Dorminey, Fleming, Kranacher, & Riley, 2012). The present study sought to extend FTT by testing its applicability in deviance other than financial fraud, which would make it more useful in understanding unethical acts.

Firstly, the facet of opportunity posits that internal conditions may create room for deviance because of ability of faculty members to override internal control or to take opportunity of lapses in organizational internal conditions in the forms of loose internal control, loose policy, weak corporate governance, and lack of deterrence measures, and poor ethical climate (Rae & Subramaniam, 2008). In the first instance, loose internal control and loose policy create avenues for the would-be deviants to engage in deviance because of the tendency to either escape punitive measures or absence of internal control mechanisms to identify such deviant acts. In the second instance, the organizational climate may breed deviance when the top management behaviour is perceived as unethical but opportunity for deviance is blocked when the top management behaviour is adjudged to be ethical (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005).

Secondly, FTT's facet of pressure postulates that when there is pressure, be it economic, job-related, family, or environmental pressure, such conditions may breed deviance and other forms of unethical acts (Cressey, 1950). In Nigerian higher education institutions (HEIs), job pressure on academics is felt mostly in the forms of academic workload and work pressure. Surprisingly, these dimensions of job pressure have not been explored in relation to both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Generally, teaching is a very demanding occupation due to emotional demands, huge class sizes, insufficient resources, high workload, poor salary and pressure to attract external funding for publications, low status of the profession, student unruly behaviour and role conflict (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). In Nigerian context, the job pressure on academics is higher, probably due to the level of development and specifically the amount of academic workload, poor salary package and work pressure involved (Houston, Meyer, & Paewei, 2006; Omolayo & Omole, 2013).

Other key performance indicators which increase job pressure of faculty members include upsurge in enrollment rate which has led to imbalance in faculty-student ratios, standardized test scores, government policy on graduation rates, faculty teaching loads, and faculty scholarly activities (Ruben, 1999). Undoubtedly, the facet of pressure is conceived as emotional and job-related forces that push faculty members towards unethical behaviours at work (Lister, 2007).

The third facet of the FTT-like framework is neutralization. However, unlike the original FTT with rationalization, neutralization was investigated as a potential mediator in the current study because it is a cognitive process which precedes deviant acts and adoption of neutralization as a mediator is in line with the recommendations of past studies (Lim, 2002; Thurman, 1984). Furthermore, in the original FTT, emphasis was

on justifications after frauds have been committed to be free from guilt (Cressey, 1950; Sykes & Matza, 1957) but the present study is concerned with justifications for unethical acts before it is committed. From theoretical perspective, neutralization theory supports this view. The third facet of FTT explains that if faculty members can suppress their moral compass, then it will become easier for them to engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance.

To enhance the original FTT, the researcher introduced self-control as a moderator on the model. Self-control is the ability to override or change one's inner responses, as well as ability to interrupt undesired behavioural tendencies and refrain from acting on them (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). The view of the researcher is based on the recommendation of Wolfe and Hermanson (2004) who proposed a new fraud triangle model named 'fraud diamond model' which considered personal capability as an additional impetus or factor that is likely to contribute to negative acts at work. In this study, the researcher considered self-control as a personal factor expected to buffer the interactions in the present constructs. The rate of deviance will be lower for faculty members who have high level of self-control and vice-versa. This agrees with general theory of crime, otherwise referred to as theory of self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

Theory of self-control theorized that the single most important factor behind crime, adolescent delinquency and deviance is individual lack of self-control. Trompeter, Carpenter, Jones, and Riley (2014) also suggested that the impact of individual traits and attributes on deviance should be studied further. Therefore, the successful adoption of FTT as the underpinning theory will enable the researcher fill theoretical gaps. The

other supporting theories are neutralization and social control theories. Graphical representation of FTT is shown in Figure 2.2.

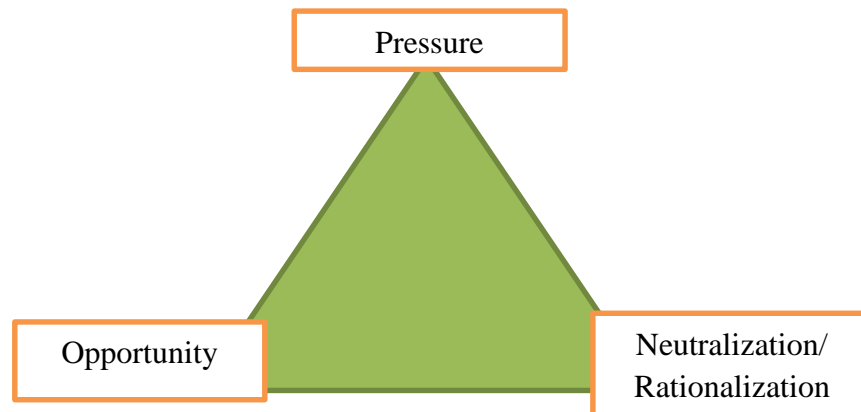


Figure 2.2
Fraud Triangle Theory
Source: Cressey (1950).

2.3.2 Social control theory

Social control theory states that exploiting the process of socialization and social learning builds self-control and reduces the inclination to indulge in behaviour recognized as antisocial. According to the social control theory (Hirschi, 1969), individuals are discouraged from engaging in deviant acts because of their bonds with social institutions such as workplace, religion, spirituality, and family. This theory posits that attachments to social institutions helps to minimize lecturers' tendency to engage in deviant acts and crime.

Social control theory states that unethical acts and deviance may occur when bonds are weakened or loosed. Conversely, when this attachment or bonding is strong, it reinforces an employee's purpose or meaningfulness at work (a form of workplace spirituality) which in turn reduces deviance. The theory sought to know why people resist deviance and the possibility for all employees within the organization to maintain social bonds

needed to attain connectedness, transcendence, and harmonious working environment (Ahmad & Omar, 2014; Akers & Sellars, 2004).

Furthermore, social control theory proposes that people's relationships, commitments, values, norms, and beliefs encourage them not to break the law. In brief, individuals who possess this character trait in abundance (high level of self-control) will engage less in both organizational and interpersonal deviance than individuals who possess low level of self-control. Thus, if moral values are internalized and individuals have a stake in their wider community, they will voluntarily limit their propensity to commit deviance. Next is neutralization theory which explains the relationships amongst job pressure, opportunity dimensions and both organizational and interpersonal deviance.

2.3.3 Neutralization theory

Neutralization is a cognitive means by which those who wish to commit unethical or illegitimate acts temporarily neutralize certain values within themselves which would normally prohibit them from carrying out such acts, such as integrity, morality, obligation to abide by norms and laws, and so on. In simpler terms, it is a psychological method for people to turn off "inner protests" when they do or are about to do something they themselves perceive as wrong (Sykes & Matza, 1957). Simply put, neutralization means justifications given by prospective deviants which neutralize guilt feelings before unethical acts are committed. The higher the tendency to justify an unethical act, the higher the likelihood of its occurrence.

Neutralization theory submits that individuals who engage in deviant behaviours may give excuses justifiable to themselves that deviant acts are not unethical or immoral. Neutralization theory states that people feel justified to partake in unethical acts that

they would otherwise believe to be wrong once they can adduce moral reasons for their wrongful acts (Lim, 2002; Sykes & Matza, 1957). It further stated that individuals are largely allegiant (rather than oppositional) to a normative belief and must employ justifications to engage in deviant acts. Therefore, if lecturers have moral reasons to engage in deviance, then the rate of deviance would be higher.

According to Sykes and Matza (1957), the more tendencies to neutralize, the more likelihood to engage in both organizational and interpersonal deviance. The main techniques of neutralization generally manifest in the forms of statements such as: “everyone else does same thing”, “it wasn’t my fault”, “it wasn’t a big deal. They could afford the loss”, “They had it coming”, “you were just as bad in your day” and “my friends needed me. What was I going to do?” The next section presents the development of hypotheses.

2.4 Development of hypotheses

A hypothesis is a declarative statement on the proposed relationship amongst variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The present study formulated hypotheses based on theoretical perspectives, practice/experience and related past empirical studies.

2.4.1 Opportunity

Osgood, Wilson, O’Malley, Bachman, and Johnson (1996) stated that the motivation to commit any deviant act depends on the level of situational opportunities created by routine activities. In most situations, the motivation to deviate emerges when committing deviance is rewarding and easy. Therefore, routine activities accompanied by incessant exposure to situations that are conducive to DWB may lead to occurrence of deviance. According to Bernburg and Thorlindsson (2001), most versions of the

routine activity approach to deviant behaviour do not account for the social context of situational motivation and opportunity.

From theoretical perspective, social bonding supports the argument that routine activities are guided by the same factors that trigger deviant behaviour. Many acts of deviance, crimes, and adolescent delinquency have been traced to routine activity approach. This approach theorizes that opportunities that rise in routine activity is central in elucidating negative deviance and crimes. In the view of the researcher, the main tasks of faculty members include teaching, thesis supervision, community service, research and publications. These tasks are performed by the faculty members repeatedly year-in, year-out. Hence, they are repetitive/routine tasks.

According to Cohen and Felson (1979), the rate of deviance or crime depends on the frequency with which routine activities bring together a motivated offender (deviant), a suitable target (individual or organization) and the absence of a capable guardian-weakness of internal control, directing, monitoring, faulty policy implementation, and poor ethical climate. The contributions of Cohen and Felson (1979), Bernburg and Thorlindsson (2001) and Osgood et al. (1996) aptly describe the FTT's facet of opportunity and the working conditions that encourage faculty members to engage in deviance in HEIs. Also, it is worthy to note that the tasks performed by faculty members seem to be routine in Nigeria as faculty members on yearly basis teach, supervise theses, undertake community services, conduct researches and publish research findings.

In relation to fraud triangle theory (Cressey, 1950) and the present situations in Nigerian public HEIs, opportunity may be created by ineffective governance system, poor ethical climate, lack of internal control systems, and ineffective institutional policy which allow

an individual to engage in organizational misbehaviours. Also, Sauser (2007) described opportunity as organizational climate that neglects employees' breach of policies and lack of disciplinary actions which is also prevalent in Nigerian institutions. In brief, when opportunities for deviance present themselves, people who lack self-control are unable to resist the temptation (Bolin, 2004; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

In the present study, ethical climate and institutional policy represent the facet of opportunity in the fraud triangle theory-like framework adopted. Ethics has become an important issue because of the revelation of numerous business scandals (e.g., Enron, WorldCom, and Tyco). Simply put, ethics means just or right standards of behaviour among individuals in a situation. These standards are viewed as recognized social principles involving justice and fairness. According to Salamon and Mesko (2016), ethical climate is defined as individuals' perceptions of values, norms, procedures, and practices which guide ethical decisions.

Ethical climate created by the management of HEIs has the tendency to create or block opportunity for deviance and other unethical acts. The climate is mostly judged by the top management behaviour and how ethical issues are judged in the institutions. To support this statement, Lu and Lin (2014) found that ethical leadership had a significant and positive impact on ethical climate and ethical behaviour of employees. Also, Lu and Lin (2014) found that ethical climate was positively related to employee ethical behaviour. Similarly, Appelbaum et al. (2005) stated that top management behaviour is very important in sharpening the ethical climate of an organization.

In the present study, ethical climate is operationalized as individuals' perceptions of practices, procedures, norms, and values that govern ethical decisions in the

organizations. Additionally, it was intended to delineate those factors contributing to opportunity for unethical behaviour. On the other hand, institutional policy is conceptualized as any standard, statement, or procedure of general applicability adopted by the management of HEIs pursuant to authority delegated by law or the governing council. In the opinion of the researcher, neglect of employees' breach of policies, standards and lack of disciplinary actions may create a big opportunity for unethical acts.

More so, it should be noted that effectiveness of institutional policy is more related to organizational level. Hence the present study considered institutional policy at individual level, being a perceptual study. That is, how the faculty members perceive the policies of HEIs. In general, faculty members' observations of both ethical climate and institutional policy may either be favourable or unfavourable. In the view of the researcher, favourable ethical climate and institutional policy may deter engagement in both organizational and interpersonal deviance, while unfavourable ethical climate and institutional policies may create opportunity for organizational and interpersonal deviance.

2.4.1.1 Ethical climate and workplace deviance

Ethical climate means the prevailing organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Similarly, Martin and Cullen (2006) defined ethical climate as the perception of right and wrong behaviours in organizations and psychological mechanisms by which ethical issues are judged. The idea of shared perceptions associated with the definition of ethical climate gives this concept a subjective aspect and means that the existence of a type of ethical climate is only confirmed when most members in an organization or a unit consider that certain forms

of ethical reasoning or behaviours dominate the functioning of the system (Arnaud, 2010; Martin & Cullen, 2006). Also, it has been stated that the most important factor in ethical climate is the actual behaviour of top management; “what top managers do, and the culture they establish and reinforce, makes a big difference in the way lower-level employees act and in the way the organization acts when ethical dilemmas are faced” (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005, p. 44; Sims, 1992). Employees do attach/assign meanings to the behaviours of top managers and the leaders’ behaviour determine the actual behaviours of employees.

Studies indicated that the climate of an institution may be related to counterproductive behaviour such as tardiness, lax performance and absenteeism (Wimbush, Shepard, & Markham, 1997). However, despite empirical endeavours aimed at shaping employees’ behaviours at work, only limited studies have looked at the effects of ethical climate on organizational and interpersonal deviance (Peterson, 2002; Simha & Cullen, 2012; Vardi, 2001). Besides, Simha and Cullen (2012), Litzky, Eddleston, and Kidder (2006) and Martin and Cullen (2006) called for empirical studies to diagnose the relationship between ethical climates and unethical acts. Such calls became necessary because scholars believe that ethical climates could be used by managers to reduce workplace deviance (Simha & Cullen, 2012; Vardi, 2001). This is due to the immense benefits of ethical climate such as job satisfaction (Babin, Boles, & Robin, 2000; Valentine & Barnett, 2003), reduced turnover (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006), and increased organizational citizenship behaviour (Shahin, Shabani, & Khazaei, 2014). Thus, the ethical climate of an organization may be predictive of unethical acts (Ahmed & Machold, 2004; Leung, 2008; Smith et al., 2009).

Only few studies have partly investigated ethical climates in relation to deviance. Specifically, Vardi (2001) examined the effects of ethical climates on misconduct at work. The study sampled 97 employees from administration, marketing and production departments of an Israeli metal manufacturing plant. The study found a significant and negative relationship between organizational climate and organizational misbehaviour and between climate dimensions and organizational misbehaviour. Furthermore, Peterson (2002) found that the relationship between unethical behaviour and ethical climate is stronger in organizations that do not have a code of ethics. However, a difference was observed in the ethical climate for organizations with a code of ethics. Similarly, Feng-Jing, Avery, and Bergsteiner (2011) studied the relationship between performance in retail pharmacies and ethical climate in Australia. The result revealed that supportive climate is related to improved organizational performance, staff satisfaction, and customer satisfaction which may reduce staff turnover.

Consistent with the preceding paragraph, studies suggested that a relationship may exist between ethical climate of an organization and ethical behaviour of employees (Deshpande, 1996; Deshpande et al., 2000; Fritzsche, 2000). Furthermore, subordinates who judge their establishment as ethical are likely to consider such establishments as fair-minded to them, and this perception may breed positive behaviour (Koh & Boo, 2001; Lu & Lin, 2014). According to Appelbaum, Deguire, and Lay (2005) and Sims (1992), the most important factor in ethical climate is the actual behaviour of top management; “what top managers do, and the culture they establish and reinforce, makes a big difference in the way lower-level employees act and in the way the organization acts when ethical dilemmas are faced” (Sims, 1992; Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005, p. 44). Coupled with fraud triangle theory, the behaviours of some key

management staff in Nigerian public institutions create opportunity for negative deviance because codes of ethics are available, but they are not well implemented by the managements of HEIs.

In relation to deviance, Bulutlar and Oz (2009) collected data from 197 employees in Istanbul, Turkey, to study the effect of ethical climate on bullying behaviour at work. The study found a significant and negative relationship between ethical climate dimensions, and bullying behaviour. Similarly, it is pertinent to state that ethical climate sends signals to employees that deviant acts are not tolerated because the existence of law and codes create a negative relationship with deviance (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005; Erondu & Okpara, 2004; Fritzsche, 2000). Irrespective of the context, if the climate of an organization does not create room for unethical acts there is no way any subordinate can engage in deviance (Martin & Cullen, 2006).

From theoretical perspective, ethical climate is supported by the facet of opportunity in fraud triangle theory (Cressey, 1950). Fraud triangle theory's opportunity has two elements: (i) the organizational circumstances that may permit employee misbehaviours in forms of deviance, unethical or fraudulent acts (ii) the innate vulnerability of the firm to manipulation (Cressey, 1950; Hooper & Pornelli, 2010; Lister, 2007). For instance, Sauser (2007) stated that weak internal control, unfavourable working conditions, unfriendly human resource practices and partial disciplinary actions may make the internal conditions of an entity to be vulnerable. However, a favourable ethical climate of an organization has the tendency to override the internal elements that can create opportunity in FTT, because a favourable ethical climate may reduce unethical acts.

With the exceptions of few studies discussed above on ethical climate, the researcher is not aware of any study that has related ethical climate with organizational and interpersonal deviance, especially in HEIs. Therefore, this research responds to demands for empirical studies on the relationship between ethical climate and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Based on the above theoretic viewpoints and empirical findings, the subsequent hypotheses developed:

H1. Ethical climate is negatively related to interpersonal deviance.

H2. Ethical climate is negatively related to organizational deviance.

2.4.1.2 Institutional policy and workplace deviance

Institutional policy represents the facet of opportunity in FTT. Policies serve as guides to the running of an organization. Policy states the boundary within which organizational activities must be performed and gives directions to deterrence measures (Trevino et al., 2005, 2006). Also, policy may contain statements on reward and punishment to create a desired work climate. In other words, institutions may inspire behaviours through administration of punishment and rewards (Posner & Schmidt, 1987; Trevino et al., 2005, 2006). Also, institutional policy may be favourable or unfavourable. Depending on how the faculty members view it, both organizational and interpersonal deviance may be mitigated or enhanced. Extant literature revealed that the relationship between institutional policy and deviant workplace behaviour has been under-researched and the paucity literature on institutional policy and formal sanctions has been limited to information system confidentiality (Cheng, Li, Li, Holm, & Zhai 2013; D'Arcy et al., 2009).

Empirically, Cheng, Li, Li, Holm, and Zhai (2013) revealed that severity of formal sanction was significantly linked to information systems security violation behaviours

among 185 employees working in Dalian, China. Similarly, D'Arcy et al. (2009) tested the effect of punishment severity and punishment certainty of formal sanctions on organizational deviance among 269 employees from 8 different organizations in the United States. The authors defined organizational deviance as unethical behaviours such as sending and receiving unauthorized emails at work and accessing company's confidential information. It was reported that severity of formal sanctions is negatively related to organizational deviance. Similarly, Kura, Shamsudin, and Chauhan (2015) found a significant and negative relationship between punishment certainty and organizational deviance. The institutional policy ought to be firm against all forms of deviant behaviours to ensure deterrence. In addition, properly administered disciplinary measures may result in correction of behaviour, while actual discipline or even threat of punishment may indirectly influence the decision to behave ethically due to the likely consequences of unethical behaviour. In the view of the researcher, absence of deterrence measures may provide an opportunity for unethical behaviour in tertiary institutions.

Extant literature and theoretical views suggested a negative relationship between institutional policy and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. The suggestion supports general deterrence theory-GDT (Beccaria, 1986; Gibbs, 1968, 1975). GDT essentially postulates that when faculty members are sure that punishment for an unethical act is certain and severe, individuals may be dissuaded from engaging in such acts due to the unpleasant pains related to reprimand. This is because people are hedonistic in nature (Higgins, 1997, 1998); individuals may be discouraged from committing deviant acts due to certainty of punishment. However, if faculty members perceive that institutional policy is weak, poor or discriminatory, then there is tendency

for a rise in both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Additionally, when faculty members perceive discriminatory institutional policies in the areas of appointments, staff promotion, training and development, remuneration, and appraisals; these observations may increase their justifications for deviance. In view of the above empirical findings and theoretical views, the following hypotheses emerged:

H3: Institutional policy is negatively related to interpersonal deviance.

H4: Institutional policy is negatively related to organizational deviance.

2.4.2 Job pressure

In the present study, job pressure is synonymous to workplace stress. According to the Canadian center for Occupational Health and Safety, workplace stress is the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when there is a conflict between job demands on the employee and the amount of control an employee has over meeting these demands.

According to the American Psychological Association's-APA (2012) annual stress in America survey, 65 percent of Americans cited work pressure as a top source of stress. Also, 2013 survey by APA's Center for Organizational Excellence found that job-related stress is a serious issue. More than one-third of working Americans reported experiencing chronic work pressure and just 36 percent said their organizations provide sufficient resources to help them manage stress.

Theoretically, FTT's facet of pressure revealed that the presence of pressure is a good attraction to fraud, deviance, and other unethical acts (Lister, 2007). In the present study, job pressure represents the facet of pressure in FTT. Mostly, lecturing is a stressful profession because of emotional demands, big class sizes, inadequate resources, high workload, role conflict, pressure to attract external funding for publications, the low

status of the profession, inadequate salary, and student deviant behaviour (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006).

In Nigerian context, the job pressure on academics is very high probably due to level of development and amount of academic workload, poor salary package and work pressure involved (Report on universities' needs, 2012). There is evidence showing how the academic workload and work pressure have been constantly rising due to the increase in demand for higher education and this has contributed to the increase of stress level among academics (JAMB report, 2018; Metcalf, Rolfe, & Weale, 2005) and the stress level has impact on knowledge impartation on students, job satisfaction, commitment and employees' behaviours at work (Shahzad, Mumtaz, Hayat, & Khan, 2010). For instance, studies indicate that faculty members experience pressure to meet challenging obligations in the areas of teaching, research, publications and other administrative responsibilities (Houston, Meyer and Paewei, 2006). Job pressure takes a toll on productivity, physical and emotional conditions of faculty members, but little attention has been devoted to the impacts of job pressure on DWB (Burke, 2011; Houston, Meyer & Paewei, 2006). Existing works identified two major dimensions of job pressure or what other scholars termed job demands among academics viz work pressure and academic workload (Houston, Meyer, & Paewei, 2006; Karasek & Theorell, 1990, 1992).

Academic workload is operationalized as the professional efforts a faculty member devotes to activities such as teaching, administration, research, community services, publications, and related academic tasks (Allen, 1996; Jex, 1998). Academic workload can be classified as quantitative (having more work to do than can be accomplished comfortably-overload), qualitative workload (having work that is too difficult) and

under-load which means having work that fails to use a worker's skills and abilities (Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Katz & Kahn, 1978). On the other hand, work pressure is operationalized as the extent to which academics must work fast and hard, with enormous responsibilities, but with limited time (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

2.4.2.1 Workload, work pressure and workplace deviance

Generally, academics experience high level of role conflict (among the triple demands of teaching, research, and administrative responsibilities) which constitute important sources of job-related stress for academics. In Australia, Burke (2011) reported that research and teaching staffs in universities work for long hours to cover their academic workloads and feel very dissatisfied. As a result, nearly half of the faculty members in Australian universities intend to move to overseas universities or quit higher education. Furthermore, in terms of work pressure, Bhatti, Hashmi, Raza, Shaikh and Shafiq (2011) found that work pressure has undesirable relationship with job satisfaction when tested on 400 public university faculty members. Similarly, Kayatasha and Kayatasha (2012) sampled 268 private and public secondary school teachers in Nepal and found that work pressure was negatively related to job satisfaction.

Specifically, on forms of deviance, Devonish (2013) and Vahtera, Kivimäki, Pentti, and Theorell (2000) found that bullying aggravated the impacts of job demands on depression, uncertified absenteeism and physical exhaustion. This implies a positive link between job demands and various forms of deviance. Also, Hobfoll (2001), Yeh (2015) and Takaki, Taniguchi, Fukuoka, Fujii, Tsutsumi, Nakajima, and Hirokawa (2010) found that excessive workload and work pressure contribute to bullying in organization. Similarly, research on work pressure indicate significant and positive relationship to workplace bullying, poor psychological work environment and

aggression (Agervold, 2009; Baillien et al., 2011; Stouten, Baillien, Van den Broeck, Camps, De Witte, & Euwema, 2010; Yildirim, 2009).

Empirically, heavy workload and time pressure were strongly related to exhaustion and impaired health (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Also, Hakanen et al. (2006) found that teachers who experienced high job pressure showed greater burnout, which in turn predicted health problems, anxiety, and turnover intentions.

However, very limited studies exist on the relationship between workload, work pressure and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Based on this constraint, the recommendations of Webster and Watson (2002, p. xix), Gay and Diehl (1992) and Whetten (1989) were observed by presenting related previous studies in which workload and work pressure were used (as predictor variables) to predict both positive and negative behavioural outcomes, then supported by paucity of literature available, theoretical perspectives and logical reasoning.

Webster and Watson (2002, p. xix) stated that the reasoning for hypotheses/propositions may come from three main sources: theoretical explanations for "why," past empirical findings, and practice or experience. The why or logical reasoning is the most important component of the explanation. It must always be part of any justification. It represents "the theoretical glue that welds the model together" (Whetten, 1989, p. 491). Past empirical research also should be included if it exists. If it does not exist in the specific area of interest, however, empirical research in related areas should be presented as (weaker) support (Gay & Diehl, 1992). Experience, if available, can also help to justify a proposition; it may arise from the author's own experiences in interacting with organizations or from the practice literature. Nonetheless, while past findings and experience can help to support a proposition, keep in mind that they are not a substitute for logical reasoning (Sutton & Staw, 1995).

On the bases of the above quotation, Rothman and Jordan (2006) found that workload was negatively related to work engagement among 471 academic staff in South African

higher education institutions while there was no relationship found when workload was tested against job performance among 150 academics and non-academics at Ekiti state university, south-west, Nigeria (Omolayo & Omole, 2013). However, Qureshi, Jamil, Iftikhar, Arif, Lodhi, Naseem and Zaman (2012) reported a positive relationship between workload and turnover intentions among 250 textiles employees in Pakistan. In addition, studies from eight Belgian companies and public universities in Pakistan reported negative relationships between workload and job satisfaction (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Shahzad, Mumtaz, Hayat, & Khan, 2010). The researcher argued that if workload and work pressure could report negative relationships with positive behavioural outcomes such as job satisfaction, job performance and work engagement, then workload and work pressure would be veritable tools to predict a positive relationship with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Theoretically, Karasek (1979) postulated that high job demands would result in psychological strain. The impact on strain was evident in terms of both immediate affective reactions (e.g. job dissatisfaction and depression) and given long-term exposure, stress-related illnesses (e.g. cardiovascular disease). Hence, job pressure is positively related to strain while job control is negatively related to strain. Consequently, if the workload and work pressure of an academic staff is too burdensome, such a staff may exhibit deviance. Also, pressure in FTT and job demand control model-JDC (Karasek, 1979) explains a positive relationship between excessive job demands and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. For instance, academics with high demanding workload may feel unhappy with their jobs and may not put more effort on the job thereby resulting in job dissatisfaction. This feeling of dissatisfaction may lead to both organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Supportably, the relationship between workload, work pressure and both organizational and interpersonal deviance can further be explained with general strain theory - GST (Agnew, 1992). General strain theory (Agnew, 1992) posits that strain generates negative emotions that provide motivation for deviance as a coping strategy because such emotional forces create pressure for corrective action. Similarly, GST posits that strained individuals are more likely to experience outer-than inner-directed emotions when they externalize strain by blaming other people or the system for their adversity rather than internalize it by blaming themselves. Strained faculty members who blame others may increase chances for both interpersonal and organizational deviance. This line of argument is consistent with Nasurdin, Ahmad, and Razalli (2014) who found that individuals who are highly stressed are more likely to act nervously, impulsively, or display less tolerant behaviour towards others with tendency to exhibit workplace deviance. Also, Aseltine, Gore, and Gordon (2000) found a significant and positive relationship between exposure to stresses, relationship strains and deviant conduct. This result also provided support for a positive relationship between strain and both interpersonal and organizational deviance. Similarly, Penney and Spector (2005) found that job stress is positively related to various forms of counter-productive behaviours.

A review of the above studies further revealed that no study has established a direct link between work load, work pressure and a broader form of workplace deviance. Besides, the previous empirical studies that employed workload and work pressure to predict different behavioural outcomes have reported inconsistent and mixed findings. The present study will add to the scanty literature on the relationship between work workload, work pressure and both organizational and interpersonal deviance empirically

and in a broader sense. In line with extant empirical findings and theoretical views, the researcher hypothesized as follows:

H5: Work pressure is positively related to interpersonal deviance

H6: Work pressure is positively related to organizational deviance

H7: Workload is positively related to interpersonal deviance

H8: Workload is positively related to organizational deviance

2.4.3 Workplace spirituality

Workplace spirituality is about employees who have a common connection and togetherness with other colleagues in their work unit. By way of definition, workplace spirituality is the spiritual well-being of an individual in a work setting and a framework of organizational values evidenced in the culture that promotes employees' experience of transcendence (wholeness) through the work process, which facilitates their sense of being connected to others in a way that provides feelings of completeness and joy (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). In addition, Mitroff and Denton (1999) noted that workplace spirituality emphasizes that employees have an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work which takes place in the context of community (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000).

The present study identified incomplete assumptions about the predictors of organizational and interpersonal deviance. Firstly, Oliveira (2002, p.17) stated that "little attention has been paid to the investigation of spirituality as a cultural phenomenon that might influence organizational behaviour and induce organizational change". Secondly, Ayoun, Rowe and Yassine (2015) called for further studies on

workplace spirituality in relation to unethical acts. Thirdly, in the review of empirical studies, evidences were found indicating the potential of workplace spirituality in influencing employee motivation towards engaging in positive behaviour such as organizational citizenship behaviour (Ahmad & Omar, 2015; Yunan, Ahmad, & Omar, 2017) as well as tendency to reduce workplace deviant behaviour (Ahmad & Omar, 2014). Hence, there is the need to improve our ability to fully understand the nuances of spirituality and lastly, there exists shortage of theory and empirical studies which explain the consequence of workplace spirituality on workers unethical behaviour (Ahmad & Omar, 2014; Hudson, 2014).

It is worthy to note that the facet of opportunity in FTT can be extended to explain workplace spirituality in the present context. The facet of opportunity talks about the prevailing internal conditions in an organization (Cressey, 1950). The internal conditions can create or restrain organizational and interpersonal deviant acts. One way of restraining both interpersonal and organizational deviance among faculty members is to create opportunity for workplace spirituality in HEIs. Management of HEIs can create opportunity for organizational climate and culture which promote employees' experience of transcendence through the work process, togetherness, bonds, attachments, connectedness to others, and feelings of completeness and joy. Generally, employees allocate great importance to the pursuit of pay-checks and the attainment of meaningful work, which provides a holistic fulfilment as an individual who is connected to others and to the transcendent (Hudson, 2014).

Workplace spirituality encompasses three dimensions: inner life, sense of community and meaningful work (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). Inner life is when individuals find their inner strength, inner fulfilment and use it to conduct their activities at work.

Secondly, sense of community is related to a group working in an environment of interconnectedness while meaningful work refers to conducting activities that are of importance to individual employees (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). Two dimensions of workplace spirituality namely feeling of inner life, and meaningful work (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000) were examined in the present study because of their relevance to individuals and academics. The dimension of sense of community was dropped because it is more appropriate to group level of analysis (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000).

Feelings of inner life refers to the viewpoint that ‘employees have spiritual needs, just as they have physical, emotional, and cognitive needs, and these needs don’t get left at home when they come to work’ (Duchon & Plowman, 2005, p. 811). Inner life is about feeling oneness with others while meaning at work/meaningful work is the feeling of wholeness, harmoniousness with others and direction to one’s work (Duchon & Plowman, 2005; Overell, 2008). Meaningful work is not just possible, it is the birth-right of every worker in an organization (Duchon & Plowman, 2005). The presence of meaningful work leads to job satisfaction while job satisfaction gives inner feelings which may minimize tendency to engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance.

2.4.3.1 Relationship between workplace spirituality and workplace deviance

The acknowledgement of the need for workplace spirituality may be an avenue to minimize deviance among employees because spirituality has the potential to act as a personal control that enables employees gauge their behaviour at work (James, Miles, & Mullins, 2011). WS results in increased job performance, job involvement, organizational commitment and success at large (Altaf & Awan, 2011). The more

spiritual work environment is created, the more positive working conditions and less deviance exhibited at work (Altaf & Awan, 2011).

Similarly, Weitz, Vardi, and Setter (2012) found that workplace spirituality is significantly and negatively related to deviant behaviour. Furthermore, a qualitative research by Sulaiman and Bhatti (2013) revealed that being spiritually strong would help to generate positive behaviour and deviant-free environment in an organization. In addition, organizations that support spiritual and caring work environments benefit from employees who are not only more committed and productive but are less prone to deviance. Hence, it can be argued that a satisfied employee whose spiritual needs have been fulfilled, who experienced meaningful work and a satisfying inner feeling may not engage in deviance but tends to be a better performer (Ahmad & Omar, 2014; Yunan, Ahmad, & Omar, 2017).

In like manner, Duchon and Plowman (2005) reported work unit performance was positively impacted when the work climate met the spiritual needs and values of employees. Similarly, Rego et al. (2008) found a positive relationship between value-based workplace spirituality and both the affective and normative organizational commitment expressed by employees. Additionally, Crawford et al. (2009) reported significant relationship between a composite score of workplace spirituality and various outcomes, including organizational commitment, intent to quit (negative correlation), intrinsic job satisfaction, job involvement and organization-based self-esteem.

The effects of workplace spirituality on crime and deviance have been theorized primarily in terms of social control and social learning theories (Jang & Johnson, 2001; Johnson et al., 2000). According to social control theory (Hirschi, 1969), employees are

discouraged from embracing deviant behaviours through their bonds with social institutions such as religion, workplace and family (Jurkiewicz & Giacalone, 2004). The bonds help to reduce one's propensity for deviant behaviour. Hence, this theory posits that crime or deviance occurs when such bonds are weakened or are not well established. When this bond is weak, there is a greater likelihood for individuals to become "free" and engage in deviant behaviour. Conversely, when this attachment is strong, it reinforces an employee's purpose or meaningfulness at work which in turn may reduce deviant behaviour. In line with the theoretical standpoints discussed, absence of the dimensions of workplace spirituality may create an opportunity for a rise in the incidence of interpersonal and organizational deviance among faculty members. This statement agreed with the facet of opportunity in FTT. Therefore, guided by theoretical perspectives, logic and previous empirical evidences, the following hypotheses surfaced:

H9: Inner life is negatively related to interpersonal deviance

H10: Inner life is negatively related to organizational deviance

H11: Meaning at work is negatively related to interpersonal deviance

H12: Meaning at work is negatively related to organizational deviance.

2.4.4 Neutralization

Individuals normally have a strong desire to present themselves favourably to others. Hence, before a would-be deviant engages in unethical acts, he/she may provide excuses/justifications for such acts. Such a justification is determined by individual's perception (Gottschalk & Smith, 2011; Siponen & Vance, 2010). For instance, a faculty member who perceives a caring climate may not engage in neutralization, but those dissatisfied with the climate of a university may easily justify their involvement in

DWB. In other words, prospective deviants are free to partake in unethical acts once they can adduce moral reasons for the proposed wrongful acts (Ogunbamila, 2017; Sykes & Matza, 1957; Yu, 2013). Neutralization is a psychological process by which people turn-off “inner protests” when they are about to engage in something considered as unethical (Robinson & Kraatz, 1998). The primary function of neutralization is to justify unethical acts and restore balance when people act in an attitudinally incongruent manner and, as such, it might be an important mediating variable that explains misbehaviour and other ethical breaches in everyday choices that people make (Lim, 2002).

Theoretically, neutralization theory submits that before individuals engage in deviant or criminal behaviours they may use techniques which permit them to justify their engagement in unethical acts without worrying about guilt feelings that would stand in their way of committing a deviant act. The theory emphasizes that people are free to partake in unethical acts, which they would ordinarily consider as wrong once they can give good explanations for such misdeeds (Lim, 2002; Robinson & Kraatz, 1998; Sykes & Matza, 1957). Unlike the original FTT, the present study investigated neutralization as a mediator because it is a cognitive process which precedes deviant acts. Adoption of neutralization as a mediator is in line with the recommendations of past studies (Lim, 2002; Thurman, 1984). For instance, Lim (2002) found that neutralization of the metaphor of ledger mediated the relationship between organizational injustice and cyberloafing in Singapore because cyber-loafers could justify their engagement in cyber loafing by blaming their organizations for injustice.

There are many techniques of neutralization. Firstly, denial of responsibility in which the offenders claim that they were victims of circumstances or were forced into

situations beyond their control. Secondly, denial of injury stipulates that offenders insist that their actions did not cause any harm or damage. Thirdly, denial of the victim in which case the offenders believe that the victims deserved whatever action the offender committed. Fourthly, with condemnation of the condemners, the offenders maintain that those who condemn their offences are doing so purely out of spite or are shifting the blame off themselves unfairly. Last but not the least, with appeal to higher loyalties, the offender suggests that his or her offense was for the greater good, with long-term consequences that would justify their actions, such as protection of a friend or a group (Sykes & Matza, 1957). According to Sykes and Matza (1957), techniques of neutralization generally manifest in the form of statements such as: “it wasn’t my fault”, “it wasn’t a big deal. They could afford the loss”, “They had it coming”, “you were just as bad in your days” and “my friends needed me”, “nobody was hurt”, and “everyone is doing it”

2.4.4.1 Relationship between neutralization and workplace deviance

Previous researches have noted that people generally possess an innate desire to present themselves favourably to others (Dabney, 1995; Lim, 2002; Robinson & Kraatz, 1998). Premised upon this fact, individuals who may wish to engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance may rationalize such an act by advancing reasons/excuses to exonerate themselves from guilty feeling. In the same vein, Hollinger (1991) found that denial of injury and denial of victim were significant predictors of property theft and production deviance while condemnation of the condemners and metaphor of the ledgers predicted production deviance (Lim, 2002). Relatedly, deviants deem deviance as appropriate depending on situation and context. In this regard, Lim (2002) found that when individuals experienced distributive, procedural and interactional injustice, they

were able to invoke the metaphor of the ledger (i.e. if you weigh all my good deeds against my bad deeds, you would see I am a decent person) as a neutralization technique to legitimize their subsequent engagement in the act of cyber loafing. In addition, Dabney (1995) found that nurses utilized neutralization schemes to justify deviant acts such as theft of general supplies and over-the-counter drugs.

There are many techniques of neutralization, but the most common technique applicable to public HEIs in Nigeria is “claim of normalcy”. Henry (1990) stated that claim of normalcy is a neutralization technique which rationalizes deviant act by contending that the activity in question is one in which many others partake, that it is commonplace and frequent in its incidence therefore should not be considered deviant. Based on the experience of the researcher, it is a common thing to see Nigerian faculty members engaging more in interpersonal deviance because other colleagues are taking part in such unethical acts. At other times, a band-wagon effect may also lead faculty members to undertake organizational deviance. For example, some faculty members do not complete the required semester syllabus because other colleagues did not complete theirs. Some lecturers also may arrive lectures late or absent mainly because their colleagues are doing same, especially when there are no proper sanctions against these deviant acts or when the policies are not fully implemented.

From a theoretical perspective, FTT’s facet of neutralization indicates that the perpetrator must formulate some morally acceptable excuses, or reasons to him before engaging in unethical behaviour. In many instances, faculty members give excuses that the unruly conduct is different from criminal activity (Abdullahi & Mansor, 2015; Hooper & Pornelli, 2010). Most defiants did not realize that whatever an employee does in the organization, which he/she is not supposed/expected to do is deviance (Ackroyd

& Thompson, 1999). Theoretically, if an individual cannot justify unethical acts, it is unlikely that he or she will engage in workplace deviance or fraud (Cressey, 1953).

Additionally, neutralization theory submits that individuals who engage in workplace deviance may give justifications/excuses that permit them to justify circumstances that enable them exhibit deviant behaviours without worrying about guilt feelings that would stand in their way of committing a deviant act. Hence, a positive relationship exists between neutralization and both organizational and interpersonal deviance (Sykes & Matza, 1957). In other words, the higher the rate of justifications/excuses, the higher the incidence of both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Therefore, from the preceding discussion, the following hypotheses are advanced:

H13: Neutralization is positively related to interpersonal deviance

H14: Neutralization is positively related to organizational deviance

2.4.4.2 Neutralization as a mediator in the relationship between opportunity and both organizational and interpersonal deviance

The elements of opportunity are ethical climate and institutional policy. According to fraud triangle theory (Cressey, 1950), a bridge between opportunity and pressure is stronger when the deviant can justify misbehaviours. However, such justification is difficult to notice because it is not practical to read the minds of the deviants and/or fraud perpetrators (Hooper & Pornelli, 2010). For instance, an employee who perceives a warm and favourable ethical climate does not have any excuse to engage in neutralization to commit either organizational or interpersonal deviance, but those dissatisfied with the ethical climate and policies of the organization may easily

rationalize and justify their involvement in deviance. Also, in relation to institutional policy, employees who perceive that policies are fair, just, equitable and considerate to employees might not seek for excuses or justifications to engage in deviance.

From the perspective of general deterrence theory- GDT (Gibbs, 1975), institutional policies may serve as good tools to minimize deviant acts when policy regarding punishment and reward is effective and fully implemented. GDT theorizes that if the punishment for an unethical/deviant act is firm and severe, persons may be discouraged from engaging in such act because of the unpleasant experience and/or pains associated with such punishment. Based on these findings and theoretical perspectives, the researcher hypothesized thus:

H15. Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance.

H16. Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between ethical climate and organizational deviance.

H17. Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance.

H18. Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between institutional policy and organizational deviance.

2.4.4.3 Neutralization as a mediator in the relationship between job pressure and both interpersonal and organizational deviance

Bearing in mind that the present study considered work pressure and workload as dimensions of job pressure, it is essential to note that faculty members' impression of

their tasks and responsibilities go a long way to determine whether they may justify interpersonal or organizational deviance. Based on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), individuals who feel that they have been short-changed in some ways in an employment relationship may invoke neutralization techniques when they want to exercise the penalty of taking back something to restore some impression of justice in that relationship. This occurs when academics experience imbalance between their efforts (teaching, research and administrative duties) and rewards given to them.

The general observation is that positive relationship exists between job demands and neutralization as employers may overwork employees and mount pressure on them continually. Empirically, work pressure and workload were found to be positively related to burnout when tested on 274 employees in Netherland (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). Also, positive relationship was reported in a study involving workload and turnover intention among 250 textile employees in Pakistan (Qureshi et al., 2012). Excessive workload and work pressure may prompt lecturers to exhibit deviance as faculty members may consider it as an avenue to show dissatisfaction. At this juncture, workload and work pressure make it easier to justify deviant acts.

Consequently, drawing from the neutralization theory, the researcher posits that it is reasonable for academics who perceive stressful workload or work overload and work pressure in the employment relationship to engage in neutralization before engaging in either organizational or interpersonal deviance (Henry, 1990). Hence, the faculty members might see deviance as succour to stressful situation they are experiencing.

In addition, employees may become frustrated, irritated and impatient due to job-related stress and pressure of work. Such emotional issues may lead to series of deviant behaviours especially if an employee can easily rationalize them (Hollinger, 1991; Lim, 2002; Omar et al., 2011; Penney & Spector, 2005). On the premise of these empirical findings and theoretical views, the researcher hypothesized:

H19: Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between work pressure and interpersonal deviance

H20: Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between work pressure and organizational deviance

H21. Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between academic workload and interpersonal deviance

H22: Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between academic workload and organizational deviance

2.4.5 Self-control

Self-control is an aspect of inhibitory control. It is the ability to regulate one's thoughts, emotions, impulses and actions. Individuals with moderate to high-level of self-control can plan, evaluate alternative course of action, with capability to avoid doing things that are unethical or that may lead to regrets later. Self-control is the ability to override or change one's inner responses, as well as ability to interrupt undesired behavioural tendencies and refrain from acting on them (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). Self-control enables individuals to resist short-term temptations to achieve long-term aims (Loewenstein, 1996; Myrseth & Fishbach, 2009).

The researcher incorporated a moderator to explain more about the conditions under which opportunity and job pressure can predict deviance via neutralization. Consequently, self-control was employed as a moderator because such consideration could increase theoretical understanding of FTT-like framework under investigation.

Also, researches on neutralization have reported inconclusive results because offenders have been found both with a solid belief in their moral obligations and without. Hence, Travis Hirschi, the protagonist of social control theory and a social bond theorist also raised the question as to whether the offender develops these techniques to neutralize their qualms regarding offending before or after they committed any wrongdoing (Sykes & Matza, 1957). The moderating effect of self-control on the relationships between opportunity, job pressure, neutralization and both organizational and interpersonal deviance among faculty members in Nigeria is yet to be known. Thus, this study is conducted to investigate the relationship and thus enhance FTT and confirm self-control theoretically and practically.

According to Gino, Schweitzer, Mead and Ariely (2011), individuals who are depleted of their self-control resources are more likely to impulsively exhibit deviance than individuals whose self-regulatory resources are intact. Also, self-control depletion reduces individual's moral awareness when they face the opportunity to engage in deviance. Therefore, self-control depletion increases organizational and interpersonal deviance (Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011). Specifically, extant literature suggests that self-control is negatively related to deviant behaviours at work (Caprara, Regalia, & Bandura, 2002; Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011; Tucker, Sinclair, Mohr, Adler, Thomas, & Salvi, 2009). Similarly, other scholars have the notion that self-control may override the propensity of subordinates to embrace revenge,

organizational and interpersonal deviance (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Restubog, Garcia, Wang, & Cheng, 2010). Yet, relatively little is known on the moderating role of self-control among academics.

2.4.5.1 Self-control as a moderator in the relationship between opportunity and neutralization

Self-control is the psychological capacity which enables people to enact behaviours that are consistent with their long-term goals (e.g., of being an ethical person) and refrain from engaging in behaviours that are driven by short-term and selfish motives. Therefore, to resolve the internal conflict between the short and long-term benefits of unethical acts, individuals must exert self-control (Mead, Baumeister, Gino, Schweitzer, & Ariely, 2009).

The present study examined the moderating role of self-control on the FTT-like model among lecturers in Nigerian public HEIs. Specifically, the study examined self-control as a moderator between FTT's facets of opportunity, pressure and neutralization. The essence is to show how the level of self-control can increase or decrease the relationship between opportunity-related factors and pressure-related factors with neutralization. In other words, the present study showed how the faculty members' level of self-control can increase or decrease engagement in either organizational or interpersonal deviance via neutralization. Faculty members with high self-control might exhibit less tendency to justify unethical acts while those with low self-control may offer more justifications and engage more in unethical acts.

Self-control as a resource can be over-stretched and when such happens, the individual's ability to refrain from unethical acts declines. This scenario is referred to as self-control

depletion. Muraven, Pogarsky, and Shmueli (2006) found that self-control depletion led to dishonest and unethical behaviour. Similarly, there are possibilities that employees may inflate their performance outputs for financial benefits, especially when they are weak in self-control resources. These findings seem to generalize to higher educational institutions because people with high self-control have been found to be less aggressive at work (Latham & Perlow, 1996). less likely to engage in organizational, interpersonal deviance or counterproductive behaviours (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008) and less engagement in cyberloafing (Restubog, Garcia, Toledano, Amarnani, Tolentino, & Tang, 2011).

The researcher is of the view that understanding the relationship between self-control and unethical behaviour is important because this relationship explains how and when otherwise moral individuals will predictably behave defiantly (Kaptein, 2008). Generally, people use self-control to refrain from engaging in unethical behaviours such as submitting an inflated expense report, failure to complete required syllabus or taking office supplies home for personal use. The moderating effect of self-control implies that the predicted negative relationship between ethical climate, institutional policy, and neutralization should be stronger for individuals with high level of self-control than it is for individuals with low level of self-control. This is because lecturers with high level of self-control will reduce the need to justify deviant acts.

It can be deduced that social control theory supports self-control in inhibiting organizational and interpersonal deviance. Social control theory postulates that exploiting the process of socialization and social learning builds self-control and reduces the inclination to indulge in behaviour recognized as antisocial or unethical (Hirschi, 1969). Social control theory proposes that people's relationships, commitments, values,

norms, and beliefs encourage them not to break the law. Thus, if moral codes are internalized and individuals are tied into and have a stake in their wider community, they will voluntarily limit their propensity to engage in deviant acts.

Similarly, general theory of self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) postulates that most unethical acts are simple to commit, require no long-term planning, and provide few long-term benefits. Individuals lacking in self-control are short-sighted, non-verbal, and impulsive. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) argues that individuals lacking in self-control are insensitive to others, fail to plan and are risk-takers, they are likely to experience problems in social relationships, they are more likely to justify unethical things such as refusal to obey norms and regulations of the organizations (Gottfredson & Hirschi 1990).

Supportably, the position of self-control can be complimented with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1978a, 1997), which suggests that deviant behaviour at work is determined by individual level of efficacy. According to self-efficacy theory, individuals with low levels of self-regulatory efficacy are likely to give justifications and participate in deviant behaviours at work than those with high levels of self-regulatory efficacy. Based on the above empirical findings and theoretical supports, the following moderating hypotheses emerged:

H23: Self-control moderates the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship will be stronger (more negative) for faculty members with high level of self-control than it is for those with low level of self-control.

H24: Self-control moderates the negative relationship between institutional policy and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship will be stronger (more negative) for faculty members with high level of self-control than it is for those with low level of self-control.

2.4.5.2 Self-control as a moderator in the relationship between job pressure (i.e. work pressure and workload) and neutralization

Self-control and its near-term, self-regulation plays a significant role in understanding human behaviour because it can influence individuals' thinking, feelings, and behaviours. Specifically, research suggests that self-control may be negatively related to deviant behaviours at work (Caprara, Regalia, & Bandura, 2002; Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011; Tucker, Sinclair, Mohr, Adler, Thomas, & Salvi, 2009). The moderating effect of self-control implies that the predicted positive relationship between workload, work pressure and neutralization should be weaker for individuals with high level of self-control than it is for individuals with low level of self-control. Self-control is a resource that individual draw from, but in a situation whereby the pressure of work is unbearable, the level of self-control will be over-stretched.

Theoretically, the effort-reward imbalance (ERI) model posits that work characterized by both high efforts and low rewards represent a reciprocity deficit between costs and gains (Siegrist, 2002; Siegrist, Starke, Chandola, Godin, Marmot, Niedhammer, & Peter, 2004). This imbalance may cause sustained strain reactions. Practically, work overload and work pressure without receiving appreciation is an example of a stressful imbalance which academics experience in Nigeria.

Supportably, social control theory supports self-control in inhibiting deviance. Social control theory proposes that exploiting the process of socialization and social learning

builds self-control and reduces the inclination to indulge in behaviour recognized as antisocial (Hirschi, 1969). Practically, when individuals exhibit self-control maximally for a long time, it might lead to self-control depletion. Self-control depletion occurs when self-control resource has been over-stretched, then it may no longer moderate the relationship between workload, work pressure and neutralization. Guided by the hypothetical supports and empirical findings, the researcher hypothesized thus:

H25: Self-control moderates the positive relationship between work pressure and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship will be weaker (less positive) for faculty members with high level of self-control than for those with low self-control.

H26: Self-control moderates the positive relationship between workload and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship will be weaker (less positive) for faculty members with high level of self-control than for those with low self-control.

2.5 Theoretical framework

A research framework is a combination of interrelated concepts guiding the research, identifying the factors to be measured and shedding light on the relationships amongst the variables in the study. The theoretical framework is grounded in fraud triangle-like theory from which the conceptual framework emerged. Apart from fraud triangle-like theory guiding the framework, other supporting theories are neutralization and social control theories.

The conceptual framework depicts the relationships among the dimensions of opportunity (ethical climate and institutional policy), job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure), self-control (moderating variable), neutralization (mediator) and both

organizational and interpersonal deviance. Also, the framework depicts a direct relationship between workplace spirituality and both dimensions of deviance under investigation. In brief, the relationships amongst the predictors and the outcome variables are depicted graphically in Figure 2.3.

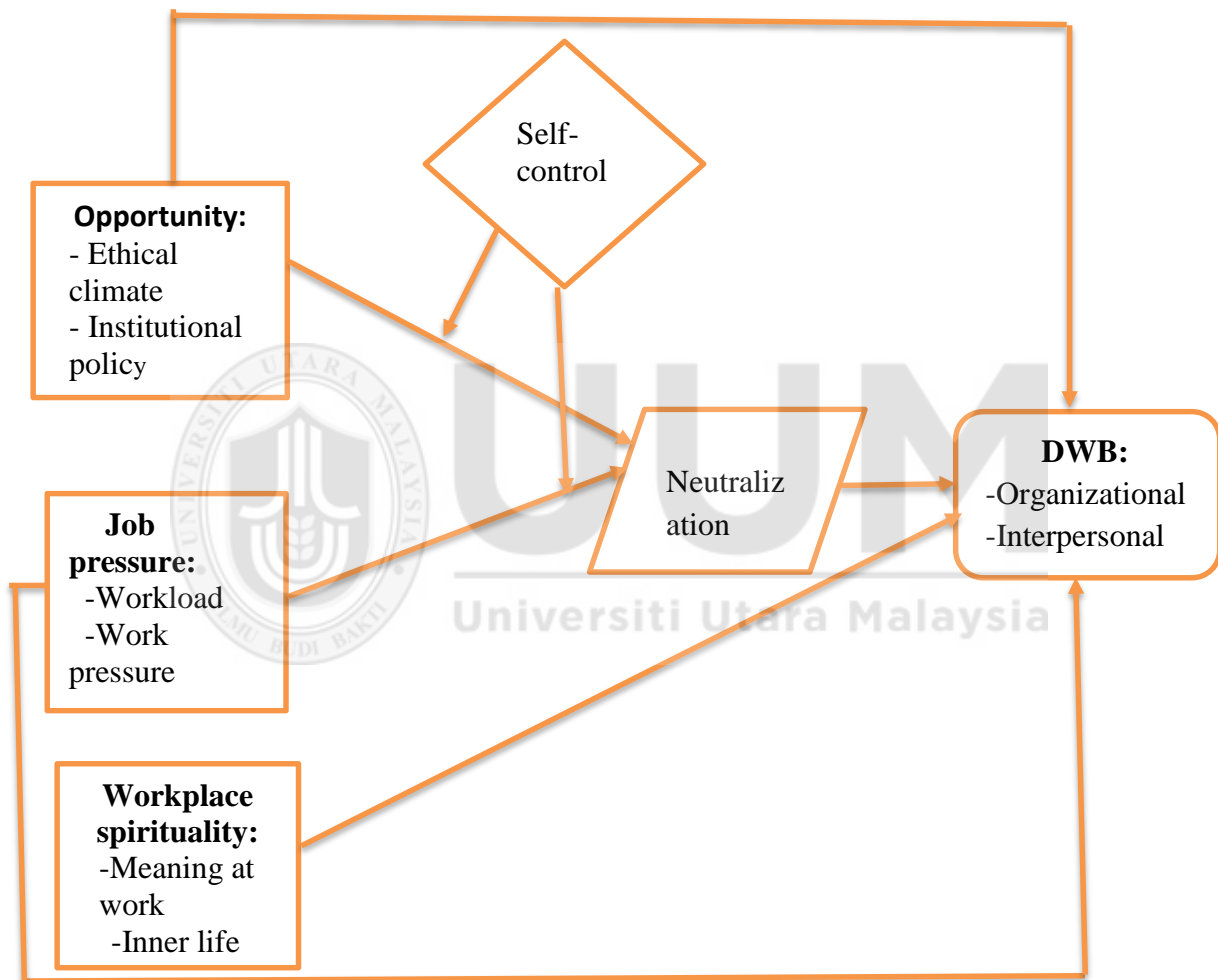


Figure 2.3
Conceptual Framework

2.6 Summary of the chapter

Relevant literature on deviant workplace behaviour, ethical climate, institutional policy, work pressure, workload, workplace spirituality and self-control (as a moderator) have been critically reviewed. In addition, empirical studies on the mediating effects of

neutralization have been reviewed as well. The chapter also presented the research framework, and formulated research hypotheses based on theories, experience/practice and past empirical studies. The various underpinning theories such as fraud triangle theory, neutralization theory and social control theory have been explained. The succeeding part describes the methods adopted in this research work.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covered sub-topics such as population, research philosophy, sample, research design, and sampling procedure, instrumentation, procedures for obtaining data, pilot test, and methods of data analysis. This chapter located the present study in a specific philosophical paradigm that bonded this study together

3.2 Research philosophy

Research philosophy means the world view or basic belief system that directs the investigation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Empirical research in social science needs to start from a properly articulated philosophical base for it to be successful. According to Blaikie (1993), the major concepts in the research philosophy are ontology and epistemology. In a simple term, ontology is the science or study of being which encompasses claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other. It describes our view on the nature of reality. That is, whether it is an objective reality, or a subjective reality created in our minds (Blaikie, 1993).

On the other hand, epistemology can be described as grounds of knowledge and the need to enquire about anything that is possible to know and reflect on methods and standards through which reliable and verifiable knowledge is produced (Blaikie, 1993). Furthermore, Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) summarized epistemology as the extent of knowing how you can know. In addition, epistemology considers the most appropriate ways of enquiring into the nature of the world (Easterby-Smith, Jackson, & Thorpe,

2008) and seeks to know the meaning of knowledge, its bases, and bounds (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

According to Weber (2004) and Myers (2013), three main philosophical patterns exist, and they are positivism, interpretivism and realism. Each paradigm is associated with its own ontological and epistemological views. First, a positivist paradigm is known as a scientific paradigm. Positivists believe that social reality can be studied independently of the researcher and was propounded by Auguste Comte (1798-1857). The positivist position is characterized by testing of hypothesis developed from existing theories, so it is called theory testing or deductive by measuring observable social realities (Scotland, 2012).

Positivism presumes that the social world exists quantitatively. It also assumes that knowledge is valid only if it is based on observations of external reality. As such, there are universal theoretical models that can be developed which are generalizable and can explain cause and effect relationships, and predict outcomes (Blaikie, 1993; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). According to Neuman (1997), the doctrine of positivism is the most widely practiced research paradigm in social sciences.

On the other hand, interpretivism is anti-positivism because of a fundamental difference amongst the subject matters of the social sciences and natural sciences (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006; Willis, 2007). In the social world, individuals and groups make sense of situations based on their individual experience. Also, since all knowledge is relative to the knower, interpretivists aim to work alongside others as they make sense of, draw meaning from, and create their realities to understand their points of view and to interpret these experiences in the context of the researcher's experience. Hence,

interpretivism is inductive or theory building (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). In addition, interpretivism assumes that human's social life can be qualitatively studied through an array of means including direct observation, interviews, and case studies (Neuman, 1997).

Finally, realism takes from both positivist and interpretivist positions. It holds that real structures exist independently of human consciousness, but that knowledge is socially created. According to Blaikie (1993), realism accepts that reality may exist despite science or observation and so there is validity in recognizing realities that are simply claimed to exist or act, whether proven or not. In common with interpretivist positions, realism recognizes that natural and social sciences are different, and that social reality is pre-interpreted. However, realists in line with the positivist position also hold that science must be empirically-based, rational, and objective (Blaikie, 1993).

The current study is located within the positivist paradigm because it focused on theory testing and enhancement rather than developing a new theory. Thus, a deductive research approach is employed. The adoption of the positivism model hinges on objectivism as underlying ontological position. Generally, the objective of this research was to test a hypothesized structural model. The model anticipated that neutralization would mediate the relationship between the elements of opportunity (ethical climate and institutional policy), job pressure (workload and work pressure) and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Also, that self-control moderates the link between the constituents of opportunity, job pressure and neutralization. Next section presents research design of the study.

3.3 Research design

Research design is a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed data to obtain a solution to the problem (Zikrond, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2009). The present study utilized quantitative research design to examine the relationships amongst opportunity, job pressure, neutralization and both organizational and interpersonal deviance using self-control as a moderator. Such design is utilized because quantitative research reliably helps to find out whether a concept or idea is better than the alternatives (Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams, 2000) and able to answer questions about relationships amongst measured variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting and controlling phenomena (Kreuger & Neuman, 2006; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

Also, the present study examined causal relationships among the variables under investigation. Closely linked with the type of investigation is the extent of interference of a researcher with the normal flow of events. In this regard, the researcher's interference with the natural flow of events was limited to the distribution of questionnaires without any conscious attempt to manipulate or modify the responses and behaviours of the participants. In other words, the present study involves an unobtrusive measure as the study was conducted in the natural environment of the tertiary institutions where the researcher's interference was minimal. According to Hair, Money, Samouel and Page (2007), and Cooper and Schindler (2014), conducting a study in a natural environment creates high external validity and the findings will be more robust, relevant and comprehensive.

Also, this study employed a cross-sectional research design despite its limitations. Firstly, cross-sectional research design does not allow causal inferences to be made from the population. Secondly, the cross-sectional design offers limited information regarding changes over a period. However, despite these limitations, cross-sectional design is employed because it allows for data collection in a relatively short period as against longitudinal research design which is time consuming. Additionally, cross-sectional design was employed due to resource limitation in terms of time and cost (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Lastly, the unit of analysis is individual as data was collected from individual academic staff members in Nigerian public HEIs. Next is a brief on workplace deviance in Nigerian universities and polytechnics.

3.4 Workplace deviance in Nigerian public HEIs

The Nigerian educational setting is not immune to DWB, as unethical behaviour is evident on both polytechnics and university campuses. Jekayinfa (2013) observed that unethical behaviours are on the increase perpetrated by the governing councils, management, academics, and non-teaching staff of various tertiary institutions in Nigeria (NFF, 2015). It became worrisome to the point that President Buhari warned lecturers to desist from unethical behaviours at the convocation of University of Ilorin in October 2015.

As a follow-up, in February 2016, the president sacked 13 vice chancellors of federal universities in Nigeria because of various degrees of unethical acts and irregularities in their appointments by the immediate past Nigerian president (Okeke, 2016). Similarly,

it is on record that one of the serving vice-chancellors has a case of sexual harassment and forgery against him in a court of law (Ukpong, 2015).

Also, for their involvement in plagiarism, a professor and two other lecturers at the Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Nigeria, had their appointments terminated (Adedeji, 2013). In a related manner, a lecturer at Federal Polytechnic Bida, Nigeria was suspended for sexual harassment, a senior lecturer was forced to resign his appointment at University of Ilorin and a professor was recently suspended for unethical act in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria (Nwogu, 2016; Ogunbodede, 2018; Opara, 2016).

In early 2018, the governing council of Federal Polytechnic Kaura Namoda, Nigeria suspended the entire management staff of the institution for their involvement in unethical acts ranging from theft, financial misappropriation to employment racketeering. Noticeable deviant acts in both Nigerian polytechnics and universities include sexual harassment, taking institutions' properties without authorization, spending excessive hours fantasizing, theft, absence from lectures without prior notice to the students and academic plagiarism. Others include awards of undeserved marks to selected students due to sexual or financial gratification, conversion of research grants into non-research activities and much more (Salami, 2010a; Adebayo & Nwabuoku, 2008; Ajayi & Adeniji, 2009; Jekayinfa, 2013).

It is essential to state that the needs assessment reports on both polytechnics and universities in Nigeria identified similar challenges, tasks, behaviours and attitudinal issues (NEEDS reports, 2012, 2014). Specifically, faculty members in these institutions have similar job responsibilities (teaching, research, publications, community service

and administrative responsibility), appraised using similar performance indicators, experience excessive workloads, work pressure and uncondusive work environment. Also, these faculty members exhibit similar unethical acts as indicated in earlier paragraphs of this sub-section.

Given the importance of education to national development and growth, the present study chose faculty members of public universities and polytechnics as the population of this study because they exhibit similar unethical acts, perform similar tasks, and work in a similar work environment (NEEDS Report, 2012). Next is population of study.

3.5 Population of study

Population refers to all elements, individuals, or units that meet the selection criteria for a group to be studied, and from which a representative sample is taken for detailed examination (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The population of the current study is all academic staff members in federal and state-owned universities and polytechnics in the north-central geo political zone of Nigeria. As at September 2016, their population was 11,890.

The choice of public higher education institutions (HEIs) is essential. Firstly, most reported cases of deviance in Nigerian institutions took place in public HEIs (Makinde, 2013; NFF, 2015). For instance, a study in Nigerian public universities found that nearly 51.3% of Nigerian female students have been sexually harassed in universities (Geidam, Njoku, & Bako, 2010). Precisely on August 18, 2017, the governing council of Delta State University, Abraka, Nigeria sacked 14 faculty members and 17 non-academic staff members for plagiarism, sexual harassment, property theft, collection of money from students, alteration of students' scores, and absenteeism (Dike, 2017). Similarly,

Adekoya (2017) reported that on September 7, 2017, the governing council of Lagos state university sacked 15 faculty members for series of deviant acts. Also, a professor and two other lecturers at the Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Nigeria, had their appointments terminated due to plagiarism (Adedeji, 2013). Many faculty members have been victims of academic plagiarism, manipulation of examination scores, and sexual harassment (Ogunbodede, 2018).

Secondly, the organizational climate in private institutions in Nigeria does not tolerate deviance, but there are laxities in public HEIs (Omonijo, Uche, Nwadiafor, & Rotimi, 2013). Private HEIs have stricter rules, effective policies, and certainty of punishment against unethical acts to serve as deterrence to erring faculty members. Table 3.1 shows the population of faculty members and the spread of the public HEIs in the zone under consideration.

Table 3.1
Distribution of Population of Academics in North-Central Nigeria

	Names of universities/polytechnics	State	Population
1	University of Ilorin	Kwara	1,383
2	University of Abuja	FCT	608
3	University of Jos	Plateau	1,252
4	Federal Univ. of Technology, Minna	Niger	865
5	Federal University, Lafia	Nasarawa	494
6	Federal University, Lokoja	Kogi	258
7	University of Agriculture Makurdi	Benue	687
8	Benue State University, Makurdi	Benue	601

9	Ibrahim Badamosi University, Lapai	Niger	142
10	Kogi State University, Anyigba	Kogi	362
11	Kwara State University, Malete	Kwara	342
12	Nasarawa State University, Keffi	Nasarawa	476
13	Plateau State University, Bokkos	Plateau	329
14	Federal Polytechnic, Bida	Niger	781
15	Federal Polytechnic, Offa	Kwara	450
16	Federal Polytechnic, Idah	Kogi	490
17	Federal Polytechnic, Nasarawa	Nasarawa	565
18	Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin	Kwara	307
19	Kogi State Polytechnic, Lokoja	Kogi	405
20	Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo	Benue	285
21	Nasarawa State Polytechnic, Lafia	Nasarawa	315
22	Niger State Polytechnic, Zungeru	Niger	219
23	Plateau State Polytechnic, Barkin Ladi	Plateau	274
Total			11,890

Sources: NUC (2016) and NBTE (2016).

3.6 Sample size

A sample is a sub-group of population and a good sample should have the same characteristics of the population (Babin, Carr, Griffin, & Zikmund, 2012). Due to large population in the current study, it became impractical to obtain data from every element in the population because of the cost involved and availability of participants (Babin, Carr, Griffin, & Zikmund, 2012). Therefore, the researcher pulled a suitable sample to

represent the whole population. To minimize sampling error, the power of a statistical test was taken into consideration in determining adequate sample. It is the possibility that a null hypothesis (which predicts no significant relationship between variables) will be rejected when it is untrue (Cohen, 1988; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buckner, 2007). According to Prajapati, Dunne, and Armstrong (2010) and Erdfelder, Lang, and Buchner (2007), G*Power 3 is capable of computing five different types of power analyses. One of them is a *priori power analysis*. Power analysis is a statistical procedure for determining an appropriate sample size for a study (Bruin, 2006). It involves determining the minimum sample size required for any specified power, alpha level, and effect size. Hence, to determine the minimum sample for this study, a priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1.9.2 software (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buckner, 2007; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009).

The following parameters were used to estimate the sample size. Alpha significance level (α err prob: 0.05), moderate/medium effect size f^2 (0.15), power (1- β err prob: 0.95), and twelve main predictors. Alpha significance level (α) is also known as the alpha error and the Type I error because it is the rate of rejecting a true null hypothesis. In addition, alpha significance level is taken as a relatively small value (0.05) because the smaller the value the more rigorous the standard of null hypothesis rejection. However, the complement of the power (1-power) symbolized as β is also known as beta error or Type II error since it represents the error rate of refusing to reject a false null hypothesis.

According to Cohen (1965, 1988), beta error probability β is 1-0.05=0.95 because if an investigator sets the risk of false null hypothesis rejection at an insignificantly small level, then he reduces the power of his test. Furthermore, effect size means the degree

to which the null hypothesis is false. Specifically, Cohen (1988) described effect size as a specific non-zero value in the population while Hill et al. (2008) stated that effect size represents the impact of the strength of the relationship existing between independent and dependent variables despite the sample size. Generally, effect size (f^2) values of 0.02 can be considered weak, 0.15 considered moderate while any value above 0.35 is considered strong (Cohen, 1988; Henseler & Fassott, 2010). Consequently, the result obtained from G* Power shows that 184 is the minimum cases to be used for data analysis in the present study (Cohen, 1992; Faul et al., 2007; Faul et al., 2009). Figure 3.1 shows the result of G*Power analysis.



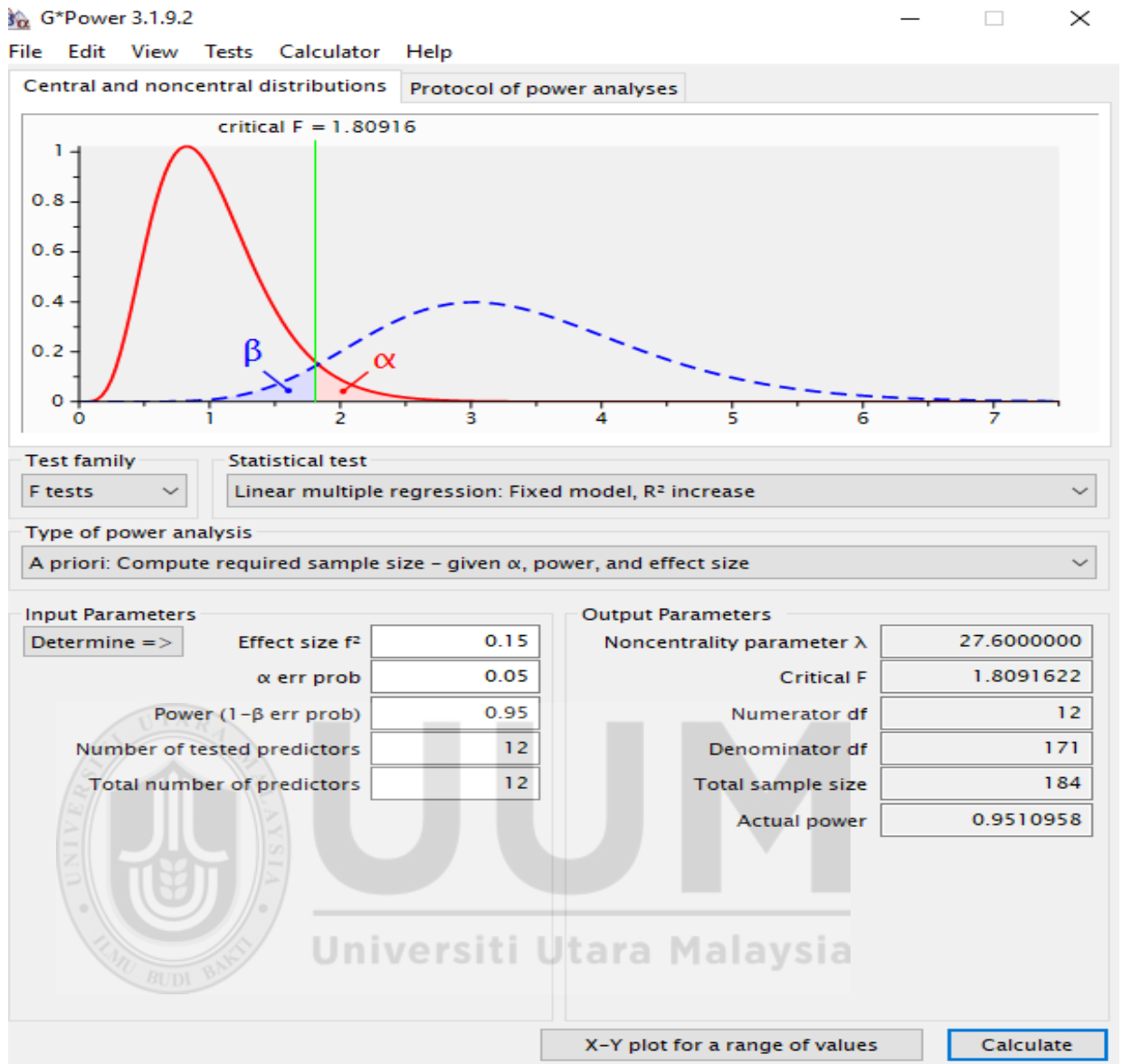


Figure 3.1.
Output of a Priori Power Analysis
 Source: G*Power 3.1.9.2

To compare the result obtained from G*Power analysis, Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sampling table was considered. The major limitation of Krejcie and Morgan's table is that as the population increases the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than three hundred and eighty samples even for a population of one million. This limitation contradicts Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin's (2010) view that as sample size increases, the likelihood of error generally

decreases. However, Krejcie and Morgan's sampling size was adopted because it has considered the level of confidence and precision thereby ensuring that error associated with sampling is lessened. Therefore, the present study with a population of eleven thousand eight hundred and ninety has a sample size of three hundred and seventy (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). According to Hair et al. (2006), a large sample size is needed to be able to generalize to the whole population. Also, based on the rule of thumb, samples from 30 to 500 can be considered adequate for quantitative researches (Roscoe, 1975). Therefore, the current sample size of 370 is considered very appropriate.

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007), any non-response will necessitate extra participants being found to reach the required sample size. Generally, response rate to questionnaire is low in Nigeria even among the literates (Asika, 1991; Nakpodia, Ayo, & Adomi, 2007; Ofo, 1994), but with the support of the contact persons in various HEIs, the researcher obtained significant filled questionnaires. Also, to minimize low response rate from uncooperative participants, the sample size of 370 was increased by 100% as suggested by Hair, Bush, and Ortinau (2008) and Hair, Wolfinbarger, and Ortinau (2008). Adding this percentage to 370 resulted in 740 cases. Finally, 740 copies of questionnaires were administered to make provision for uncooperative participants and unusable questionnaires.

3.6.1 Sampling technique

There are two main sampling designs namely probability and non-probability. Probability sampling implies that each element in the population has an equal chance of being chosen as a case in the study. Probability sampling techniques include systematic sampling, simple random sampling, cluster sampling and stratified sampling. Simple random sampling involves choosing the sample at random from the sampling frame

using either random number tables or a computer. On the other hand, systematic sampling involves selecting the sample at regular intervals from the sampling frame. Additionally, stratified random sample involves selecting sample subjects within a stratum (group). Stratified random sampling is mostly appropriate when the researcher intends to make comparisons amongst participants/strata (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Finally, cluster sampling is like stratified sampling in that the population is divided into discrete groups prior to sampling (Henry, 1990). The groups are termed clusters and can be based on any natural grouping (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007).

On the other hand, non-probability sampling denotes the notion that the sample selection is based on chance (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Non-probability sampling introduces investigator bias and limits generalizability of the findings (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Due to the limitations of non-probability sampling, the present study adopted probability sampling for several reasons: (a) probability sampling affords every subject equal opportunity of being selected as a sample (b) it can make statistical inferences, and (c) probability sampling helps to achieve a representative sample and minimises sampling bias (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012).

Generally, no matter the techniques employed in probability sampling design, the steps used in sampling are essentially the same: (1) the first task is to determine the population, (2) the researcher needs to arrive at a suitable sample size, and (3) select suitable sample (Gay & Diehl, 1992). The probability sampling technique used in the present study is cluster sampling because it selects the sample economically and retains the characteristics of the sample (Zikmund et al., 2009). Also, the participants share similar characteristics with each other such as backgrounds, working conditions and behaviours (Gay & Diehl, 1992).

Furthermore, the choice of cluster sampling is justified since the faculty members are already grouped based on the states where they work and share similar attitudes, characteristics, behaviours and working conditions (Gay & Diehl, 1992). According to Gay and Diehl (1992), the following procedures in cluster sampling apply:

1. First, determine the population. The population of all academic staff members in the public HEIs in north-central zone is 11,890 spreads across six states.
2. Determine sample size. Sample size of 370 was determined based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommendations.
3. Determine a logical cluster. The logical clusters are the six north-central states in Nigeria. There are six clusters.
4. Determine the average number of population elements per cluster. This is obtained by dividing the population of 11,890 academics in the zone by six clusters. This resulted in 1,982 cases per cluster.
5. Determine the number of cluster: to achieve this, the determined sample size of 370 is divided by the estimated size of a cluster (1,982) which resulted in 0.19 cluster. This means that approximately one state needs to be selected.
6. Choose a cluster: to choose one out of six states under investigation, a simple random (probability) sampling without replacement was adopted. Each state's name was written on different pieces of paper, folded firmly and dropped in a bowl. The researcher dipped his hand into the bowl and picked one state. Consequently, Kwara state was picked. There are four public HEIs in Kwara State namely, University of Ilorin, Kwara State University Malete, Federal Polytechnic Offa, and Kwara State Polytechnic Ilorin, with academic staff population of 1383, 342, 450, and 307, respectively. The questionnaires were distributed to the whole population of 2,482 faculty members in the state/cluster.

The researcher sent reminders to the contact persons who in turn persuaded the participants to fill and return the questionnaires to ensure that reasonable filled questionnaires were obtained because any low response implies that there would be need for extra participants to reach the determined sample size (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). At the end of data collection exercise which lasted for close to four months, the researcher obtained 427 filled questionnaires.

3.7 Content validity

Before conducting the actual survey, an initial draft of a 30-item DWB scale based on the original deviance scale by Robinson and Bennett (2000) was pre-tested and validated by six subject matter experts (SMEs) in organizational behaviour to suit deviant acts in higher educational institutions. Also, the draft items captured the faculty members' main tasks of teaching, research, publication, and community service. The experts read through the items and checked to avoid ambiguities in the items because of the need to ensure content validity (Polit & Beck, 2006).

Content validity means the degree to which an instrument has appropriate sample of items for the construct being measured (Lawshe, 1975; Polit & Beck, 2004, 2006). To ensure content validity of the modified DWB scale, Lynn (1986) recommended a minimum of three experts while Waltz, Strickland and Lenz (2005) recommended three or more experts. To this end, the researcher's supervisor and six subject matter experts (SMEs) from academic institutions not below the rank of a senior lecturer were requested to appraise the content validity of the items. The minimum rank of a senior lecturer was chosen because of their years of work experience and expertise.

Consequently, the items were validated by the researcher's supervisor and six academics who are professionals in organizational behaviours and human resource management. The subject matter experts who validated the scale were from University of Ilorin, Bayero University Kano, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Federal Polytechnic Bida, and Federal Polytechnic Kaura Namoda. The professionals examined the quality of the deviance scale for its face validity in terms of wording, format, clarity, simplicity, ambiguity and relevance of the items (Yaghmale, 2009).

Based on the recommendations of Polit and Beck's (2006) content validity index scale (CVI), the researcher computed both item level-content validity index (I-CVI) and scale level-content validity index (S-CVI) on the modified 30 items measuring both organizational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian HEIs. The Polit and Beck's CVI has its root in the works of previous researchers on items validation (Beck & Gable, 2001; Lynn, 1986; Mastaglia, Toyé, & Kristjanson, 2003).

Furthermore, Lynn (1986) developed criteria for item acceptability and suggested that with a panel of five or fewer subject matter experts, every one of the experts must agree on the items for their ratings to be valid. In other words, the I-CVI should be 1.00 when the experts are not more than five. However, with six or more subject matter experts (SMEs), the I-CVI must not be less than 0.78 but other authors recommended S-CVI of 0.80 or higher as acceptable (Grant & Davis, 1997; Polit & Beck, 2004, 2006). Lynn (1986) recommended that item ratings for I-CVI and S-CVI should be on a 4-point ordinal scale. In response to the 4-point ordinal scale proposed by Lynn (1986), Davis (1992) gave the 4-point item rating continuum as '1'=not relevant, '2'=somewhat relevant, '3'=quite relevant, and '4'=highly relevant. For each item, the I-CVI is computed by dichotomizing the ordinal scale into "relevant" (quite and highly relevant)

and “not relevant” (somewhat and not relevant) divided by the total number of experts. Meanwhile, to compute S-CVI, it is recommended to compute the average proportion of items rated as 3 or 4 by the various SMEs. The average proportion of items rated by the six SMEs in the current study is 0.80 as shown in Table 3.2.

In simple terms, three approaches are available for calculating the S-CVI/Ave. Firstly, average the proportion of items rated relevant by the experts. Secondly, average the item level content validity index by adding them together and divide by thirty (number of items in the current study). Thirdly, sum all boxes marked ‘x’ in Table 3.2. Bearing in mind that all items rated as being ‘relevant’ by all SMEs are indicated by ‘x’. Table 3.2 has 145xs and when it is divided by the number of items rated i.e. 180, then we have $145/180 = 0.80$. All three computations for S-CVI must yield the same results. The outcome of the validation is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Content Validity Index: Rating and Validation of a 30-Item Scale by Six Experts

Item	Exp. 1	Exp. 2	Exp. 3	Exp. 4	Exp. 5	Exp. 6	No.in Agreement	I- CVI
1	X	X	--	--	--	X	3	0.50
2	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
3	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
4	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
5	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
6	X	--	--	--	X	--	2	0.33
7	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
8	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
9	X	X	X	X	--	--	4	0.66
10	X	X	X	--	X	X	5	0.83
11	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
12	--	X	X	X	X	--	4	0.66

13	--	X	X	X	X	X	5	0.83
14	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
15	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
16	--	--	X	X	--	--	2	0.33
17	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
18	X	X	X	--	X	X	5	0.83
19	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
20	--	--	X	--	X	X	3	0.50
21	X	X	X	--	X	X	5	0.83
22	X	X	X	--	--	X	4	0.66
23	X	X	X	X	--	X	5	0.83
24	X	X	X	--	X	--	4	0.66
25	X	X	X	X	X	X	6	1.00
26	--	X	X	X	X	--	4	0.66
27	X	X	X	--	X	X	5	0.83
28	X	X	X	--	X	X	5	0.83
29	X	--	X	--	--	X	3	0.50
30	X	X	--	X	X	X	5	0.83
							Mean I-CVI=	0.80
Proportion							S-CVI/Ave=	0.80
Relevant:	.83	.86	.90	.63	.80	.80	Mean Expert	0.80
							proportion =	

Source: Polit and Beck (2006).

From Table 3.2, the mean I-CVI, S-CVI/Ave and mean expert proportion yielded the same value 0.80, which implies that majority of the subject experts strongly agreed with majority of the modified items in the present study. However, Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) recommended that during pre-testing and validation of instrument, researchers may discard all unnecessary, difficult or ambiguous questions.

Consequent upon the preceding paragraph, corrections, observations and improvements suggested during the validation process were included in the final scale. For example,

“plagiarised someone’s publications or ideas” was changed to “I plagiarized publications or ideas” and “refused to switch-off mobile phones during official meetings in the institution” was changed to “I refused to switch-off or place on vibration mobile phones during official duties in the institution”. In addition, items regarded as “not relevant” by 4 out of 6 subject matter experts in this adapted scale were dropped. For example, “I spread rumours to the students and/or colleagues in the institution” and “I littered work environment” were dropped. Consequently, the final DWB scale for the present study has 28 items, which were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in the next chapter.

3.8 Measurement of variables/Instrumentation

The literature indicates three measures of workplace deviance namely objective, subjective and situation-specific measures (Holtz & Harold, 2013). Firstly, objective measure refers to the evaluation of employee’s deviant acts using official records such as archival personnel records or attendance register book to determine the frequency of offences committed by the employees in the workplace. Such data can be organizational or individual. Data which reflects deviant acts directed towards the organization are used to measure organizational deviance. For instance, a copy of query letter to employees who wilfully destroyed organisation’s property or outright stealing from the company, while individual data refers to the data that is related to deviant behaviour directed at individuals. For example, a copy of a warning letter to an employee for publicly insulting his/her colleagues at work.

Another objective measurement of deviance is absenteeism (Sagie, 1998), and theft (Greenberg, 1990, 2002). Objective measure is the only measure that has actual and true picture of an employee’s engagement in either organizational or interpersonal deviance

(Detert et al., 2007; Restubog et al., 2007). However, there are limitations to objective measure of deviance. Firstly, the archival records can easily be tampered with due to human nature because the personnel in-charge of the records or database can influence the data. Secondly, it captures mostly quite narrow forms of workplace deviance. Hence, it reveals incomplete view of deviance (Bommer, Johnson, Rich, Podsakoff, & Kenzie, 1995; Dunlop & Lee, 2004). Thirdly, access to data may be denied or limited as organisations may be reluctant to make archival personnel records available to the researchers for privacy and confidentiality. Hence, such measures of deviance are very difficult to employ.

On the other hand, situation-specific measures of workplace deviance refer to the method of assessment based on job-relevant behaviours identified by the subject matter experts (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). The essence is to avoid a complete adoption of ‘one-size-fits-all’ generic measures by Blau and Andersson (2005), Marcus, Schuler, Quell and Humpfner (2002), Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, and McIntyre (2009), and Bennett and Robinson (2000). There are two justifications for adopting situation-specific measures. Firstly, generic measures may include items that are irrelevant for some jobs or organizations. Secondly, generic measures may exclude certain important items that are specific to a job (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). Because of theoretical and methodological importance of situation-specific measure of deviance, the present study modified and tailor-made items in the Robinson and Bennett’s (2000) scale to reflect deviance in Nigerian tertiary institutions.

Another measure of deviance is subjective measure. Subjective measure includes rating of employee’s deviant acts by employee himself (self-report), his colleagues (peer-rating), and his/her immediate supervisors. Subjective measure is based on empirically

validated instruments. The items in these validated measures examine both organizational and interpersonal deviance. The advantages are that subjective measure is considered appropriate due to lack of archival personnel records and the level of confidentiality of information in personnel records. Also, such validated instruments have consistent internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) proved over a period. In the present study, the researcher adopted empirically validated instruments but ensured confidentiality and anonymity of participants. This is in-line with Bennett and Robinson (2000) who stated that their deviance scale is valid in assessing deviant behaviours at work particularly if anonymity is assured during data collection.

More so, some previous empirical studies (Akikibofori, 2013; Bolton, Becker, & Barber, 2010; Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2016; Penney & Spector, 2005) examined the influence of various individual, job-related and organisational factors using subjective measures. Therefore, the present study adopted subjective measure and modified the items to reflect situation specific behaviours in Nigerian HEIs. In addition, the choice of subjective measure is precipitated on the fact that the management of tertiary institutions in Nigeria may not give the researcher complete access to personnel records of faculty members. Moreover, Robinson and Bennett (2000) stated that their subjective measure of DWB is as good as objective measure provided anonymity and confidentiality of participants are assured. Therefore, a subjective measure of deviance as adopted in this study is valid and reliable as objective measure.

The present study adopted and adapted validated instruments using 5-point Likert scale to measure the key variables under investigation. The 5-point scale is premised on the fact that using a larger number of points such as a 7-point scale or more takes some

thoughts, effort and time, which could annoy or confuse the participants with hair-splitting differences between the response levels (Frary, 1996). The use of a 5-point scale makes responses easier to code and stimulates the participants to give timely and reliable responses (Frary, 1996).

3.8.1 Workplace deviance

Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined deviant workplace behaviour (DWB) as a voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and threatens the well-being of an organization, its members or both. Workplace deviance has two dimensions namely organizational and interpersonal deviance. Organizational deviance includes all forms of unethical behaviours exhibited by the employees towards organizations or its properties while those deviant acts whose primary targets are colleagues or organizational members is regarded as interpersonal deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

To measure both dimensions of deviance, a 28-item deviant workplace scale validated by six professionals in organizational behaviours for the present study was administered. The composite reliability of 0.886 and 0.948 were recorded for organizational and interpersonal deviance, respectively (Table 4.19), which ascertained the construct validity of the scale. The researcher contextualized the DWB items to reflect deviant acts exhibited by faculty members in public higher educational institutions. The essence is to tailor-made the items to capture all potential deviant acts based on the major tasks performed by faculty members covering teaching, research, publication, and community service. This is regarded as situation-specific measure (Bowling & Gruys, 2010).

Situation-specific measures of workplace deviance refer to the method of assessment based on job-relevant behaviours identified by the subject matter experts (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). The essence is to avoid a complete adoption of ‘one-size-fits-all’ generic measures. There are two justifications for adopting a situation-specific measure. Firstly, generic measures may include items that are irrelevant for some jobs or organizations. Secondly, generic measures may exclude certain important items that are specific to a job (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). Bowling and Gruys (2010) stated that when irrelevant items are not deleted, or the relevant ones are removed, the scale is contaminated and deficient. Hence, because of the theoretical and methodological importance of situation-specific measure, the present study contextualized and tailor-made items in the Robinson and Bennett’s (2000) scale to reflect deviance in Nigerian tertiary institutions (see Table 3.3).

Participants indicated the frequency of behaviours described in the questionnaires on a 5-point scale ranging from ‘1’ “Never” to ‘5’ “Always.” For instance, ‘I accept financial and material gifts from students in exchange for good grades’ and ‘I may arrive late in the lecture room without informing the students in advance’ are some of the items. Furthermore, the present study adopted self-rating because it is better than both supervisor and peer ratings. Also, the HoDs and peers may exhibit bias and not be truthful in reporting subordinates’ and/or colleagues’ deviant acts, respectively.

Although self-reports have limitations, but the present study adopted procedural and statistical remedies suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) and Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2012) to overcome common method variance. Procedurally, the researcher observed anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, avoided ambiguity, and ensured clarity of items. Statistically, the Harman’s one-factor test was

computed, and the first factor accounted for less than 50% of the total cumulative which implies absence of common method variance (Harman, 1967). Besides, previous studies have used self-ratings and their findings were valid (Akikibofori, 2013; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Henle, 2005; Kura et al., 2013). Also, Bennett and Robinson (2000) stated that their subjective scale is valid in assessing workplace deviance provided anonymity is assured during data collection. The present study ensured confidentiality of the participants.

Justifiably, the original Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scale reported sound psychometric properties with internal reliability of 0.81 and 0.78 for organizational and interpersonal deviance, respectively. Also, past studies considered the original scale very appropriate with consistent internal reliability (Ferguson & Barry, 2011; Henle, 2005; Kura, 2014; Ménard, Brunet & Savoie, 2011; Stewart, Bing, Davidson, Woehr & McIntyre, 2009).

In the present study, workplace deviance is conceptualized as a voluntary behaviour exhibited by the faculty members which violates significant organizational norms and threatens the well-being of HEIs, the well-being of faculty members/students or both. Closely related to this is the conceptualization given by Adeoti, Shamsudin, and Wan (2017a, b) as any intentional and deliberate norm-violating behaviour exhibited by faculty members towards the institution, colleagues and/or students which cause harm to the stakeholders. Table 3.3 contains tailor-made items to measure organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Table 3.3
Deviant Workplace Scale Items

Interpersonal deviance	
ID01	I make fun of colleagues and/or students.
ID02	I say something hurtful to colleagues and/or students.
ID03	I harass students and/or colleagues sexually.
ID04	I raise tempers at colleagues and/or students.
ID05	I accept financial and material gifts or rewards from students in exchange for good grades.
ID06	I do plagiarise publications or ideas.
ID07	I accept requests from colleagues and/or family members to assist students with good grades.
ID08	At times, I publicly embarrass students and/or colleagues.
Organizational deviance:	
OD01	I take stationeries from the institution without permission.
OD02	I do not switch-off or place on vibration mobile phones during official meetings.
OD03	I inflate receipts on expenditure claims.
OD04	I take longer days for annual leave than approved by the authority.
OD05	I arrive late in the lecture room without informing the students in advance.
OD06	I attend to personal matters during working hours.
OD07	I delegate lectures to colleagues without notifying the HoD.
OD08	I travel on personal grounds on week days outside the domain of the institution without approval by the authority.
OD09	I neglect to follow management's rules/instructions.
OD10	I misuse office equipment/assets.

- OD11 I discuss confidential institutional information with unauthorized persons.
- OD12 I make financial contribution to become a co-author in article publications.
- OD13 I do not complete the required syllabus in a semester.
- OD14 I drag work slowly to show dissatisfaction with the authority.
- OD15 I arrive late at official meetings.
- OD16 I release examinations and/or test questions to students before exams/tests.
- OD17 I handle committee's assignments with less seriousness.
- OD18 I arrive committee's meetings late.
- OD19 I do not participate in community services.
- OD20 I allow committee's decisions to be influenced by ethnic or religious factors.

Original source: Bennett and Robinson (2000).

3.8.2 Ethical climate

Ethical climate is the shared perception of ethically correct behaviour in the organization (Arnaud, 2010; Martin & Cullen, 2006; Victor & Cullen, 1987). This study's measure of ethical climate (EC) is based on the work by Schwepker Jr. and Hartline (2005). The scale consisted of seven items measuring the ethical climate, presence and enforcement of codes of ethics and top management actions related to ethical climate.

Also, the scale reported acceptable internal reliability of 0.79 and above (Schwepker & Hartline, 2005). In the present study, the construct validity of the scale is 0.889. Moreover, the scale has been used to measure ethical climate of customer-contact service, and sales persons' performance (Schwepker & Hartline, 2005). Participants were requested to indicate their level of agreement on a 5-point scale ranging from '1' "mostly false" to '5' "completely true" on items such as "Top management does not support ethical behaviour at work in this institution." and "Our field is so competitive

that some lecturers do some unethical things at work”. The scale was chosen for its concise nature in measuring ethical climate. Although other measures of ethical climate exist such as the ethical climate questionnaire (ECQ) by Victor and Cullen (1987, 1988) as re-published by Cullen et al. (1993) and adopted by Cullen, Parboteeah and Victor (2003). The ECQ is a 26-item unidimensional measure with tendency to report low loadings.

The original scale was used to measure ethical climate among customer-contact service employees, but the present study adapted the scale to suit HEIs climate. For instance, “Top management does not support ethical behavior at work” was changed to “Top management does not support ethical behaviour in this institution”. Secondly, “There is not much support among my co-workers for honesty at work” got changed to “There is not much support in this institution for lecturers to exhibit honesty at work”. the whole seven items were adapted in this manner (Schwepker Jr. & Hartline, 2005, p.393). No additional item was added or dropped.

In the present study, ethical climate is conceptualized as faculty members’ perception of ethically correct behaviour and work climates in HEIs. Also, as lecturers’ observation of right and wrong behaviours in HEIs. Table 3.4 shows the ethical climate items.

Table 3.4
Ethical Climate Items

Code	Items
EC01	Top management does not support ethical behaviour in this institution.
EC02	There is not much support in this institution for lecturers to exhibit honesty at work.
EC03	I know of colleagues/students who were cheated in this institution.
EC04	This institution is more interested in making money than in meeting staff/students' needs.
EC05	I have seen my colleagues do dishonest things in this institution.
EC06	The climate in this institution does not support the idea that students should be treated fairly.
EC07	The climate in this institution allows lecturers to do some unethical things at work.

Source: Schwepker Jr. and Hartline (2005).

3.8.3 Institutional policy

A policy is a deliberate system of principles to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes. A policy is a statement of intent and is implemented as a procedure or protocol (Althaus, Bridgman, & Davis, 2007). Policies are generally formulated and implemented by the management of HEIs under the supervision of the governing council. Such institutional policies assist administrators of HEIs in decision making and may cover recruitment, gratuity, promotion, disciplinary actions/deterrence measures, transfer, remuneration/benefits, retirement and other aspects of the institutions.

Institutional policy was measured with an extract from industrial sales persons scale (Churchill et al., 1974; Comer, Machleit, & Lagace, 1989). A five-point Likert scale ranging from '1' "strongly disagree" to '5' "strongly agree" was used. The various aspects of the scale have proved to possess acceptable reliability and validity (Comer,

Machleit, & Lagace, 1989). Past studies reported that the instrument had adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) ranging from 0.70 to 0.82. Also, the reliabilities of the scale continued to exceed 0.75 and cross-validation using LISREL produced goodness of fit indices greater than 0.80 in the past (Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford, & Wood, 2007; Comer, Machleit, & Lagace, 1989; Lagace, Goolsby, & Gassenheimer, 1993). The scale recorded a composite reliability of 0.909 in the present study.

Participants indicated their level of agreement on items measuring institutional policy after such items have been adapted to suit HEIs. For instance, the original scale says, "Management is progressive" and was modified as "The management of this institution is progressive". Another original item says, "This company operates efficiently and smoothly" and was adapted as "This institution operates efficiently and smoothly because of effective policies". The original scale was used to measure company policy as a dimension of job satisfaction among industrial sales people, but the reduced scale was modified to suit HEIs. The company policy dimension has 11 items, while the final reduced-version has five items measuring company policy (Comer, Machleit, and Lagace, 1989, p. 295).

In the present study, institutional policy was conceptualized as any standard, statement, or procedure of general applicability adopted and implemented by the management for day-to-day running of HEIs. Table 3.5 presents institutional policy items.

Table3.5

Institutional Policy Items

CODE	Items
IP01	The management of this institution is progressive.
IP02	The top management of this institution knows its job in respect to policy initiation, formulation and implementation.
IP03	This institution operates efficiently and smoothly because of effective policies.
IP04	I receive good support from the management of this institution in form of policies.
IP05	In this institution, internal control policies and mechanisms are weak.

Source: Comer, Machleit, and Lagace (1989).

3.8.4 Job pressure

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), pressure at the workplace is unavoidable due to the demands of the contemporary work environment. Depending on the available resources and personal characteristics, pressure may keep workers, motivated, able to work and learn (WHO, 2017). However, when pressure becomes excessive or otherwise unmanageable it leads to stress.

Job pressure has two dimensions in this study, work pressure and academic workload (Houston, Meyer, & Paewei, 2006; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Work pressure is operationalized as the degree to which an academic must work fast and hard with great responsibilities, but with limited time (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) while academic workload is operationalized as the professional efforts a faculty member devotes to teaching, research, community services, and other academic related tasks (Allen, 1996).

Academic workload was measured with eight items developed by Houston, Meyer, and Paewei (2006). The scale was developed for a university setting and the “items specifically covered teaching, research, workloads, and workloads management” (Houston et al., 2006, p.21-22). Neither was any item added nor dropped. All items for both workload and work pressure were scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘1’ “strongly disagree” to ‘5’ “strongly agree”. Participants indicated their level of agreement on items such as “I have time to undertake quality teaching, research and publication” and “I often need to work after working hours to meet my work requirements”. Previous studies reported that the instrument had adequate internal reliability ranging from 0.74 to 0.78 (Apaydin, 2012; Boyd, Bakker, Winefield, Gillepsie, & Stough, 2010; Houston, Meyer, & Paewei, 2006).

Furthermore, work pressure was measured with five items developed by Karasek and Theorell (1990) with no item dropped or added. Examples of the items include “My job requires me to work fast” and “My tasks of teaching, research and publication often make conflicting demands on me”. The items were rephrased from the original question format to a statement format to suit the agree-disagree response scales used in the present study (See Table 3.7). Past studies also modified the original version of Karasek and Theorell’s (1990) work pressure scale to suit agree-disagree continuum (Melchior, Caspi, Milne, Danese, Poulton, & Moffitt, 2007; Shirom, Melamed, Rogowski, Shapira, & Berliner, 2009; Shirom, Toker, Alkaly, Jacobson, & Balicer, 2011). See Table 3.7 for the modifications.

Past studies reported that work pressure scale had adequate construct reliability which ranged from 0.73 to 0.85 (Brenninkmeijer, Demerouti, Le Blanc, & Van-Emmerik, 2010; De Braine & Roodt, 2011; Shirom, Melamed, Rogowski, Shapira, & Berliner,

2009; Taipale, Selander, Anttila, & Nätti, 2011). The scale has been used in various HEIs in the past (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, & Stough, 2001; Houston, Meyer, & Paewei, 2006). In the current study, job pressure is synonymous to job demands in higher education and it was operationalized as task requirements or quantitative workloads of academics measured in relation to workload and work pressure (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). Table 3.6 illustrates the items measuring academic workload.

Table 3.6
Academic Workload Items

Academic workload (Source: Houston, Meyer & Paewei, 2006).

WL01	I have time to undertake quality teaching, research and publication.
WL02	My workload has increased over the past 12 months.
WL03	I often need to work after working hours to meet my work requirements.
WL04	The amount of administration I am expected to do is reasonable.
WL05	The number of students I am expected to teach and/or supervise is reasonable.
WL06	I feel pressured to attract external research funding for my publications.
WL07	I believe the promotion procedures recognize variety of tasks that I do.
WL08	I believe that teaching and research achievements are considered by the promotion committee.

The modified work pressure scale is shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7

Work Pressure Items (Original and adapted versions of work pressure items)

Original version	Adapted version
1. Does your job require you to work fast?	WP 01: My job requires me to work fast.
2. Does your job require you to work very hard?	WP02: My tasks of teaching, research, and publication require me to work very hard.
3. Do you feel that your job requires too much input from you?	WP03: My tasks of teaching, research, community service and publication require too much input from me.
4. Do you have enough time to complete your job?	WP04: I have enough time to complete teaching, research and publication tasks.
5. Does your job often make conflicting demands on you?	WP05: My tasks of teaching, research and publication often make conflicting demands on me.

Source: Karasek and Theorell (1990).

3.8.5. Workplace spirituality

Workplace spirituality was conceptualized as a framework of organizational values which promotes employees' experience of wholeness/transcendence through the work process, facilitating sense of being connected to others in a way that provides feelings of completeness and joy (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Workplace spirituality encompasses three dimensions namely inner life, meaningful work, and community (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). However, only two dimensions namely inner life and meaningful work were examined in the present study because of their relevance to individual faculty member. Also, the third dimension, conditions for community is

much applicable to group level of analysis. Inner self refers to the viewpoint that ‘employees have spiritual needs (i.e., an inner life), just as they have physical, emotional, and cognitive needs and these needs don’t get left at home when they come to work’ (Duchon & Plowman, 2005, p. 811). Inner life is about feeling oneness with others while meaning at work is the feeling of wholeness, harmoniousness with others and direction to one’s work (Duchon & Plowman, 2005; Overell, 2008).

Ashmos and Duchon’s (2000) workplace spirituality scale was adopted to measure workplace spirituality in the present study. The only modification was the addition of a phrase “in this institution” to the items given by Ashmos and Duchon (2000). Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on items measuring both meaning at work and inner life. Sample items for measuring meaning at work are “I experience joy in my work in this institution” and “I understand what gives my work personal meaning”. The scale has construct reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of 0.858 (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). Furthermore, inner life has sample items such as “My spiritual values influence the choices I make in this institution” and “I consider myself a spiritual person in discharging my responsibilities in this institution”. The Cronbach’s alpha for inner life is 0.804.

Both scales were scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘1’ “strongly disagree” to ‘5’ “strongly agree”. Table 3.8 shows the items measuring both meaning at work and inner life.

Table 3.8

Items Measuring Workplace Spirituality

Code	<i>Items measuring meaning at work</i>
MW01	I experience joy in my work in this institution.
MW02	I believe others experience joy because of my work in this institution.
MW03	My spirit is energized by my work in this institution.
MW04	The work I do is connected to what I think is important in life.
MW05	I look forward to coming to work most days.
MW06	I see a connection between my work and the larger social good of my community.
MW07	I understand what gives my work personal meaning.
<i>Items measuring Inner Life</i>	
IL01	I feel hopeful about life in this institution.
IL02	My spiritual values influence the choices I make in this institution.
IL03	I consider myself a spiritual person in this institution.
IL04	Prayer is an important part of my life in this institution.
IL05	I care about the spiritual health of my co-workers in this institution.

Source: Ashmos and Duchon (2000).

3.8.6 Neutralization

Neutralization refers to justifications espoused by the perpetrators of deviant acts that are valid in their own sense. However, society and legal system view such acts differently. The essence of neutralization is to protect deviants from guilt and self-condemnations (Lim, 2002; Robinson & Kraatz, 1998; Sykes & Matza, 1957). Drawing from the theoretical framework of Sykes and Matza (1957), Rogers and Buffalo (1974) developed neutralization techniques scale. The original scale was used to measure

delinquency among students, but the researcher modified the items to suit faculty members in HEIs. Table 3.9 contains the original and modified versions of the scale.

Table 3.9
Neutralization Items

Item no.	Original version	Modified version
NT01:	I have no one to blame but myself for being sent to the B.I.S.	NT01: I blame no one for how I act in this institution.
NT02:	Unfair teachers are to blame for my being sent to the B.I.S.	NT02: Unfair HoDs and management staff are to be blamed for how I act in this institution.
NT03:	The judge and the court were against me from the start	NT03: The management and HoDs were against me from the start.
NT04:	I got into trouble because I couldn't run out on my friends	NT04: Most people in this institution engage in bad behaviours, so I am not alone.
NT05:	If anyone was hurt by what I did, they either deserved it or could afford it	NT05: If anyone is hurt by what I do in this institution, they either deserve it or could afford it.
NT06:	I got into trouble because I got in with the wrong boys	NT06: The behaviours of my colleagues in this institution influence my behaviours.

Source: Rogers and Buffalo (1974, p.324).

Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on sample items such as “I blame no one for how I act in this institution” and “The management and HoDs were against me from the start”.

The scale was scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from '1' "strongly disagree" to '5' "strongly agree". The scale has construct reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.861 (Rogers & Buffalo, 1974). Neutralization techniques have been used in different contexts (De-Bock & Van-Kenhove, 2011; Gruber & Schlegelmilch, 2014; Hinduja, 2007; Lee, Fooks, Gilmore, Collin, & Holden, 2012; Lim, 2002; Minor, 1981). In the present study, neutralization was conceptualized as a cognitive process that takes place before a deviant act is committed which involves advancing reasons/justifications for deviant acts to neutralize self-blame and blame of others. Table 3.9 presents items measuring neutralization.

3.8.7 Self-control

Self-control was conceptualized as the ability to override one's inner responses and interrupt undesired behavioural tendencies and refrain from acting on them (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). Self-control can be depleted. Self-control depletion reduces individual's moral awareness when they face the opportunity to engage in organizational and interpersonal deviance (Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011). Individuals who are depleted of their self-regulatory resources are more likely to impulsively exhibit deviance than individuals whose self-regulatory resources are intact (Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011).

Theoretically, general theory of self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) postulates that most unethical acts are simple to commit, require no long-term planning, and provide few long-term benefits. Individuals lacking in self-control are short-sighted, non-verbal, impulsive and get into troubles so easily. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) argues that individuals lacking in self-control are insensitive to others, fail to plan and great in risk-taking. They are likely to experience problems in social

relationships, they are more likely to do unethical things such as refusal to obey norms of the organizations and they do embrace danger (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

In the present study, the self-control scale by Turner and Piquero (2002) was adopted without adding or dropping any item. The only modification is the addition of a phrase “in this institution” to some items to reflect HEIs. Participants were asked to indicate how items described them by making a choice among 5 alternatives ranging from ‘1’ “Not at all” to ‘5’ “Very much”. Examples of the items are “I have to use a lot of self-control to keep out of trouble in this institution.” and “I often get in a jam because I do things without thinking in this institution”. The Cronbach’s alpha for the self-control scale ranged from 0.61 to 0.64. Hair et al. (1998) stated Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.6 or above signified internal consistency. Also, Tuckman (1999) suggested that Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.5 or higher is acceptable if the researcher is conducting an attitudes assessment. Thus, the scale has adequate internal/construct reliability. Items measuring self-control are presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10
Self-control Items

Code.	Items
SC01	I often get in a jam because I do things without thinking in this institution.
SC02	I think planning takes the fun out of things in this institution.
SC03	I must use a lot of self-control to keep out of trouble in this institution.
SC04	I enjoy taking risks in this institution.
SC05	I enjoy new and exciting experiences, even if they are a little frightening or unusual.
SC06	Life with no danger in it would be too dull for me.

Source: Turner and Piquero (2002).

3.8.8 Demographic variables

Gender, age, marital status, highest academic qualifications, length of service, job rank, and ethnicity were considered as demographic variables. First, gender was coded using dummy variables with value “1” for male and “2” for female. Also, educational qualification was measured with “1” = HND/B.Sc./B.Eng., “2” = master’s degree, and “3” = Doctorate Degrees. Additionally, age was denoted using dummy variables with “1” = 21-30 years, “2” = 31-40 years, “3” = 41-50 years, and “4” = 51 years and above. A similar coding system was applied to length of service with “1” = 1-5 years, “2” = 6-10 years, “3” = 10-15 years, and “4” = 16 years and above. Similarly, job status was coded using “1” = Professor/chief lecturer, “2” = Associate professor/principal lecturer, “3” = Senior Lecturer/Assistant Chief Instructor, “4” = Lecturer I, “5” = Lecturer II, “6” = Lecturer 3, and “7” = Assistant Lecturer. Maritally, “1” denoted Single, “2” = Married, “3” = Divorced/separated and “4” = Widow/widower. Finally, ethnicity was coded using “1” = Hausa/Fulani/Nupe, “2” = Igbo/Ibo, “3” = Yoruba, and “4” = other minority groups.

3.9 Common method variance

Common method variance (CMV) is the spurious variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures are assumed to represent (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method variance is associated with self-report surveys (Chang et al., 2010; Kock, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 2003) because common method bias inflates relationships between variables measured by self-reports and leads to exhibition of spuriously high correlations (Conway & Lance, 2010; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

To minimize the effects of CMV, several preventive measures were undertaken based on the recommendations of several authors (Kock, 2015; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff, 2003; Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010). Firstly, to ease apprehension on the part of the participants, the researcher made it clear that there was neither right nor wrong answers to the items in the scales and participants were given an assurance that their responses would be treated with utmost confidentiality. Secondly, items in deviance scale were pre-tested and validated to ensure simplicity, clarity of wording, concise use of words, and avoidance of ambiguity. This is to minimize method biases in the present study because improving scale items and anonymity are essential in overcoming common method variance (Chang, Van-Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010; Kock, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012; Williams et al., 2010).

Last but not the least, the current study adopted Harman's single factor test to examine common method variance (Harman, 1967; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The Harman's one-factor test involves performing a principal component factor analysis on all items in the theoretical model. If the results of the principal components factor analysis indicate that the first factor explains less than 50% of the total variance, it means that CMV is not a major concern (Harman, 1967; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

3.10 Pilot test

A pilot test is a small scale of initial research process conducted to evaluate the practicality, cost, time, and size of the statistical variability. According to Sekaran (2000), a pilot study is useful to correct any inadequacies in the instrument. Also, a pilot test makes provision for a sufficient time to check the reliability, validity and viability of the instruments as well as to determine the time needed by the participants to fill the

questionnaires. It is always useful to carry out a pilot study before the actual data collection (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

According to Cooper and Schindler (2011) and Emory and Cooper (1991), the appropriate size of the pilot study is from 30 to 100 cases. Based on this recommendation, the pilot test for the current study was conducted using a convenient sample of 100 academics from selected departments at Ibrahim Badamosi University, Lapai, Federal university, Lafia, Benue state university, Makurdi and Federal Polytechnic, Offa, all located in north-central Nigeria. This pilot study enabled the researcher receive feedback, comments and suggestions from the participants about the length, structure and wording of the instruments.

The teaching staff for pilot study were not considered in the actual study because the contact persons in the union secretariats of these institutions helped the researcher identify departments in each of the institutions that could fill 25 questionnaires each and members of staff in these selected departments/institutions were not considered during proper data collection exercise to avoid possibility of contamination. This is because pilot test participants were exposed to the instruments, therefore, they may respond differently from those who have not previously seen the instruments (Van-Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). The researcher attached a plain sheet to the pilot study instrument to enable participants to give their comments. The comments given were observed in the final questionnaire before the main survey. However, out of the 100 questionnaires distributed, 69 copies were filled and returned. Therefore, 69% response rate was recorded for the pilot study. The researcher employed SmartPLS 3.2 to analyze the pilot study data and the Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values are presented in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11
Results of the Pilot Test (N=69)

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
Ethical climate	0.821	0.864
Inner Life	0.943	0.956
Institutional Policy	0.877	0.910
Interpersonal dev	0.707	0.705
Self-control	0.923	0.940
Meaning at work	0.924	0.941
Neutralization	0.869	0.891
Organizational dev	0.912	0.923
Work pressure	0.721	0.726
Workload	0.896	0.906

As shown in Table 3.11, both composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were used to evaluate the reliability of the scales in the pilot study. Generally, reliability is achieved when the composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of each variable is at least 0.70 (Hair et al., 2014; Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). From Table 3.11, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of each variable ranged from 0.707 to 0.943 while composite reliability ranged from 0.705 to 0.956. Hence, values of all variables exceeded the minimum acceptable level of 0.70. Therefore, there is adequate reliability for the measures used in the pilot study.

3.11 Data collection procedures

Data gathering is the process of obtaining the responses of the participants (Zikmund et al., 2009). The data collection methods may include focus group interviews, group discussion, experimentation, questionnaire, observation, scanner data (data recorded by machines) and web-based surveys (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Zikmund et al., 2009). The choice or combination of any method depends on cost, skill of the researcher, data availability/accessibility, time required to complete the research and methodological design of the investigation (Sekaran, 2003).

In the present study, the researcher adopted self-administered questionnaire. A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for obtaining data from the participants. Questionnaire has advantages over other types of surveys because it is less costly, does not require as much effort from the questioner as personal interviews or telephone surveys, and often has standardized answers that make it easy to compile data (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Gillham, 2008; Mellenbergh, 2008). Also, the choice of questionnaire is justified because it is a widely used method adopted by social researchers who are interested in collecting data about a very large population that cannot be interviewed or observed directly (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Additionally, the survey design is appropriate in the present study because the study described the phenomenon of workplace deviance by soliciting general opinions of the participants in different Nigerian public HEIs.

To commence data collection, the researcher obtained a letter of introduction from Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business, introducing the researcher to the management of HEIs visited in Nigeria. This enabled the researcher get support from the management of HEIs. To facilitate data collection, a contact person was approached in the academic staff union secretariat of each institution. The contact persons were members of academic staff union executives in various institutions visited. The contact persons identified the faculty members in the institution while the researcher distributed the questionnaires to the participants. This data collection method helps to establish rapport with the participants while introducing the survey (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). In addition, personally administered surveys are more valid than low-cost interviews, as the former incurs less error than the latter (Creswell, 2012).

Consequently, the data collection period covered approximately four months due to the number of participants covered. To ensure anonymity, the researcher made it clear on the cover letter to the questionnaire that any information given by the participants would be treated confidentially and filled questionnaires could be submitted to the contact persons in the academic staff union's secretariats. This is in line with Bennett and Robinson (2000) who stated that their workplace deviance scale/measure is valid in assessing both organizational and interpersonal deviance at work especially if anonymity is assured during data collection.

Regrettably, the researcher encountered difficulties in mobility from one institution to another due to geographical distance. Secondly, there are generally poor attitudes towards filling of questionnaire in Nigeria, which resulted in delayed return of filled questionnaires. Response rate is within 40-50% in Nigeria (Asika, 1991; Linus, 2001; Nakpodia, Ayo, & Adomi, 2007) and the present study attained that feat after much persuasions. The researcher sent reminders to the contact persons, who in turn encouraged participants to participate through general notice boards, group WhatsApp messages and group emails. This helped to avoid personal interference on the part of the researcher and to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality of the participants.

Also, this approach helped to ensure high rate of response from the participants. The participants returned the filled questionnaires to the contact persons while the researcher went back to the institutions to pick the filled and returned questionnaires for sorting, coding, data screening and analysis. At the end of data collection exercise, the researcher obtained 427 filled and returned questionnaires. The next sub-section presents measurement of variables.

3.12 Data analysis

Data analysis involves response coding, data screening, descriptive statistical analysis of variables, missing data, and test for outliers, response bias test, multicollinearity and reliability test (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2004, 2006; Hair et al., 2017). Data analysis and hypotheses testing were conducted with the use of partial least structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM 3.2.7) to test the theoretical model (Ringle et al., 2012, 2015). PLS-SEM application has been used successfully in different areas of research, specifically in management science, strategic management, social psychology, marketing among others (Hair et al., 2012, 2013; Henseler et al., 2009).

The researcher understood the peculiar weaknesses of PLS-SEM. Firstly, PLS has an issue with assessment of model fit and potential lack of complete consistency in scores on latent variables (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014; Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013). Secondly, PLS has a problem of multicollinearity if not handled well (Wong, 2013) and thirdly, PLS-SEM cannot model undirected correlation (Wong, 2013). Notwithstanding the limitations of PLS-SEM, Urbach and Ahlemann (2010) considered PLS path modeling as the most suitable technique in this study because the present study has a complex model with mediating and moderating variables. Secondly, the research objective is predictive, and the study sought to establish causal relationship rather than confirmation of structural relationships, so, PLS-SEM is the preferred method (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011, 2014). Thirdly, PLS-SEM has the advantage of estimating the relationships between constructs (complex structural models) and relationships between indicators and their corresponding latent constructs simultaneously (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Hair et al., 2017; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009). Also, the Smart PLS software was

selected because of its friendly graphical user interface, which helps users test a mediating effect using Hayes (2013), Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, and Kuppelwieser (2014) as well as Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) bootstrapping techniques of estimating indirect effects in mediation models and enables users to create a moderating effect for path models with interaction effects (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler & Fassott, 2010; Temme, Kreis, & Hildebrandt, 2006, 2010).

More importantly, the present study adopted a two-step process to evaluate and report the results of PLS-SEM path as suggested by Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009) and Hair et al. (2017). The two main methodological elements are evaluations of the structural model and measurement model. These two elements are briefly explained below.

3.12.1 Evaluation of measurement model

Assessment of the measurement model involves determination of discriminant validity, individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability and convergent validity (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014). Validity and reliability are the most important decisive factors used to test the integrity of measures in social research. Reliability shows the consistency by which a measuring instrument measures what the theory intends to measure. It represents the internal consistency showing the homogeneity of items in the measure, measuring the latent variable (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Although Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 is used to measure the internal consistency of items (Sekaran, 2003), but due to the limitations of cronbach's alpha, some scholars preferred composite reliability index as alternative. Nonetheless, Hair et al. (1998) opined that internal reliability value (α) of 0.60 or more is significant.

Furthermore, the essence of validity test is to show the reliability of the tools (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). This study examined discriminant validity, convergent validity and construct validity. Firstly, construct validity affirms how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the concepts around which the investigation is designed (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The concern here is whether the instrument is connected to the concepts that are theorized (Ramayah et al., 2011). This is done through convergent and discriminant validity tests. Secondly, convergent validity means the degree to which several items that have been used in measuring the same concept agree. As suggested by Hair et al. (2010), factor loadings, composite reliability and average variance extracted were computed to measure convergent validity. Thirdly, discriminant validity is a test that measures the levels at which items distinguish between construct or measure divergent concepts. The present study adopted Fornell-Larcker criterion, and Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) to test discriminant validity (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015; Kline, 2011). This was evaluated by scrutinizing the relationships amongst the measures for possible overlapping constructs. The validities described in this section were computed before hypotheses testing.

3.12.2 Evaluation of the structural model

The coefficient of determination (R^2 value), which is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy is one of the most commonly used measure to evaluate the structural model. The coefficient shows the combined effects of the exogenous latent variables on the endogenous latent variable. It also represents the amount of variance explained by all exogenous constructs on related endogenous constructs. The value of R^2 is from 0 to 1 and the higher the value, the more accurate the model's ability to make a valid prediction. However, acceptable value of R^2 depends on the field of study. For instance,

in business research when R^2 value is close to 0 (or 0%) it indicates a weak level and when the R^2 value is close to 0.5 (or 50%) it indicates a moderate level while R^2 value is close to 1 (or 100%), it indicates a strong level (Wegner, 2011).

Similarly, the predictive relevance of the model was assessed by using the blindfolding procedure to obtain Q^2 . If Q^2 is positive, the model has predictive validity. However, if Q^2 is negative, the model does not have predictive validity (Tenenhaus, 1999). Finally, the PLS path modeling bootstrapping technique was applied to test the hypotheses formulated for this study and various statistical explanations and decisions were made thereafter.

3.13 Summary of chapter

The methodology section stated the research design, research philosophy, and instruments adopted/adapted. Furthermore, information on population of study, sample size and sampling technique have been detailed. Also, explanation of the pilot study has been provided to determine the reliability and validity of the items/scale. Finally, this chapter described the procedures for obtaining data and statistical tools used in data analysis. The next chapter presents results of the analysis using SmartPLS-SEM 3.2.7.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss the results of the statistical analyses of the key variables incorporated in the conceptual model. Firstly, the results of initial data screening and preliminary analyses are presented. Such data screening and preliminary analyses include assessment of missing values, detection and treatment of outliers, common method variance, normality and multicollinearity tests. Secondly, descriptive statistics of key and demographic variables are presented. Thirdly, using PLS-SEM, the measurement and structural models' results are presented.

4.2 Response rate

According to Jobber (1989), response rate is defined as the percentage of total questionnaires mailed that were returned by respondents. Overall, a total of 427 out of 740 questionnaires were filled and returned by the faculty members in public universities and polytechnics situated in Kwara state. To achieve this response rate, several WhatsApp messages, phone call reminders, and short message service (sms) were sent to the contact persons in various academic staff unions' secretariats. The contact persons were part of the academic staff union executives who helped to identify and mobilize participants for the questionnaires (Salim, Silva, Smith, & Bammer, 2002; Traina, MacLean, Park, & Kahn, 2005). The contacts were encouraged to remind their colleagues to participate in the survey. However, 36 out of 427 copies were unusable because a significant part of those copies was not fully completed as some participants exhibited uncooperative attitudes which did not follow any pattern. In all, the survey

produced 391 valid copies representing 52.8% valid response rate which is considered adequate for analysis. Table 4.1 summarises the response rate.

Table 4.1
Response Rate of the Questionnaires

Response	Frequency rate
No. of distributed questionnaires	740
Returned questionnaires	427
Returned but unusable questionnaires	36
Returned and usable questionnaires	391
Questionnaires not returned	313
Response rate	57.7%
Valid response rate	52.8%

According to Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001) and Hair et al. (2010), the present response rate is sufficient because a sample size should be within the range of five to ten times the number of dependent and independent variables. The number of constructs in the present study is ten. Therefore, a sample of 100 would have been enough for analysis. More importantly, the tool of analysis for the current study is PLS-SEM, which requires a minimum of 30 participants (Chin, 1998b; Hair et al., 2017). Thus, a total of 391 returned and useable questionnaires for the current study are adequate for analysis because Lindner and Wingenbach (2002) suggested a minimum response rate of 50% is adequate for surveys. The present study attained 57.7% response rate and 52.8% valid response rate.

Further, the response rate is higher than 40-50% rate recorded for most surveys in social science researches in Nigeria (Linus, 2001). Response rate is poor in Nigeria as revealed

in previous studies (Asika, 1991; Gorondutse, 2014; Kura, 2014; Nakpodia, Ayo, & Adomi, 2007; Ofo, 1994). In their words, Hart (1987) and Jobber (1989) considered 53.5% response rate as 'quite high'. Therefore, the present response rate is satisfactory. The next sub-section presents the results of the preliminary analyses.

4.3 Data screening and preliminary analysis

Prior to initial data screening, all the 391 valid questionnaires were coded into the statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS). Initial data screening is very crucial in any multivariate analysis because it helps researchers to identify any possible violations of the assumptions of multivariate techniques of data analysis (Hair et al., 2017). Additionally, initial data screening helps researchers to understand and appraise the data collected for further analysis. The following preliminary data analyses were performed: (1) missing value analysis, (2) assessment of outliers, (3) non-response bias, (4) common method variance, (5) normality test, and (6) multicollinearity test (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Next is assessment of missing values.

4.3.1 Assessment of missing value

Missing values are the variables without complete information regarding them in a set of data while information about other variables is available in the same set (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The present study considered randomly missing data among the data set as missing values. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that missing value is one of the major pervasive problems in data analysis. Researchers have argued that overlooking cases with missing values could have a serious impact on quantitative research, which can lead to biased estimates of parameters, loss of information, decreased statistical power, increased standard errors, as well as weakened

generalizability of findings (Dong & Peng, 2013; Graham, 2009; Schlomer, Bauman & Card, 2010). In the present study, percentage of missing values is obtained by dividing the total number of randomly missing values for the entire dataset by total number of data points multiplied by 100.

There is no universal threshold on how many missing data can be tolerated for a given sample size and a valid statistical analysis. However, Schafer (1999) and Schafer and Graham (2002) asserted that a missing rate of 5% or less is of no importance in multivariate analysis while Bennett (2001) stated that when missing value is more than 10%, the results of subsequent statistical analyses may be invalid and biased. According to Mirkes, Coats, Levesley, and Gorban (2016), the major approaches to resolving missing data are casewise/listwise deletion, pairwise deletion and mean substitution. Firstly, casewise deletion means only cases that do not contain any missing data for any of the variables selected will be included in the analysis. Secondly, pairwise deletion is an approach in which a correlation between each pair of variables is calculated from all cases that have valid data on those two variables.

Thirdly, mean substitution refers to replacement of all missing data in a variable by the mean (value) of that variable. In comparison with other approaches to resolving missing values, mean substitution has the advantages of producing internally consistent sets of results (true correlation matrices) and can permanently remove missing data from data sets while casewise and pairwise deletions result in data loss (Little & Rubin, 2014; Zarate, Nogueira, Santos, & Song, 2006). Of these approaches, Little and Rubin (2014) stated that mean substitution is the best method of replacing missing values if the total percentage of missing data is 5% or less. Hence, in the present study, randomly missing values were replaced using mean substitution as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2
Number of Detected and Replaced Missing Values

Result Variable	Number of Replaced Missing Values
Age	4
Gender	9
Marital status	6
Highest educational qualification	4
Length of service	6
Job rank	3
Ethnicity	6
Grand total	38 out of 32,844 data points
Percentage of missing value	0.12%

Note: Percentage of missing values is obtained by dividing the total number of randomly missing values for the entire dataset by total number of data points multiplied by 100. As can be seen in Table 4.2, of 32,844 data points, 38 were randomly missed, which represent 0.12%. According to Schafer (1999) and Schafer and Graham (2002), a missing rate of 5% or less is of no importance in multivariate analysis. Therefore, 0.12% missing data is less than 5% and would be ignored in the present study. The next subsection presents analysis of outliers.

4.3.2 Outliers detection and handling

Barnett and Lewis (1994) defined outliers as the observation or subsets of observations which appear to be inconsistent with the remainder of the data. Outliers are the excessive case scores that may likely have a considerable negative impact on the outcomes. Outlier cases have uncommonly high values which make some datasets stand out from the remaining data (Hair et al., 2010, 2017). In a multivariate analysis, the presence of

outliers in the dataset represents a serious threat that could decrease the statistical power of a model thereby leading to spurious results (Verardi & Croux, 2008). However, some outliers may be retained as they show a significant indication of something amiss, but in many parametric statistics, exclusion of outliers from the dataset is common. Two types of outliers are found in many datasets (Barnet & Lewis, 1994). A univariate outlier is a data point that consists of an extreme value on one variable while a multivariate outlier is a combination of unusual scores on at least two variables (Bryn, 2010; Verardi & Croux, 2008).

Multivariate outliers can be recognized and handled using Mahalanobis distance, leverage, discrepancy, and influence. Firstly, Mahalanobis distance is the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at the intersection of the means of all the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Leverage is related to Mahalanobis distance but is measured on a different scale so that the X^2 distribution does not apply but reveals cases with large scores. On the other hand, discrepancy assesses the extent that the case is in line with the other cases, while influence is determined by leverage and discrepancy and assesses changes in coefficients when cases are removed. In most instances, cases > 1.00 are likely to be considered outliers (Barnet & Lewis, 1994).

Specifically, assessment of multivariate outliers in the present study is based on Mahalanobis distance (D^2) measure because the approach offers statistical validity and higher accuracy than other methods (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 4.3 presents the result for the assessment of multivariate outliers.

Table 4.3
Multivariate Outliers Detected and Removed

Questionnaire number	Mahalanobis distance (D^2)
4	171.00349
6	153.6001
13	138.39352
15	158.76606
25	149.45123
44	127.19152
47	153.76291
54	145.9576
57	192.04998
71	170.33369
80	130.75196
84	149.11262
91	164.048
93	140.38952
96	152.53739
101	132.62036
102	167.28357
122	200.29356
137	141.21847
142	126.36234
165	177.9867
170	140.40333
197	122.20629



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246	192.45996
251	137.38904
255	132.28253
257	135.54105
267	174.75369
276	123.7695
277	147.4387
282	122.27501
297	151.64985
314	177.9867
319	140.40333
346	122.20629

Note: $N = 77$; $df = 76$; $X^2 = 119.850$; $p = 0.001$; $D^2 = \geq X^2$

Based on degree of freedom of 76 observed variables in this study ($df=n-1$), the recommended threshold of chi-square is 119.85 ($p=0.001$). Hence, Mahalanobis distance values that exceeded the threshold of 119.85 were deleted from the data set (Barnet & Lewis, 1994). In line with this criterion, only thirty-five multivariate outliers were identified and subsequently deleted. Therefore, the remaining 356 valid datasets were used for analysis. The next sub-section discusses non-response bias.

4.3.3 Assessment of non-response bias

Lambert and Harrington (1990) described non-response bias as the differences in the answers between non-respondents and respondents or between those who respond quickly and those who respond late after a specified period. It is essential to determine non-response rate because it introduces a bias in estimates when non-respondents differ

from respondents in the characteristics measured. Secondly, by reducing the sample size, non-response causes an increase in the standard errors of estimates since the sample size observed is reduced from that originally sought (Sarndal & Lundstrom, 2005). According to Lewis, Hardy and Snaith (2013), non-response bias can result in misleading or inaccurate findings. To minimize the issue of non-response bias, Lindner and Wingenbach (2002) recommended that a minimum response rate of 50% should be achieved in surveys.

To estimate the possibility of non-response bias, Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested a time-trend extrapolation approach which entails comparing the early and late respondents. Another approach is setting an anticipated response rate which is mostly not less than 50% (Lindner & Wingenbach, 2002). Also, Lynn (1996) identified two approaches to tackling the effects of non-response. The first one is to minimise the effects of nonresponse at the data collection stage by introducing measures which aim to maximise the response rate. The other approach is to make statistical adjustments at the analysis stage. Lynn (1986) remarked that it is desirable to combine both approaches because if non-response bias occurs during data collection, then statistical adjustments can minimize it during analysis (Lynn, 1996). The present study adopted a time-trend extrapolation approach by comparing early and late respondents (Armstrong & Overton, 1977).

In the present study, participants were divided into two groups, those who responded within 30 days (October-November 2016; early respondents) and those who responded after 30 days (after November 2016; late respondents). Of 356 valid cases, 260 participants (73%) responded within 30 days after the distribution of the questionnaire while the remaining 96, representing 27%, responded after 30 days (see Table 4.4).

Statistically, a time-trend extrapolation approach entails conducting an independent samples t-test to detect any possible non-response bias in datasets and Levene's test for equality of variance provides a guide to extrapolation approach. Levene's test is an inferential statistic used to assess the equality of variances for a variable calculated for two or more groups. Levene's test assumes that variances of the populations from which different samples are drawn are equal (Levene, 1960). Table 4.4 presents results of independent samples t-test to determine non-response rate.

Table 4.4
Result of Non-Response Bias

Variables	Grouping	N	Mean	SD	SE	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
						F	Sig.
Ethical climate	Early response	260	2.30	.63	.04	.54	.46
	Late response	96	2.44	.67	.07		
Institutional policy	Early response	260	2.93	.75	.05	.12	.73
	Late response	96	2.99	.76	.08		
Workload	Early response	260	3.74	.62	.04	.00	.97
	Late response	96	3.60	.62	.06		
Work pressure	Early response	260	3.68	.59	.04	.09	.77
	Late response	96	3.61	.61	.06		
Inner life	Early response	260	3.15	.79	.05	.15	.70
	Late response	96	3.24	.77	.08		
Meaning at work	Early response	260	2.99	.67	.04	.00	.98
	Late response	96	3.08	.66	.07		

Self-control	Early response	260	3.50	.59	.04	.09	.76
	Late response	96	3.43	.61	.06		
Neutralization	Early response	260	3.96	.69	.04	2.48	.12
	Late response	96	3.80	.79	.08		
Interpersonal deviance	Early response	260	3.75	.59	.04	.99	.32
	Late response	96	3.63	.64	.07		
Organisational deviance	Early response	260	3.01	.44	.03	.00	1.00
	Late response	96	3.05	.43	.04		

The result of independent samples t-test in Table 4.4 revealed that the equal variance of significant values for each construct is greater than 0.05 significance level of Levene's test for equality of variances (Field, 2009; Levene, 1960; Pallant, 2010). Since there were no significant differences between early and late respondents, the assumption of equal variances was not violated. Hence, non-response bias is not a threat to the present study. The next discussion dwells on common method variance.

4.3.4 Assessment of common method variance

Common method variance (CMV), also known as monomethod bias, refers to variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method variance is a major concern when self-reported surveys are used (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Spector & Brannick, 2009). CMV poses a significant threat to validity, thereby resulting in systematic measurement errors that can either inflate or deflate the observed relationships between constructs (Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). Also, there has been increasing apprehension about how

to decrease method biases in behavioural studies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2003, 2012).

To minimize the effect of CMV in this study, both procedural and statistical remedies as suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) were applied. Firstly, expert opinions were received through content validity of the workplace deviance items to avoid vague concepts in the questionnaire (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Similarly, the researcher allowed the respondent's anonymity in the questionnaire (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Additionally, the researcher assured the respondents that their answers would be kept confidential and they should answer the questions as honestly as possible and there are no right or wrong answers (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Secondly, Harman's single-factor test was conducted using SPSS, un-rotated exploratory factor analysis by controlling the number of factor to be 1 with seventy-seven items of all the constructs. The findings showed that no single factor accounted for more than 50% of the variance. The result yielded 18 distinct factors, with total variance explained/extracted cumulative of 73.09% of the variance. Only 21.517% of the total variance was accounted for by a single factor which is less than 50% (see **Appendix C**) indicating the absence of common method bias in this study (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Therefore, common method bias is not a problem in the present study. The next sub-section ascertains the normality of data distribution.

4.3.5 Normality test

Normality deals with the nature of data distribution for an individual construct and its association with normal distribution. Screening for normality is a significant step in multivariate analysis when the researcher intends to make inference (Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2007). Although some researchers agreed that PLS-SEM results are robust even in situation with an extremely non-normal data, hence no need for normality test (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009; Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder, & Van Oppen, 2009). It is important to note that in social sciences, data collected from the field may fail to follow a multivariate normal distribution (Hair et al., 2012; Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014). Overlooking the key assumption of multivariate normal distribution could reduce the statistical power of the analysis (Hair et al., 2014a).

To ensure that normality assumption is not violated in the present study, skewness and kurtosis statistics were computed. Skewness is a measure of symmetry, or more precisely, the lack of symmetry. A distribution or dataset is symmetric if it looks the same to the left and right of the centre point. On the other hand, Kurtosis is a measure of whether the data are heavy-tailed or light-tailed relative to a normal distribution. That is, datasets with high kurtosis tend to have heavy tails, or outliers while data sets with low kurtosis tend to have light tails, or lack of outliers. Significant skewness and kurtosis clearly indicate that data are not normal (Hair et al., 2014; Kline, 2011). Kline (2011) suggested that the key normality assumption is considered violated when the skewness exceeds ± 3 and kurtosis is greater than ± 10 . Table 4.5 shows the results for the normality test based on skewness and kurtosis.

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics of Normality Test (N = 356)

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Stat.	Statistic	Stat.	Stat.	Stat.	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
EC01	356	1	5	3.29	.894	-.275	.129	-.515	.258
EC02	356	1	5	3.51	.890	-.381	.129	-.156	.258
EC03	356	1	5	3.89	.887	-.435	.129	-.426	.258
EC04	356	1	5	3.92	.832	-.787	.129	.951	.258
EC05	356	1	5	3.69	.864	-.374	.129	-.202	.258
EC06	356	1	5	3.67	.804	-.370	.129	.082	.258
EC07	356	1	5	3.69	.864	-.559	.129	.453	.258
IP01	356	1	5	2.76	.960	.020	.129	-.968	.258
IP02	356	1	5	2.90	.938	-.106	.129	-.774	.258
IP03	356	1	5	3.06	.934	-.463	.129	-.668	.258
IP04	356	1	5	3.26	.901	-.556	.129	-.229	.258
IP05	356	1	5	3.31	.885	-.475	.129	-.255	.258
WL01	356	1	7	4.06	.864	-.900	.129	1.765	.258
WL02	356	1	7	3.90	.895	-.677	.129	1.248	.258
WL03	356	1	7	3.68	.842	-.222	.129	.592	.258
WL04	356	1	7	3.54	.816	-.274	.129	1.092	.258
WL05	356	1	7	3.66	.923	-.198	.129	.069	.258
WL06	356	1	7	3.55	.879	-.293	.129	.633	.258
WL07	356	1	7	3.85	.830	-.775	.129	2.055	.258
WL08	356	1	5	3.40	.919	-.363	.129	-.233	.258
WP01	356	1	5	4.00	.952	-.866	.129	.352	.258

WP02	356	1	5	4.04	.999	-.959	.129	.541	.258
WP03	356	1	5	2.94	.985	-.036	.129	-.292	.258
WP04	356	1	5	3.89	.840	-.879	.129	1.455	.258
WP05	356	1	5	3.43	.884	-.586	.129	-.578	.258
MW01	356	1	5	2.86	.976	.133	.129	-.544	.258
MW02	356	1	5	2.64	.990	.357	.129	-.584	.258
MW03	356	1	5	3.01	.966	-.085	.129	-.546	.258
MW04	356	1	5	3.00	1.007	.050	.129	-.652	.258
MW05	356	1	5	3.16	1.005	-.080	.129	-.719	.258
MW06	356	1	5	3.15	1.074	.003	.129	-.951	.258
MW07	356	1	5	3.28	.907	-.448	.129	-.381	.258
IL01	356	1	5	2.60	.955	.457	.129	-.484	.258
IL02	356	1	5	2.53	.971	.587	.129	-.343	.258
IL03	356	1	5	3.08	1.007	-.075	.129	-1.059	.258
IL04	356	1	5	2.84	.964	-.212	.129	-.813	.258
IL05	356	1	5	3.08	.986	-.117	.129	-.852	.258
SC01	356	1	5	3.83	.763	-.543	.129	.648	.258
SC02	356	1	5	3.60	.738	-.405	.129	.376	.258
SC03	356	2	5	3.50	.714	-.103	.129	-.244	.258
SC04	356	1	5	3.16	.796	.148	.129	.077	.258
SC05	356	1	5	3.28	.734	.121	.129	-.032	.258
SC06	356	1	5	3.54	.799	-.370	.129	.459	.258
NT01	356	1	5	3.86	.789	-.645	.129	1.018	.258
NT02	356	1	5	3.95	.788	-1.064	.129	2.358	.258
NT03	356	1	5	3.93	.762	-.845	.129	1.745	.258

NT04	356	1	5	3.91	.776	-.819	.129	1.517	.258
NT05	356	1	5	3.92	.783	-.958	.129	2.126	.258
NT06	356	1	5	3.95	.745	-.658	.129	1.060	.258
ID01	356	1	5	4.06	.932	-1.235	.129	1.774	.258
ID02	356	1	5	4.05	.882	-1.096	.129	1.719	.258
ID03	356	1	5	4.08	.946	-1.041	.129	1.000	.258
ID04	356	1	5	4.10	.850	-1.068	.129	1.698	.258
ID05	356	1	5	3.52	.827	-.468	.129	.390	.258
ID06	356	1	5	3.77	.828	-.598	.129	.575	.258
ID07	356	1	5	3.19	1.020	-.150	.129	-.619	.258
ID08	356	1	5	2.97	1.014	.062	.129	-.925	.258
OD01	356	1	5	2.89	.965	.202	.129	-.836	.258
OD02	356	1	5	2.58	.965	.516	.129	-.292	.258
OD03	356	1	5	2.77	.963	.056	.129	-.883	.258
OD04	356	1	5	2.89	.999	-.006	.129	-.925	.258
OD05	356	1	5	3.01	1.004	-.146	.129	-.729	.258
OD06	356	1	5	3.00	.925	-.129	.129	-.619	.258
OD07	356	1	5	3.30	.989	-.322	.129	-.562	.258
OD08	356	1	5	3.43	.989	-.446	.129	-.315	.258
OD09	356	1	5	2.82	1.063	-.154	.129	-.798	.258
OD10	356	1	5	3.56	.818	-.753	.129	-.127	.258
OD11	356	1	5	2.92	.990	.088	.129	-.845	.258
OD12	356	1	5	2.63	1.011	.475	.129	-.412	.258
OD13	356	1	5	2.74	.978	.041	.129	-.804	.258
OD14	356	1	5	2.88	1.032	.062	.129	-.866	.258

OD15	356	1	5	2.96	1.038	-.220	.129	-.822	.258
OD16	356	1	5	2.97	.965	-.214	.129	-.693	.258
OD17	356	1	5	3.29	1.035	-.400	.129	-.599	.258
OD18	356	1	5	3.41	1.021	-.482	.129	-.245	.258
OD19	356	1	5	2.80	1.123	-.123	.129	-.966	.258
OD20	356	1	5	3.58	.830	-.761	.129	.035	.258

As shown in Table 4.5, the key condition for normality has been met. Specifically, the normality test conducted revealed that none of the items in the dataset has a skewness and kurtosis statistics greater than ± 3 and ± 10 , respectively. To reconfirm the results of the normality test, a graphical approach was employed to determine whether the data collected is distributed normally. Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 present the normality curve and the normality probability plot (P-P Plots), respectively.

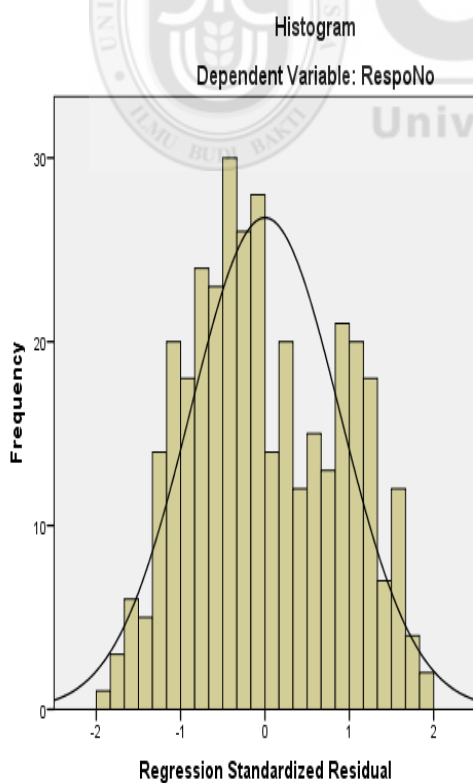


Figure 4.1. Normality Curve

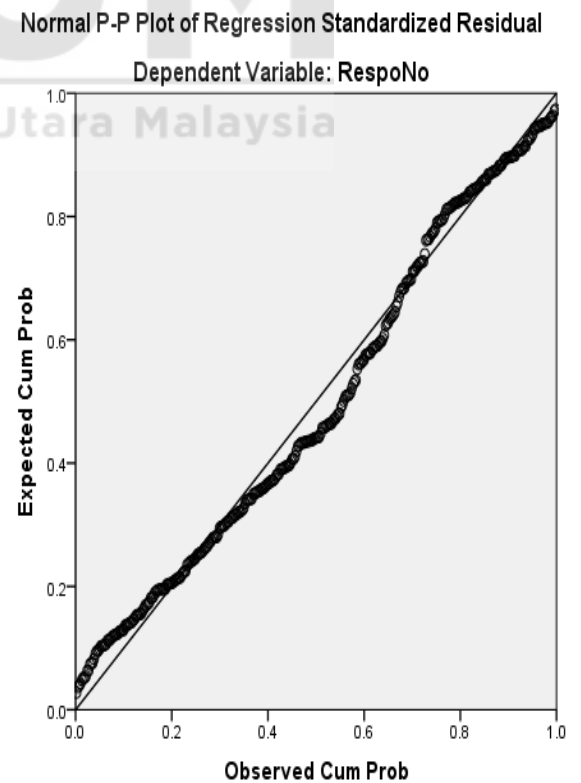


Figure 4.2. Normality Probability Plot

As depicted in Figures 4.1 and 4.2, the data collected for this study is consistent with normal distribution curve. Therefore, it can be concluded that the key assumption of multivariate normal distribution has been satisfied. The present study screens for multicollinearity in the next sub-section.

4.3.6 Multicollinearity test

Multicollinearity (also collinearity) refers to a situation in which one or more exogenous latent constructs become highly correlated. The presence of multicollinearity among the exogenous latent constructs can substantially distort the estimates of regression coefficients and their statistical significance tests (Chatterjee & Yilmaz, 1992; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Additionally, multicollinearity makes it difficult to determine the individual contribution of independent variables on the dependent variables and may be present when there is unacceptably high correlation among the independent variables (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Keith, 2014).

In the present study, variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values were employed to test collinearity issue. VIF is a means to measure how much the variance of an estimated regression coefficient increases if the predictors are correlated while tolerance value is an indicator of multicollinearity. There are various recommendations for acceptable level of tolerance. For example, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommended 0.10 while Menard (1995) proposed 0.20.

The present study agreed with Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011) that multicollinearity is a concern if the tolerance value is less than 0.20. On the other hand, literatures have suggested maximum VIF values of 5 (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; O'Brien, 2007;

Rogerson, 2001) and 10 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). Table 4.6 showcases the tolerance and VIF values.

Table 4.6
Result of Multicollinearity Test

Independent Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Ethical climate	0.555	1.801
Institutional policy	0.723	1.384
Workload	0.425	2.352
Work pressure	0.579	1.728
Inner life	0.774	1.292
Meaning at work	0.837	1.195

From Table 4.6, all variance inflated factor (VIF) values are lower than the suggested thresholds value of 5 (O'Brien, 2007; Rogerson, 2001) and 10 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995; Mooi & Sarstedt, 2014). In fact, the tolerance values in Table 4.6 ranged from 0.425 to 0.837, which is higher than 0.10 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) and 0.20 (Menard, 1995) as the case may be. Therefore, the key assumption of multicollinearity has not been violated in the present study. Having completed data screening, the next sub-section presents descriptive statistics of study variables.

4.4 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics for the continuous variables were based on five-point Likert scales computed mainly for mean and standard deviation, while other descriptive statistics for the categorical variables included frequencies and percentages. The essence of descriptive statistics is to summarize and present the raw data collected in a clear and understandable manner (Hanneman, Kposowa, & Riddle, 2013; Stevens, 2012).

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics of study variables

The researcher made use of descriptive statistics to provide a general overview of the latent variables namely, ethical climate, institutional policy, workload, work pressure, meaning at work, inner life, neutralization, self-control, organizational and interpersonal deviance. Each item in the questionnaire administered was rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree” for some variables, 1 = “never” to 5 = “always” while another variable has 1 = “mostly false” to 5 = “completely true”. Accordingly, the mean and standard deviation of the constructs were determined to reflect their levels as shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7
Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables (n=356)

	Mean	Std deviation
Ethical climate	2.34	0.64
Institutional policy	2.94	0.75
Workload	3.70	0.62
Work pressure	3.66	0.59
Inner life	3.18	0.78
Meaning at work	3.02	0.67
Self-control	3.48	0.59
Neutralization	3.92	0.72
Interpersonal deviance	3.72	0.60
Organisational deviance	3.02	0.44

As shown in Table 4.7, the mean and standard deviation of ethical climate were (M=2.34 SD= 0.64), which suggests the participants’ views of ethical climate in Nigerian HEIs is below average. The values for institutional policy were (M=2.94 SD= 0.75). This

suggests that the appraisal of institutional policy is slightly above average and higher than that of ethical climate as many faculty members are aware that few colleagues in some HEIs have been dismissed while others have been suspended for both organizational and interpersonal acts. Also, statistics of academic workload showed that the values (M=3.70, SD=0.62) are relatively higher than the statistics for work pressure (M=3.66 SD=0.59).

Additionally, the mean and standard deviation of inner life were (M=3.18, SD= 0.78) while meaning at work reported (M=3.02 SD=0.67). These values suggest that the participants spirituality in the workplace moderately. The values for neutralization were (M=3.92 SD=0.72), which means that the participants' awareness of different forms of neutralization techniques is very high. Similarly, the participants' knowledge of self-control is significant (M=3.48, SD=0.59). The cases relatively reported higher interpersonal deviance (M=3.72, SD=0.60) than organizational deviance (M=3.02, SD=0.44).

4.4.2 Demographic profile of respondents

Specifically, Table 4.8 shows the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 4.8
Demographic Profile of the Respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
21-30 years	21	5.9
31-40 years	121	34.0
41-50 years	139	39.0
51 years and above	75	21.1

Gender		
Male	274	77.0
Female	82	23.0
Marital status		
Single	36	10.1
Married	298	83.7
Divorced/Separated	9	2.5
Widow/Widower	13	3.7
Highest educational qualification		
HND/BSc/BA/B.Eng.	104	29.2
Master's degree	161	45.2
Doctorate degree	91	25.6
Length of service		
1-5 years	108	30.3
6-10 years	88	24.7
11-15 years	65	18.3
16 years and above	95	26.7
Job rank		
Professor/Chief Lecturer	44	12.4
Associate Professor/Principal Lecturer	46	12.9
Senior Lecturer/Asst. Chief Instructor	72	20.2
Lecturer 1/Principal Instructor I	57	16.0
Lecturer II/Principal Instructor II	42	11.8
Lecturer III/Senior Instructor	61	17.1
Assistant Lecturer/Higher instructor	34	9.6

Ethnicity		
Hausa/Nupe/Fulani	120	33.7
Igbo/Ibo	34	9.6
Yoruba	129	36.2
Others	73	20.5

With respect to Table 4.8, 73% of the participants aged 31 years and above. The age distribution implies that most participants are matured adults who are fully aware of their actions and inactions. The sample is a good representation of the population. In terms of gender, males constituted 77% of the sample. The government's reports on public universities in Nigeria found that most HEIs faculty members are males (NEEDS report, 2012). Also, previous studies demonstrated similar gender distribution. For example, in a study conducted by de-Lara and Tacoronte (2007), majority of lecturers at a university were males (64.6%) and 35.4% females. Similarly, Kura (2014) conducted a study on 265 faculty members in Nigeria and reported 67.8% males and 31.3% females. Furthermore, most participants were married (83.7%).

Educationally, 161 participants (45.2%) have obtained master's degrees while 25.6% (91 participants) are doctorate degree holders. This reflects the passion Nigerians have for higher education because possession of masters and doctorate degrees are requirements for some positions in academic institutions in Nigeria. Hence, there is a desire to obtain higher degrees at home and abroad. The level of education is a predictor of both organizational and interpersonal deviance because it was reported that highly educated individuals are less deviant (Akinbode & Fagbohunge, 2011; Fagbohunge et al., 2012).

In terms of job tenure, 248 academics have spent a minimum of 6 years on the job. Lecturing jobs have job security in Nigeria and faculty members may wish to remain on the job until they attain retirement age of 65 or 70 years for non-professors and professors respectively. According to government report on the needs of public universities (2012), there are more faculty members in the lower cadre in Nigerian HEIs than senior positions. However, to avoid bias and over-concentration in the lower cadre, the present sample comprised 44 Professors/chief lecturers (12.4%), 46 Associate professors (12.9%), and 72 senior lecturers (20.2%). In all, 45.5% of the participants were senior lecturers and above while the lower cadres constituted 54.5% of the participants. Additionally, Table 4.8 is a pointer to the ethnic combinations of the participants. Approximately 36.2% of the participants were Yorubas, 33.7% were Hausa/Fulani/Nupe, 9.6% were Igbos while the remaining 20.5% represents minority ethnic groups. Similar statistics were reported by Kura (2014) in a study on full time faculty members in Nigerian universities with 46% of the participants being Yorubas, 34.7% were Hausa/Fulani, 10.9% were Igbos while the remaining 8.3% were minority ethnic groups.

The present study does not intend to ascribe peculiarity of deviance to any specific ethnic group to avoid sentiments and ethnic crisis in the workplace. However, the ethnic composition in Table 4.8 is a vivid representation of literacy level among the major ethnic groups in Nigeria. The remainder of this chapter presents the results of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), measurement, and structural models.

4.5 Assessment of PLS path modeling

Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009) recommended a two-step process in the assessment of PLS-SEM to counter the argument about the suitability or otherwise of PLS path modeling in model validation. The approach involves determination of measurement model and structural model (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). According to Joreskog and Sorbom (1993), testing the structural model may be meaningless unless the measurement model has been evaluated. Therefore, before testing the structural model, measurement model was evaluated to determine the extent to which the data collected fits the model. Figure 4.3 summarises the process.

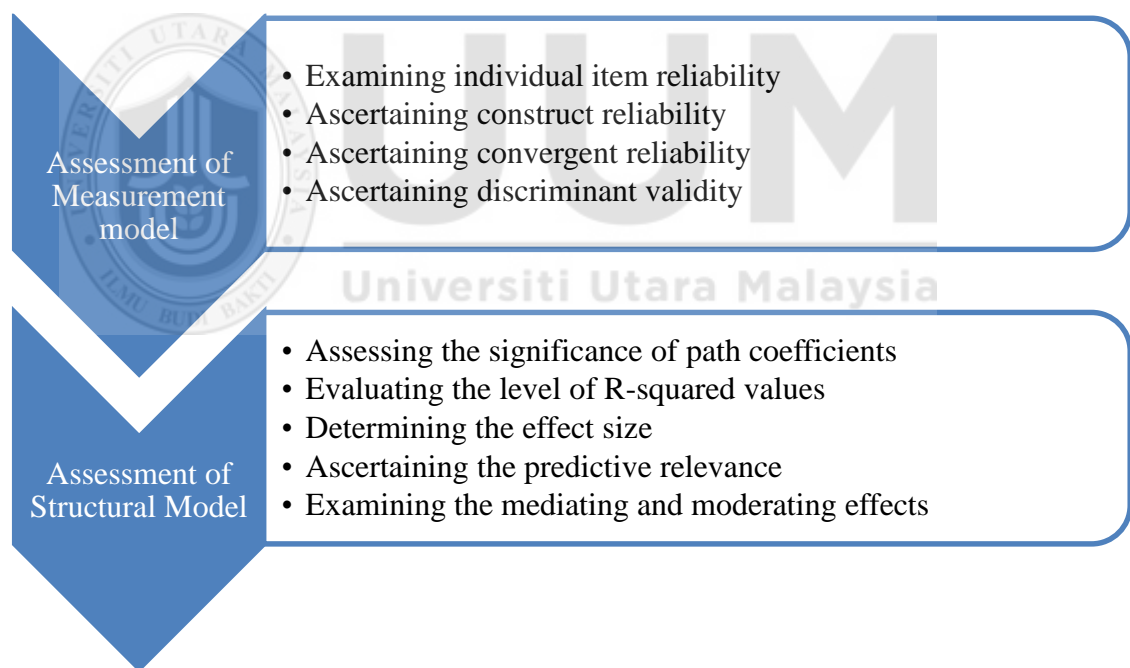


Figure 4.3
Two-Step Process for the Assessment of PLS-SEM
Source: Henseler et al. (2009).

4.5.1 Exploratory factor analysis

To ascertain the initial reliability and factorial validity of the instruments, exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a technique

within factor analysis whose main aim is to identify the underlying relationships between measured variables (Norris & Lecavalier, 2010). It is commonly used by researchers when developing a scale (a scale is a collection of questions used to measure a research topic) and serves to identify a set of latent constructs underlying measured variables (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999).

This sub-section presents results of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for the instruments used in this research using principal axis factoring (PAF) as the extraction method and Varimax with Kaiser normalization as the rotation method. This was done to determine convergent validity among items for all constructs.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was chosen over Principal Component Analysis (PCA) because it is the most adopted and understood method. Also, PAF offers a parsimonious representation of observed correlations between variables by latent factors and does not eliminate items unlike Principal Component Analysis (PCA). On the other hand, Varimax belongs to the orthogonal rotation method, and probably the most popular and valid rotation method (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2011).

In addition, the researcher chose a minimum value of 0.50 as the threshold for factor loadings due to its practical significance. According to Hair et al. (2017), 0.50 is significant provided AVE value of 0.50 is attained for all constructs. The measurement model results indicate that AVE was attained for all the constructs (see Table 4.19).

All the constructs measurements for the study were adopted from previous studies while the scale for deviant workplace behaviour by Bennett and Robinson (2000) was

contextualized to suit higher educational institutions. The validation processes stipulated by Polit and Beck (2004, 2006) and Lynn (1986) were adopted to contextualize DWB scale. Also, to further confirm the validity of the instruments, reliability of all constructs was analyzed using the composite reliability index, Cronbach's alpha and average variance extracted-AVE (see Table 4.19 and Appendix B). All Cronbach's alpha, CR, factor loadings and AVE values were satisfactory.

To assess the validity of the EFA results, the researcher observed the recommendations of Field (2005) that EFA should be assessed using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO), Bartlett's test, total variance explained, factor loadings, and rotated component matrix.

Firstly, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test is a measure of how suited a data is for factor analysis. The test measures sampling adequacy for each variable in the model and for the complete model. The KMO statistic varies between 0 and 1. A value of 0 indicates that the sum of partial correlations is large relative to the sum of correlations, indicating diffusion in the pattern of correlations. On the other hand, a value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and factor analysis may yield distinct and reliable factors (Kaiser, 1974). KMO values between 0.00-0.49 is regarded as unacceptable, 0.50-0.59 miserable, 0.60-0.69 mediocre, 0.70-0.79 middling, 0.80-0.89 meritorious, while 0.90-1.00 is regarded as marvellous (Cerny & Kaiser, 1977; Kaiser, 1974).

Secondly, Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the null hypothesis that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix. For factor analysis to work, we need some relationships between variables and if the R-matrix were an identity matrix, then the

correlations would be zero. A significant test (significant value less than 0.05) indicates there are some relationships between the variables in the analysis, suggesting that a factor analysis may be useful with the data (Bartlett,1937: Snedecor & Cochran, 1989).

Thirdly, the eigenvalues with each factor represent the variance explained by a linear component. The SPSS displays the eigenvalues in terms of the percentage of variance explained. Normally, the first few factors explain relatively large amounts of variance, especially factor 1. Thereafter, SPSS extracts all factors with eigenvalues from 1 and percentage of variance explained.

Fourthly, rotated component matrix, also known as rotated factor matrix, is a matrix of the factor loadings for each variable onto each factor. This matrix is calculated after rotation. Statistically, the present study uses rotation method via Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (Field, 2005). It indicates the number of factors and/or dimensions in the scale after grouping the items with similar themes.

4.5.1.1 EFA results for opportunity

The EFA results for the facet of opportunity provided evidence of two-factor measurement model, which comprises ethical climate and institutional policy. The factor loadings were between 0.629 to 0.757 for ethical climate, while institutional policy had factor loadings ranging from 0.689 to 0.857 (Table 4.10). Also, the opportunity dimensions had total variance explained cumulative 60.821% (0.60821), which is greater than the required minimum value 0.5. Furthermore, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity for opportunity dimensions are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9
KMO and Bartlett's Test Result for Opportunity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.820
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	2191.822
Sphericity	Df	66
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.9 indicates KMO value of 0.820 which is regarded as meritorious and great (Kaiser, 1974; Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999), while Bartlett's test is highly significant ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, factor analysis is appropriate. Appendix D and Table 4.10 indicate that the extraction of two factors accounts for 60.821% of the common variance. This means that a two-factor model is associated with a percentage of explained common variance of 60.821%.

Table 4.10
Rotated Component Matrix for Opportunity

	Factor	
	1	2
EC07	0.757	
EC05	0.742	
EC06	0.736	
EC04	0.715	
EC02	0.663	
EC03	0.649	
EC01	0.629	
IP03		0.857
IP02		0.813
IP01		0.740
IP04		0.717
IP05		0.689

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 Note: EC= Ethical climate. IP= Institutional policy

Table 4.10 indicates that the rotated component factor for opportunity items yielded two factors (dimensions) by grouping the items with similar themes together. To further reconfirm the validity of the scale, the measurement model shows that the Cronbach's alpha of ethical climate was 0.835 while the CR and the AVE were 0.889 and 0.668 respectively. The values demonstrated that both CR and AVE are all above 0.7 and 0.5, respectively. Consequently, the data analysis indicated that the convergent validity of ethical climate is within the standard parameters (Table 4.19). On the other hand, Table 4.19 indicates that institutional policy has a CR value of 0.909, AVE value 0.667, and Cronbach's value of 0.875 (Appendix B), which are all satisfactory (Hair et al., 2017).

4.5.1.2 EFA result for job pressure

The outcomes of EFA for job pressure provided evidence of a two-factor measurement model comprising workload and work pressure. Specifically, the loadings ranged from 0.612 to 0.820 for workload and 0.603 to 0.814 for work pressure (Table 4.12) and the total variance explained for this construct was 58.932% (0.58932) as shown in Appendix H. As indicated in Table 4.11, the value of KMO is 0.884, which is quite satisfactory. A KMO value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact, suggesting that factor analysis would yield distinct and reliable factors (Kaiser, 1974).

Table 4.11
KMO and Bartlett's Test Result for Job Pressure

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.884
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	2077.101
Sphericity	Df	78
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.11 presents a KMO value of 0.884, which falls into the range of being great and suggests that factor analysis is adequate. In addition, Bartlett's test is highly significant

($p < 0.001$). The Bartlett's significant value further demonstrates that the EFA result for workload and work pressure is appropriate. Table 4.12 presents the rotated component matrix results.

Table 4.12
Rotated Factor Matrix for Job Pressure

	Factor	
	1	2
WL01	0.820	
WL02	0.767	
WL03	0.612	
WL04	0.690	
WL05	0.660	
WL06	0.755	
WL07	0.662	
WL08	0.733	
WP01		0.786
WP02		0.694
WP03		0.603
WP04		0.814
WP05		0.643

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Note: WL= Workload. WP= Work pressure

Table 4.12 indicates that rotated component matrix for job pressure items yielded two related factors (dimensions) by grouping the items with similar themes together. In the measurement model, the Cronbach's alpha of workload and work pressure were 0.865 and 0.802, respectively (Appendix B), while the CR for workload and work pressure were 0.903 and 0.883, in that order. On the other hand, the AVE values were 0.651 and

0.715 for workload and work pressure, respectively. Consequently, the data analysis shows that the convergent validity of workload and work pressure were satisfactory as shown in Table 4.19 (measurement model results).

4.5.1.3 EFA result for workplace spirituality

The results of EFA for workplace spirituality yielded two-factor model, which comprises themes closely related to inner life and meaning at work. The factor loadings were between 0.682 to 0.870 for inner life while factor loadings for meaningful work ranged from 0.618 to 0.717 (Table 4.14). Also, the workplace spirituality dimensions had total variance explained cumulative 56.245% (0.56245) as shown in Appendix E, which is greater than the required minimum value 0.5. Furthermore, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity for workplace spirituality dimensions are shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13

KMO and Bartlett's Test Result for Workplace Spirituality

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.815
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	1838.195
Sphericity	Df	66
	Sig.	0.000

As indicated in Table 4.13, the value of KMO is 0.815, which is above the cut-off points of 0.60 and 0.70 as the case maybe (Kaiser, 1974). Furthermore, Bartlett's test is highly significant ($p < 0.001$). The Bartlett's significant value further demonstrates that the EFA result for inner life and meaningful work is satisfactory. Table 4.14 presents the rotated component matrix results for workplace spirituality.

Table 4.14
Rotated Factor Matrix for Workplace Spirituality

	Factor	
	1	2
IL04	0.870	
IL03	0.748	
IL01	0.723	
IL02	0.704	
IL05	0.682	
MW07		0.618
MW02		0.717
MW03		0.701
MW01		0.685
MW05		0.676
MW04		0.666
MW06		0.627

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Note: IL= Inner life. MW= Meaning at work/meaningful work

It is evident in Table 4.14 that the rotated component matrix for workplace spirituality revealed two related themes, regarded as inner life and meaningful work experience in the present study. Besides the EFA results, additional evidence on the validity of both inner life and meaningful work in terms of convergent and discriminant validities exist under measurement model results.

4.5.1.4 EFA result for neutralization

The results of the EFA for neutralization grouped all the six neutralization items into a single factor measurement model with a KMO value of 0.930 regarded as marvellous

by Kaiser (1974). Hence, the factor analysis is adequate. Moreover, the Bartlett's measure shows that there is a significant relationship among the items measuring neutralization. A significant test (significant value less than 0.05) indicates there are some relationships between the variables in the analysis. Table 4.15 presents the KMO and Bartlett's test results.

Table 4.15

KMO and Bartlett's Test Result for Neutralization

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.930
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2834.952
	Df	15
	Sig.	0.000

Based on Table 4.15, Bartlett's test is highly significant ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, factor analysis is appropriate. Also, the total variance explained for neutralization was 86.495% (Appendix G), which surpassed the minimum 50%. However, since only one component was extracted, the rotated component matrix table will not be presented. Furthermore, the AVE values, Fornell-Larcker criterion, and HTMT ratio were all significant, indicating additional validity and reliability of the construct (See Tables 4.19, 4.29, & 4.30).

4.5.1.4 EFA result for self-control

Based on the EFA outcomes, total variance explained for self-control was 62.068 (Appendix F) and the KMO was 0.831. Overall, the factor analysis yielded a single factor measurement model for self-control. Table 4.16 indicates the KMO value and Bartlett's test result for self-control.

Table 4.16
KMO and Bartlett's Test Result for Self-control

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.831
Bartlett's Test of	Approx. Chi-Square	1176.546
Sphericity	Df	15
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.16 shows the KMO value of 0.831, a value considered as meritorious by Kaiser (1974). Also, the Bartlett's test is highly significant ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, the scale is adequate to measure self-control. Additionally, other statistical evidence exists on the validity of self-control in terms of convergent and discriminant validity as shown in subsequent sections.

4.5.1.4 EFA result for deviant workplace behaviour

The results of the EFA for deviant workplace behaviour indicate evidence of a two-factor measurement model, which is akin to what Bennett and Robinson (2000) classified as organizational and interpersonal deviance. In addition, all the factor loadings were from 0.556 to 0.718 for organizational deviance while interpersonal deviance recorded 0.561 to 0.784.

Furthermore, the total variance explained for deviant workplace behaviour was 53.295 while the Eigenvalues were 9.733 and 7.430 for interpersonal and organizational deviance, respectively (Appendix K). As indicated in Table 4.17, the value of KMO was 0.813, which is considered as meritorious (Kaiser, 1974).

Table 4.17

KMO and Bartlett's Test Result for Deviant Workplace Behaviour

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.813
Bartlett's Test	Approx. Chi-Square	5364.552
of Sphericity	Df	378
	Sig.	0.000

As shown in Table 4.17, the Bartlett's test of sphericity result is very significant ($p < 0.001$), indicating some relationships between the items in the measurement. Therefore, factor analysis is appropriate. Also, Table 4.18 presents the factor loadings as revealed by the rotated factor matrix for DWB.

Table 4.18

Rotated Component Matrix for Deviant Workplace Behaviour

	Rotated Factor Matrix ^a	
	Factor	
	1	2
ID01	0.659	
ID02	0.592	
ID03	0.561	
ID04	0.698	
ID05	0.618	
ID06	0.709	
ID07	0.784	
ID08	0.665	
OD01		0.655
OD02		0.612
OD03		0.556
OD04		0.579

OD05	0.574
OD06	0.607
OD07	0.585
OD08	0.562
OD09	0.576
OD10	0.621
OD11	0.620
OD12	0.594
OD13	0.583
OD14	0.601
OD15	0.621
OD16	0.718
OD17	0.624
OD18	0.560
OD19	0.600
OD20	0.588

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Note: ID= Interpersonal deviance. OD= Organizational deviance

By Kaiser’s criterion, there are two factors in DWB measurement and this was made possible because the sample size exceeded 250 (Kaiser, 1974). As shown in Table 4.18, after rotation, items with similar themes were grouped together under two headings. Having ascertained the factorial validity of all the measures in the present study, the next sub-section presents the assessment of measurement model using PLS-SEM 3.2.7.

4.5.2 Assessment of measurement model

The first step is to evaluate the measurement model also known as the outer model. The measurement model is the part which demonstrates the relationships between indicators and the latent constructs (Ramayah, Lee, & In, 2011). Assessment of a measurement model involves examination of reliability and validity of the measures (Andrew, Pederson, & McEvoy, 2011). Reliability is defined as the consistency or stability of measures each time it is administered (Hays & Revicki, 2005). It is usually ascertained at the individual item level or construct level (Chin, 2010; Gotz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Kraft, 2010). On the other hand, validity tests assess how well an instrument measures an exact concept it is designed to measure (Hair et al., 2017; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The present study appraised individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, discriminant validity and convergent validity (Henseler et al., 2009; Roldan & Sanchez-Franco, 2012). Table 4.19 presents the result of measurement model.

Table 4.19
Results of Measurement Model (Reliability)

Constructs and Indicators	Loadings	Composite Reliability	AVE
Ethical climate		0.889	0.668
EC04	0.797		
EC05	0.839		
EC06	0.809		
EC07	0.824		
Institutional policy		0.909	0.667
IP01	0.798		
IP02	0.852		

IP03	0.871		
IP04	0.787		
IP05	0.772		
Workload		0.903	0.652
WL01	0.882		
WL02	0.887		
WL03	0.755		
WL05	0.766		
WL06	0.734		
Work pressure		0.882	0.715
WP01	0.892		
WP02	0.779		
WP04	0.861		
Inner life		0.900	0.645
IL01	0.836		
IL02	0.820		
IL03	0.778		
IL04	0.860		
IL05	0.717		
Meaning at work		0.874	0.635
MW01	0.785		
MW02	0.873		
MW03	0.764		
MW04	0.762		
Self-control		0.906	0.618

SC01	0.769		
SC02	0.855		
SC03	0.866		
SC04	0.725		
SC05	0.743		
SC06	0.747		
Neutralization		0.975	0.865
NT01	0.920		
NT02	0.866		
NT03	0.955		
NT04	0.944		
NT05	0.954		
NT06	0.938		
Interpersonal deviance		0.909	0.633
ID01	0.796		
ID02	0.897		
ID03	0.899		
ID04	0.909		
ID05	0.574		
ID06	0.627		
Organisational deviance		0.890	0.505
OD01	0.698		
OD02	0.726		
OD03	0.737		
OD04	0.723		

OD05	0.767
OD06	0.771
OD07	0.673
OD08	0.573

According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Hair et al. (2014), satisfactory construct reliability is attained when the composite reliability index is 0.70 or higher. Table 4.19 shows that composite reliability values range from 0.874 to 0.975. Also, recent recommendations opined that when AVE value of 0.50 is achieved in any construct, researchers are to retain items with loadings less than 0.7, but where AVE of 0.50 is not achieved, researchers are to retain items with a minimum loading of 0.70 (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). The present study retained items with loadings greater than 0.50 provided the AVE values are greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2016, 2017). Therefore, items and constructs reliability have been ascertained. The next sub-section presents Tables 4.20 to 4.28 which indicate the list of items retained and/or deleted after the measurement model validation of the items.

4.5.1.1 Items retained/deleted after measurement model validation

Tables 4.20 to 4.28 indicate the items retained and/or deleted for all the variables after the measurement model validation process.

Table 4.20

Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
ID01	I make fun of colleagues and/or students.	Retained
ID02	I say something hurtful to colleagues and/or students.	Retained
ID03	At times, I harass students and/or colleagues sexually.	Retained
ID04	I raise tempers at colleagues/students.	Retained
ID05	I accept financial and material gifts from students in exchange for good grades.	Retained
ID06	I do plagiarise publications or ideas.	Retained
ID07	I accept requests from colleagues and/or family members to assist students with good grades.	Deleted
ID08	I publicly embarrass students/colleagues.	Deleted
OD01	I take stationeries from the institution without permission.	Retained
OD02	I do not switch-off or place on vibration mobile phones during official meetings.	Retained
OD03	I inflate receipts on expenditure claims.	Retained
OD04	I take longer days for annual leave than approved by the authority.	Retained
OD05	I arrive late in the lecture room without informing the students in advance.	Retained
OD06	I attend to personal matters during working hours.	Retained

OD07	I delegate lectures to colleagues without notifying the head of department.	Retained
OD08	I travel on personal grounds on week days outside the domain of the institution without approval by the authority.	Retained
OD09	I neglect to follow management's rules/ instructions.	Deleted
OD10	I misuse office equipment and other assets.	Deleted
OD11	I discuss confidential institutional information with unauthorized persons.	Deleted
OD12	I make financial contribution to become a co-author in article publications.	Deleted
OD13	I do not complete the required syllabus in a semester.	Deleted
OD14	I drag work slowly to show dissatisfaction with the authority.	Deleted
OD15	I arrive late at official meetings.	Deleted
OD16	I release examinations and/or test questions to students before exams/tests.	Deleted
OD17	I handle Committee's assignments with less seriousness.	Deleted
OD18	I arrive committee's meetings late.	Deleted
OD19	I refuse to participate in community services.	Deleted
OD20	I allow committee's decisions to be influenced by ethnic or religious factors.	Deleted

Table 4.20 indicates that six out of eight items were retained in the interpersonal deviance scale while eight out of 20 items were retained in the organizational deviance scale. Table 4.21 presents the ethical climate validation result.

Table 4.21
Ethical Climate Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
EC 01	Top management does not support ethical behaviour in this institution.	Deleted
EC 02	There is not much support in this institution for lecturers to exhibit honesty at work.	Deleted
EC 03	I know of colleagues /students who were cheated in this institution.	Deleted
EC 04	This institution is more interested in making money than in meeting staff/students' needs.	Retained
EC 05	I have seen my colleagues do dishonest things in this institution.	Retained
EC 06	The climate in this institution does not support the idea that students should be treated fairly.	Retained
EC 07	The climate in this institution allows lecturers to do some unethical things at work.	Retained

Table 4.21 shows that four out of seven ethical climate items were retained after measurement model evaluation. Table 4.22 showcases the institutional policy validation result.

Table 4.22
Institutional Policy Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
IP01	The management of this institution is progressive.	Retained
IP 02	The top management of this institution knows its job in respect to policy initiation, formulation and implementation.	Retained
IP 03	This institution operates efficiently and smoothly because of effective policies.	Retained
IP 04	I receive good support from the management of this institution in form of improved welfare policies.	Retained
IP 05	In this institution, internal control policies and mechanisms are weak.	Retained

Table 4.22 indicates that all the five items were retained after measurement model validation. The next table presents the academic workload item validation result.

Table 4.23
Academic Workload Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
WL 01	I have time to undertake quality teaching, research and publication.	Retained
WL 02	My workload has increased over the past 12 months.	Retained
WL 03	I often need to work after working hours to meet my work requirements.	Retained
WL 04	The amount of administration I am expected to do is reasonable.	Deleted

WL 05	The number of students I am expected to teach and/or supervise is reasonable.	Retained
WL 06	I feel pressured to attract external research funding for my publications.	Retained
WL 07	I believe the promotion procedures recognize variety of tasks that I do.	Deleted
WL 08	I believe that teaching and research achievements are considered by the promotion committee.	Deleted

Table 4.23 shows that five out of eight items measuring workload were retained. The validation result for work pressure is shown in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24
Work Pressure Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
WP01	My job requires me to work fast.	Retained
WP 02	My tasks of teaching, research, and publication require me to work very hard.	Retained
WP 03	My tasks of teaching, research, community service and publication require too much input from me.	Deleted
WP 04	I have enough time to complete teaching, research and publication tasks.	Retained
WP 05	My tasks of teaching, research and publication often make conflicting demands on me.	Deleted

Table 4.24 demonstrates that three out of five work pressure items were retained. A look at Table 4.25 shows the items retained for meaning at work.

Table 4.25
Meaning at Work Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
MW 01	I experience joy in my work in this institution.	Retained
MW 02	I believe others experience joy because of my work in this institution.	Retained
MW 03	My spirit is energized by my work in this institution.	Retained
MW 04	The work I do is connected to what I think is important in life.	Retained
MW 05	I look forward to coming to work most days.	Deleted
MW 06	I see connection between my work and the larger social good of my community.	Deleted
MW 07	I understand what gives my work personal meaning.	Deleted

Four meaningful work items were retained out of seven (Table 4.25). Meanwhile, the inner life items validation result is shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26
Inner Life Scale Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
IL 01	I feel hopeful about life in this institution.	Retained
IL 02	My spiritual values influence the choices I make in this institution.	Retained
IL 03	I consider myself a spiritual person in this institution.	Retained
IL 04	Prayer is an important part of my life in this institution.	Retained
IL 05	I care about the spiritual health of my co-workers in this institution.	Retained

All the five items measuring inner life were retained after the measurement model validation. Table 4.27 presents the validation results for neutralization.

Table 4.27
Neutralization Scale Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
NT 01	I blame no one for how I act in this institution.	Retained
NT 02	Unfair HoDs and management staff are to be blamed for how I act in this institution.	Retained
NT 03	The management and HoDs were against me from the start.	Retained
NT 04	Most people in this institution engage in bad behaviours, so I am not alone.	Retained
NT 05	If anyone is hurt by what I do in this institution, they either deserve it or could afford it.	Retained
NT 06	The behaviours of my colleagues in this institution influence my behaviours.	Retained

Table 4,27 signifies that all the six items measuring neutralization were retained after the measurement model validation. The validation result for self-control is shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28
Self-control Scale Validation Result

Item Code	Statement	Remarks
SC 01	I often get in a jam because I do things without thinking in this institution.	Retained
SC 02	I think planning takes the fun out of things in this institution.	Retained
SC 03	I must use a lot of self-control to keep out of trouble in this institution.	Retained
SC 04	I enjoy taking risks in this institution.	Retained
SC 05	I enjoy new and exciting experiences. even if they are a little frightening or unusual.	Retained
SC 06	Life with no danger in it would be too dull for me.	Retained

All the items measuring self-control were retained after the measurement model validation as shown in Table 4.28. Having identified the list of items retained and/or deleted, Figure 4.4 presents the measurement model graph which summarizes the items retained for all the constructs, the AVE values for all variables and the beta values for the path coefficients.

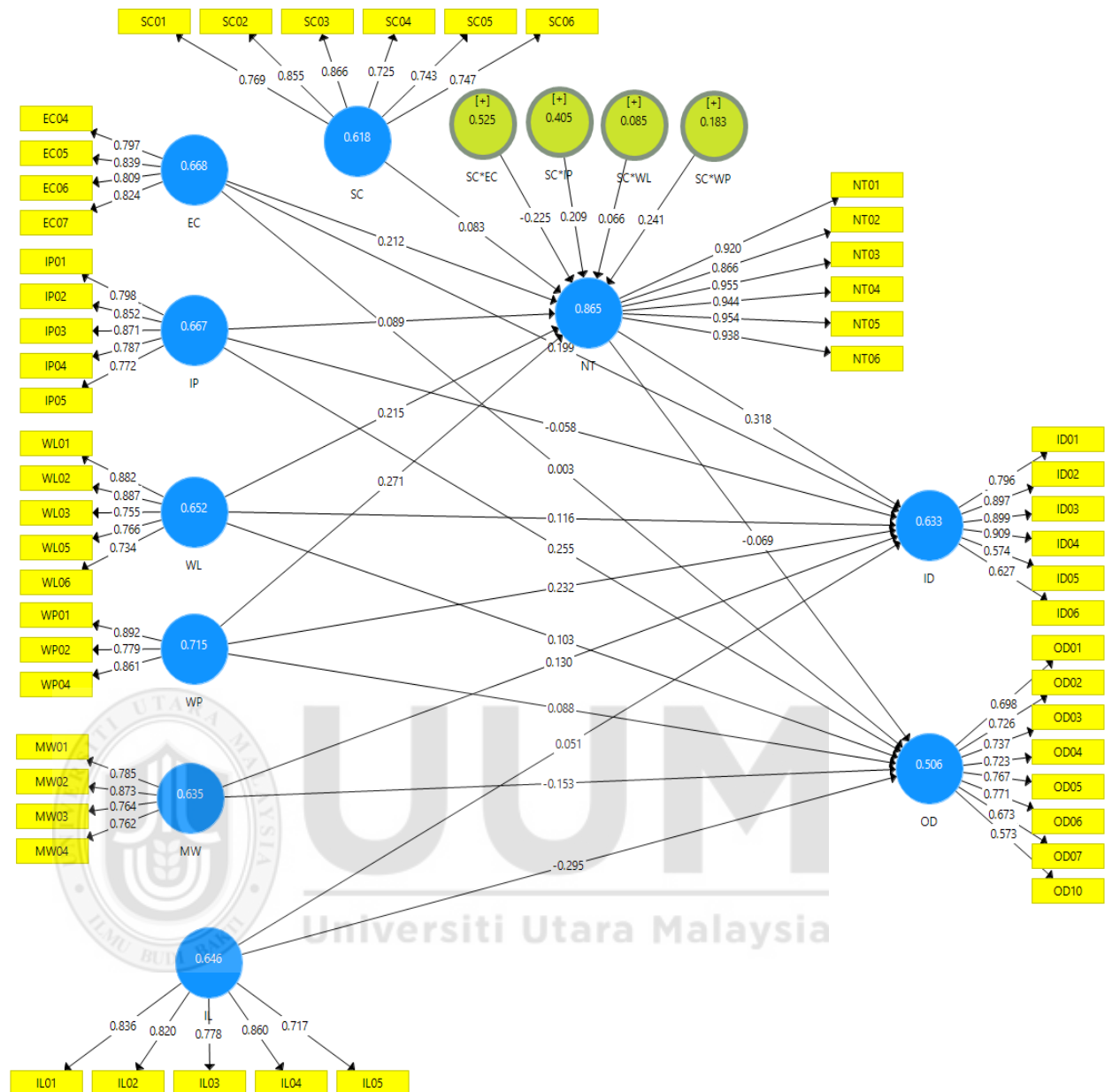


Figure 4.4.
Measurement Model Graph
Source: PLS-SEM

4.5.3 Individual item reliability

Individual item reliability was evaluated based on standardized loadings for all latent constructs (Chin, 1998, 2010; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011; Hair et al., 2014). However, the cut-off loadings depend on different authors. For instance, composite reliability values of 0.60 to 0.70 in exploratory research is acceptable, values from 0.70 to 0.90 are regarded as satisfactory while values below 0.60 indicate a lack of reliability

(Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Similarly, Carmines and Zeller (1979) specified that individual item is confirmed when its standardized loading is at least 0.708.

Recently, scholars have stated that if the average variance extracted (AVE) attains a minimum of 0.50, then items loadings below 0.70 can be retained (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). Therefore, the present study accepted the recent recommendations by retaining items with loadings slightly below 0.70, provided the construct minimum AVE value is 0.50 (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). Table 4.19 presents evidence that the individual item and construct reliability have been found to be acceptable.

4.5.4 Construct reliability

Scholars have established that internal consistency reliability can be ascertained at either the individual indicator level or at a given construct level (Chin, 2010). Internal consistency reliability is a way to gauge how well a test or survey is measuring what it is meant to measure and can be evaluated by either Cronbach's alpha or composite reliability (CR). Composite reliability is obtained by combining all the true score variances and covariance in the composite of indicator variables related to constructs, and by dividing this sum by the total variance in the composite (Chin, 2010).

In this study, CR coefficient was chosen to determine the internal consistency reliability of the constructs because a Cronbach's alpha does not assume equal factor loadings of individual items which can present an underestimation of internal consistency reliability. Besides, CR is more suitable for PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2014, 2017; Henseler et al., 2009). According to Hair et al. (2011), Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Hair et al. (2014), satisfactory construct reliability is established when the composite reliability index is 0.70 or higher. Table 4.19 shows that the composite reliability indices of all

latent constructs were between 0.874 and 0.975. This suggests that satisfactory construct validity has been achieved. Although CR was used in the current study to ascertain construct reliability, a closer look at the Cronbach's alpha for all the variables indicate acceptable values as well. The Cronbach's alpha for organizational deviance, ethical climate, institutional policy, workload, work pressure, feeling of inner life, meaning at work, self-control, neutralization, and interpersonal deviance was 0.859, 0.835, 0.875, 0.865, 0.802, 0.863, 0.810, 0.876, 0.969 and 0.875, respectively (see **Appendix B**).

4.5.5 Convergent validity

Convergent validity means the degree to which two or more measures of the same theoretical construct assessed by different methods agree (Guo, Aveyard, Fielding, & Sutton, 2008; Papoutsakis, 2008). Convergent validity is established if two similar constructs correspond with one another, while discriminant validity applies to two dissimilar constructs that are easily differentiated. Convergent validity can be ascertained using correlation coefficients and average variance extracted (Campbell & Fiske, 1959).

A correlation coefficient is a statistical relationship between two or more values while average variance extracted (AVE) is a measure of the amount of variance that is captured by a construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In other words, AVE criterion is defined as the grand mean value of the squared loadings of the indicators associated with the construct. An AVE value of at least 0.5 or higher indicates that a latent variable can explain more than half of the variance of its indicators on average and therefore it is considered sufficient (Hair et al., 2013, 2017).

In the present study, average variance extracted (AVE) was employed to examine convergent validity of each latent construct. Normally, AVE values should exceed 0.5 which indicates that a construct reflects more than half of its indicators variance (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Chin, 1998). Specifically, AVE values as shown in Table 4.19 ranged from 0.505 to 0.882 and all latent constructs demonstrate that AVE values are higher than the recommended threshold of 0.50. Therefore, it can be concluded that adequate convergent validity has been attained in the present study.

4.5.6 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity means the degree to which one theoretical construct differs from another (Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Papoutsakis, 2008). Extant literature suggests two major approaches to ascertain adequate discriminant validity namely Fornell-Larcker criterion and examination of cross-loadings (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). However, Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) ascertained by means of a simulation study that examination of cross-loadings does not reliably detect lack of discriminant validity in many research situations. The authors supported an alternative approach called the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) based on the multitrait-multimethod matrix (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Campbell, 1960), which permits a systematic discriminant validity assessment to establish construct validity.

First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion suggests that discriminant validity is established if a latent variable account for more variance in its associated indicator variables than it shares with other constructs in the same model. To satisfy this requirement, each construct's average variance extracted (AVE) must be compared with its squared correlations with other constructs in the model. Secondly, Gefen and Straub (2005) regarded cross-loading as item-level discriminant validity. The authors

stated that discriminant validity is shown when each measurement item correlates weakly with all other constructs except for the one to which it is theoretically associated. The main weakness of cross loadings is that it over-estimates indicator loadings due to their reliance on composites. Based on this submission by Gefen and Straub (2005), the present study did not use cross-loading to determine discriminant validity. Thirdly, according to Nunnally (1978) and Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma (2003), HTMT is an estimate of the correlation between the constructs.

In brief, the present study established discriminant validity using Fornell-Larcker criterion and HTMT ratio. Fornell-Larcker criterion compares the square root of AVEs (the diagonal entries) with the correlations between constructs (the off-diagonal entries) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Roldan & Sanchez-Franco, 2012). Roldan and Sanchez-Franco (2012) stated that adequate discriminant validity is achieved if the diagonal elements are significantly greater than the off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns. Table 4.29 presents result for Fornell-Larcker criterion.

Table 4.29
Discriminant Validity (Fornell-Larcker Criterion)

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Ethical climate	0.817									
2. Insti. Policy	0.110	0.817								
3. Workload	-0.609	-0.197	0.807							
4. Work pressure	-0.555	-0.083	0.711	0.846						
5. Inner life	0.142	0.430	-0.242	-0.152	0.804					
6. Meaning at wk	0.019	-0.203	-0.063	-0.052	-0.153	0.797				
7. Self-control	-0.342	-0.239	0.319	0.350	-0.275	0.125	0.786			
8. Neutralization	-0.570	-0.207	0.623	0.606	-0.277	-0.099	0.337	0.930		
9. Interp. dev.	-0.520	-0.034	0.521	0.573	-0.091	-0.198	0.233	0.607	0.796	
10. Org. dev.	-0.086	-0.451	0.178	0.116	-0.451	0.258	0.267	0.134	0.121	0.710

(Note: Diagonal elements are the square roots of the variance shared between the constructs and their measures (AVE) while off-diagonal elements are the correlations among constructs). Table 4.29 shows that adequate discriminant validity has been established in the present study because the square roots of AVEs are greater than the correlations between constructs (Roldan & Sanchez-Franco, 2012).

To support Fornell and Larcker's criterion, the HTMT ratio was examined as this criterion is regarded as a more reliable approach for evaluating discriminant validity than the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Henseler et al., 2014; Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). According to Henseler et al. (2015), the major drawback of the Fornell-Larcker method is the lack of further theoretical explanations regardless of the strong correlation of specific items that should be achieved with its own construct and weak correlations with other constructs.

Thus, heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio has been developed to estimate the correlation between constructs (Henseler et al., 2015). Practically, HTMT is normally compared with a predetermined threshold. If the HTMT value is higher than the predetermined

threshold, one can deduce that there is lack of discriminant validity. However, the exact predetermined threshold is a debatable matter. According to Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015, p. 121), the question is: “when is a correlation close to one”? However, researchers have proposed a value of 0.85 (Clark & Watson, 1995; Kline, 2011). On the other hand, Teo et al. (2008) as cited in Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015), and Gold, Malhotra, and Segars (2001) suggested HTMT value 0.90. Table 4.30 showcases the result of HTMT.

Table 4.30
Discriminant Validity - (Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT))

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Ethical climate										
2. Inst. Policy	0.164									
3. Workload	0.707	0.228								
4. Work pressure	0.659	0.144	0.828							
5. Inner life	0.201	0.491	0.295	0.196						
6. Meaning at wk.	0.125	0.252	0.131	0.133	0.209					
7. Self-control	0.397	0.297	0.354	0.404	0.333	0.176				
8. Neutralization	0.630	0.228	0.670	0.676	0.322	0.183	0.365			
9. Interp. dev	0.583	0.049	0.577	0.651	0.142	0.216	0.250	0.638		
10. Org. deviance	0.105	0.512	0.207	0.138	0.509	0.309	0.294	0.153	0.141	

Table 4.30 shows that discriminant validity is achieved because the highest correlation found is between work pressure and workload 0.828, which is within the conventional yardsticks of 0.85 and 0.90 (Clark & Watson, 1995; Gold et al., 2001; Henseler et al., 2015; Kline, 2011). Therefore, the results of the measurement model indicate that all the constructs achieved sufficient reliability and validity. Hence, the next section presents evaluation of structural model.

4.6 Structural model evaluation

4.6.1 Assessment of significance of the structural model

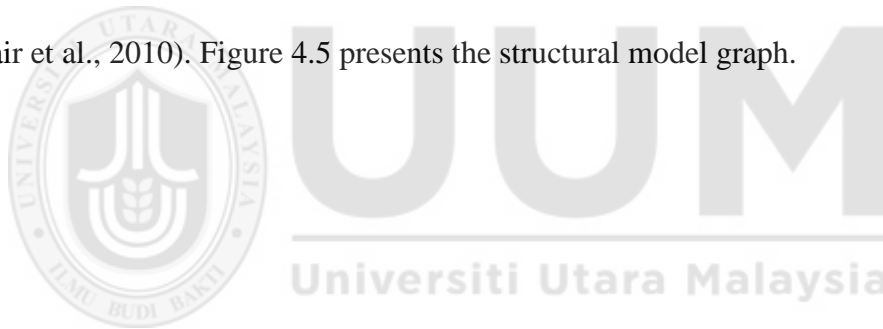
Structural model, also known as the inner model shows the relationships among the latent constructs (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2014). According to Hair et al. (2014), the essence of structural model is to evaluate the predictive abilities and the interrelationships (paths) between the latent constructs. Drawing from PLS-SEM literature, the structural model was evaluated based on the following criteria: the significance of the structural path coefficients, coefficient of determination (R^2), the effect size (f^2) and predictive relevance of PLS estimates at the construct level (Q^2) (Chin, 1998; Chin, 2010; Roldan & Sanchez-Franco, 2012; Suarez, Calvo-Mora, & Roldan, 2016).

In this study, the structural model consists of the main effects in which the direct relationships between ethical climate, institutional policy, workload, work pressure, meaning at work, feeling of inner life and both interpersonal and organizational deviance were examined. Also, the interaction effects of both the moderator (self-control) and mediator (neutralization) were analyzed. Following Hair et al. (2014) and Henseler et al. (2009), bootstrapping procedure with 5000 bootstrap samples and 356 cases were used to evaluate significance of the path coefficients to generate beta values, standard errors, t -values and p -values of the estimate to determine the precision the PLS model.

In the past, there was no valid criteria for evaluating the fit of a PLS path model (Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013). To fill this gap, Henseler et al. (2014) introduced the fit index standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The SRMR is an absolute

measure of fit and is defined as the standardized difference between the observed correlation and the predicted correlation. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), an SRMR value below 0.08 indicates that a PLS path model provides a sufficient fit while zero value of SRMR suggests a perfect model fit.

Consequently, the present study evaluated the fit of the model by computing standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The model generated SRMR values of 0.07 (Table 4.31) for direct effect model. According to Henseler, Hubona and Ray (2016), all the SRMR values obtained are within acceptable standards, less than 0.08. Therefore, there is an adequate model fit. Additionally, to test the relationships of the structural model, the significance level is set at $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.1$ (1-tailed) (Hair et al., 2010). Figure 4.5 presents the structural model graph.



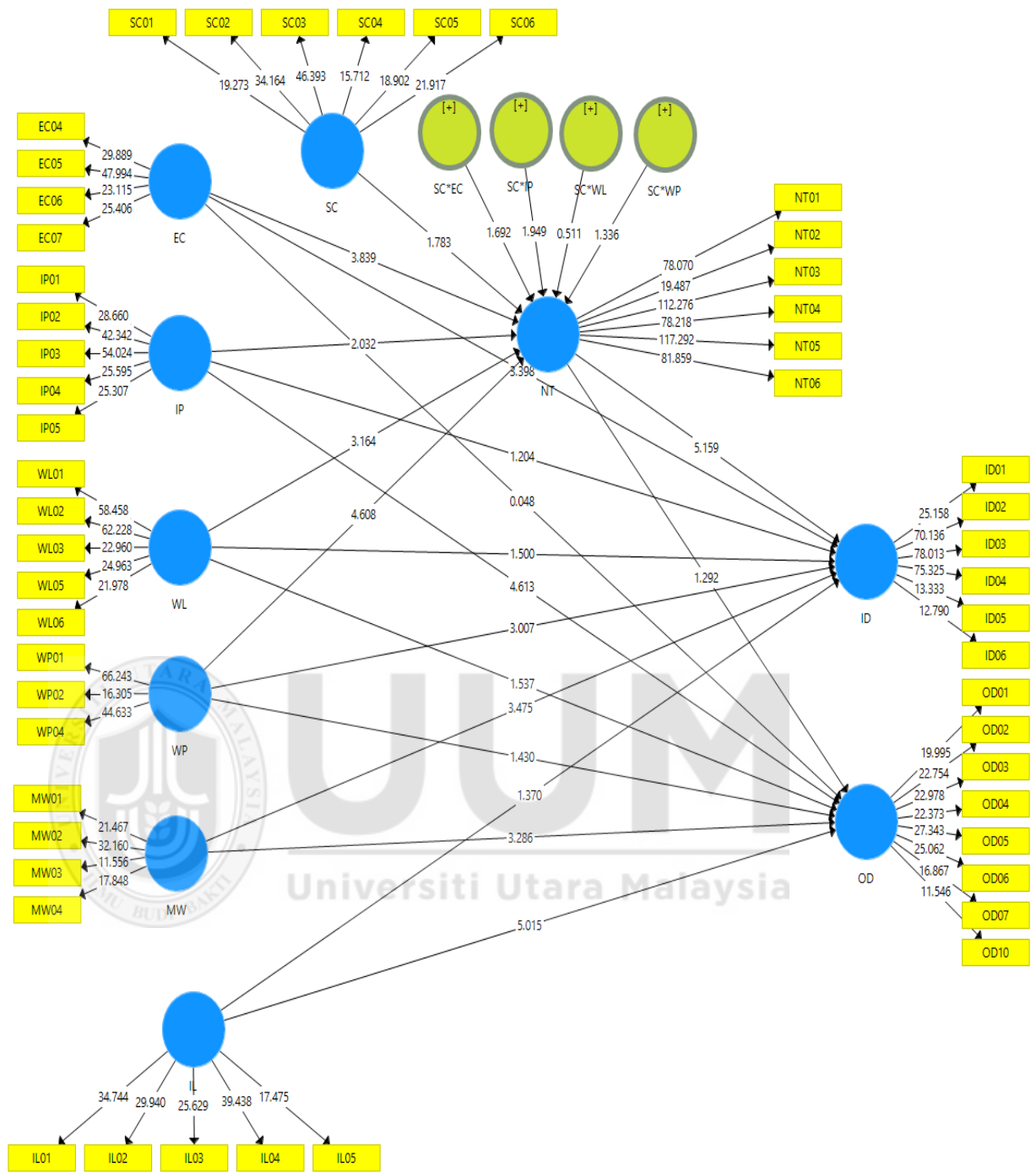


Figure 4.5
Structural Model Graph

Source: PLS

Figure 4.5 shows the structural relationships among the variables and the strengths of the hypotheses for direct effect model, indirect effect (mediating) and moderating/interaction models. Also, Figure 4.5 further explains Tables 4.31, 4.37 and 4.38.

4.6.2 Hypotheses of the direct effects

Regarding the significance of the structural path, of 14 hypotheses that were formulated and tested for direct effects only H5, H10, H12, and H13 were statistically significant at 97.5% confidence interval (CI) while others were not. Table 4.31 presents the results.

Table 4.31

Results of Structural Model Assessment (direct effects)

Hypo	Relation	Beta	SE	t-value	p-value	2.5%	97.5%	Decision
H1	EC→ID	0.199	0.059	3.398	0.001	0.088	0.305	Not Supported
H2	EC→OD	0.003	0.067	0.048	0.961	-0.134	0.133	Not supported
H3	IP→ID	-0.058	0.048	1.204	0.229	-0.159	0.028	Not supported
H4	IP→OD	0.255	0.055	4.613	0.000	0.142	0.367	Not Supported
H5	WP→ID	0.232	0.077	3.007*	0.001	0.071	0.366	Supported
H6	WP→OD	0.088	0.062	1.430	0.153	-0.032	0.217	Not supported
H7	WL→ID	0.116	0.078	1.500	0.134	-0.031	0.270	Not Supported
H8	WL→OD	0.103	0.067	1.537	0.125	-0.017	0.237	Not supported
H9	IL→ID	0.051	0.037	1.370	0.171	-0.025	0.120	Not supported
H10	IL→OD	-0.295	0.059	5.015*	0.000	-0.411	-0.184	Supported
H11	MW→ID	0.130	0.037	3.475	0.001	0.064	0.202	Not Supported
H12	MW→OD	-0.153	0.047	3.287*	0.001	-0.247	-0.063	Supported
H13	NT→ID	0.318	0.062	5.159*	0.000	0.191	0.431	Supported
H14	NT→OD	-0.069	0.053	1.292	0.197	-0.180	0.030	Not supported
						ID	OD	Neut.
R^2 -						<u>54.3%</u>	<u>30.8%</u>	<u>55.2%</u>
Q^2 -						<u>0.32</u>	<u>0.14</u>	<u>0.43</u>
SRMR						<u>0.07</u>		

Note: *Significant at <0.01 (1-tailed). EC= Ethical climate, IL= Inner life, IP= Institutional policy, MW= Meaning at work, WP= Work pressure and WL = Workload.

Hypothesis 1 predicted a negative relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance. However, results from Table 4.31 indicate that ethical climate is significant, but positively related to interpersonal deviance ($\beta = 0.199$; $t = 3.398$; $p < 0.01$; lower level = 0.088, upper level = 0.305). Hence, H1 was not supported. Meanwhile, H2 anticipated a negative relationship between ethical climate and organizational deviance, but results indicate an insignificant and positive relationship ($\beta = 0.003$; $t = 0.048$; $p > 0.1$; lower level = -0.134, upper level = 0.133). Hence, H2 was not sustained.

Also, H3 which predicted a negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance was not supported ($\beta = -0.058$; $t = 1.204$; $p > 0.1$; lower level = -0.159, upper level = 0.028). Furthermore, H4 anticipated a negative relationship between institutional policy and organizational deviance. As shown in Table 4.31, institutional policy has a significant, but positive relationship with organizational deviance as against a negative relationship hypothesized ($\beta = 0.255$; $t = 4.613$; $p < 0.01$; lower level = 0.142, upper level = 0.367). Statistically, H4 was not supported.

Results in Table 4.31 demonstrate that work pressure has a significant and positive relationship on interpersonal deviance ($\beta = 0.232$; $t = 3.007$; $p < 0.01$; lower level = 0.071, upper level = 0.366), thereby supporting H5. On the contrary, H6 postulated that there would be a positive relationship between work pressure and organizational deviance, but the results did not support this prediction ($\beta = 0.088$; $t = 1.430$; $p > 0.1$; lower level = -0.032, upper level = 0.217). So, H6 did not hold. Another result indicates that the postulated positive relationship between workload and interpersonal deviance was not significant ($\beta = 0.116$; $t = 1.500$; $p > 0.1$; lower level = -0.031, upper level = 0.270). Hence, H7 was not supported. Also, H8 predicted a significant and positive relationship between workload and organizational deviance, but results indicate that the relationship

between workload and organizational deviance is positive, but not significant ($\beta=0.103$; $t=1.537$; $p>0.1$; lower level= -0.017 , upper level= 0.237). Hence, H8 was rejected.

To test the influence of workplace spirituality on both interpersonal and organizational deviance, H9 proposed a negative relationship between inner life and interpersonal deviance, but statistically, no significant and negative relationship existed between inner life and interpersonal deviance in the present study ($\beta=0.051$, $t=1.370$, $p>0.1$; lower level= -0.025 , upper level= 0.120). Therefore, H9 was not supported. On the other hand, H10 predicted that inner life would have a negative relationship with organizational deviance. The result is significant as shown in Table 4.31 ($\beta=-0.295$; $t=5.015$; $p<0.01$; lower level= -0.411 , upper level= -0.184). Hence, H10 was supported.

Furthermore, result indicates that meaning at work had a significant but positive relationship with interpersonal deviance among faculty members in Nigeria as against a negative relationship envisaged ($\beta=0.130$; $t=3.475$; $p<0.01$; lower level= 0.064 , upper level= 0.202). Hence, H11 was not supported. However, H12 was supported as results indicate a significant and negative relationship between meaning at work and organizational deviance ($\beta=-0.153$; $t=3.286$; $p<0.01$; lower level= -0.247 , upper level= -0.063). Furthermore, results demonstrate a significant and positive relationship between neutralization and interpersonal deviance ($\beta=0.318$; $t=5.159$; $p<0.01$; lower level= 0.191 , upper level= 0.431). Indicating that H13 was supported. Last but not the least, the positive relationship hypothesized between neutralization and organizational deviance was not supported ($\beta=-0.069$; $t=1.292$; $p>0.1$; lower level= -0.180 , upper level= 0.030).

4.6.3 Coefficients of determination (R^2)

Coefficient of determination (R-squared) is the proportion of variance in the dependent (endogenous) variables that can be explained by predictors (exogenous) variables (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, R-squared value indicates how well the independent variables predict the dependent variable. Although R-squared value ranges from 0 to 1 but there is no general agreement on the adequate yardstick value of R-squared. The value of R-squared depends on the research context (Hair et al., 2010). For instance, in business researches, when R^2 value is close to 0 (or 0%) it indicates a weak level and when the R^2 value is close to 0.5 (or 50%) it indicates a moderate level while R^2 value close to 1 (or 100%) indicates a strong level (Wegner, 2011). Also, the more R-squared value is towards one (1), the bigger the percentages of variance explained. Furthermore, Cohen (1988) recommended that R-squared values should be evaluated thus: 0.26 as substantial, 0.13 as moderate and 0.02 as weak while Falk and Miller (1992) recommended 0.10 (or 10%) as a minimum acceptable R^2 value. Tables 4.32 presents the R-squared values of the direct effect structural model as indicated in Table 4.31 earlier.

Table 4.32

Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables

Latent Variables	Variance explained (R^2)
Interpersonal deviance	0.543
Organisational deviance	0.308
Neutralization	0.552

Table 4.32 indicates that all the independent variables in this study collectively explained 54.3%, 30.8% and 55.2% of the variances of the interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance and neutralization, respectively. Therefore, following Cohen's

(1988) criteria, the two dimensions of dependent variable and neutralization (mediator) present acceptable levels of R^2 values considered as substantial. Table 4.33 shows variance explained for indirect effect.

Table 4.33

Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables (Indirect effect model)

Latent variables	Variance explained (R^2)
Interpersonal deviance	0.46
Organisational deviance	0.49
Neutralization	0.22

Table 4.33 shows that 46% of the total variance in interpersonal deviance and 49% of the total variance in organizational deviance was explained. Also, neutralization yielded a moderate level of R^2 (Cohen, 1988). Additionally, based on Cohen's (1988) suggestions, the R-squared values obtained for indirect effect model can be regarded as substantial. Therefore, the R-squared values reported for both direct effect and indirect effect models are satisfactory and acceptable.

4.6.4 Assessment of effect size (f^2)

Effect size indicates the relative effect of exogenous latent variable on endogenous latent variable(s) by means of changes in the R-squared (Chin, 1998). It can be defined as a measure of the strength of the relationship between two variables (Kotrlik, Atherton, Williams, & Jabor, 2011; Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). It is calculated as the increase in R-squared of the latent variable to which the path is connected, relative to the latent variable's proportion of unexplained variance (Chin, 1998). Cohen (1988, p. 9) defined effect size (f^2) as "the degree to which the phenomenon is present in the population" or

"the degree to which the null hypothesis is false". According to Cohen (1988), the f^2 is expressed using the following formula:

$$Effect\ size(f^2) = \frac{R^2\ Included - R^2\ Excluded}{1 - R^2\ Included} \quad (4.1)$$

Equation 4.1:

Whereas:

f^2 = effect sizes

R^2 incl. = R-square included

R^2 excl. = R-square excluded

1 = constant

R^2 -included is the value of R-squared of the dependent variable when independent variable is included and R^2 -excluded is the value of R-squared of the dependent variable when an independent variable is excluded from the model (Cohen, 1988). According to Cohen (1988), f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 should be interpreted as small, medium and large effect sizes respectively. Table 4.34 presents the strength of the effect of exogenous variables on endogenous latent variable in the main effect PLS path model.

Table 4.34
Effect Sizes for the PLS Main Model

	Interpersonal deviance(f^2)	Organisational deviance(f^2)	Neut. (f^2)
Ethical climate			0.066
Institutional policy			0.013
Workload			0.056
Work pressure			0.058
Inner life	0.005	0.225	
Meaning at work	0.026	0.043	
Self-control			0.006
Neutralization	0.551	0.002	

As presented in Table 4.34, the effect sizes for ethical climate, institutional policy, workload, work pressure and self-control on neutralization are 0.066, 0.013, 0.056, 0.058 and 0.006, respectively. Based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines, the effect sizes of these exogenous latent variables on neutralization can be described as small, none, small, small and none respectively. Similarly, the effect sizes of inner life, meaning at work and neutralization on interpersonal deviance are 0.005, 0.026 and 0.551, interpreted as none, small and large effects respectively. Additionally, the effect sizes of inner life, meaning at work and neutralization on organizational deviance are 0.225, 0.043 and 0.002 interpreted as medium, small and none effects respectively (Cohen, 1988).

4.6.5 Predictive relevance (Q^2)

The present study applied Stone-Geisser test of predictive relevance using blindfolding technique (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). Blindfolding is a sample re-use technique and allows users to calculate Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974), which represents an evaluation criterion for the cross-validated predictive relevance of the PLS path model. Blindfolding procedure is only applied to endogenous latent variables that have a reflective measurement model operationalization. Hence, because all endogenous latent variables in the present study are reflective in nature, a blindfolding procedure is applied. The Stone-Geisser test of predictive relevance is usually used to assess goodness-of-fit in partial least squares structural equation modelling (Duarte & Raposo, 2010).

Statistically, if Q^2 values for a certain endogenous latent variable is greater than zero, its explanatory latent variable exhibits predictive relevance (Chin, 1988). Similarly, Chin (1998) and Hair et al. (2014) set three criteria for assessing Q^2 . First, Q^2 of 0.02

demonstrates that the model has small predictive relevance. Second, Q^2 of 0.15 demonstrates that the model has medium predictive relevance, while Q^2 of 0.35 demonstrates that the model has large predictive relevance. Generally, if Q^2 is positive, the model has predictive validity. However, if Q^2 is negative, the model does not have predictive validity (Tenenhaus, 1999).

Bearing in mind that SmartPLS 3.2.7 was used to analyze data for the present study, the predictive relevance of the model (Q^2) was generated for both direct and indirect effect models (Table 4.31 and Table 4.37). Table 4.35 presents the result of the Q^2 tests for direct effect model.

Table 4.35
Predictive Relevance of Direct Effect Model

	Q^2
Interpersonal deviance	0.32
Organizational deviance	0.14
Neutralization	0.43

Table 4.35 shows that both endogenous latent variables recorded values within the range of medium predictive relevance while neutralization reflects a large predictive relevance. All the Q^2 values are positive and greater than zero (Chin, 1998; Tenenhaus, 1999). Therefore, direct effect model has predictive relevance. Tables 4.36 presents the result of the Q^2 tests for indirect effect model.

Table 4.36
Predictive Relevance of Indirect Effect Model

	Q^2
Interpersonal deviance	0.35
Organizational deviance	0.39

According to Chin (1998), Q^2 of 0.35 and 0.39 demonstrate that the model has large predictive relevance. In other words, the blindfolding procedure for indirect effect model yielded values greater than zero, thus, suggesting indirect model with large predictive relevance (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2014).

4.6.6 Testing mediating effect

To assess the full PLS structural model, bootstrapping technique of estimating indirect effects in mediation models was observed (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008). Bootstrapping represents a non-parametric resampling procedure that does not impose the assumption of normality on the sampling distribution (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping approach is considered in this study because it provides “higher levels of statistical power compared with the Sobel’s test” (Spector & Jex, 1998, p. 223). Firstly, the researcher assessed the path coefficients to test the direct effect model, moderating and mediating variables to test Hypotheses 1-26. Secondly, to determine the significant estimates of the mediating (indirect) effect, a percentile bootstrap was employed at 2.5% lower level and 97.5% upper level of confidence interval (CI) for each indirect effect under evaluation-H15-H22 (Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). When a confidence interval for a mediated relationship does not contain zero, (meaning both symbols are the same) this means that the indirect effect is significantly different from zero with 97.5% confidence level and there is mediation. Table 4.37 presents the result of indirect model with a mediator.

Table 4.37
Result of Indirect Effect Model

H	Indirect Effect	Beta	t-value	p-value	97.5% CI		Decision
					Lower (2.5%)	Upper (97.5%)	
H15	EC → NEUT → ID	-0.074	3.194	0.00	-0.109	-0.034	Mediated
H16	EC → NEUT → OD	0.011	0.803	0.211	-0.011	0.031	Not mediated
H17	IP → NEUT → ID	-0.030	1.975	0.041	-0.058	-0.002	Mediated
H18	IP → NEUT → OD	0.004	0.701	0.242	-0.004	0.015	Not mediated
H19	WP → NEUT → ID	0.095	3.158	0.001	0.042	0.139	Mediated
H20	WP → NEUT → OD	-0.014	0.844	0.199	-0.040	0.013	Not mediated
H21	WL → NEUT → ID	0.073	2.851	0.002	0.036	0.119	Mediated
H22	WL → NEUT → OD	-0.010	0.757	0.225	-0.036	0.009	Not mediated
		ID	OD	Neutralization			
	R^2 -	46%	49%	22%			
	Q^2 -	0.35	0.39	0.112			

Note: EC=ethical climate, IP=institutional policy, WP=work pressure, WL=workload. H15 predicted that neutralization would mediate the negative relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance. Result demonstrates that neutralization mediated the predicted negative relationship ($\beta = -0.074$; t -value=3.194; Lower level= -0.109; Upper level= -0.034). This implies that a favourable ethical climate may lead to a decline in interpersonal deviance. Hence, Hypothesis 15 was supported. However, Hypothesis 16 envisaged that neutralization would mediate the negative relationship between ethical climate and organizational deviance, but results showed that the mediation effect is not significant ($\beta = 0.011$; t -value= 0.803; Lower level= -0.011; Upper level= 0.031). Hence, H16 was not supported.

Also, Hypothesis 17 anticipated that neutralization would mediate the negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance and the prediction was supported in negative direction ($\beta = -0.030$; t -value= 1.975; Lower level= -0.058; Upper level= -0.002). This result suggests that effective institutional policy may lower the need for justification to engage in interpersonal deviant acts towards colleagues and/or students. Relatedly, H18 envisaged that neutralization would mediate the negative relationship between institutional policy and organizational deviance, but the results did not support the prediction ($\beta = 0.004$; t -value= 0.701; lower level= -0.004; upper level= 0.015). Therefore, Hypothesis 18 was not supported.

In addition, H19 predicted that neutralization would mediate the positive relationship between work pressure and interpersonal deviance. Result in Table 4.37 supported H19 ($\beta = 0.095$; t -value= 3.158; lower level = 0.042; upper level =0.139). This finding attest to the fact that faculty members may justify their interpersonal deviant acts based on work pressure experienced. However, H20 was not sustained as neutralization did not mediate the positive relationship between work pressure and organizational deviance ($\beta = -0.014$; t -value= 0.844; lower level = -0.040; upper level= 0.013).

Also, H21 stated that neutralization would mediate the positive relationship between workload and interpersonal deviance. There is statistical support for this prediction as shown in Table 4.37 ($\beta = 0.073$; t -value= 2.851; lower level = 0.036; upper level= 0.119). Last but not the least, result shows that neutralization did not mediate the positive relationship between workload and organizational deviance ($\beta = -0.010$; t -value= 0.757; lower level= -0.036; upper level = 0.009). Hence, H22 was not supported.

As indicated in Table 4.37, the coefficient of determination (R^2) is 46%, which suggests that the indirect effect model explained 46% of the total variance in interpersonal deviance and 49% of organizational deviance. After running the blindfolding procedures (Chin, 1998; Spector & Jex, 1998), the results showed that the Q^2 value for interpersonal deviance stood at 0.35 and 0.39 for organizational deviance. Statistically both values are greater than zero. Thus, suggesting predictive relevance of the indirect model (Chin, 1998). Similarly, Hair et al. (2014, 2017) stated that Q^2 of 0.35 demonstrates that a model has large predictive relevance. Therefore, both interpersonal and organizational deviance in the indirect effect model have large predictive relevance.

4.6.7 Testing moderating effect of self-control on the model

Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1174) stated that a moderator is a “variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable”. According to Henseler and Fassott (2010), there are two main approaches to estimating moderating effects of regression-like models. The first is product term approach that determines the moderating effect if the moderator influences the strength of the moderated direct relationship linearly. On the other hand, a group comparison approach is used “If one or both interacting variables is discrete, or can be made so” (Rigdon et al., 1998, p. 1).

Also, when the moderating variable is categorical (e. g., sex, race, class), the group approach can be used without further refinement. “Given that the results of the product term approach are usually equal or superior to those of the group comparison approach, we recommend always using the product term approach” (Henseler & Fassott, 2010, p. 721). Therefore, the present study adopted Henseler and Fassott’s (2010) product indicator approach to test the moderating effects of self-control on the constructs.

Basically, a moderating variable may perform any of three functions namely; strengthening, weakening, or reversing the relationship between the exogenous variables and endogenous variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Gardner, Harris, Li, Kirkman, & Mathieu, 2017).

Firstly, the standardized path coefficients were estimated to confirm whether the interaction effects were significant. Secondly, the strength of the moderating effects was ascertained. The result of the moderating effect model is presented in Table 4.38.

Table 4.38
Results of Moderating Effect Model

Hypo.	Relations	Beta	SE	t-value	p-value	Decision
H23	SC * EC → Neut.	-0.225	0.133	1.692	0.091	Moderated
H24	SC * IP → Neut.	0.209	0.107	1.949	0.052	Moderated
H25	SC * WP → Neut.	0.241	0.180	1.336	0.182	Not moderated
H26	SC * WL → Neut.	0.066	0.129	0.511	0.610	Not moderated

H23 predicted that self-control would moderate the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization. Specifically, the relationship between ethical climate and neutralization would be stronger (more negative) for faculty members who have high level of self-control than those with low level of self-control. The result in Table 4.38 shows that the interaction terms were significant, and the moderating effect strengthens the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization ($\beta = -0.225$; $t = 1.692$; $p < 0.1$). The interaction term implies that the higher the level of self-control, the lower the rate of justification and possibly the lower the rate of engagement in either organizational or interpersonal deviance. Therefore, H23 was supported. Figure 4.6 and Appendix L demonstrate that the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization is moderated by self-control.

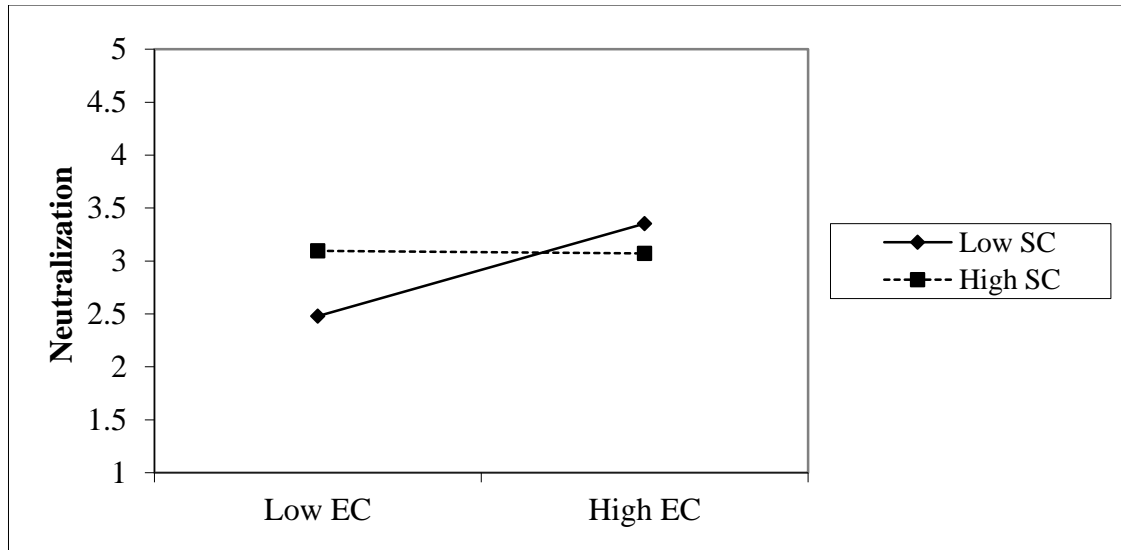


Figure 4.6.

Interaction effect of Self-control on the relationship between Ethical Climate and Neutralization

Source: SmartPLS 3.2.7

Also, Hypothesis 24 envisaged that self-control would moderate the negative relationship between institutional policy and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship would be stronger (more negative) for individuals with high level of self-control than individuals with low level of self-control. However, results showed that the interaction terms were significant but positive, which indicate the presence of moderation ($\beta = 0.209$; $t=1.949$; $p<0.1$). Hence, the interaction terms demonstrate that self-control weakens the negative relationship between institutional policy and neutralization (Gardner, Harris, Li, Kirkman, & Mathieu, 2017). This suggests that self-control could not strengthen the proposed negative relationship between institutional policy and neutralization. By implication, the inability of institutional policy to curtail both interpersonal and organizational deviance as evident in the direct effect model (Table 4.31) is an indication that hardly can self-control make negative impact on the proposed moderating relationship. Figure 4.7 and Appendix M present the graphical representations of the moderating effects.

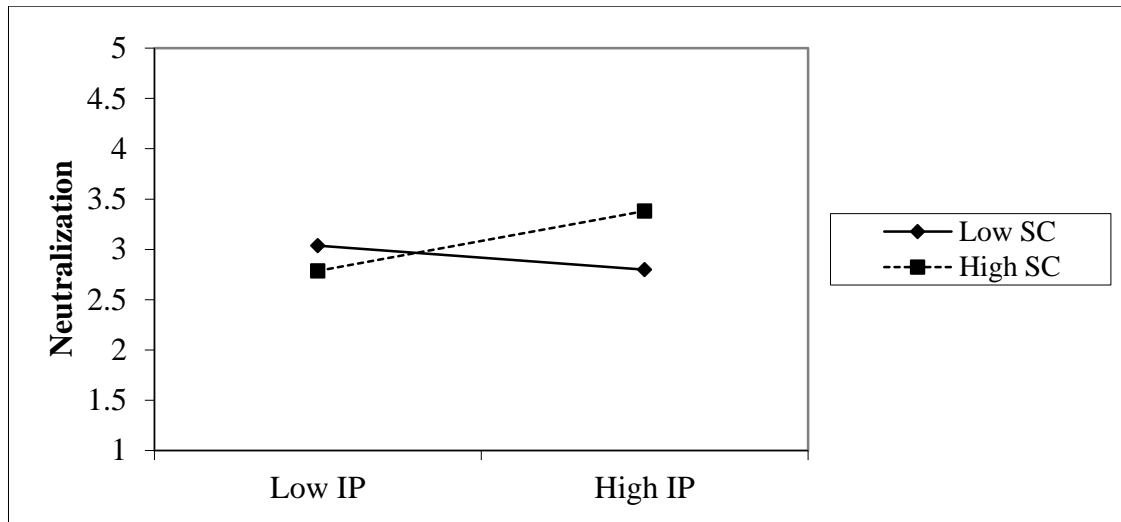


Figure 4.7.
Interaction effect of Self-control on the relationship between Institutional Policy and Neutralization

Source: SmartPLS 3.2.7

However, both Hypotheses 25 and 26 were not supported based on the interaction terms.

The statistical results for H25 is ($\beta = 0.241$, $t = 1.336$, $p > 0.1$) while H26 has ($\beta = 0.066$, $t = 0.511$, $p > 0.1$).

4.6.8 Determination of the strength of the moderating effects

Apart from effect size of the main effect PLS path model, the current study also determined the strength of the moderating effects by comparing R^2 value of the main effect model with the R^2 value of the interaction model (Wilden, Gudergan, Nielsen, & Lings, 2013). SmartPLS-SEM 3.2.7 computed the moderating effect size for the present study automatically, but moderating effects can be computed manually using the following formula by Cohen (1988).

Equation 4.2

$$\text{Effect size: } (f^2) = \frac{R^2 \text{ model with moderator} - R^2 \text{ model without moderator}}{1 - R^2 \text{ model with moderator}}$$

It is necessary to note that small effect size does not necessarily mean that the moderating effect is negligible. In their submission, Chin, Marcolin and Newsted (2003, p.211) stated that, “even a small interaction effect can be meaningful under extreme moderating conditions, if the resulting beta changes are meaningful, then it is important to take these conditions into account”. Cohen (1988) gave the interpretation of the strength of moderating effect as small, medium and large effect sizes for 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35, respectively. Table 4.39 presents the moderating effect model result.

Table 4.39
Moderating Effect Size

R^2 Included	R^2 Excluded	f -squared	Effect size
0.542	0.496	0.100	Small

Table 4.39 indicates that the strength of self-control on the relationship between ethical climate, institutional policy, workload, work pressure and neutralization is 0.100, which suggests small effect size (Cohen, 1988).

4.6.9 Summary of findings

In the previous sections of this chapter, the results of structural model for direct, indirect and moderating effect models have been presented. Table 4.40 provides the summary of the results.

Table 4.40

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypo.	Statement/Relationships	Decisions
H1	Ethical climate is negatively related to interpersonal deviance.	Not supported
H2	Ethical climate is negatively related to organizational deviance.	Not supported
H3	Institutional policy is negatively related to interpersonal deviance.	Not supported
H4	Institutional policy is negatively related to organizational deviance.	Not supported
H5	Work pressure is positively related to interpersonal deviance.	Supported
H6	Work pressure is positively related to organizational deviance.	Not supported
H7	Workload is positively related to interpersonal deviance.	Not supported
H8	Workload is positively related to organizational deviance.	Not supported
H9	Inner life is negatively related to interpersonal deviance.	Not supported
H10	Inner life is negatively related to organizational deviance.	Supported
H11	There is a negative relationship between meaning at work and interpersonal deviance.	Not supported
H12	There is a negative relationship between meaning at work and organizational deviance.	Supported
H13	Neutralization is positively related to interpersonal deviance.	Supported
H14	Neutralization is positively related to organizational deviance.	Not supported

H15	Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance.	Mediated
H16	Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between ethical climate and organizational deviance.	Not mediated
H17	Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance.	Mediated
H18	Neutralization mediates the negative relationship between institutional policy and organizational deviance.	Not mediated
H19	Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between work pressure and interpersonal deviance.	Mediated
H20	Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between work pressure and organizational deviance.	Not mediated
H21	Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between workload and interpersonal deviance.	Mediated
H22	Neutralization mediates the positive relationship between workload and organizational deviance.	Not mediated
H23	Self-control moderates the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (more negative) for individuals with high level of self-control than it is for individuals with low level of self-control.	Moderated
H24	Self-control moderates the negative relationship between institutional policy and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (more negative) for individuals with	Moderated

high level of self-control than individuals with level of self-control.

- | | | |
|-----|---|---------------|
| H25 | Self-control moderates the positive relationship between work pressure and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (less positive) for individuals with high level of self-control than it is for individuals with low level of self-control. | Not moderated |
| H26 | Self-control moderates the positive relationship between workload and neutralization. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (less positive) for individuals with high level of self-control than it is for individuals with low level of self-control. | Not moderated |

4.7 Chapter summary

This chapter reported the findings of the present study as analyzed by SmartPLS 3.2.7 path modeling. For the sake of simplicity, the results were presented in tables, figures and graphs. Firstly, results of initial data screening and preliminary analyses were presented before the results of the PLS path analysis. The model assessment revealed adequate constructs reliability and validity. In assessing the structural model, a total of 14 hypotheses were formulated to test the direct relationships among the variables, but only 4 were supported. Furthermore, indirect effect model demonstrated that four out of eight mediating hypotheses were supported. In addition to the direct and indirect hypotheses, two out of four moderating hypotheses were moderated. The next chapter discusses findings of the study, research implications, limitations of study, future research directions and concluding part of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study which addressed the research objectives. These findings are linked to theories, extant research and the relevant context in Nigerian public higher education institutions (HEIs). Next, the chapter highlights the theoretical and practical contributions of study. Also, limitations of study and suggestions for future research are presented. The last section of this chapter is conclusion.

5.2 Summary of key research findings

The present study adopted a fraud triangle theory-like framework (FTT) with facets of job pressure, opportunity, and neutralization to predict both organizational and interpersonal deviance among faculty members in Nigerian public higher education institutions (HEIs). The researcher conceptualized deviant workplace behaviour as any intentional and deliberate norm-violating behaviour exhibited by faculty members which causes harm to the institution, its assets or property and colleagues/students. In the present study, workplace deviance is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of organizational and interpersonal deviance. Interpersonal deviance refers to deviant acts directed towards fellow faculty members and/or students while organisational deviance focuses on acts that are detrimental to an institution, its assets and/or properties (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

By and large, the findings appear to suggest mixed support for the model in explaining workplace deviance. Upon a closer scrutiny, the model seems to suggest that different

factors influence different types of workplace deviance. In the case of opportunity dimensions, ethical climate reported a significant, but positive relationship with interpersonal deviance, as against a negative relationship envisaged. Also, institutional policy was found to be positively related to organizational deviance contrary to a negative relationship hypothesized. On the other hand, work pressure reported a positive relationship with interpersonal deviance. In addition, neutralization mediated the negative relationships between the elements of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and interpersonal deviance. Furthermore, neutralization mediated the positive relationship between the dimensions of job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and interpersonal deviance.

The results demonstrated that the FTT-like model appears to be applicable more to interpersonal deviance than organisational deviance in the current setting. The current findings aligned with some studies in Nigeria which reported the existence of series of interpersonal deviant acts committed by faculty members against their colleagues and/or students. Although these studies did not investigate the same relationships with the present study, they demonstrated that more interpersonal deviant acts are committed than organizational deviance in Nigerian HEIs (Adeoti, Shamsudin, & Wan 2017b; Geidam, Njoku, & Bako, 2010; Kullima, Kawuwa, Audu, Mairiga, & Bukar, 2014; Omonijo et al., 2013).

Also, the results indicated that neutralization mediated the negative relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance and the negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance. The findings suggest that faculty members may not justify or provide reasons to engage in interpersonal deviance despite their views of both institutional policy and ethical climate. Also, neutralization mediated

the relationships amongst work pressure, workload, and interpersonal deviance positively. That is, interpersonal deviance may be justified if lecturers experience excessive work pressure and workload.

In a bid to enhance the model, this study considered the moderating effect of self-control between the independent variables and the mediator. Firstly, self-control moderated the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization. That is, a high level of self-control strengthens the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization. Generally, the literature suggests that the higher the level of self-control, the less will be faculty members' engagement in both organizational and interpersonal deviance. In other words, no matter the ethical climate, faculty members who possess high self-control may restrain themselves from giving reasons/excuses to engage in deviance. Secondly, self-control moderated the relationship between institutional policy and neutralization but in a positive direction. The result suggests that self-control reverses the hypothesized negative relationship between institutional policy and neutralization. The remaining part of this chapter is devoted to providing some probable explanations to the results found. In doing so, the discussion will address each research objective. For better organization, attempts are made to discuss the findings on organizational and interpersonal deviance separately, where appropriate.

5.2.1 Findings related to research objective one

The first research objective examined the relationship between the dimensions of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Ethical climate is operationalized as individuals' perceptions of practices, procedures, norms, and values that govern ethical decisions in HEIs. On the other hand, institutional policy is any standard, statement, or procedure of general

applicability adopted by the management of HEIs to guide the operations of an institution pursuant to authority delegated by law. Institutional policies give directions to deterrence measures because reward and punishment policy may be used to enthrone ethical behaviour (Posner & Schmidt, 1987; Trevino, 1986).

5.2.1.1 Opportunity and interpersonal deviance

Firstly, the result indicated a significant but positive relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance as against a negative relationship hypothesized (Table 4.31). The result suggests that the ethical climate in Nigerian HEIs is weak, unfavourable and unable to minimize interpersonal deviance. Consequently, more interpersonal deviant acts are likely to be committed against colleagues and/or students.

In Nigerian institutional environment, interpersonal deviant acts such as embarrassing co-workers, sexual harassment, verbal abuse, and snide treatment are likely to occur due to the unfavourable nature of the ethical climate (Geidam et al., 2010; Kullima et al., 2014; Omonijo et al., 2013). Ideally, an ethical climate promotes care, personal morality, comradeship/team interests, respect and tolerance (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005; Cullen, Victor, & Stephens, 2001; Yener, Yaldıran, & Ergun, 2012), but where these attributes of an ethical work setting is absent, unethical behaviours may manifest. Contrary to expectation, the negative relationships envisaged between institutional policy and both organizational and interpersonal deviance were not supported. Specifically, results indicate that institutional policy significantly and positively relate to organizational deviance. That is, institutional policy does not influence organizational deviance negatively. The problem is multifaceted because faculty members may take opportunity of loopholes in the institutional policy while enforcement of institutional policy may be more challenging due to compromise on the

part of administrators or management of Nigerian HEIs (Awojulugbe, 2017; Jekayinfa, 2013; O'Toole, 2000). For example, policy on student treatment and general conduct of faculty members towards the HEIs are contained in the staff manuals. While such a policy is good to have as it guides faculty members' behaviours, implementing it is challenging for various reasons.

Firstly, in terms of interpersonal deviance, students may be afraid to come forward if they are mistreated because their grades may be affected (Awojulugbe, 2017; Nwogu, 2016). It was reported that a female student was given an 'F' grade in her year one (100 level) and year three (300 level) at Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai, Nigeria because she did not agree to sexual advances of a male lecturer (Awojulugbe, 2017). Secondly, if a student reports a lecturer for any misconduct, the lecturer's colleagues may victimize the concerned student to instil fears in the minds of other students (Jekayinfa, 2013). Such likely behaviours of colleagues towards a student who reported a lecturer for unethical acts support social dominance theory. The social dominance theory talks about social hierarchies and inequalities (Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006; Sidanius, & Pratto, 1999).

According to Okoroma (2006) and Oyakhilome (1986), faulty implementation of institutional policies is one of the major problems in the Nigerian educational system. Poor policy implementation may be attributed to the manipulation in the system, policy instability/inconsistencies, and the general level of corruption in Nigeria, especially in the educational system (Agbibo, 2012, 2013; Jekayinfa, 2013). Hence, these shortcomings may enable faculty members to engage in acts detrimental to the HEIs and their colleagues or students. While these claims are reasonable, they need to be further investigated. Hence, future researchers may want to examine the effectiveness of the

enforcement of institutional policy on reducing interpersonal or organizational deviance in Nigerian HEIs.

Another reason why institutional policy may not be significant and negatively related to both organizational and interpersonal deviance could be methodological in that the items used to measure institutional policy in the present study were not specific to the Nigerian context but rather general in nature. For example, “This institution operates efficiently and smoothly because of effective policies”. The items did not identify specific policies that are related to workplace deviance in Nigerian public HEIs. As a result, the expected link was not found. In the words of Bowling and Gruys (2010), generic measures may exclude certain important items that are specific to a job. However, despite the generality of the items, the validity and reliability of the instrument used in the present study had been established (see chapter four). Therefore, future researchers may want to investigate specific policies aimed at mitigating both organizational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian public HEIs.

5.2.1.2 Opportunity and organizational deviance

The negative relationships hypothesized between ethical climate, institutional policy and organisational deviance were not supported. Specifically, results demonstrate a significant and positive relationship between institutional policy and organizational deviance. The result suggests that the institutional policies in Nigerian public HEIs might not be able to minimize occurrence of organizational deviant acts such as deliberately working slow, failure to complete required syllabus, absenteeism, misuse of office equipment, and organizational theft. In practical reality, faculty members accused of engaging in either organizational or interpersonal deviance may go unpunished in Nigeria. It is possible for the reported lecturers to go scot-free due to

possible connections with powerful entities/individuals in or outside the institutions (Anonymous, 2017; Adedayo, 2017).

The theoretical perspective of vicarious reinforcement states that when a behaviour is rewarded regularly, it will most likely persist; conversely, if a behaviour is constantly punished, it will most likely desist (Renzetti, Curran, & Maier, 2012). Bearing this in mind, the researcher observed that the inability of some administrators of public HEIs in Nigeria to create an enabling ethical climate and formulate effective policies that deter deviance may be responsible for continued unethical acts exhibited by faculty members in public HEIs. However, a few public HEIs in Nigeria have sanctioned erring faculty members. For instance, the governing council of Lagos State University, Nigeria, dismissed 15 faculty members on Thursday, September 7, 2017 for various deviant acts such as awarding good grades to students who did not write examinations, delegation of duties to unauthorised persons, financial extortions, and alteration of students' results (Adekoya, 2017).

In the view of the researcher, if other public HEIs can formulate policies to minimize unethical acts and punish offenders, then faculty members may desist from both organizational and interpersonal deviance. The next sub-section presents the results of the relationship between job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and workplace deviance.

5.2.2 Findings related to research objective two

The second objective of the study investigated the relationship between the facets of job pressure in FTT (i.e. academic workload and work pressure) and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Academic workload is operationalized as the professional

efforts a faculty member devotes to activities such as teaching, research, publications, administration, community services, and other academic related tasks (Allen, 1996; Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Jex, 1998). On the other hand, work pressure is conceptualized in consonance with Karasek and Theorell (1990) as the degree to which an academic must operate in a hostile work environment, work fast and hard with much responsibilities within a limited time.

5.2.2.1 Work pressure, workload/overload, and interpersonal deviance

The present study found that work pressure showed a significant and positive relationship with interpersonal deviance. These findings suggest that excessive work pressure experienced by faculty members may lead to a rise in interpersonal deviance. The result supports previous findings and the facet of job pressure in the adopted FTT-like model (Darrat, Amyx, & Bennett, 2010; Glomb & Liao, 2003). According to the Nigerian universities' needs assessment report for 2012, majority of Nigerian HEIs are understaffed, thereby resulting in excessive work pressure on the few available faculty members (University Needs Report, 2012, 2014).

Based on the experience of the researcher, many faculty members in Nigerian public HEIs lecture in regular programmes, evening and weekend programmes (part-time programmes) in the same institution as well as programmes run by affiliated institutions while others have visiting contracts in multiple private and public universities. Although participation in visiting contracts in private and public universities seems voluntary, but the poor salary package for faculty members serve as a motivation to earn more incomes to meet up with inflation and rising cost of living (NEEDS reports 2012, 2014). In addition, the pressure of work may affect students negatively because a stressed faculty member may experience fatigue and reduced productivity, which may lower the rate of

knowledge impartation. Also, work pressure may damage interpersonal relationships among faculty members which could result in uncivil behaviours towards colleagues and students (Baillien et al., 2011; Stouten et al., 2010).

Theoretically, the facet of pressure in the FTT-like framework posits that faculty members may exhibit unethical/undesirable acts when faced with economic, financial, non-financial, family, and work/job related pressure (Cressey, 1950). The present finding supports the facet of job pressure in FTT.

5.2.2.2 Work pressure, workload/overload and organizational deviance

Unexpectedly, work pressure and work overload did not report a significant and positive relationship with organisational deviance. The findings imply that work pressure and work overload may not necessarily make faculty members to deliberately work slow, sabotage organizational equipment, come late to work, be absent from work, fail to complete required syllabus, or engage in other deviant acts directed at the organization. A possible explanation for this finding may be the length of service spent by the participants in various HEIs (Table 4.8). Studies indicate that employees who have spent long years in service are less likely to engage in organizational deviance unlike new recruits (Akinbode & Fagbohunbe, 2011; Fagbohunbe, 2012; Sunday, 2014). In the present study, 70% of the participants have spent six years and above on the job. It is possible the faculty members have adjusted to the workload and work pressure or are deriving benefits from excess workload. The benefits may be financial and non-financial in nature.

Another probable explanation may be attributed to the level of education of the participants. The finding indicates that 45% of the participants possessed a master's

degree while 26% a doctorate degree. Previous studies reported that the level of education is a predictor of organizational deviance. Appelbaum, Deguire, and Lay (2005) and Fagbohunbe et al. (2012) found that highly educated individuals may be less deviant due to their exposure to knowledge. Also, age is a predictor of negative deviance. In the current study, 94% of the participants were 31 years old and above, which signifies maturity on the part of the participants. Studies found that younger employees less than 30 years may exhibit negative deviant behaviours than older employees (Adebayo & Nwabuoku, 2008; Mangione & Quinn, 1975).

Similarly, Sunday (2014) in his study on workplace deviance in two public universities in Nigeria found that 80% of the respondents stated that they sometimes take institutional property without authorization. Sunday reported that those who mostly took company property without authorization fall between the ages of 21-29 years and were the youngest group of workers in the universities. Also, another plausible explanation for the result may be related to future expectations as many Nigerian lecturers expect future benefits from the institutions. Therefore, they may endure excessive workload and pressure of work in their present conditions.

In the present study, the findings from descriptive statistics revealed a higher level of interpersonal deviance than organizational deviance (Table 4.7). However, the finding does not mean that organizational deviant acts are not exhibited; rather organizational deviant acts are minimal. The descriptive statistics support past studies which demonstrated that more interpersonal deviant acts are committed than organizational deviance in Nigerian HEIs (Geidam, Njoku, & Bako, 2010; Kullima, Kawuwa, Audu, Mairiga, & Bukar, 2014; Omonijo et al., 2013). This is the reality in many public HEIs

in Nigeria. The next sub-section presents the results of the relationship between workplace spirituality and deviant workplace behaviour.

5.2.3 Findings related to research objective three

The third research objective sought to know the relationship between the dimensions of workplace spirituality (i.e. meaning at work and inner life) and both interpersonal and organizational deviance. It is worthy to note that the facet of opportunity in FTT can be extended to explain workplace spirituality in the present context. The facet of opportunity talks about the prevailing internal conditions in an organization (Cressey, 1950). The internal conditions can create or restrain organizational and interpersonal deviant acts. One way of restraining both interpersonal and organizational deviance among faculty members is to create opportunity for workplace spirituality in HEIs.

According to Gupta, Kumar, and Singh (2013), workplace spirituality is about employees sharing and experiencing some common attachments, attraction, and togetherness with each other within their work unit and the organization. In other words, workplace spirituality is the framework of organizational values evidenced in the culture that promotes employees' experience of transcendence through the work process, facilitating their sense of being connected to others in a way that provides feelings of completeness and joy (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Management of HEIs can create opportunity for organizational climate and culture which promote employees' experience of transcendence through the work process, togetherness, bonds, attachments, connectedness to others, and feelings of completeness and joy

Two dimensions of workplace spirituality were considered in the present study namely meaning at work/meaningful work and feelings of inner life. Meaning at work or

meaningful work is the feeling of attachments, togetherness and wholeness at work while feelings of inner life refers to the viewpoint that ‘employees have spiritual needs, just as they have physical, emotional, and cognitive needs, and these needs don’t get left at home when they come to work’ (Duchon & Plowman, 2005, p. 811). On the other hand, inner life is about feeling oneness with others and deriving inner satisfaction (Duchon & Plowman, 2005; Overell, 2008). In the view of the researcher, management of HEIs can create opportunity for fulfilment of inner life and meaningful work experience.

5.2.3.1 Workplace spirituality and organizational deviance

The study’s results demonstrated that feeling of inner life and meaningful work are negatively related to organizational deviance. The findings imply that the presence of feeling of inner life and meaningful work may minimize occurrence of organizational deviance. Specifically, the results indicate that the bond among faculty members encourages nourishment of the inner life which may lead to a more meaningful and productive outer life. Also, the bond strengthens the feelings of inner life and puts organizational deviance at a minimal level. However, whenever the bond is absent or weakened, organizational deviance is imminent.

According to social control theory (Hirschi, 1969), whenever faculty members exploit the process of social learning, they will be able to build self-control which reduces the inclination to indulge in behaviour recognized as antisocial. Moreover, the result of the present study supports previous studies which reported that feeling of inner life minimizes organizational deviance (Ahmad, & Omar, 2014; Altaf & Awan, 2011). Specifically, Weitz, Vardi, and Setter (2012) reported that workplace spirituality is negatively related to organizational deviance. Also, Sulaiman and Bhatti (2013) found

that being spiritually strong would help to generate positive behaviour and deviant-free environment in an organization. This means HEIs that create opportunity and support spiritual environments may benefit from employees who are less prone to engagement in organizational deviance. Hence, a faculty member whose spiritual needs have been fulfilled may not fail to complete required syllabus, may avoid absenteeism, and not be willing to sabotage organizational equipment because of his/her level of inner fulfilment (Weitz, Vardi, & Setter, 2012).

Another finding indicated that meaning at work is negatively related to organisational deviance. That is, if the lecturers experience a common connection, attachments, and togetherness with other colleagues in their work unit, there may be a decline in organizational deviance. According to Gupta, Kumar, and Singh (2013), spirituality is about employees who have a common connection and togetherness with other colleagues in their work unit. Also, meaningful work makes employees to perform happily their responsibilities and gives them a sense of satisfaction (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Duchon & Plowman, 2005). In the view of the researcher, a feeling of satisfaction experienced by the faculty members may minimize their involvement in organizational deviance.

Theoretically, the findings support the facet of opportunity in FTT. The facet of opportunity posits that if internal conditions do not create room for unethical acts, then organizational deviance may not manifest (Cressey, 1950). In addition, the findings support social control theory. Social control theory postulates that subordinates' relationships, norms, commitments, beliefs and values inspire them not to break rules or become unethical. Thus, if moral codes are embraced, and individuals have a stake

in their wider community, then employees may voluntarily limit their tendency to engage in deviant acts (Hirschi, 1969).

5.2.3.2 Workplace spirituality and interpersonal deviance

Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, results in Table 4.31 indicated a significant but positive relationship between meaning at work and interpersonal deviance. The result implies that absence of togetherness, attachments and harmoniousness with fellow faculty members may increase political deviance and personal aggression in the forms of verbal abuse, aggression, snide treatment, physical aggression, spread of negative rumours and gossips.

Also, the result suggests that when employees do not experience a feeling of connections, togetherness and meaningfulness at work, there may be a distortion in interpersonal relationship among colleagues. Such distortions may lead to job dissatisfaction and eventual engagement in interpersonal deviance (Ahiauzu & Asawo, 2012; Shankar, 2009).

Although there are no specific past studies on the relationship between workplace spirituality and interpersonal deviance, the few studies available indicated that workplace spirituality has positive relationship with positive behavioural outcomes and negative relationship with negative behavioural outcomes. However, the present finding is not in consonance with the few existing studies. For instance, previous studies found that workplace spirituality reduces salespeople's organisational deviant behaviours towards customers and the organizations (Chawla, 2014). Also, James, Miles, and Mullins (2011) reported that workplace spirituality may serve as a special mechanism for regulating individual negative behaviours at work. The variation in the direction of

the present finding may be due to the cultural differences between the studies conducted in western countries and Nigeria.

5.2.4 Findings related to research objective four

The fourth research objective examined the mediating role of neutralization on the relationship between the elements of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Neutralization is a cognitive process which helps faculty members reconcile the discrepancies between their deviant behaviour and the positive self-image they wish to project, as well as to protect lecturers from self-blame and guilt (Robinson & Kraatz, 1998; Sykes & Matza, 1957). In this way, neutralization makes it easier for people to engage in deviant acts because neutralization provides justifications for unethical acts. Extant research reported that employees may find deviance justifiable if they feel their employer has engaged in moral violations of employment terms (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Greenberg, 2002; Harvey, Martinko, & Borkowski, 2016).

5.2.4.1 Neutralization as a mediator between opportunity and interpersonal deviance

In the present study, neutralization significantly mediated the relationship between the elements of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, neutralization mediated the relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance in a negative direction (Table 4.18). It means that justifications to engage in interpersonal deviance may not arise if the climate is ethical. In other words, near-absence of ethical climate elements such as collective team interests, socially responsible decisions and rules/laws may not affect interpersonal relationship among colleagues (Sims, 1992). One of the neutralization items says, “Most

people in this institution engage in bad behaviours, so I am not alone” This item explains that most lecturers justify their behaviours because other lecturers are also engaged in unethical acts. In other words, the behaviours of colleagues influence the involvement of other faculty members. If this holds true, then some band-wagon effects are expected, especially towards colleagues and students.

Previous studies demonstrated that employees blamed the managements of organizations for poor ethical climate/working conditions and not colleagues. For instance, Hollinger and Clark (1983) reported that employees justified their theft as a compensation for putting up with unfavourable working conditions created by the organization. Also, Lim (2002) found that cyber-loafers employed neutralization (metaphor of the ledger) to justify their involvement in cyberloafing (a form of deviance) because of procedural, distributive and interactional injustice. Similarly, Dabney (1995) also found that nurses adopted neutralization to enable them steal over-the-counter drugs and other supplies due to poor work climate in hospitals.

Also, neutralization mediated the negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance. The result suggests that faculty members may not justify interpersonal deviant acts if they perceive that institutional policies are implemented effectively. In other words, the faculty members may not develop deviance towards one another and/or students because the responsibility for formulation and implementation of policies lies with the governing councils and managements of the institutions. This finding supports theory of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The theory explains that if the institutions effectively formulate and implement policies; employees will reciprocate by exhibiting desired positive behaviour towards colleagues and the institutions. However, if institutional policies are implemented haphazardly, then faculty members may

reciprocate by engaging in organizational deviance. From a theoretical perspective, neutralization theory postulates that individuals who engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance may give excuses to justify the circumstances which enable them exhibit deviant acts without worrying about guilt feelings (Hinduja, 2007; Sykes & Matza, 1957). Also, FTT posits that the potential deviants may not engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance unless they have the moral conviction that such unethical acts will not make them feel guilty (Cressey, 1950).

5.2.4.2 Neutralization as a mediator between opportunity and organizational deviance

The present study found that neutralization did not mediate the relationship between the dimensions of opportunity (i.e. institutional policy and ethical climate) and organizational deviance. The results suggest that faculty members' views of ethical climate and institutional policy may not lead to an increase in justifications to engage in organization deviance. A probable explanation for this finding may be related to the effectiveness of some policies in public HEIs in Nigeria. One of such policies is the establishment of a unit called Anti-Corruption and Transparency Unit (ACTU) in every public university and polytechnic (UniBEN report, 2017). ACTU has a responsibility to prevent corrupt conducts and promote ethical standards in HEIs and other government establishments by building core values of honesty, integrity, transparency and accountability among members of staff and students of universities and polytechnics (Federal Ministry of Power report, 2017; NOUN, 2017). Although this unit does not have the authority to punish faculty members who engage in organizational deviance, ACTU can make appropriate recommendations to the management of HEIs for onward

transmission to the Governing Council's committee on appointment and promotion for implementation (UniBen, 2017).

Bearing in mind that ACTU investigates unethical act which undermines the integrity and productivity of HEIs, faculty members who perceive unfavourable, weak or poor ethical climate and institutional policy may not justify any act of deviance towards the organization/HEIs for the fear of investigation by ACTU. For instance, faculty members may be treated as a scape-goat to serve as a deterrent to others who may want to voice out to draw the attention of the supervising ministry or regulatory authorities to the unfavourable institutional policies and climate in HEIs. Similarly, faculty members may not give reasons to engage in organizational deviant acts using the weakness in institutional policies and ethical climate as excuses for fear of suspension, dismissal or any other punitive measures that may be meted out on faculty members by the management of HEIs (Adekoya, 2017).

5.2.5 Findings related to research objective five

The fifth research objective examined whether neutralization mediated the relationship between dimensions of job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and both organizational and interpersonal deviance.

5.2.5.1 Neutralization as a mediator between the dimensions of job pressure and interpersonal deviance

The study found that neutralization mediated the positive relationship between work pressure and interpersonal deviance on one hand, and on the other hand, neutralization mediated the positive relationship between workload and interpersonal deviance. The findings suggest that when faculty members experience excessive work pressure and

overload, they are more likely to justify their engagement in interpersonal deviant acts by claiming that it was the pressure of work that made them, for example become uncivil towards colleagues and students (Martin & Hine, 2005).

Also, there is a possibility that before lecturers engage in interpersonal deviant acts, they would justify and adduce reasons for their questionable actions to ameliorate any feelings of guilt which they may experience (Robinson & Kraatz, 1998). These findings support reports that management of HEIs in Nigeria expose faculty members to excessive work pressure (NEEDS reports, 2012, 2014). Also, the findings of the present study support previous studies which reported that high workload and pressure may make academics to engage in unethical acts because they may seek alternative means to vent their frustrations (Costello, 2000; Mitchell, Dodder, & Norris, 1990).

Also, most Nigerian HEIs are over-populated with students without adequate infrastructural facilities and teaching/learning aids (NEEDS reports, 2012, 2014). Despite these inadequacies, faculty members are expected to discharge their responsibilities without adequate/commensurate motivation. At times, faculty members vent out their disappointment, aggression and anger on their colleagues or students when they are experiencing excessive workload at work or a carryover of family pressure (Wilkowski & Robinson, 2008). Also, the present finding supports previous studies, specifically, Lim (2002) who found that employees who experienced distributive, procedural and interactional injustice were able to engage in cyber loafing after they neutralized their guilty feelings. From a theoretical perspective, FTT's facet of pressure states that all forms of pressure (job-related, family pressure, financial and non-financial pressure) can lead the prospective deviants to engage in unethical acts, while

neutralization opens the doors and enables the potential deviants or norm-violators to make repeated entries (Cressey, 1950).

5.2.5.2 Neutralization as a mediator between the dimensions of job pressure and organizational deviance

The findings indicate that neutralization failed to mediate the relationship between the dimensions of job pressure (i.e. work pressure and workload/overload) and organizational deviance. The results indicate that a rise in workload and work pressure may not lead to an increase in justifications to engage in organization deviance. One probable explanation may be due to the high rate of unemployment/joblessness in Nigerian economy.

According to the reports of the National Bureau of Statistics in Nigeria (2016), unemployment hit 14.2% in the last quarter of 2016. As at 2013, the National Bureau of Statistics and World Bank estimated that a minimum of 1.8 million Nigerian graduates enter the labour market yearly and remain unemployed. Also, the estimates given by unofficial sources says that there are about 40 million unemployed Nigerians (CPAfrica, 2013). In the view of the researcher, faculty members are aware that they may lose their jobs if they continue to justify their engagement in organizational deviance as it was the case at Lagos State University in September 2017 where 15 faculty members were dismissed for various acts of organizational deviance (Adekoya, 2017). Therefore, lecturers may be willing to endure excessive workload and work pressure with the hope that working conditions will improve in the future.

Also, despite the spread of unethical acts in some Nigerian public HEIs, some faculty members still uphold moral values and spirituality. Hence, they may not justify

engaging in organizational deviance (Oluwole, 2008). Another probable explanation may be related to the fact that faculty members benefit financially from excess workload and work pressure. For instance, some faculty members in public universities enjoyed monetary benefits for excess workload and work pressure in their respective institutions after they embarked on an industrial strike. The Nigerian government released N23billion (\$65,155,807.3) to settle lecturers' academic and excess workload allowances (Akowe, 2017; Aluko, 2017). Also, the management of some HEIs in Nigeria allows faculty members to sell handouts (lecture notes) and textbooks directly to students at rates beneficial to the lecturers. The accrued financial benefits to the faculty members may discourage them from justifying organizational deviance.

5.2.6 Findings related to research objective six

The sixth research objective examined self-control as a moderator in the relationship between the elements of opportunity (i.e. ethical climate and institutional policy) and neutralization. Self-control is the ability to restrain or change one's inner responses, as well as ability to interrupt undesired behavioural tendencies and desist from acting on them (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004).

The interaction terms demonstrated that self-control moderated the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization (Table 4.38). The relationship is stronger (more negative) for individuals who possess high level of self-control than for faculty members who have low level of self-control. That is, faculty members who have high self-control are more likely to refrain from justifying even if there is a weak ethical climate.

Empirically, a high level of self-control enables subordinates to resist temptations to become involved in either organizational or interpersonal deviant acts by overriding individuals' automatic tendencies toward deviant acts at work (Caprara & Steca, 2005; Wilkowski & Robinson, 2008). Conversely, low level of self-control increases rate of justifications and unethical acts. High level of self-control may contribute directly to harmonious interactions among lecturers when they refuse to say hurtful things to colleagues and/or students.

Theoretically, the result of the moderating effect of self-control on the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization supports social control theory and self-efficacy theory. Bandura's self-efficacy theory posits that self-control helps to exert control over thoughts, actions, feelings, and behaviours at work (Bandura, 1977, 1978). In the view of the researcher, academics with high level of self-control tend to evaluate their actions and consequences of their behaviours carefully and resist the pressure to engage in either organisational or interpersonal deviance than those with low level of self-control (Bandura et al., 2003).

In addition to the preceding paragraph, the interaction terms indicated that self-control moderated the relationship between institutional policy and neutralization, but in a positive direction. According to Gardner, Harris, Li, Kirkman, and Mathieu (2017) and Baron and Kenny (1986), a moderator can have a strengthening, weakening, or reversing effect. The result suggests that self-control reverses the hypothesized negative relationship between institutional policy and neutralization. By implication, the inability of institutional policy to curtail both interpersonal and organizational deviance as evident in the direct effect model (Table 4.31) is an indication that hardly can self-

control make negative impact on the proposed moderating relationship between institutional policy and neutralization in Nigerian HEIs.

Practically, if the institutional policies cannot deter both organizational and interpersonal deviance (Table 4.31), invariably there may always be justifications to engage in unethical acts which might make self-control to be less significant. The next sub-section clarifies whether self-control moderates the relationship between dimensions of job pressure and neutralization.

5.2.7 Findings related to research objective seven

The seventh research objective examined self-control as a moderator in the relationship between the dimensions of job pressure (i.e. workload and work pressure) and neutralization. The interaction terms indicated that self-control did not moderate the positive relationship between workload and neutralization on one hand and on the other hand, self-control did not moderate the positive relationship between work pressure and neutralization. The results implied that as workload and work pressure increase, the need to justify both organizational and interpersonal deviance may also increase.

One possible explanation may have to do with the fact that people's self-control has the tendency to be depleted when their cognitive resources are taxed (Schmeichel, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2003). For example, Nigerian faculty members who work under a tight deadline (work pressure) may be required to exert self-control, but the more work overload and pressure of work that confront the faculty members, the less will be their ability to exert self-control and the more justifications/excuses they might give to engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance (Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011). According to the theory of self-control, low self-control is a major cause

of unethical acts because deviants and other rule breakers or norm violators may exhibit deficits in self-control (Kochanska, Murray, & Harlan, 2000; Latham & Perlow, 1996; Shamsudin, Chauhan, & Kura, 2012).

Also, work pressure and workload have negative impacts on the health, psychological and emotional aspects of faculty members (Hakanen, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2005). Excessive work pressure may make faculty members experience medical conditions such as high-blood pressure, early ageing, and personal aggression. In addition, it has been reported that work overload and time pressure cause stress, anxiety and depression, which may result in aggression and job dissatisfaction (Ahmad, & Omar, 2014; Altaf & Awan, 2011). Therefore, faculty members whose level of self-control resource is low are likely to act unethically because these individuals may have lost the required executive resources to identify moral issues and test their behaviours against external moral standards (Conley & Wooseley, 2000; Vohs & Baumeister, 2004).

Theoretically, the facet of pressure in FTT posits that the pressure on faculty members may make them to neutralize before they engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance. Hence, self-control may not moderate the positive relationship between workload and neutralization on one hand and on the other hand, the positive relationship between work pressure and neutralization may not be moderated by self-control. The reason being that excessive work pressure and workload has negative psychological and emotional effects on faculty members. The emotional trauma of work pressure may increase neutralization. According to Siegrist (1996), the effort-reward imbalance model states that work characterized by high efforts, but low rewards represents a reciprocity deficit between “costs” and “gains”. This imbalance may cause sustained strain reactions. In the present study, work overload and work pressure represent a reciprocity

deficit between “costs” and “gains” which many academics experience in Nigerian public HEIs. The researcher is of the view that future studies may consider other moderating variables that may minimize justifications to engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance. Notable contributions of the present study are discussed in the next section.

5.3 Implications of the study

The current study has made significant contributions to the body of knowledge theoretically and practically. Hence, the subsequent sub-sections discuss the specific contributions of the study briefly.

5.3.1 Theoretical implications

The major theoretical contribution of this study is the introduction of another theoretical perspective in the form of fraud triangle theory-like framework (FTT) to predict both organizational and interpersonal deviance among faculty members in Nigerian public HEIs. Similarly, the theoretical framework of this study originated from the fraud triangle theory and extant literature. Also, neutralization theory, theory of self-control (general theory of crimes), and social control theory supported the theoretical framework. Furthermore, this study incorporated both moderating and mediating variables to enhance the FTT-like framework adopted. The results of the present study indicated that several theoretical contributions have been made.

Firstly, the findings made a theoretical contribution to the enhancement of fraud triangle theory (Cressey, 1950). FTT postulates that the presence of opportunity-related factors, job pressure, and neutralization may create avenue for frauds. However, instead of limiting FTT to fraud, the present study extended the theory to explain both

organizational and interpersonal deviance among faculty members in Nigerian public HEIs. A critical look at the workplace deviant literature shows that the three facets of fraud triangle theory has not been applied in a single study on workplace deviance because most researchers have limited the application of fraud triangle theory to accounting and financial frauds. Little did they (past researchers) realize that financial fraud is a subset of unethical acts.

In the view of the researcher, the present FTT-like framework is very significant because the management of Nigerian public HEIs can use the model to formulate deviance preventive strategies rather than managing the manifestations of deviance (Abdullahi & Mansor, 2015). Furthermore, the present study is a response to the suggestions made by Dorminey, Fleming, Kranacher, and Riley (2010) that FTT should be extended to study other unethical acts. Empirically, the present study's results indicate that the ethical climate and institutional policy (opportunity-related factors) of Nigerian public HEIs are unable to deter organizational and interpersonal deviance (Table 4.31). These results support FTT, which postulates that the presence of opportunity-related factors may create avenue for frauds and other unethical acts.

Secondly, the present study enhanced the original fraud triangle theory because neutralization was considered as a mediator being a cognitive process and the mediating results were significant. The mediating variable helped to understand the indirect effect of opportunity-related factors and job pressure on both organizational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian public HEIs. Neutralization theory states that people like to present themselves favourably to others. Hence, they must give justifications before engaging in any unethical act to prevent self-guilt. Statistically, four out of eight mediating hypotheses were supported. Specifically, neutralization mediated the negative

relationships among ethical climate, institutional policy, and interpersonal deviance. On the other hand, neutralization mediated the positive relationships among work pressure, workload, and interpersonal deviance. Therefore, the mediating results lent empirical supports to neutralization theory (Sykes & Matza, 1957).

Thirdly, the theory of self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) posits that the single most important factor behind unethical acts is individual lack of self-control. The present study examined the moderating role of self-control on the model and the result found that self-control moderated the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization. The moderating result supports the theory of self-control. Also, based on the moderating result, self-control is a veritable trait to minimize neutralization, organizational, and interpersonal deviance among Nigerian faculty members. If a lecturer has a high level of self-control, then he/she might be able to suppress his/her engagement in either organizational or interpersonal deviance and vice-versa (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004).

Fourthly, the present study identified incomplete assumptions about the impact of workplace spirituality on DWB among faculty members in Nigeria. The theoretical linkage between workplace spirituality and DWB is social control theory (Hirschi, 1969). According to social control theory, individuals are prevented from engaging in organizational and interpersonal deviance because of their bond with social institutions such as religion, family, staff unions, and workplace. The theory asserts that bonds to social institutions reduce one's propensity for deviant behaviour but when such a bond is weakened, deviance is imminent. Results indicated that the dimensions of workplace spirituality (meaningful work and inner life) are negatively related to both organizational and interpersonal deviance. Thus, lending empirical support to social

control theory. Furthermore, social control theory (Hirschi, 1969) was predominantly used to predict delinquency among children. In the view of the researcher, a theory that could predict delinquent behaviours in children can also predict deviant behaviours among adult faculty members. Therefore, social control theory was used to explain workplace spirituality among Nigerian lecturers.

Another significant theoretical contribution of the present study is construct validation of the instruments. For instance, the present study adapted and contextualized the DWB scale by Robinson and Bennett (2000) to measure both organizational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian public HEIs. Also, the ethical climate scale used by Schwepker and Hartline (2005), academic workload scale by Houston, Meyer, and Paewei (2006), work pressure scale by Karasek and Theorell (1990), workplace spirituality scale by Ashmos and Duchon (2000) and self-control scale by Turner and Piquero (2002) were all subjected to construct validation.

Construct validation is essential to ensure that the scales are reliable, valid, able to elicit meaningful results for the present research and relevant to Nigerian HEIs. The items in the scales were pre-tested by six subject matter experts in organizational behaviour and human resource management not below the rank of a senior lecturer from six public universities and polytechnics in Nigeria and Malaysia. The essence is to ascertain absence of ambiguity, and ensure simplicity, concise wordings, and clarity of items in the scales. Taken together, the validation process was to ensure content validity of the items.

After content validity, the researcher used SPSS version 24 to conduct exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring and measurement model validation was

done via PLS-SEM 3.2.7. The results of the measurement model ascertained convergent validity, discriminant validity, item reliability, and construct/composite reliability for all items/scales. Also, the EFA results demonstrated satisfactory factor analysis for all the scales using factor loadings, KMO and Bartlett's test, total variance explained and rotated factor matrix as criteria (Field, 2005; Kaiser, 1974). Next are practical contributions.

5.3.2 Practical implications

From the practical point of view, this study provides significant insights to policy makers in both federal and state ministries of education on how to formulate preventive strategies to curb the menace of organizational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian public HEIs. Also, the regulatory institutions such as National Universities Commission (NUC), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), managements of public HEIs and other stakeholders in Nigerian educational system might use the present findings as tools for preventing organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Firstly, the present study demonstrated that ethical climate in Nigerian public HEIs is positively related to interpersonal deviance and unable to minimize organizational deviance. Therefore, managements of Nigerian institutions can make considerable efforts in minimizing the occurrence of workplace deviance by enhancing the ethical climate of HEIs. This is in line with the position of Shacklock, Manning, and Hort (2011) who stated that ethical climate embodied employees' collective observations of factors including innovation, autonomy, support, cohesiveness, trust, recognition, and fairness. In the view of the researcher, the governing councils and management of Nigerian public HEIs have a role to play in sharpening the ethical climate of HEIs. For example, the organizational climate may breed deviance when the top management

behaviour is perceived as unethical, but opportunity for deviance is blocked when the top management behaviour is adjudged to be ethical (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005).

Secondly, institutional policy recorded significant but positive relationship with organizational deviance. This suggests practical implication for the regulatory authorities and management of HEIs. To reduce organizational deviance, institutional policy and its implementation must be effective and unbiased to all stakeholders. Thirdly, the study found a significant and positive relationship between work pressure and interpersonal deviance. So, there is need for the policy makers, regulatory bodies and management of Nigerian public HEIs to think of ways to review the workload of the faculty members and minimize work pressure accordingly. Such measures may include hiring more academics, incorporate technology into teaching and learning and reduce administrative duties that are not related to the academics' main task.

Another interesting result is the role of neutralization (as a mediator) in the model. If the faculty members perceive weakness in the internal conditions of HEIs, there is tendency for them to justify deviant acts (Lim, 2002; Sykes & Matza, 1957). Therefore, the management of Nigerian HEIs need to often live above board and avoid any internal conditions that may warrant justifications for unethical acts. The management can achieve this by operating an open-door policy and by organizing fora to discuss their programmes and policies with faculty members. Such avenues may enhance openness and transparency in HEIs administration.

Fourthly, consistent with prior research, the present study reported that dimensions of workplace spirituality have the capacity to reduce incidence of organizational and

interpersonal deviance among lecturers in Nigeria. Therefore, Nigerian regulatory authorities, management of HEIs and executives of academic staff unions need to create a framework of organizational values and culture that promotes lecturers' experience of transcendence, togetherness and harmoniousness with others and their work units (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Duchon & Plowman, 2005; Overell, 2008). The recognition of the need for spirituality in the workplace could help to decrease organizational and interpersonal deviance among faculty members since spirituality has the potential to act as a personal control that assists lecturers gauge their behaviours at work (James, Miles, & Mullins, 2011; Weitz, Vardi, & Setter, 2012).

Finally, the present study suggests that individual factors (such as level of self-control) requires adequate consideration during recruitment into Nigerian public HEIs. The moderating role of self-control suggests that self-control can minimize the tendencies of individuals to engage in deviant acts. Thus, the officials charged with the responsibility of staff selection and recruitment into these institutions may consider self-control as a selection criterion when making hiring decisions. This can be achieved by conducting personality inventory tests during selection process, so that the outcomes of such tests can help interview panel to select applicants adjudged to be high in self-control and screen-out those low in self-control.

5.4 Research limitations

This study has contributed immensely by successfully adopting an enhanced FTT-like framework to explain both organizational and interpersonal deviance among faculty members. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the present conceptual framework is novel in DWB literature. Despite the contributions of the present study to knowledge, the findings need to be interpreted with consideration of the study's limitations. Firstly,

the present study offers limited generalization because it focused mainly on faculty members in Nigerian public polytechnics and universities, particularly those located in Kwara state. It is worthy to note that the opinions of the participants in the present study are true reflections of the happenings in most public HEIs in Nigeria. This is because most of these institutions have similar working conditions/environment, the participants have similar characteristics, and challenges (University needs reports, 2012, 2014). Hence, the findings of the present study are valid.

Also, only academic staff members of public institutions were sampled to the exclusion of the administrative staff cadre and students. The students who are the first-line customers of public HEIs were excluded in this study. The exclusion of students and non-teaching staff members gives an incomplete view or appraisal of workplace deviance in public HEIs in Nigeria. The reason being that administrative staff members also engage in DWB while students are at the receiving end in some instances. At other point in time, some students also aid and abet DWB by serving as cronies and intermediaries for faculty members. Secondly, the faculty members' observations of organizational and interpersonal deviance were based on self-reported questionnaires. Despite this, some research hypotheses did not receive empirical support because deviant behaviour is a sensitive topic and responses may be associated with common method variance and social desirability bias (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Loo & Thorpe, 2000). Social desirability bias (SDB) simply means "the tendency on the part of individuals to present themselves in a favourable light, regardless of their true feelings about an issue or topic" (Podsakoff, McKenzie, Lee. & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 881). SDB is one of the common method biases that are inherent in behavioural research (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

According to Bennett and Robinson (2000), self-report measures of organizational and interpersonal deviance are valid particularly if anonymity is assured during data collection. Anonymity was observed during data collection for the present study as participants were told that their identities would be kept confidentially, and their responses would be aggregated. Also, to overcome common method variance-CMV (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012), the researcher computed Harman's one-factor test, and the result showed that the first (largest) factor accounted for only 20.517% of the variance, which is less than 50% threshold (Harman, 1967; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2012). The CMV result suggests that the findings of the present study are valid and not threatened by CMV.

Thirdly, the present study is cross-sectional and correlational in nature because it described the social phenomenon of workplace deviance among faculty members in Nigeria over a short period without attempting to observe any perceptual, attitudinal, and behavioural changes that could be brought about over a long period of time. Although the findings of the present study are valid as indicated in the reliability and validity of results (chapter 4), future scholars may consider perceptual and attitudinal changes over a long period. Fourthly, the data for the present study as reported is subjective. Subjective measure is based on empirically validated instruments. This measure has limitations as participants may not be truthful and deviant acts being measured subjectively are not actual but perceived. Although it is worthy to note that subjective measure of deviance is valid and reliable (Ferris et al., 2009; Holtz & Harold, 2013). The advantages are that subjective measure is considered appropriate due to lack of access to archival personnel records in HEIs and the level of confidentiality of information in personnel records. Also, validated instruments have consistent internal

reliability (Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability) proved over a period. Therefore, the present findings are valid.

Fifthly, the present model has enhanced the original fraud triangle theory by adopting neutralization as a mediating variable. The original FTT considered the three facets of FTT as independent variables, but a critical review of the literature revealed that neutralization as a cognitive resource is better suited as a mediating variable (Lim, 2002). The findings indicate that the mediating results were significant, especially in relation to interpersonal deviance. However, the present study's findings demonstrated that neutralization did not mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables and organizational deviance, which suggests a research gap for future studies.

Last but not the least, self-control is an essential attribute needed to refrain from unethical acts, but the non-significant moderating effect of self-control on the relationship between work pressure and neutralization on one hand and on the other hand, the relationship between workload and neutralization indicates the possibility of other moderating variables in future organizational and interpersonal deviance studies. However, the moderating result of the present study is valid as self-control strengthened the negative relationship between a favourable ethical climate and neutralization.

Despite the limitations highlighted, the findings of this study are still valid as the present study has contributed to the understanding of workplace deviance at work. It has successfully adopted an enhanced FTT-like model, thereby adding to the existing literature on DWB and provided empirical support on the role of self-control as a moderator in the relationship between the elements of opportunity and neutralization. It further attested to the role of neutralization as a significant cognitive resource in

mediating the relationship between job pressure, opportunity and interpersonal deviance.

5.5 Suggestions for future research

Firstly, to be able to generalize the results of the present model, public HEIs in other geo-political zones of Nigeria need to be investigated. Specifically, subsequent works may include faculty members in private universities and polytechnics to make full generalizations of the findings. Also, it is important to include the administrative staff members and students in future research on DWB to have a comprehensive view of workplace deviance in Nigerian public HEIs. This is because non-teaching staff members do engage in DWB while students are at times at the receiving end (Geidam, Njoku, & Bako, 2011; Jekayinfa, 2013).

Secondly, bearing in mind that the present study is a cross-sectional survey, future research may consider longitudinal approach to studying workplace deviance so that causal inferences could be made. Future researchers may observe the perceptual, attitudinal, and behavioural changes and responses over a long period to enhance and enrich the existing literature. In addition, since the faculty members' observations of organizational and interpersonal deviance were based on self-reported questionnaires, future studies may adopt multiple sources including peer-reporting or supervisor rating to clarify the gap between supervisor's views on workplace deviance and faculty members' views.

Thirdly, the present study's findings demonstrated that neutralization did not mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables and organizational deviance, which suggests a research gap for future studies. Future researchers may consider

organizational trust, job satisfaction or organizational support as a possible mediator. In addition, the non-significant moderating effect of self-control on the relationship between work pressure and neutralization on one hand and on the other hand, the relationship between workload and neutralization indicates the possibility of other moderating variables in future organizational and interpersonal deviance studies. Future researchers may consider conscientiousness as a moderator because Bowling and Eschleman (2010) and Marcus, Lee, and Ashton (2007) reported that individuals with low level of conscientiousness may likely engage in deviant behaviour more than those with high level of conscientiousness.

Lastly, there is need for future studies to replicate the current study using objective measure of workplace deviance by obtaining data from faculty members' personnel records/files. This may help to compare the findings of the present study which employed subjective measures with future research that may use objective measure. Also, future scholars may undertake similar studies in other sectors and countries using similar variables to cater for cultural differences and different working conditions among nations. Furthermore, since this study utilised quantitative methodology, other studies might investigate this conceptual model using qualitative methodology. In the view of the researcher, this would provide alternative ontological and epistemological validation of the conceptual model.

5.6 Conclusion

The present study has succeeded in answering all the research questions and examined all the research objectives. Firstly, findings indicate that neutralization mediated the relationship between ethical climate and interpersonal deviance in a negative direction. It means that justifications to engage in interpersonal deviance may not arise if there is

a favourable ethical climate in Nigerian HEIs. Similarly, the negative relationship between institutional policy and interpersonal deviance was mediated by neutralization. The result suggests that faculty members may not seek for justifications to engage in personal aggression, sexual harassment, spread of rumours, verbal abuse and other interpersonal deviant acts, if they perceive that institutional policies are implemented effectively.

Secondly, neutralization mediated the positive relationships amongst work pressure, workload, and interpersonal deviance. The results suggest that when HEIs expose faculty members to excessive work pressure and academic workload, these lecturers may likely invoke neutralization to legitimize their subsequent engagement in interpersonal deviant acts. Furthermore, self-control moderated the negative relationships between ethical climate and neutralization. This means that a high level of self-control strengthens the negative relationship between ethical climate and neutralization. In other words, a lecturer with a high level of self-control may not give justifications to engage in either organizational or interpersonal deviance despite the prevailing ethical climates in Nigerian HEIs.

Thirdly, the present study demonstrated that workplace spirituality may minimize organizational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian public HEIs. Furthermore, the study's findings have provided additional support to fraud triangle theory (Cressey, 1950), neutralization theory (Sykes & Matza, 1957), social control theory (Hirschi, 1969) and other supporting theories. In addition to the theoretical contributions of the present study, the results offer significant practical implications to the National Universities Commission (NUC), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), managements of tertiary institutions in Nigeria and various academic staff unions on the

need to improve/enhance ethical workplace behaviour among faculty members. Taken together, the study's key findings demonstrated mixed support for the fraud-like triangle theory adopted in this study and adds to the paucity of organizational and interpersonal deviance literature in Africa, especially in Nigeria.



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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Copy of Questionnaire



October 2016.

Dear Participant,

You are cordially invited to participate in this study. The study aims to investigate workplace behaviours in higher educational institutions.

Please endeavour to provide sincere answers to all the questions and note that there are neither right nor wrong answers.

Please endeavour to complete and return the questionnaire within one week. Furthermore, the completed questionnaire can be returned to the ASUU/ASUP Secretariat in your institution as a contact person awaits you at the secretariat for onward transmission to the researcher.

More so, your responses to this survey will be treated anonymously and confidentially and data obtained will be used strictly for academic purposes.

Thank you for your anticipated cooperation.

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Workplace Behavior Survey in Higher Educational Institutions

Section A

The following statements evaluate your opinion about the ethical climate in your institution. Please indicate your level of agreement with the statements and remember all your responses will remain anonymous.

	Mostly False	Somewhat False	Somewhat True	Mostly True	Completely True
1. Top management does not support ethical behavior in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
2. There is not much support in this institution for lecturers to exhibit honesty at work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I know of colleagues /students who were cheated in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This institution is more interested in making money than in meeting staff/students' needs.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have seen my colleagues do dishonest things in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. The climate in this institution does not support the idea that students should be treated fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. The climate in this institution allows lecturers to do some unethical things at work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
-

Section B

Using the agreement/disagreement scale provided below, please indicate your views about the management policies in this institution.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The management of this institution is progressive.					
2. The top management of this institution knows its job in respect to policy initiation, formulation and implementation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This institution operates efficiently and smoothly because of effective policies.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I receive good support from the management of this	1	2	3	4	5

institution in form of
improved welfare policies.

5. In this institution, internal control policies and mechanisms are weak.

1 2 3 4 5

Section C

The following statements evaluate lecturers' core responsibilities in this institution.

Please circle the number that best corresponds to what you are experiencing at work.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I have time to undertake quality teaching, research and publication.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My workload has increased over the past 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I often need to work after working hours to meet my work requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The amount of administration I am expected to do is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The number of students I am expected to teach and/or supervise is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel pressured to attract external research funding for my publications.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I believe the promotion procedures recognize variety of tasks that I do.	1	2	3	4	5

8. I believe that teaching and research achievements are considered by the promotion committee.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My job requires me to work fast.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My tasks of teaching, research, and publication require me to work very hard.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My tasks of teaching, research, community service and publication require too much input from me.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I have enough time to complete teaching, research and publication tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My tasks of teaching, research and publication often make conflicting demands on me.	1	2	3	4	5

Section D

The statements below assess faculty members' state of togetherness in the workplace.

Please, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements by choosing a number that best explains your views:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I experience joy in my work in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I believe others experience joy because of my work in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My spirit is energized by my work in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5

4. The work I do is connected to what I think is important in life.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I look forward to coming to work most days.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I see connection between my work and the larger social good of my community.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I understand what gives my work personal meaning.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel hopeful about life in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My spiritual values influence the choices I make in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I consider myself a spiritual person in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Prayer is an important part of my life in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I care about the spiritual health of my co-workers in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5

Section E

The following statements describe faculty members generally. Using the scale provided, please circle the number that best explains your experience of each statement.

	Not at all	Fairl y	Aver agely	Often	Very much
1. I often get in a jam because I do things without thinking in this institution	1	2	3	4	5
2. I think planning takes the fun out of things in this institution	1	2	3	4	5
3. I must use a lot of self-control to keep out of trouble in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I enjoy taking risks in this institution	1	2	3	4	5
5. I enjoy new and exciting experiences, even if they are a little frightening or unusual	1	2	3	4	5
6. Life with no danger in it would be too dull for me	1	2	3	4	5

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Section F

The following statements assess your opinion about the basis for behaviours among faculty members. Please, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree based on the scale provided.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I blame no one for how I act in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Unfair HoDs and management staff are to be blamed for how I act in this institution.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The management and HoDs were against me from the start.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Most people in this institution engage in bad behaviours, so I am not alone.	1	2	3	4	5
5. If anyone is hurt by what I do in this institution, they either deserve it or could afford it.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The behaviours of my colleagues in this institution influence my behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5

Section G

Please circle the number that best corresponds to the frequency of your behaviours in this institution. Please remember that there is no wrong or right answer. So, please answer as objectively and honestly as possible.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. I make fun of colleagues and/or students.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I say something hurtful to colleagues and/or students	1	2	3	4	5
3. At times, I harass students and/or colleagues sexually.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I raise tempers at colleagues/students.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I accept financial and material gifts from students in exchange for good grades.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I do plagiarise publications or ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I accept requests from colleagues and/or family members to assist students with good grades.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I publicly embarrass students/colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I take stationeries from the institution without permission.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I do not switch-off or place on vibration mobile phones during official meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I inflate receipts on expenditure claims.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I take longer days for annual leave than approved by the authority.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I arrive late in the lecture room without informing the students in advance.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I attend to personal matters during working hours.	1	2	3	4	5

15. I delegate lectures to colleagues without notifying the head of department	1	2	3	4	5
16. I travel on personal grounds on week days outside the domain of the institution without approval by the authority.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I neglect to follow management's rules/ instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I misuse office equipment and other assets.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I discuss confidential institutional information with unauthorized persons.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I make financial contribution to become a co-author in article publications.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I do not complete the required syllabus in a semester.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I drag work slowly to show dissatisfaction with the authority.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I arrive late at official meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I release examinations and/or test questions to students before exams/tests.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I handle Committee's assignments with less seriousness.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I arrive committee's meetings late.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I refuse to participate in community services.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I allow committee's decisions to be influenced by ethnic or religious factors.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B.

Construct Reliability

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	AVE
EC	0.835	0.838	0.889	0.668
ID	0.875	0.892	0.909	0.633
IL	0.863	0.874	0.901	0.646
IP	0.875	0.881	0.909	0.667
MW	0.810	0.837	0.874	0.635
NT	0.969	0.970	0.975	0.865
OD	0.859	0.866	0.890	0.506
SC	0.876	0.884	0.906	0.618
WL	0.865	0.885	0.903	0.652
WP	0.802	0.826	0.882	0.715

Appendix C

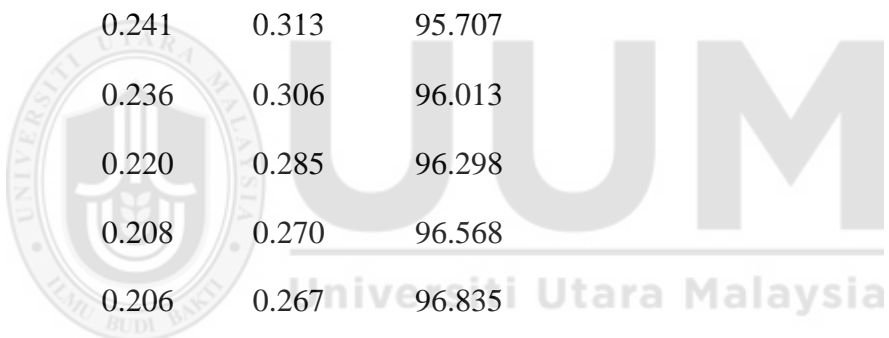
Common Method Variance: Harman's one Factor Test

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	15.798	20.517	20.517	15.798	20.517	20.517
2	7.523	9.770	30.286	7.523	9.770	30.286
3	4.523	5.874	36.161	4.523	5.874	36.161
4	3.520	4.571	40.731	3.520	4.571	40.731
5	3.318	4.309	45.040	3.318	4.309	45.040
6	3.049	3.960	49.000	3.049	3.960	49.000
7	2.794	3.628	52.628	2.794	3.628	52.628
8	2.291	2.975	55.603	2.291	2.975	55.603
9	1.906	2.476	58.079	1.906	2.476	58.079
10	1.613	2.095	60.174	1.613	2.095	60.174
11	1.566	2.034	62.208	1.566	2.034	62.208
12	1.498	1.945	64.153	1.498	1.945	64.153
13	1.325	1.720	65.873	1.325	1.720	65.873

14	1.225	1.591	67.465	1.225	1.591	67.465
15	1.204	1.564	69.029	1.204	1.564	69.029
16	1.092	1.419	70.448	1.092	1.419	70.448
17	1.027	1.334	71.782	1.027	1.334	71.782
18	1.007	1.308	73.090	1.007	1.308	73.090
19	0.950	1.234	74.324			
20	0.881	1.144	75.468			
21	0.833	1.081	76.549			
22	0.817	1.060	77.610			
23	0.806	1.046	78.656			
24	0.792	1.028	79.684			
25	0.764	0.992	80.677			
26	0.722	0.937	81.614			
27	0.668	0.867	82.481			
28	0.652	0.847	83.328			
29	0.622	0.808	84.136			
30	0.575	0.747	84.883			
31	0.559	0.726	85.609			
32	0.530	0.689	86.298			
33	0.511	0.663	86.961			
34	0.489	0.635	87.596			
35	0.469	0.609	88.205			
36	0.460	0.598	88.803			
37	0.455	0.590	89.393			
38	0.418	0.543	89.936			
39	0.405	0.527	90.463			
40	0.385	0.500	90.963			

41	0.376	0.488	91.451
42	0.366	0.475	91.926
43	0.356	0.462	92.388
44	0.330	0.428	92.816
45	0.312	0.405	93.221
46	0.304	0.395	93.616
47	0.286	0.371	93.988
48	0.281	0.365	94.352
49	0.272	0.353	94.706
50	0.266	0.346	95.051
51	0.264	0.343	95.394
52	0.241	0.313	95.707
53	0.236	0.306	96.013
54	0.220	0.285	96.298
55	0.208	0.270	96.568
56	0.206	0.267	96.835
57	0.193	0.251	97.087
58	0.183	0.237	97.324
59	0.175	0.227	97.551
60	0.168	0.219	97.769
61	0.160	0.208	97.977
62	0.155	0.201	98.178
63	0.142	0.184	98.362
64	0.139	0.180	98.543
65	0.133	0.173	98.715
66	0.124	0.161	98.877
67	0.121	0.157	99.034



68	0.117	0.152	99.186
69	0.103	0.134	99.320
70	0.096	0.125	99.444
71	0.083	0.108	99.552
72	0.074	0.096	99.649
73	0.069	0.089	99.738
74	0.059	0.077	99.815
75	0.058	0.075	99.890
76	0.050	0.065	99.955
77	0.035	0.045	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Appendix D
Ethical Climate and Institutional Policy

Total Variance Explained									
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.161	34.675	34.675	3.684	30.697	30.697	3.418	28.487	28.487
2	3.138	26.146	60.821	2.722	22.680	53.377	2.987	24.890	53.377
3	0.939	7.828	68.649						
4	0.743	6.192	74.841						
5	0.646	5.383	80.223						
6	0.579	4.825	85.049						
7	0.406	3.383	88.432						
8	0.355	2.960	91.392						
9	0.343	2.857	94.248						
10	0.302	2.518	96.766						
11	0.203	1.688	98.454						
12	0.185	1.546	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix E
Workplace Spirituality

Total Variance Explained									
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.964	33.029	33.029	3.480	29.002	29.002	2.958	24.647	24.647
2	3.786	23.216	56.245	2.310	19.247	48.249	2.832	23.602	48.249
3	0.022	8.513	64.758						
4	0.981	8.175	72.932						
5	0.656	5.469	78.402						
6	0.564	4.699	83.101						
7	0.436	3.632	86.733						
8	0.432	3.603	90.336						
9	0.358	2.981	93.316						
10	0.282	2.352	95.669						
11	0.272	2.268	97.936						
12	0.248	2.064	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix F*Total Variance Explained for Self-control*

Factor	Total Variance Explained					
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.724	62.068	62.068	3.297	54.955	54.955
2	0.928	15.466	77.534			
3	0.541	9.022	86.556			
4	0.312	5.204	91.760			
5	0.269	4.489	96.249			
6	0.225	3.751	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix G*Total Variance Explained for Neutralization*

Factor	Total Variance Explained					
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.190	86.495	86.495	5.035	83.915	83.915
2	0.302	5.038	91.533			
3	0.192	3.192	94.726			
4	0.144	2.402	97.127			
5	0.094	1.563	98.690			
6	0.079	1.310	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix H*Total Variance Explained for Workload and Work Pressure*

Factor	Total Variance Explained								
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.551	42.696	42.696	5.122	39.400	39.400	4.128	31.755	31.755
2	2.331	16.236	58.932	0.862	6.628	58.027	1.855	14.272	52.027
3	0.051	7.085	66.017						
4	0.866	5.664	71.681						
5	0.795	5.114	76.795						
6	0.720	4.537	81.332						
7	0.645	3.962	85.294						
8	0.540	3.257	88.551						
9	0.417	3.105	91.656						
10	0.348	2.675	94.331						
11	0.303	2.333	96.664						
12	0.264	2.033	98.697						
13	0.169	1.303	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

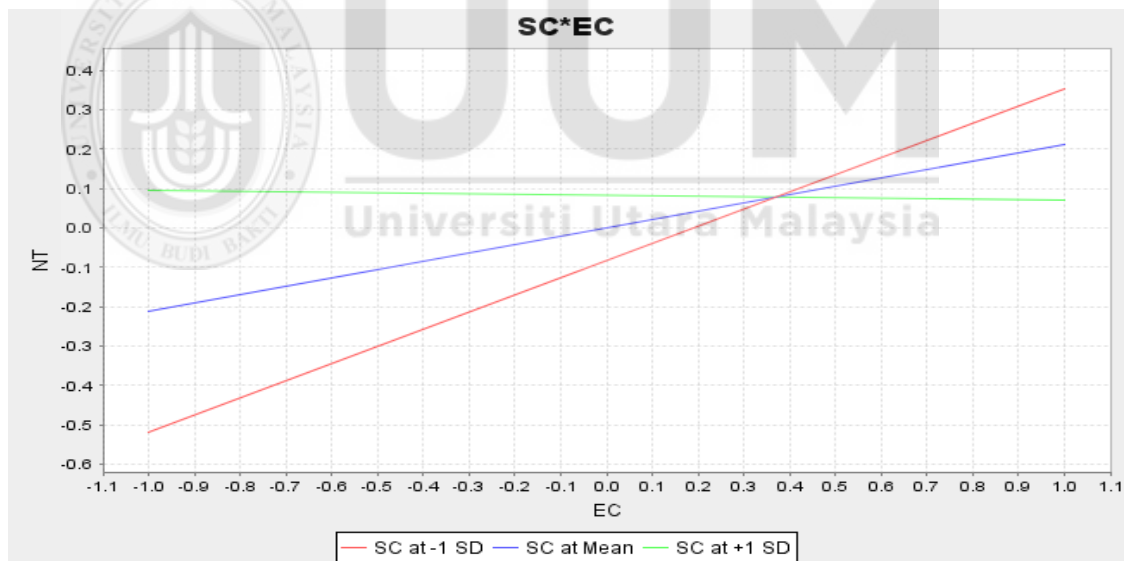
Appendix K*Total Variance Explained for Deviant Workplace Behaviour*

Factor	Total Variance Explained								
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.733	32.474	32.474	5.064	18.086	18.086	5.034	17.979	17.979
2	7.430	20.821	53.295	3.791	13.539	31.626	3.821	13.647	31.626
3	0.346	3.951	57.246						
4	0.471	3.531	60.777						
5	0.283	3.433	64.210						
6	0.244	3.344	67.554						
7	0.141	3.300	70.854						
8	0.023	2.902	73.756						
9	0.905	2.831	76.587						
10	0.758	2.709	79.296						
11	0.731	2.612	81.908						
12	0.673	2.403	84.311						
13	0.633	2.260	86.571						

14	0.525	1.874	88.445
15	0.496	1.771	90.216
16	0.462	1.649	91.865
17	0.430	1.436	91.301
18	0.394	0.406	93.707
19	0.371	0.327	94.034
20	0.350	0.250	94.284
21	0.278	0.994	95.278
22	0.274	0.977	96.255
23	0.260	0.929	97.184
24	0.226	0.809	97.993
25	0.199	0.711	98.704
26	0.181	0.646	99.350
27	0.098	0.351	99.700
28	0.084	0.300	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

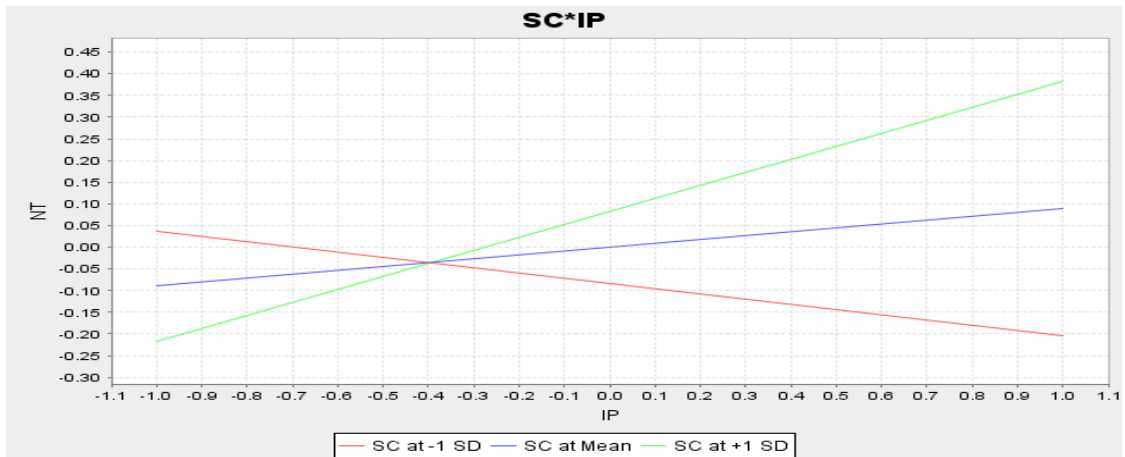
Appendix L



Interaction effect of Self-control on the relationship between Ethical Climate and Neutralization

Source: SmartPLS 3.2.7

Appendix M



Interaction effect of Self-control on the relationship between Ethical Climate and Neutralization

Source: SmartPLS 3.2.7



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