



**Perception on human resource practices and workplace deviance: a case of public
Universities in South-West Nigeria**

by

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Doctor of Philosophy**

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DECLARATION ONE - PLAGIARISM

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DECLARATION TWO - PUBLICATIONS

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Obalade, G.O., & Mtembu, V. (accepted for publication). Effect of Organisational Justice on Deviant Behaviour: A case of public Universities in South-West Nigeria. *ActaCommercii*.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to Almighty God, the giver of salvation and all good things of life. Also, to my husband, Dr Adefemi Alamu Obalade, for the immeasurable support, push and sacrifices and to my children, God's heritage Obalade and Emmanuel Obalade, for their patience and sacrifice.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined perception on human resource practices (HRPs) and workplace deviance (WDB) in Nigerian public universities. Studies have revealed that the Nigerian university system is characterised by acts that are ethically and socially wrong. The objective of the study was to evaluate the effects of HRPs and other antecedents of workplace deviance.

Primary data were generated from 572 employees of three public universities in the South-Western part of Nigeria, purposely selected for the research, using a structured and open-ended questionnaire. The study employed multiple regression analysis to determine the individual impact of the antecedents (HRPs, organisational justice and personality traits) on WDB. The SMART-PLS SEM was used to determine the aggregate impact of the antecedents of WDB, as well as the mediating and moderating effects.

First, the study found that the impact of dimensions of HRPs differ with organisational and interpersonal WDB; however, HRPs jointly reduce WDB. Secondly, the study found that the effect of organisational justice (OJ) on WDB depends on their types; however, the four dimensions of OJ jointly reduce WDB. Thirdly, it was found that honesty-humility, agreeableness and emotionality dimensions (H-HAE) of HEXACO personality domain reduce WDB at individual and aggregate levels. Fourthly, the impact of dimensions of HRPs changes with the forms of OJ, however, HRPs dimensions jointly reduce WDB. Fifthly, the finding shows that OJ is a partial mediator of the HRPs-WDB relationship. Lastly, H-HAE traits do not moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

Based on the study findings, government and relevant stakeholders must adopt an all-or-nothing approach to tackling perception of HRPs and OJ rather than focusing on one of their dimensions if the rising incidences of WDB must be curtailed. The study also recommends that HR departments and government must ensure that individuals who score highest in H-HAE are favoured in the recruitment process.

Keywords: workplace deviance, perceived human resource practices, organisational justice, personality traits, public universities, Nigeria

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	Agreeableness
AC	Air Corps
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AVE	Average Extracted
B5	Big Five
CA	Cronbach's alpha
CANOE	Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to experience and Extraversion
CB-SEM	Co-variance bases approach Structural Equation Modelling
CR	Composite reliability
CST	Cognitive social theory
DJ	Distributive justice
E	Emotionality
EFCC	Economic financial crime commission
ES	Employee security
FFM	Five Factor Model
HEXACO	Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness to Experience
H-H	Honesty-Humility
H-HAE	Honesty-Humility, Agreeableness and Emotionality
HPHRPs	High-Performance Human Resource Practices
HR	Human resources
HRM	Human resource management
HRP	Human resource practice
HRPs	Human resource practices

HSSREC	Humanity and Social Science Research Ethic Committee
ICO	Internal career opportunities
ICPC	Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission
ID	Interpersonal deviance
IFJ	Informational justice
IT	Information Technology
ITJ	Interpersonal justice
LMX	Leader and Member Exchange
MP	Military Police
NEO PI-R	Neuroticism, extraversion, openness personality inventory-revised (psychiatry)
NGOs	Non-governmental Organisation
OCB	Organisational Citizenship behaviour
OCEAN	Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism
OD	Organisational deviance
OJ	Organisational Justice
PJ	Procedural justice
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling
PMCC	Pearson's Product- Moment Correlation Coefficient
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
RD	Relative Deprivation
ROA	Result oriented appraisal
RS	Reward system
SEM	Structural equation modelling
SET	Social exchange theory
SHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management

SHRP	Strategic Human Resource Practice
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UKZN	University of Kwazulu-Natal
US	United States
WDB	Workplace deviant behaviour/workplace deviance

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The Nigerian university system is characterised by acts that are ethically and socially wrong (Adamu, 2012; Chinyere & Chukwuma, 2017; Igbe, Okpa, & Aniah, 2017). Although the literature suggests the significant role of human resource practices (HRPs) in shaping employees' behaviour (Arthur, 2011; Shamsudin, Subramaniam, & Ibrahim, 2011; Shamsudin, Subramaniam, & Sri Ramalu, 2014), it remains to be seen how these practices affect deviance in the Nigerian university system and how the relationship can be mediated and moderated. This study investigates the perceptions HRP and workplace deviance behaviour (WDB) in selected public universities in Nigeria. This study seeks to contribute to the HRP and organisational behaviour field by employing organisational justice (OJ) and personality traits as a mediating and moderating variable to explain the link between HRPs and WDB.

This chapter presents the background, statement of the problem and significance of this study. It also highlights the specific and broad objectives, research questions generated from the statement of the problem and the research hypotheses. The hypotheses enable the questions and objectives to be subjected to statistical analysis. Conclusively, the chapter presents the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Background to the study

Workplace deviant behaviour also known as workplace deviance (WDB) is an intentional and voluntary act that violates organisational norms and is capable of causing harm to the organisation, its staff or both (DeSimone & Werner, 2012; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). These acts include but are not limited to, absenteeism, sabotage, cyberloafing, favouritism, withdrawing effort, sexual harassment, intentionally working slow, taking long breaks, theft, gossiping, blaming others, verbal abuse, physical abuse, receiving a bribe and being corrupt (Bennett & Robinson, 2000b; Mansor, Akmal, Harun, Rashid, & Ibrahim, 2018). Higher education institutions in Nigeria are not devoid of this menace, as cases of sexual harassment, embezzlement, forging of certificates, irregular attendance of classes / official duties, extortion, admission fraud, sex for grades, impersonation, money for grades, examination misconduct, distortion of records, admission fraud, amongst others, have been reported amongst staff (Adamu, 2012; Chinyere & Chukwuma, 2017; Igbe et al., 2017; Premium Times, 2017; Sahara

Reporter, 2011; Shamsudin, Chauhan, & Kura, 2012). These practices have led to the dismissal of some staff while others have been sent to jail (CNN, 2018; Sahara Reporter, 2019)

Government and management alike are now faced with the task of developing policies and proposing bills to curtail the unwanted behaviour because this menace, if not checked, will produce graduates who are undeserving, discourage hard work among students, encourage mediocrity and loss of trust in the value of the university's products (Premium Times, 2019). Worst still, the act will automatically creep into other sectors of the economy via the multiplier effect since the university is the factory for the production of manpower required for multi-sectorial development. As a result, the examination of deviant acts antecedents has become a matter of urgency. In the spirit of the statement by Ajayi and Adeniji (2009, p. 288), "an undisciplined society is bound to produce an undisciplined individual" and *vice versa*.

In the literature, it has been revealed that HRPs, such as employment security, compensation and reward, amongst others, is one of the most important organisational tools used in defining and shaping employees' attitudes and behaviour (Huselid & Becker, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2011; Shamsudin et al., 2014). Beyond HRPs, how an individual perceives HRPs has been affirmed to be a central motivator to explain why employees engage in deviance behaviour (Shamsudin et al., 2014) as perception of individuals will likely relate to their behavioural and attitudinal responses at work (Khilji & Wang, 2006; Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008) as reported in (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013). Few studies (for instance, Igbe et al., 2017; Nwuche & Eketu, 2015) have considered perception of HRPs on WDB particularly in Nigeria.

Additionally, there is an ongoing argument in the literature regarding the organisational or situational variables and individual or personal characteristics variables as antecedents of WDB. Some scholars argue that situational factors such as OJ are the major determinant of deviance regardless of individual differences (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005) while others found that individual characteristics such as personality have a link with WDB (Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Dalal, 2005; Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Pletzer, Bentvelzen, Oostrom, & de Vries, 2019; Salgado, 2002). In an attempt to resolve this argument, scholars have found that the duo have an interacting effect in predicting WDB (Darsana & Riana, 2018; Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2010; Henle, 2005). Scant research has been conducted on this interacting effect on WDB. Specifically, none has been conducted in Nigeria. Based on the above argument, this study proposes that perceived OJ will mediate the relationship between

employees' perception of HRPs and WDB. Finally, the study proposes that employee personality traits will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The fundamental objectives of tertiary education in Nigeria are to carry out research and produce graduates who are worthy in character and learning to serve society (Ogunnaike, Borishade, Sholarin, & Ezeugwa, 2014). In addition, a tertiary institution is used by the Nigerian government as an agent for national development and social-economic change (Ajayi & Adeniji, 2009). One would expect a high level of moral standards and discipline amongst employees in the educational system who are directly involved in the pursuit of these lofty objectives, as Ogunnaike et al. (2014) notes that the quality of an educational system is dependent on the quality of its employees. Unfortunately, various forms of deviance such as sexual harassment, embezzlement, forging of certificates, irregular attendance of classes or official duties, extortion, admission fraud, sex for grades, impersonation, money for grades, examination misconduct, distortion of records, amongst others, are being reported in the Nigerian tertiary education system on a regular basis (Adamu, 2012; Chinyere & Chukwuma, 2017; Igbe et al., 2017; Sahara Reporter, 2011; Shamsudin et al., 2012; Premium Times, 2019). These reported cases of deviant acts amongst university staff could be detrimental to the attainment of the fundamental objectives of tertiary education. The future of the whole nation is said to be miserable unless drastic measures are taken (Ajayi & Adeniji, 2009). Otokunefor (2011) opines that Nigerian academia are morally and intellectually deficient, while Ajayi and Adeniji (2009) argue that university graduates are worthy in learning and character is not true.

Despite the prevalence of WDB in the Nigerian tertiary institutions and the perceived link between HRPs and WDB, little research effort has been exerted on the subjects. Few studies have been conducted on HRPs and organisational and employee outcomes, such as performance, productivity and job satisfaction in Nigeria (Adebola, Akpa, & Ilori, 2017; Amah & Oyetunde, 2019; Anso, 2014; Ojokuku, 2013) while Igbe et al. (2017) link the deplorable working conditions of employees of Nigerian universities with deviant behaviour embarked upon to justify the unfair treatment. Although research on this phenomenon exists outside Nigeria (Arthur, 2011; Shamsudin et al., 2014), the findings cannot be generalised as the context of an organisation has a role to play in determining involvement in WDB (Saeed et al., 2014). Due to the paucity of research, this study examined the relationship between perceived

HRPs and deviant behaviour, as affirmed in the literature that the perception of HRPs impacts on WDB.

Previous studies on HRPs and WDB suggest that other factors contribute to the effect that HRPs have on the WDB other than HRPs (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003). OJ is one of the organisational antecedents of WDB, therefore, this study aims to mediate the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB with OJ. Furthermore, based on the argument of the impact of situational and individual variables on WDB and a reconciling basis of an interaction between both, this study further examines the moderating effect of an individual variable, personality trait, on the relationship between OJ and WDB.

1.3 Research objectives

The broad objective of this study is to examine the effects of employees' perceptions of HRPs on workplace deviant behaviour (WDB) in South-West Nigeria public universities in Nigeria: The specific objectives are:

- i. To determine the link between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB.
- ii. To examine the relationship that exist between employees' perception of HRPs and OJ.
- iii. To analyse the link between OJ and WDB
- iv. To evaluate the mediating effect of OJ on the relationship between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB.
- v. To investigate the relationship between personality traits and WDB
- vi. To determine if employee personality traits will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

- i. H1: Perceptions of HRPs are negatively related to WDB
- ii. H2: Perceptions of HRPs are positively related to OJ.
- iii. H3: OJ is negatively related to WDB.
- iv. H4: OJ will mediate the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB.
- v. H5: Personality traits is negatively related to WDB

- vi. H4: Employee personality traits will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

1.5 Research questions

- i. What relationship exists between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB?
- ii. What relationship exists between employees' perception of HRPs and OJ?
- iii. What relationship exists between OJ and WDB?
- iv. How will perceived OJ mediate the relationship between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB?
- v. What relationship exists between personality traits and WDB?
- vi. What moderating effect will personality trait have on the relationship between OJ and WDB?

1.6 Significance/contribution of the study

The significance of this study cannot be overemphasised considering the preponderance of deviant acts in tertiary institutions and the need to address the antecedence to the acts. If the deviant acts are left unattended in Nigerian institutions, there are financial, social and psychological costs to the institution, its members and society at large. Since the HRPs have been linked to employee and organisational outcomes, the research outcome on the effect of perceived HRPs on deviance acts provides key insights into how factors such as employees' compensations, employment security, *inter alia*, could contribute to the unwanted behaviour. Furthermore, it provides insight into the interaction between OJ, HRP and WDB, as well as determining how personality trait moderates the relationship between both OJ and WDB, an area where there is paucity of studies conducted. This study fills these gaps from the viewpoint of tertiary institutions and in Nigeria. University management and government would be properly informed on the appropriateness of the existing HR policies or the need for improvement. Similarly, HR practitioners would obtain invaluable information that would help in proffering policy documents on the subject matter. Overall, the outcome would go a long way in shaping employees' attitudes in the tertiary institutions and arresting the multiplier effect on the nation at large. This study awakes more research on antecedents of WDB in Nigeria as there is presently scant research conducted on this phenomenon despite its prevalence.

1.7 Justification/rationale

The prevalence and cost of WDB motivate this study, especially because this act is prevalent among employees of tertiary institutions in Nigeria, who are expected to model good behaviour for students. It is imperative to study the antecedents of WDB in Nigeria and such studies are scarce. There is a need for the examination of the influence of HRPs on WDB, as the literature has affirmed that HRPs define and shape employees' attitudes and behaviour. This study aims not only to examine HRPs but also how employees perceive it and how perceived OJ mediate these relationships. Subsequently, this study integrates the situational and individual antecedents of WDB, using the HEXACO personality domain to moderate the relationship between OJ and personality. In the literature, the evaluation of HEXACO is scarce as most studies have used the B-five personality domain, even though the literature has acknowledged that the HEXACO personality trait is a better predictor of WDB compared to its counterparts.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised in the following structures:

Chapter One

This chapter introduces the thesis. It includes the background, statement of problem, research objectives, questions and hypothesis, significance of the study, justification for the study, study limitations and structure of the thesis.

Chapter Two

This chapter introduces the review of the relevant literature on WDB generally and in the study sample. Furthermore, it examines its antecedents and also presents the theoretical framework for the study.

Chapter Three

The purpose of the chapter is to explain the link through which HRP may impact WDB. The chapter clarifies and discusses the relevant concepts such as the HRM and strategic HRM, before discussing the link between HRP and WDB. Highlights of the key HRPs are presented, followed by the discussion of HRP and WDB mediators. The last section provides the concluding remarks

Chapter Four

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the background and literature review on the relationship between OJ and WDB. This chapter traces the history of OJ and its progression from the relative deprivation wave, through distributive justice wave and procedural justice wave to the interactional justice wave. The chapter expounds the relationship between four key dimensions of organisation justice and HRP as well as mediating role of OJ in HRP-deviance relationship.

Chapter Five

This chapter examines the literature on personality traits, its meaning and types and its relationship with OJ. Further, this chapter reviews the literature on the interaction between personality and OJ and its resultant effect on WDB.

Chapter Six

This chapter gives a complete account of the methodology and empirical strategies, which are used to attain the aims of this study. The essence of the chapter is to discuss the procedure for data collection and selection of study sample. This chapter also explains the methods of data analysis such as the linear multiple regression and structural equation modelling as well as content analysis. Lastly, it discusses the ethical process ensured as well as the limitations of the study.

Chapter Seven

This chapter presents the analytical results of the various estimated models. The purpose of the chapter is to present the results generated from data analysis and interpretation thereof and to test the hypotheses to achieve the study objectives.

Chapter Eight

The purpose of the chapter is to provide a comprehensive discussion of the key findings derived from the hypothesis testing *vis-à-vis* the empirical and theoretical literature. The discussion and implications of the findings are presented in the order of study objectives.

Chapter Nine

This chapter gives a summary of the entire thesis on a chapter-by-chapter basis, the concluding remarks, study contributions, recommendations, limitations and suggestions for future research were also presented.

1.10 Concluding remarks

Chapter one of this study presents the circumstances surrounding the topic and explains the incentive for the examination of the link between HRPs, OJ, personality and WDB in the Nigerian public university. The prevalence of WDB and the identification of researchable gaps for determining its antecedents inform the study, whether there can be mediating effect of organisational variable or moderating effect of individual variable. Thus, the rationale for this study, as well as the fundamental objectives are succinctly captured in this introductory chapter.

CHAPTER TWO: WORKPLACE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR

2.0 Introduction

This research is born out of the concern over the prevalence of WDB in the Nigerian tertiary institution. This chapter is devoted to the discussion of WDB being a key component and the dependent variable of this research. The next section of the chapter presents the literature on WDB, while classifications of WDB, effects of WDB, antecedents of WDB, WDB in Nigerian universities, justification for the selection of certain antecedents of WDB and theoretical literature on WDB are presented in sections 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.6 and 2.7 respectively. The last section presents the concluding remarks.

2.1 Workplace deviant behaviour (WDB)

Employees' behaviours at work could either be positive or negative (Dahling & Gutworth, 2017; Rogojan, 2009; Warren, 2003). A positive workplace behaviour would yield a productive result and enhance the work environment in the organisation. Negative workplace behaviours are also known as WDBs (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). WDB is an intentional and voluntary act that violates organisational norms and is capable of causing harm to the organisation, its staff or both (DeSimone & Werner, 2012; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018). These acts include but are not limited to absenteeism, sabotage, cyberloafing, favouritism, withholding or withdrawing effort, sexual harassment, intentionally working slow, taking long breaks, theft, gossiping, blaming others, verbal abuse, physical abuse, receiving a bribe and being corrupt (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Anglim & O'Connor, 2019; Mansor et al., 2018).

The majority of workplace deviant acts are referred to as negative. However, Rogojan (2009) posits that these acts could also be positive. Appelbaum et al. (2005) notes that constructive deviance also known as positive deviant behaviours include behaviours employers do not permit but can be helpful in reaching organisation's economic and financial objectives. Constructive deviant behaviours include employee innovativeness and creativity, non-compliance to directives that are dysfunctional and criticising employees that are incompetent. These behaviours contribute to giving a competitive edge to the organisation, as well as to the well-being of the society (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Dahling & Gutworth, 2017; Galperin, 2012; Obalade & Arogundade, 2019;

Mazni & Roziah, 2011; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). Yıldız, Erat, Alpkın, Yıldız and Sezen (2015) highlight three components of constructive deviance: (i) it must be targeted at organisational well-being; (ii) it involves breaking of significant rules and norms of the organisation; and (iii) it conforms to fundamental principles. In other words, constructive deviant behaviours may not be authorised by the organisation, yet they help organisation reach their goals. Due to the negative impact of workplace deviant acts, this study focuses on the negative aspect of WDB which has also been referred to as WDB or WDB.

A deliberate or intentional behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and by so doing, threatens the well-being of the organisation or its members, or both is termed deviant behaviour (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Kaplan (1975) explains that individuals in the organisation are either motivated to conform to the expected norms of the organisation or are motivated to violate them. It involves a wide continuum of behaviours that are harmful to the employees, customers and/or the organisation (Mansor et al., 2018). Osibanjo, Falola and Akinbode (2015) explain that behaviour can be considered to be deviant when there is non-conformity on the part of the employees to the policies, culture and core values, among others, of the organisation and, as a result, hampers the well-being, vision and standards of the organisation. They further explain that these behaviours are detrimental to interests and goals of other individuals in the organisation. Griffin and Lopez (2005) term deviant behaviour “bad behaviour” and explain it as any form of intentional behaviour that has the potential of being injurious to the organisation and/or to individuals within the organisation. To show the extent of its undesirability, it is a behaviour that if organisations have control over, they would not desire to have any of their employees exhibit.

Various authors have conceptualised behaviours that are out of norms in the organisation. Terms in which these behaviours have been conceptualized include, non-compliant behaviour, organisational misbehaviour, WDB, workplace incivility, workplace aggression, organisation-motivated aggression, antisocial behaviour, employee vice and organisational retaliatory behaviours (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Holm, Torkelson, & Bäckström, 2021; Johnson, Nguyen, Groth, & White, 2018; Kakarika, Lianidou, Qu, & Bligh, 2022; O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Vardi, 2001). While various researchers have conceptualized behaviours that are out of norms, the Robinson and Bennett (1995) model is argued to be the most comprehensive model as it provides validated measures of WDB, in that the model incorporates the various forms of deviant acts,

such as withdrawal of effort, absenteeism, racial remarks, amongst others (Kalemci, Kalemci-Tuzun, & Ozkan-Canbolat, 2019).

In order to further understand WDB, there is a need to understand that deviant behaviour focuses on acts and behaviours that a particular social group hold or agree to be out of norm. There are certain behaviours that may be seen in the general context or moral ethics of one organisation as wrong, which may not be wrong in the context of another organisation (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The authors further explain that although a particular behaviour can be both deviant and unethical, the two qualities are not inevitably linked. That is, a behaviour may be unethical yet not deviant and in the other way round - a behaviour may be deviant yet ethical.

Additionally, the scope of WDB behaviour excludes slight breaches of social norms. Before a behaviour can be termed deviant, it must be capable of causing harm to the organisation or its member. Minor breaches in dress code which may not directly cause harm to the organisation should not be termed deviant. Therefore, the term is exclusively reserved for acts that violate significant norms (Cohen, 1966), held by members and believed to have potential of threatening their well-being. According to Marcus and Schuler (2004), all acts of WDB violate the legitimate interests of an organisation by either harming its members and/or the organisation itself. Essentially, three principles are to be inferred in the Robinson and Bennett (1995) definition of WDB (Bennett & Robinson, 2000a). First, deviance is any negative demeanour exhibited in the workplace that are capable of hampering the effective running of the organisational system. Secondly, these acts are intentional not accidental, that is the individuals who act out of the norms of the organisation do it consciously and voluntarily. Thirdly, these acts are either directly or indirectly harmful to the organisation.

2.1.1 Deviant acts as separate entities or combined

There are studies that have examined WDB behaviours as separate entities rather than as a single concept (Lee, Lim, & Heath, 2017; Srivastava & Agarwal, 2020). Specifically, studies have examined specific deviant acts such as workplace bullying, incivility, harassment, theft, absenteeism, withdrawal, amongst others. For instance, Chen and Spector (1992) examined deviant acts (such as theft, absenteeism, aggression, withdrawal and substance use).

Moorthy, Seetharaman, Jaffar and Foong (2015) examined deviant acts such as theft. Lee et al. (2017) also examined workplace bullying. Srivastava and Agarwal (2020) examined workplace bullying and intention to leave. Other researchers have also examined deviant acts such as withdrawal of efforts (Horan et al., 2019; Hulin, 1991; Tian et al., 2021) As opposed to studies examining deviant behaviours as separate entities, Bennett and Robinson (2000a) suggest that due to the cooccurrence of these behaviours, they should be combined when being examined rather than examining them separately or individually. In support of this, researchers (for instance, Everton, Jolton, & Mastrangelo, 2007; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018; Yoo & Frankwick, 2013) identified the Robinson and Bennett (1995) model to be a more comprehensive model as compared to those who have examined each deviant act. The typology derives from various classifications of WDB; hence, the next subsection is devoted to discussions of various classifications of WDB *vis-à-vis* the typology.

2.2 Classification of workplace deviance

Wheeler (1976), while examining how authorities should reprimand deviant acts, classified these acts into serious and non-serious offenses. Mangione and Quinn (1975) suggest two similar categories of deviance: counterproductive behaviour, defined as intentionally damaging employers' property and doing little, also defined as producing output of low quantity or poor quality. Subsequently, Hollinger and Clark (1982) also classify WDB into two categories, namely property deviance, which involves damaging or acquiring properties belonging to one's employer and production deviance, which involves breaking rules regarding the quantity and quality of work done.

Building on the aforementioned classifications, Robinson and Bennett (1995) proposed a typology of WDB, by combining two various classifications of workplace deviant acts. The first dimension relates to the degree of effect of such acts to individuals in the organisation or the organisation itself (minor or serious). The second dimension relates to level and targets of such deviance (interpersonal or organisational). Although these are two dimensions yet the severity of these acts against the target could either be minor or serious, that is, organisational or interpersonal deviance acts could be referred to as either minor or serious. Interpersonal deviance occurs when the employees interact for professional or personal reasons with their co-workers or other employees at the workplace. Thus, the employees feel the need to misbehave either to benefit from it or make the best use of the time. It refers to deviant acts

toward co-workers, supervisors and subordinates in the workplace. Organisational deviance refers to deviant acts exhibited by employees, which are directed towards the organisation.

Based on these two classifications of deviance, that is severity and targets, Robinson and Bennett (1995) further grouped deviance into four types as presented in Figure 2.1.

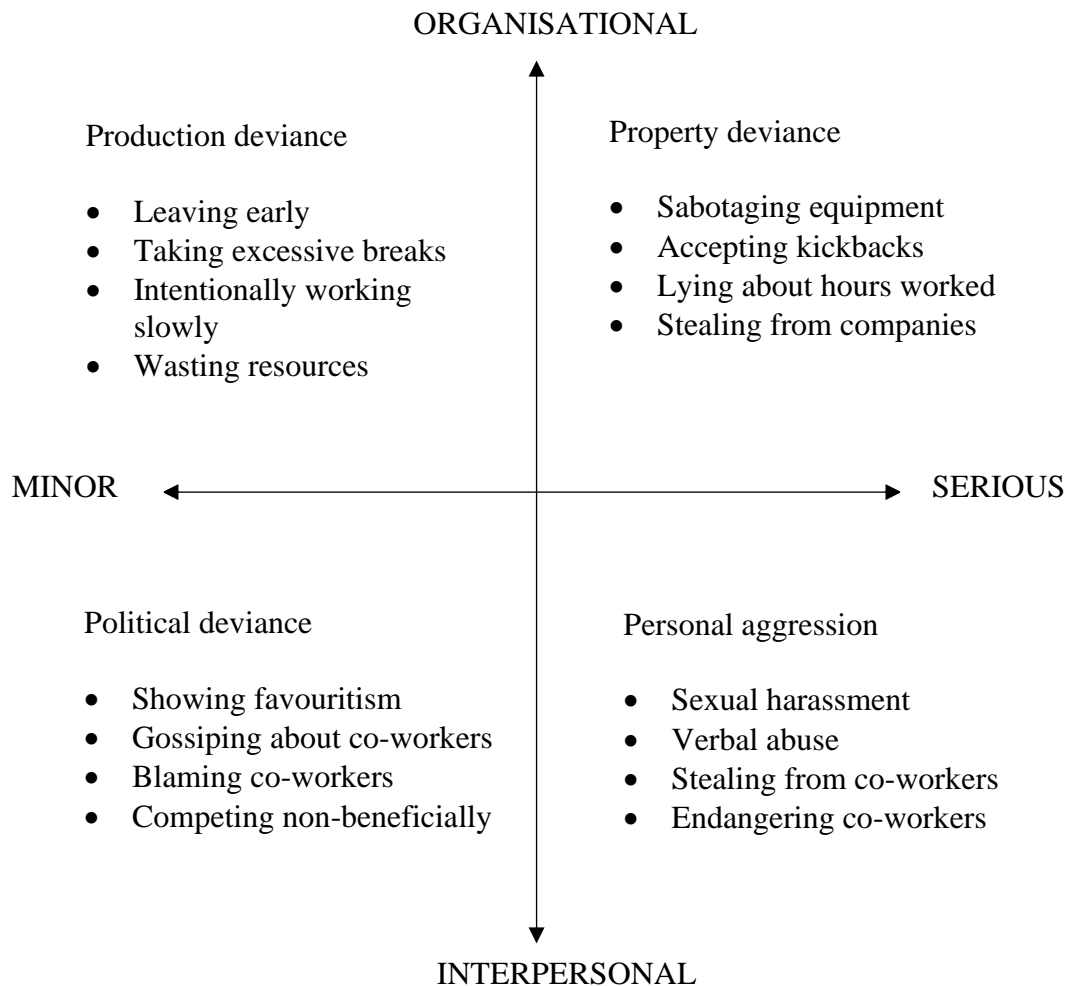


Figure 2.1: Typology of negative deviance workplace behaviour

Source: Robinson and Bennett (1995)

First, production deviance is a minor form of deviance targeted at the organisation, which involves deviance acts that hamper productivity, in terms of the quantity, quality and set standards of production which could be at a cost to the organisation (e.g., intentionally working slow, leaving early, wasting the organisation’s resources, taking excessive breaks). Secondly, property deviance is a serious form of deviance targeted at the organisation and it involves acts of damaging or acquiring organisations property without permission (e.g., sabotaging equipment, lying about hours worked, accepting kickbacks, stealing from the organisation).

Thirdly, political deviance is a minor form of interpersonal deviance which involves employee participation in a social relationship that puts fellow employees at a disadvantage personally and politically (e.g., showing favouritism, blaming co-workers, gossiping about co-workers, competing non-beneficially). Lastly, personal aggression is a serious form of interpersonal deviance that involves acts that are capable of harming the happiness and well-being of individuals in the organisation both psychologically and physically (e.g., sexual harassment, stealing from co-workers, verbal abuse and endangering co-workers).

2.3 Effect of workplace deviance

WDB is one major problem faced by present-day organisations (Fagbohunge, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012; Kalemci et al., 2019). Deviant behaviours are referred to as dysfunctional behaviour because they harm the organisation in many ways, for instance they may lead to failure to achieve organisational goal, inhibit fellow employees, hamper productivity, procedures and profitability (Chernyak-Hai, Kim, & Tziner, 2018)

Its effect on the organisation and its members can be financial (Henle, Giacalone, & Jurkiewicz, 2005). Estimating the financial cost in US, Coffin (2003) estimated it be about \$50 billion, that organisations lose as a result of employee theft. Murphy (1993) opined that WDB about \$6 to \$200 billion is being lost annually to WDB. Specifically, Hollinger and Adams (2011) report that US lost a total of \$15.9 billion to employee theft. Aside the financial figure, WDB could also lead to low productivity, of employees, loss of customers, thereby making the organisation run at a loss (Moore, 2015). In the same vein, the psychological effect of WDB, range from low morale, damaged self-esteem, employee stress, insecurity, mental disturbance and increased fear at work (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998; Moore, 2015; Shamsudin et al., 2011). 33 to 75 percent of employees in the US have engaged in some form of personal aggression, theft, unexcused absenteeism, vandalism and sabotage (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Chen, Fah, & Jin, 2016). In Pakistan Bashir, Nasir, Qayyum and Bashir (2012) found that 82 percent of employees in the public sector frequently arrived late to work, 90 percent had longer lunch break while 66 percent left the office early.

Srivastava and Agarwal (2020) examined the relationship between workplace bullying and intention to leave, the study established that workplace bullying could result in an increased intention to leave which has its adverse effect on the organisation in the long run. In the same vein, Lee et al. (2017) examined the role of leader-member exchange and cultural variation on

workplace bullying and revealed that the impact of this act is detrimental not only to the individual who is being bullied but also the organisation where such is occurring. One of the results of this is low morale, which ultimately results in low productivity.

2.4 Antecedents of workplace deviance

Organisations have been putting up measures to curb deviance at work. Such measures include checking of cars before leaving the work premises, keeping of registers at work, issuing of queries, setting up committees to address issues on harassment in the workplace, annual appraisal of employees, suspension of staff engaged in unethical behaviours at work, amongst others (Obalade & Akeke, 2020). However, Robbins and Judge (2007) posit that these strategies of curbing WDB may be ineffective if the underlying causes of deviant acts exhibited by employees of an organisation are not examined. This suggests that WDB may not be as a result of an employee being deviant, it could be as a result of a negative treatment received and the employees attempt to reciprocate by also involving in acts that are harmful to the organisation (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). On the other hand, Lawrence and Robinson (2007) emphasise that the effect of the increasing economic challenge and competition facing the present-day organisation, which has resulted into firm's downsizing and restructuring may prompt deviant acts amongst employees.

As a result, researchers (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Fagbohunbe et al., 2012; Osibanjo et al., 2015) suggest that efforts should be directed at dealing with the underlying causes of deviance in the organisation, so as to minimise its negative effect on the organisation, its members and the society at large.

Due to the adverse effect of WDB, the attention of both academics and practitioners has been drawn to its antecedents as efforts at managing WDB may be ineffective if the underlying cause is not examined (Robbins & Judge, 2007). It becomes needful to examine the underlying factors resulting into deviance. In examining the antecedents of WDB, Bennett and Robinson (2003) highlight three research trends. They are first, research that views WDB as a reaction to experiences at work, secondly, research trends are research that suggests that WDB reflects the personality of employees and lastly, the research that examines deviance as a means of adapting to the social context of the workplace.

Subsequently, broader explanations of various antecedents of deviance behaviour have been provided. For example, there are personal/individual factors comprising, personality traits, philosophy or value held, individual differences and attitudes (Anglim, Lievens, Everton, Grant, & Marty, 2018; Rogoan, 2009; Vigoda & Golembiewski, 2001). There are work-related factors/antecedents comprising job stressor and job attributes (Bashir, Abrar, Yousaf, Saqib, & Shabbir, 2019; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Lau, Au, & Ho, 2003). There are organisational factors, which may include organisational climate, management style, perceived organisational support, OJ, organisational politics and the psychological contract breach (Lau et al., 2003; Ramadugu & Rastogi, 2021; Rogoan, 2009; Vigoda, 2002). There are environmental factors comprising of culture, ethical infrastructure, organisational constraints and environmental uncertainty (Carmeli, 2005; Darvishmotevali, Altinay, & De Vita, 2018; Fox et al., 2001). Berry, Ones and Sackett (2007) found that interpersonal deviance and organisational deviance are influenced by external variables. As a result, a brief review of key antecedents of WDB and how they have been linked with some deviant acts exhibited in the workplace or linked with WDB as a concept.

2.4.1 Ethical climate

The ethical behaviour of an employees has been revealed in studies to be significantly influenced by the ethical climate that exists in the organisation (Deshpande, George, & Joseph, 2000; Ramadugu & Rastogi, 2021). An organisation's ethical climate can be defined as the shared perception of what is an ethically correct behaviour and how organisations should handle issues relating to ethic in the organisation (Cullen, Victor, & Bronson, 1993; Peterson, 2002). Studies have linked ethical climate with WDB (Chen, Chen, & Liu, 2013; Obalade & Arogundade, 2019; Peterson, 2002; Vardi, 2001; Wimbush & Shepard, 1994). Robinson and Bennett (1995) also noted that most deviant acts can be referred to as unethical, this therefore makes the ethical climate of an organisation to be a significant predictor of WDB. Ethical climate has been linked to workplace deviant acts such as absenteeism, withdrawal of efforts and tardiness (Wimbush & Shepard, 1994).

2.4.2 Perceived organisational support (POS)

POS refers to the perception of employees of the extent to which the organisation values their inputs, cares and pay attention to their socio-economic well-being (Eisenberger, Rhoades Shanock, & Wen, 2020). Initial studies have examined the relationship between POS and

organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Dalal, 2005; Gruys & Sackett, 2003) and found that they are positively related. Recent studies have also found a significant negative relationship between WDB and POS (Alias & Rasdi, 2015; Chen et al., 2016; Khan, Mahmood, Kanwal, & Latif, 2015; Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011). The notion that when employees have a positive POS, they are more committed to the goals of the organisation but when they perceive that the organisation do not care about their well-being, they accordingly tend to reciprocate their feelings by involving in acts that would cost or be harmful to the organisation, such as withdrawal (Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011). This is based on social exchange theory (SET) as propounded by (Homans, 1958), which explains that the relationship between employees and management can be compared to that of social exchange where there is an exchange of cost and benefit. This theory is the most frequently used to explain behaviour in the organisation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). POS has also been used as a mediator or moderator in the relationship between other antecedents of WDB and WDB. For instance, Liu and Ding (2012) examined the moderating role of POS in the ethical judgment and WDB relationship and found that the relationship between ethical judgment and WDB weakens, when POS is high.

2.4.3 Organisational justice (OJ)

Organisational justice (OJ) is the perception of fairness (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Lind and Tyler (1988) posit that individuals value justice because it communicates how they are valued by the group as individuals are sensitive to the treatment they receive. The literature has revealed the impact of justice on individual behaviour and attitude. Among others, Wu and Wang (2008) posit that employees' perception of fairness can result in significant organisational outcomes. Additionally, individuals who experience unfair treatment at work either from the organisation or supervisors have a higher tendency to exhibit harmful behaviour in the workplace (Abbasi, Baradari, Sheghariji, & Shahraki, 2020; Dalal, 2005; Dora & Azim, 2019). Khattak, Khan, Fatima and Shah (2019) also highlighted three important meta-analytical studies (Berry et al., 2007; Colquitt et al., 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007) on OJ and WDB and affirmed the positive relationship between interpersonal injustice and interpersonal deviance. Based on the equity theory (Adams, 1965), employees make a comparison of the ratio of their outcome to their inputs and any inequity perceived in this comparison results into feelings of anger and frustration. As a result, attempt is made towards restoring equity (Colquitt et al., 2001).

There are three major forms of OJ, namely distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. Greenberg (1987) classified interactional justice into two components, namely interpersonal justice and informational justice. This classification gave rise to further classification of the forms of justice into four, namely distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). Each of these forms of justice correlate differently with forms of justice as affirmed in the literature.

2.4.4 Human resource practices (HRPs)

HRPs refers to those practices that are aimed at ensuring that employees are attracted, retained and motivated on the job. Amongst the antecedents of WDB is HRP, which is the most scantily researched of the antecedents (Shamsudin et al, 2011, Alshuaibi, et al, 2013). However, there is evidence to suggest that HRP has a way of shaping employees attitudes and behaviour (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Some of the authors that have examined this factor include Arthur (2011), using 372 employees across the US, who hypothesised that the HR system, which uses more internal labour and less autonomy, will help in reducing employee involvement in interpersonal deviance. Shamsudin et al, 2011 also examined the impact of HRP amongst 375 manufacturing employees in Malaysia and found out that that HRP influenced WDB differently as some of the measures of HRP used impacted organisational deviance while some failed to.

2.4.5 Psychological breach of contract

Sebastian, George and Aishwarya (2019) describe the relationship that exist between the employer and the employee as a give and take relationship. It portrays a sense of commitment or indebtedness to one another (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2014). Specifically, Scholaris (2008) defined psychological contract as a contract that comprises a form of reciprocal expectations which may not necessarily be agreed upon by the parties involved but may be in the mind of the party observing the relationship. That is why it is referred to as psychological, so individuals rate the relationship based on what they are expecting from the other party involved, not necessarily what has been written. Breach of contract occurs in an organisation when an employee perceives that the organisation has failed to satisfy some or a greater part of its commitment, which can be termed as violation and could result in emotional reactions (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2014; Balogun, Oluyemi, & Afolabi, 2018; Conway & Briner, 2005)).

2.4.6 Leader and member exchange (LMX)

LMX refers to the quality or degree of the exchange relationship between a leader and the subordinate (Chaudhry & Tekleab, 2013; Eisenberger et al., 2014; Serban, Rubenstein, Bosco, Reina, & Grubb, 2022). Some researchers conceptualise LMX as the supervisor support of the POS and have therefore examined the two concepts (POS and LMX) interchangeably (El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010) either as mediating or moderating variable in the relationship between WDB and some other antecedents of WDB. For instance, Alfes et al. (2013), in an attempt to understand the relationship between HRPs and organisational citizenship behaviour and intention to leave, moderated the relationship using POS and LMX using a sample of 297 drawn from the service industry in United Kingdom. The result of the study implies that employee will engage in positive behaviour when they perceive a positive exchange from the organisation (POS) and their supervisor (LMX). It implies that if the perception of the exchange is negative, it could lead to WDB. This is supported by Ferris, Brown and Heller (2009), who found a negative relationship between organisational support (POS and LMX) and organisational deviance.

2.4.7 Personality

An important predictor of WDB is personality traits, which has been found to report a higher criterion-related validity when matched with other predictors of WDB (Pletzer et al., 2019; Salgado, 2002). An individual personality trait refers to “the set of psychological traits and mechanisms within the individual that are organized and relatively enduring and that influence his or her interactions with and adaptations to, the intrapsychic, physical and social environments” (Larsen & Buss, 2005, p. 4). Individuals’ personalities can predict their reactions towards co-workers and the organisation, regardless of their experiences and perception of the organisation (Qu, 2017). The Big Five, which comprises of five personality traits (Openness, conscientiousness, emotionality, agreeableness and neuroticism) have often been used to predict WDB (Pletzer et al., 2019). Other factors such as emotions also helps predict behaviour and tendencies to involve in unethical or deviant acts (Alias et al., 2013; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004).

2.5 Workplace deviance in Nigerian university system

The deviance act has become almost commonplace in the Nigerian academic landscape, especially in the public universities. Giedam, Njoku and Bako (2011) found that deviance among employees of public universities is higher than those of private universities. Hence, the President of Nigeria asserted that deviant behaviour in public universities has become a national problem (Babachir, 2015). Various deviant acts have been highlighted among staff of tertiary institutions ranging from the academic, non-academic and directors, which includes money or sex for grades, monetary extortion, admission fraud, misappropriation of funds, giving admission to undeserving students, amongst others (Chinyere & Chukwuma 2017; Igbe, et al., 2017). For instance, 17 non-academic and 14 academic members were sacked in Delta State University in Nigeria in 2017 for involving in deviant acts such as student extortion, result alteration, plagiarism, property theft, absenteeism, sexual harassment, amongst others (Dike, 2017). In the Nigerian tertiary educational system, based on ethnic and religious sentiments, some appointments and positions are made the exclusive rights of some people even when they lack the required qualifications to enable them to occupy such positions, while people who are more qualified are not allowed to occupy such positions (Nwaokugha & Ezeugwu, 2017). Other instances of deviant acts exhibited by staff of Nigerian tertiary institutions are not attending classes, withholding of efforts and theft (Adamu, 2012; Sahara Reporter, 2017).

In tackling corrupt practices in Nigeria, governments often use intimidating, tough and aggressive languages, which have often failed, because people view government reaction as being hypocritical (Hoffman & Patel, 2017). An instance is the blunt refusal against the proposed death sentence for any lecturer caught involved in sexual harassment by the academic staff union of universities (ASUU); it was argued that there are government officials who involve in such an act; hence, such bill should not be targeted at lecturers (Premium Times, 2020). There are bodies such as the Economic Financial Crime Commission (EFCC) and Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) that have been set up to handle cases of corrupt practices in any organisation.

Most Nigerians tend to get involved in corrupt practices as a practical response to incompetence and inefficiencies of the economic and administrative system of the nation, as funds meant to develop various systems are embezzled by some government officials (Hoffman & Patel, 2017). Igbe et al. (2017) decry the deplorable working conditions of staff of tertiary institutions

and irregular payment of salaries and other rewards. Unconducive environments, amongst others, characterise Nigerian public tertiary institutions. There have also been instances of agitations for internal instead of external recruitments, especially into key positions. This amongst others have been reasons why staff embark on strike actions (Premium Times, 2021). Adeoti, Shamsudin and Mohammad (2020) suggest that to curb deviant behaviour amongst employees of universities in Nigeria, management needs to ensure improvement in the work environment and enhance the institutional policies. Some of these issues cannot be disconnected from HRM, as they reflect the need for the government to emphasise employee's welfare. In response to the perceived unfair treatment, employees may be motivated to involve in acts that are detrimental to the institution.

Research on WDB have been grouped into three themes. First, research on conceptualising WDB. Secondly, research focusing on examining the antecedents of WDB. Thirdly, research examining the effects of WDB on employee and organisational effectiveness (Shamsudin et al., 2011). This study focuses on the second theme, that is, examining the antecedents of WDB. While this second theme has been largely researched (Alfes et al., 2013), there is still a need for further studies on this theme. Kidwell and Martin, (2005) note that WDB is not only prevalent in organisations but also on the increase. In the same vein, its impact on the organisation can be detrimental if not minimised, most especially in the Nigerian educational context (Igbe et al., 2017; Nwuche & Eketu, 2015).

2.6 Summary and justification for the selection of certain antecedents of workplace deviance

Despite the prevalence of WDB in the Nigerian tertiary institutions and the perceived link between HRPs and WDB, little research effort has been exerted on the subjects. Few studies have been conducted on HRPs and organisational and employee outcome, such as performance, productivity, job satisfaction, in Nigeria (Adebola et al., 2017; Amah & Oyetunde, 2019; Anso, 2014; Ojokuku, 2013). Igbe et al. (2017) links the deplorable working condition of employees of Nigerian universities with deviant behaviour embarked upon to justify the unfair treatment. Although research on this phenomenon exists outside Nigeria (Arthur, 2011; Shamsudin et al., 2014), the findings cannot be generalised as the context of an organisation has a role to play in determining involvement in WDB (Saeed et al., 2014). Due to the paucity of research, this

study examines the relationship between perceived HRPs and deviant behaviour, as affirmed in the literature that the perception of fairness impacts on WDB.

Previous studies on HRPs and WDB suggest that other factors contribute to the effect that HRPs have on WDB other than HRPs (Allen et al., 2003). OJ is one of the organisational antecedents of WDB, therefore, this study aims to mediate the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB with OJ. Furthermore, based on the argument on the impact of situational and individual variables on WDB and a reconciling basis of an interaction between both, this study examines the moderating effect of an individual variable, personality trait, on the relationship between OJ and WDB. As a result of the antecedents of WDB, this study limits its focus on HRP, OJ and personality traits, which will be discussed in subsequent chapters.

2.7 Theoretical review

This chapter discusses the theories linking the selected antecedents of WDB, such as HRPs, OJ and personality traits with WDB. The criticisms of these theories have also been included as well as the theoretical framework for the study. Social exchange theory is discussed in the first section, equity in the second, theory of met expectation on the third and finally, theory of social cognitive theory in the last section.

2.7.1 Homans, 1961: Social exchange theory (SET)

SET has been the most used theory to explain behaviour in the workplace (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Halls, 2016). Homans, (1961) defines social exchange as a process in which a person's action impacts on another either in the form of reward or punishment. He further suggests five systematic propositions of social behaviour built up on the idea of reward and punishment, satiation, aggression and approval, deprivation and cost and profit. Homans (1961) social exchange can be explained using this scenario: A person in an exchange relation with another, gives with a cost and expects to receive a reward; as this exchange continues, the value placed on the reward becomes less. Over time, individual begins to compare its reward with its cost in a bid to determine the value/profit derived from the exchange relation (Colquitt, Greenberg & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). "A man in an exchange relation with another will expect that the rewards of each man be proportional to his costs—the greater the rewards, the greater the costs—and that the net rewards, or profits, of each man

be proportional to his investments—the greater the investments, the greater the profit.” (Homans, 1961, p. 75). Consequently, when an individual perceives inequity in their rewards when compared to their cost, it results in anger while if the cost is less than the reward, it may result in guilt and could make the individual abandon the exchange or seek ways of ensuring equity (Colquitt et al., 2005)

SET is the most frequently used to explain behaviour in the organisation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018). Specifically, Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) posit that in explaining the employee-organisation relationship, social exchange theory has been used to explain the relationship that employees develop with the managers and/or the organisation. It explains that the relationship that exists between the employees and management can be compared to a social exchange where there is an exchange of cost and benefit. Previous researchers (Alfes et al., 2013; Alias & Rasdi, 2015; Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007; Ko & Hur, 2014; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Moon, 2017; Saeed et al., 2014) have used SET in examining employees’ HRP and justice perceptions and their impact on employee attitude at work. For example, the relationship between HRP and OJ is founded on the norm of reciprocity entailed in social exchange theory, which maintains that relationships are built around the norm of reciprocity. It explains that good or bad favours are reciprocated accordingly (Gouldner, 1960; Shamsudin et al., 2011). This theory implies that HRPs are expected to reflect management’s commitment to employee’s welfare and their desire for a healthy relationship and in return employee are expected to respond with a commitment to the organisation (Gould-Williams, 2016). Specifically, Shamsudin, et al. (2011) hypothesise that when the HRPs of an organisation are desirable, employees reciprocate by exhibiting positive behaviour, when this is not so, employees perceive the HRPs to be unfair; hence, the feeling of anger, vengeance and dissatisfaction is aroused. This feeling increases the tendency for employees to exhibit deviant behaviour. On the other hand, when employees perceive the HRPs to be effective, the social exchange results in employees being more committed, have better work performance and lower turnover tendencies/intentions (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018).

The quality of the social exchange existing between employees and management can also be directly affected by the perception of fairness, that is, OJ (Henle, 2005). When employees perceive unfair treatment from the supervisor or the organisation, they develop a feeling of violation of the social exchange and hence, compare the cost of remaining in the organisation with their rewards, if the cost outweighs the rewards, they seek means of revenge and hence,

resort to acts that are harmful to the organisation or its individuals such as withdrawing of efforts, absenteeism and other deviant behaviours (Blakely, Andrew, & Moorman, 2005; Leineweber, Peristera, Bernhard-Oettel, & Eib, 2020). Studies (such as, Leineweber, 2020; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018; Zhang & Argawal, 2009) were underpinned by the social exchange to explain OJ and organisational behaviour such as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), WDB, turnover intentions, amongst others. It was posited that OJ helps establish a social exchange relationship, hence fostering OCB. Furthermore, it was noted that fair treatment could be viewed as a benefit that employees seek to reciprocate, therefore, engaging in OCB. It can be inferred that when employees experience being unfairly treated, they seek to reciprocate thereby engaging in deviant behaviour.

Using SET to explain the relationship between OJ and turnover, Moon (2017) explains that employees believe that the values the organisation places on them can be judged by the fairness/unfairness of the treatment received (which includes their outcome, the outcome procedures and the interpersonal treatment received during the procedures) which to them is a benefit. When unfairness/injustice is perceived, according to the norm of reciprocity, they also seek to reciprocate by involving in deviant acts (Colquitt et al., 2005). In using SET to explain OJ and WDB Greenberg and Scott (1996) and Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) opine that employee's perception of unfairness/injustice could lead them into involving in WDB. One of the ways this could be done is to change their input to restore equity. SET is also used in explaining the fairness perception of employee's relationship with the supervisor, as this could determine how well employees are committed to the supervisor, the organisation and other members of the organisation (Leineweber et al., 2020)

SET has been challenged on the basis that it fails to consider when and why poor treatment would matter to employees. Researchers (such as, Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Halls, 2017) have argued that it poorly establishes the boundary to which fairness perception would influence employees' responses and reactions (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009). Worthy of note is that due to individual perceptual differences and bias, individuals may make differing inferences about injustice (Homans, 1961).

2.7.2 Adams (1965): Equity theory

Equity theory, originally known as justice theory, suggests that individuals compare their input and outcome ratio to that of relevant referent; this comparison forms their perception of how

fair the outcome they receive is (Miller, Konopaske, & Byrne, 2012). The theory established the underlying processes and effects of OJ (Alexander, MacLaren, O'Gorman, & White, 2012). Specifically, equity theory explained that individuals rationally evaluate and compare the ratio difference between its input and outcome with that of another person (Adams & Freedman, 1976). These inputs range from age, social status, intelligence, training, seniority, experience, ethnic background and efforts expended on the job while outcomes include, intrinsic rewards, pay, fringe benefits, status symbols, seniority benefits, satisfactory supervision, job status and a range of formally and informally authorised bonuses (Adams, 1965).

The theory maintained that inequity generates a psychological feeling of distress and tension that makes individuals seek means of restoring balance (Adams, 1963, 1965). Specifically, individuals are satisfied when there is balance in their comparison with others, but when imbalance occurs, referred to as underpayment inequity, there is a feeling of anger and they tend to lower their contribution (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). It also addressed the situation that the ratio of the outcome to input is higher, referred to as overpayment inequity, such result in a feeling of guilt, individuals in this case make efforts to adjust their contribution to ensure equity. When employees perceive that there is inequity, they look for ways to balance the inequity perceived. One of the ways employees balance the underpayment inequity perceived are modifying inputs (Moon, 2017), lowering OCB (Zhang & Argawal, 2005), lowering performance and motivation (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Viswesvaran, Schmidt, & Ones, 2002) and withdrawal (Blakely et al., 2005). Previous researchers have used this theory to explain OJ and WDB (Igbe et al., 2017; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018).

A review of the literature revealed that the equity theory does not necessarily explain the relationship that exists between HRP and WDB, but it has been used to explain the OJ in mediating relationship that exists between HRP and WDB. For instance, Wu and Wang (2008), who used it in explaining the impact of perception of fairness of pay (one of the HRPs) on WDB. Employees engage in deviant behaviour due to an attempt to restore inequity; when it is perceived that the ratio of their output to input is imbalanced, one of the ways they balance the imbalance is to reduce their inputs. Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) note that employees from their own perspective of ensuring that they reduce the negativity in the ratio of their input-outcome ratio, may involve in acts that are harmful to the organisation.

Aside from inequity, the criticism of this theory has been its inability to reveal other factors that could result in deviant acts, particularly those factors beyond the control of the organisation, management, or administrators (Redmond, 2009). In addition to perception of unfair treatment, this study, therefore, intends to examine other variables that could influence involvement in deviant acts, such as the personality traits of individuals.

2.7.3 Porter and Steers (1973): Theory of met expectation

The theory of met expectation (Porter & Steers, 1973) explains that employees have some expectations or aspirations, which form their terms of reference when making comparative judgment (Oliver, Balakrishnan & Barry, 1994). It explains the discrepancy between a person's expectation on the job and what he actually encounters. This discrepancy can be positive or negative; positive when what an employee encounters on the job equals or exceeds one's expectation and negative when the experience or encounter falls below expectation. Brown, Venkatesh, Kuruzovich and Massey (2008) suggest three models that could help explain individuals' reaction to unmet expectation. They are the disconfirmation model, the ideal-point model and the experiences-only model. Disconfirmation model explains that the relationship existing between the expectation-encounter gap and reactions could be linear. That is, when it is negative it leads to negative reaction and when it is positive it leads to positive reaction. According to the ideal-point model, the relationship could be curvilinear, that is a situation in which both positive and negative disconfirmation results into a negative reaction. The experiences-only explains a situation in which it is only what the individual perceives that matters (Wong & Kuvaas, 2018). This explains differences in individual expectations, which makes it difficult to assume that a given HRP, such as rewards, would have the same influence on individuals' behavioural outcomes.

Employee's attitude and behaviour is dependent on the extent to which organisations meet their expectations as negative behaviour and attitudes have been associated with unmet expectation (Irving & Montes, 2009; Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992). When employees' expectations are met, they put in more effort to ensure that organisational goals are met but when their expectations are not met, employees react negatively and this will lead to negative behaviour and attitudes. For example, Alshuaibi et al. (2013) opine that when expectations of employees' career growth are not met, they tend to result in deviant behaviour. In the same vein, Irving and Monte (2009) suggest that when the expectations of employees are not met,

they tend to withdraw from the organisation. Additionally, Wong and Kuvaas (2018) also note that employees' empowerment expectation-experience gap leads to job dissatisfaction. When an employee is dissatisfied with the job there is tendency for such to involve in harmful acts (Alias, Rasdi, & Khan, 2017).

2.7.4 Bandura and Walter (1963) Cognitive social theory

Cognitive social theory (CST) forms the theoretical framework for this study, it links the independent and dependent variables and helps to overcome the weaknesses of the aforementioned theories. This theory was propounded by Bandura and Walter (1963) and proposes that “personal factors, such as moral thought and affective self-reactions, moral conduct and environmental factors all operate as interacting determinants that influence each other in determining outcomes” (Bandura, 1986, p. 2). This theory helps to combine different factors (internal and external) to explain employee behaviour by postulating that both individual and situational factors operate as interacting factors that influence behaviour, thereby forming a triadic relationship (Otake-Ebede, Shaffakat, & Foster, 2020).

The theory lays emphasis on the consideration of the interaction between individuals and situations (Mischel, 1973). It views personality as contextual because individuals' interpretation and response to various situations is influenced by it. This interaction has an influence on how an individual perceives a situation, which will in turn influence behaviour (Henle, 2005). Sincero (2012) notes that intellectual process is needed for an individual to repeat a positive behaviour and averred that the environment (social and physical environment) of an individual influences the behaviour just as the behaviour of an individual can influence the environment. This theory points to the bi-directional interaction existing among the factors that influence. CST explicitly explains why individuals in the same situation may behave differently. Researchers (such as, Henle, 2005; Holtz & Harold, 2013; Khattak et al., 2019) have used the cognitive social theory to explain the interaction between the individual and situational factors predicting deviant behaviour.

This study infers based on this theory that employee's perception of justice of the HRP's will influence their involvement in WDB, but when personality interacts with this assumed relationship, it is assumed that the impact will be moderated, because of the differences in individual perception on a situation. The major criticism of this theory initially was its inability

to include personality, but recent research (Henle, 2005; Holtz & Harold, 2013; Khattak et al., 2019) has incorporated personality, which this study also considers.

2.8 Summary and concluding Remarks

The second chapter is devoted to the discussion of WDB being a key component and the dependent variable of this research, presenting the literature on WDB, its classifications, effects and antecedents. Furthermore, WDB in the context of Nigerian universities was explored with examples. The chapter lays the theoretical basis for the selection of certain antecedents, mediator and moderator (HRPs, OJ, personality, respectively) of WDB through the review of the social exchange theory, theory of met expectation, equity theory, the cognitive social theory.

CHAPTER THREE: HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND WORKPLACE DEVIANCE

3.0 Introduction

Human resource practice is a term that generates from HR management. HRPs are the means by which the goals of HRM are achieved. The goals entail ensuring that right employees are recruited, motivated, developed and retained in order to gain competitive advantage. It has been indicated in the previous chapters that HRP is classified among the antecedents of WDB due to its role in shaping employees' attitude and behaviour. This chapter is aimed at discussing the concept of HRP and its relationship with WDB. Furthermore, this chapter explains the link through which HRP may impact WDB. Subsequently, the chapter is divided into five sections. Section 3.1 introduces the concepts and presents the discussion of HRM, Section 3.2 presents discussion on strategic HRM, Section 3.3 discusses the link between HRP and WDB and highlights some of the key HRPs, Section 3.4 presents HRP and WDB mediators and the last section provides the concluding remarks.

3.1 Human Resource Management (HRM)

It is difficult to come up with a specific definition of what HRM is, this is mainly due to the unresolved ambiguity that surrounds its definition (Collings, Woods, & Szamosi 2018). This ambiguity is revealed in the differing meanings and components necessary for a unifying definition of the concept (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992). Due to the necessity of definition in understanding a concept, HRM has been conceptualised into two approaches, which are the soft (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills & Walton, 1984; Beer & Spector, 1985; Walton & Lawrence, 1985) and hard (Fombrun, Tichy, & Devanna, 1984) approaches. Truss, Mankin and Kelliher (2012) note that the earliest scholars who used these two approaches were Guest (1987) and Storey (1992) although conceptualised differently. For instance, Guest (1987) in his attempt to identify these two dimensions conceptualised them as soft-hard and loose-tight, while Storey (1992) conceptualized the existing explanations of HRM into two dimensions, namely soft-hard and weak-strong. These two approaches are the most widely used models of HRM; they explain two opposing views of human nature and strategies adopted for managerial control (Truss, Gratton, Hope-Hailey, McGovern, & Stiles, 1997). Although old, scholars still adopt this two approaches in managing organisations (Cregan, Johnston, & Bartram, 2021; Ihuah, 2014; Rahman, Tabassum, & Sultana, 2017). The major distinction between these two

is their emphasis, while soft approach emphasises human, the hard approach emphasises resource. Specifically, Purcell and Hutchinson (2007) note that the distinguishing strategic attributes between these approaches is that the soft approach suggests that the best means of control is through commitment. To understand these approaches better, this study will review them differently.

3.1.1 Soft approach

The soft approach is attributed to the work of American HRM academics, Beer et al., (1985), using the Harvard model to distinguish between the soft approach and its counterpart (Collings & Woods, 2009; Truss et al., 1997; Alam & Mukherjee, 2014). This approach draws its definition from the theory of motivation of both the behavioural science of McGregor (1960) theory Y's perception of individual, Human relation school, which involves the use of employee's talents and Maslow's Hierarchy of needs (Legge, 1995). Walton (1985) noted that this approach has been conceptualized as the 'high commitment work system'. It suggests a high level of trust in which employees are self-motivated to be committed to the organisation without being controlled by sanctions or external pressures. This approach emphasises flexibility and adaptability and posits that communication is key in the management-employee relationship (Storey & Sisson, 1993)

Storey (1992); Legge (1995); D'Art (2002); Cregan et al. (2021) also noted that this approach emphasises the importance of employees in gaining competitive advantage, as a result HRM aims at strategic interventions and control that could aid in developing these assets so as to be able to get them committed to the organisation. This suggests that HR policies and practices be aligned with the business strategy. Centre to this theory is the concept of human growth and this could be the reason why this approach is sometimes referred to as 'developmental humanism' (Storey, 1989; Legge, 1995; Collings & Wood, 2009). Legge (1995) noted that employees should be viewed as proactive as against being viewed as a passive input into the production process. These authors emphasised that employees are capable of development and being trusted, this they argued can only be achieved through their participation (Ishak, Abdullah, & Ramli, 2011, Ihuah, 2014).

Additionally, Truss et al. (1997) noted that the soft approach is comparable to the theory Y model. It is therefore needful to briefly examine the propositions of this theory. Theory Y as proposed by McGregor (1960) posits that "man will exercise self-direction and self-control in

the service of objectives to which he is committed” (McGregor 1960, p. 326). Furthermore, studies (such as, Denkins & Debridge, 2013; Truss et al., 1997) posit that the theory suggests that employees aim at finding self-fulfilment through the work they do, therefore, management endeavour to engage in practices, policies or activities that will foster their growth and development, so as to maximise the potentials of their employees. McGregor (1960) also emphasises the importance of integration. Specifically, it was noted that the principle of integration calls for the recognition of the needs of the individuals and organisation

Truss et al. (1997), discussing this comparison between the Soft approach to HRM and the Theory Y model, explained that it entails the theory Y emphasis on commitment and self-direction and also its emphasis on not just the need of the organisation but also addresses the needs of the employees (Guest 1987; Walton 1985). This approach also suggests that employees will work with the aim of going beyond the wishes of the organisation to innovatively committing themselves to the organisation and adding value to it when they are trained and developed, trusted, permitted to work autonomously and have some control over the work they do (Cregan et al., 2021; Deckop, 1986; Denkins & Debridge, 2013; Guest, 1987; Purcell, 1993).

3.1.2 Hard Approach

This approach also draws heavily on the work of American HRM academics (Fombrun et al., 1984) and the Michigan model (Truss et al., 1997). As distinguished earlier, this approach emphasises resource. It views the human resource similarly with the other factor of production in that it is acquired for the purpose of bringing in profit into the organisation, therefore, places control firmly in the hands of management (Cregan et al., 2021; Ishak, et al, 2011; Truss et al., 1997). There is tight control over employees’ activities and the aim for doing this is to gain competitive advantage for the organisation (Cregan et al., 2021; Guest, 1995). Furthermore, this approach places emphasis on how to use the human resource system to achieve organisational strategic objectives (Collings & Wood, 2009; Fombrun et al., 1984). It implies that the HR practices and policies are closely linked with the strategic objective of the organisation. As against the soft HRM that places emphasis on the employees, the emphasis of the hard HRM is rather on the resource, specifically, it emphasises how shareholders value can be maximized within the short term. Consequently, the role of the HR manager is majorly to make profit and manage the numbers of employees effectively such that the total number of

employees matches with what is required in terms of the numbers and behaviour required for the attainment of the organisational objectives (Storey, 1989). Other issues relating to employee's rights are seen as a distraction, rather focus should be on returns with the assumption that when return is maximised both the employer and employee interests are met (Collings & Wood, 2011). As a result, the hard approach leads to tension and conflict because features such as the self-direction, self-expression and trust as seen in the soft approach are low in the hard approach (Truss et al., 1997).

This approach is based on the assumptions of theory X, that posits that humans dislike work and would want to avoid it. This led to the tight managerial control through the means of close direction. In like manner the hard HRM approach emphasises integration, strategic direction and performance management techniques such as performance appraisal (Truss, et al, 1997). Bach (2005) as revealed in Ishak et al., (2011), highlighted the nature of the hard HRM, they are: HRM suggests that the interest of both employers and employee should match, thereby it can be seen as unitarist; marginalisation of other stakeholders' interest; playdown on collective and external issues; interest is on employee motivation and aspiration of employees. The hard HRM has also been argued to have similar conceptualisation with the scientific management, because of its perception of employees. Viewing employees as passive objects whose values are based on the skill they possess and/or their attributes as the organisation may deem required (Legge, 1999; Storey, 1987; Ishak, et.al, 2011). There are four components/practices of hard HRM, they are: selection, appraisal, rewards and development.

To find out which of these approaches is best or mostly used by organisations, Truss et al. (1997) compare these approaches in a study of eight organisations in the UK. They argued that the two approaches to HRM cannot be incorporated into a single HRM model. The result of the finding revealed that all the organisations examined use the mixture of both approaches, this findings conflict with their argument. This finding is also supported by Rahman et al. (2017) who also found that organisations combine the two approaches. Despite this finding, the conclusion drawn from the study is worth noting. They concluded that even when an organisation HRM system suggest the use of soft approach, the reality differ from what these organisations portray and the reality is that almost always organisation uses the hard approach where the organisation interest is always superior to the employees' interest. Also, the mixture of these approaches in different organisations will be dependent on both its internal and external environment, culture, strategy and structure, all of which play a major role in

determining how HRM operates. Finally, they concluded that the organisations examined did not follow any HR policy, all they did was to either follow some inherited practices or policies which may or may not be integrative to the new way of doing things. Also supporting this finding is the study conducted by Ishak et al. (2011) who compared these two approaches in 21 Malaysian hotels and found that none of the organisations purely adopted any of the two approaches, rather they used the combination of the two. Although they suggested that most organisations likely lie towards the hard approach. This assertion had earlier been made by Legge (1995) who argued that although there is integration of these approaches in organisations, management tend more to the hard approach than they are to the soft approach.

The argument of this author about the difference between the rhetoric and reality of HRM is still as relevant to today's workplace. The reality is that management may portray to emphasise the welfare of the employees, but they are actually using the hard approach. That is why scholars have argued that when HRPs is to be examined, the perception of employees of these practices should be examined rather than what the management portrays or indicated to do.

3.2 Strategic human resource management (SHRM)

Strategic human resource management (SHRM) is used as an umbrella to elaborate on the initial traditional HRM. It encompasses the functional and operational approach to HRM as well as links the strategic management process, the various functional HRPs and other organisational and environmental factors (Alcazar, FernándeZ, & Gardey, 2005). Researchers have continued to examine HRPs with strategic lenses to be able to understand ways in which these practices can be leveraged to achieve organisational objectives (Tracey, 2014) and improve organisation's functioning (Perry, 1993). This is referred to as SHRP. SHRM came up as argument that the HRP should be aligned with the firm's strategy and that one factor that should differentiate the HRP of an organisation from another is its strategy (Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Arthur, 1994). Consequently, the literature on HRM (for instance, Delery & Doty, 1996; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Mitchell, Obeidat, & Bray, 2013; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007; Zehir, Yıldız, Köle, & Başar, 2016) examined the impact SHRM has on organisational performance using the high-performance human resource practices (HPHRPs).

HPHRPs explain some group of coherent and interrelated practices, such as selection, training, reward, amongst others, aimed at increasing the abilities of employees as well as ensuring that they stay motivated (Delery & Doty, 1996; Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & Bottomley, 2015).

Despite the growth in the SHRP research, some scholars have criticised it. Its criticism had been the lack of consensus by researchers on what should constitute HPHRP (Sun et al., 2007). For instance, Delery and Doty (1996) noted that there are no specific practices that should be regarded as the best practices and as a consequence, each organisation or study should deploy the practices that best suit their strategy or what the study intends to examine. Also, Deleany and Huselid, (1996), noted that no two studies use the same measure of HRP. As a result, an introduction of a mechanism or link through which these HRPs influence organisational performance despite the affirmed relationship between HRPs and organisational performance was advocated. This created a gap as previous studies (Ferris, Arthur, Berkson, Harrel-Cook, & Fink, 1998; Sun et al., 2007; Shamsudin et al., 2011; Saeed et al., 2014) identified the need for more and more studies on the mechanism through which the HR system interacts to predict and influence employee outcomes, organisational outcomes, employee behaviour and attitude

Considering the disagreement in the literature on what practices to conceptualise as measures of SHRM, the literature has revealed four perspectives of SHRM, they are, universalistic, contingency, contextual and configurational approach (Brewster, 1995, 1999; Delery & Doty, 1996; Jackson et al., 1989). The universalistic approach to SHRM, argued that some practices are better than others and these ‘best practices’ should be adopted by organisations (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1994). It further posits that there is a universal relationship between the dependent and independent variable. Pfeffer (1994) one of the universalist researchers proposed 16 best practices, amongst these practices are incentive pay, participation and empowerment, employee security, training and development, promotion from within. Also, Osterman (2000) suggested that practices such as, total quality management, job rotation, quality circles teams be regarded as best practices. These practices as suggested by these authors culminated into what is now being referred to as HPHRPs or ‘best practices’.

From review of existing/various studies, Delery and Doty (1996), identified seven HRPs that were consistently categorised as SHRPs. These practices include, internal career opportunities, profit sharing, formal training systems, voice mechanisms, job definition and employee security (Mowbray, Wilkinson, & Tse, 2021; Miles & Snow, 1984). Although Delery and Doty listed these seven practices, it is noteworthy that these are not the generally acceptable HRPs. For instance, Brewster, Houldworth, Sparrow and Vernon (2016) noted in the US that the department of labour has its lists of its own best practices. They therefore concluded that the HRPs differ across cultures, specifically, some culture may accept some of these practices

while other cultures may view some of these practices as culturally inappropriate. For instance, employee performance appraisal may communicate low trust to the employees in some culture. This is what the universalistic approach failed to acknowledge, it limits HRPs to the organisational strategy, not minding the internal and external factors, such as the union, employees, national policies amongst others. Additionally, the universalistic approach studies the HRPs independently, it does not examine the integration or synergic interdependence of these practices. To examine the influence of these HRPs on employee outcomes, organisational outcomes, attitude, or behaviour, it is better to examine from the additive point of view (Alcazar et al., 2005).

As against the universalistic approach, the contingency theorists (Dyer, 1985; Schuler & Jackson, 1987) argued that HRPs be integrated with other aspects of the organisation. Theorist of this approach have revealed how some HRPs have consistently been linked with various strategic position. For instance, it argues that the HRP be aligned with the organisational strategy. There is a non-linear relationship between dependent and independent variable, as this approach introduces a contingent variable (such as the context in which HR operates) that varies this relationship (Alcazar et al., 2005). This approach does not also allow for integration of the HRPs (Delery & Doty, 1996) as it still examines the HRPs individually. Although this approach is theoretically grounded, it does not possess as much statistical strength when compared to the universalistic approach.

Thirdly, the configurational approach differs from the other two approaches previously mentioned. “The configurational perspective contributes to the explanation of SHRM with a useful insight about the internal aspects of the function, by means of the analysis of the synergic integration of the elements that build it” (Alcazar et al., 2005, p. 637). This system integrates the environmental, organisational and internal factors (Venkatraman & Prescott, 1990; Delery & Doty, 1996). Alcazar et al. (2005) explains that this approach opens up the black box in the two approaches earlier mentioned in that there is holistic examination of the HRPs. That is, interdependence of the HRPs, gives room for the achievement of organisational goals using various combinations of practices that make room for efficiency in the organisation.

The fourth perspective to SHRM is the contextual theory, otherwise known as ‘best fit’. This approach considers other stakeholders in the organisation, such as the employee and those depending on them, the society at large (Beer et al., 1985). Brewster et al. (2004) noted that

this does not imply that the approach assumes that the interest, perspectives and views of these stakeholders will not differ, also it does not imply that everyone in the organisation will support the organisational strategy. What it rather suggests is that the needs of each of these stakeholders: employees, union and management teams will differ but these differences are believed to have impact on HRP. Contingent approach views factors such as culture, trade union, ownership structure as strategic factors within the organisation that should influence the HRPs adopted rather than seeing these factors as external as proposed by the universalistic researchers (Alcazar et al., 2005). Delery and Doty (1996) examined these approaches in understanding SHRM and concluded that the first three approaches are viable in measuring HR practices

3.3 Linking human resource practices (HRP) and workplace deviance

Human resource practices a term that generates from HRM. HRP are the means by which the goals of HRM are achieved. The goals entail ensuring that right employees are recruited, motivated, developed and retained in order to gain competitive advantage. HRPs have been found to be one of the most important organisational tools used in defining and shaping employees' attitudes and behaviour (Robins & Judge, 2010; Huselid & Becker, 2011; Shamsudin et al., 2014). Jackson, Schuler and Rivero (1989) suggest that an effective HRM system will acquire, develop and motivate the behaviours necessary to enhance firm performance. Emphasising the role of HRPs, Bailey (1993) argued that it influences employees' skill and motivation, thereby affecting their discretionary effort. For a HRP to be effective, Huselid (1995) also posits that there are necessary ingredients it must possess. First, it must improve employee skill, through recruitment procedures, effective training both formal and informal. Second, it must motivate employees, through the use of performance appraisal, incentive compensation system, internal promotion. Lastly it must have an organisational structure that encourages employee participation and give room for improvement on how they perform their jobs, examples of such structure are, job rotation, quality circles and cross-functional teams.

The effect of HRP on both organisational (organisational performance, productivity, profitability, amongst others) and employee outcome (job stress, job satisfaction, commitment, amongst others) has attracted several research in the HRM field (Lopez, Peon, & Ordaz, 2005). There has been ample evidence of how HHRPs influences organisational performance and

productivity (Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Huselid & Becker, 1997; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Mitchell, Obeidat & Bray, 2013; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007; Zehir, Yıldız, Köle, & Başar, 2016) but there is scant research on how these practices affect employees' attitudes and behaviours (Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & Bottomley, 2015), most especially deviant behaviour. From the relationship between HRP and both organisational and employee outcomes such as performance, turnover and turnover intentions, job satisfaction, commitment and performance, the links between HRP and deviant behaviour is suggestive. For instance, Pizam and Thornburg (2000) found out that the work environment (characterized by adequate training and compensation, were more significant in predicting employee absenteeism and voluntary turnover than their personality. The study was conducted in central Florida with 62 hotel managers.

Further, Allen, Shore and Griffeth, (2003), examined the influence of HRP (reward fairness, growth opportunities and participation in decision making) on turnover intention and eventual turnover. The study comprised two samples, sample 1 involving 215 sales department employees while sample 2 included 197 insurance both samples were carried out in the US. The study revealed that when employees perceive these HRP to be supportive they feel obligated to support the organisation, therefore, increasing their motivation and commitment to the organisation. With this feeling turnover intention and turnover is reduced. In the same vein, Alfes et al. (2013) drawing on social exchange theory, sought to find out the links through which HRP affect citizenship behaviour and intention to leave. Using a sample of 297 drawn from the service industry in United Kingdom, they found support for the assumed relationship. The result of the finding implies that employee will engage in positive behaviour when they perceive a positive exchange from the organisation and their supervisor, which, in the context of this study, is referred to as POS and LMX. The finding further revealed that in order to get employees to involve in behaviour that are beneficiary to the organisation, there is need for employees to have a positive perception of the organisation and the relationship that exist between them and their supervisors. This suggests that when employee's perception of HRP is negative, rather than employee involving in positive behaviour, they will involve in negative or deviant behaviour.

Frenkel, Restubog and Bednall (2012) examined the impact of HRP on some employee outcomes such as discretionary effort and co-worker assistance, using a sample of 618 full time employees from two organisations in Australia. The study affirmed the positive relationship

between these variables, suggesting also that when HRPs are positively perceived by the employees, it results into organisational identification, which would make them to engage in these two outcomes. This implies that when the HRPs are negatively perceived by the employees rather than engaging in acts that are beneficial to the organisation and co-workers, they would rather engage in acts that are detrimental. The forgoing researchers have provided indirect empirical evidence to relate HRPs to WDB. As noted earlier, if HRPs are aimed at ensuring that staff stayed motivated to be able to put in their best towards the attainment of organisational goals (Saeed et al., 2014), the presence of wrong behaviour may not be unconnected to the defect in HRPs.

The social exchange theory has been used to explain the connection between HRPs and positive workplace attitude/behaviour by the aforementioned researchers, the theory can be adopted in linking the HRP and WDB, since the latter is opposite of the positive behaviour. The theory implies that HRPs are expected to reflect management's commitment to employee's welfare and their desire for a healthy relationship and in return employee are expected to respond with a commitment to the organisation (Gould-Williams, 2016). When this is not so, employees perceive the HRPs to be unfair hence the feeling of anger, vengeance and dissatisfaction is aroused. This feeling increases the tendency for employees to exhibit deviant behaviour.

Although not generally classified amongst the antecedents of WDB, researchers have related HRPs and deviant behaviour (Arthur, 2011; Shamsudin et al., 2014; Saeed et al., 2014). Specifically, Arthur (2011) hypothesises that HR system that employs the use of intense internal labour (long term employment, development and internal promotion) and less autonomy would result in less employee involvement in interpersonal deviance. Empirical support for this hypothesis was found using 372 US employees from across the nation. This can be explained that when the HRPs reflect these internal labour measures, it communicates to employees that they are valued but when this is absent employees reciprocate by engaging in deviant behaviour. While this study was helpful and novel in understanding the role of HRPs on deviant behaviour, it only examined HR system at organisational level and only focused on a form of WDB, that is, interpersonal deviance. Meanwhile studies have found that employees involve in different forms of deviance at work (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Additionally, Shamsudin et al. (2011), investigated the impact of HRPs at individual level on WDB amongst 375 Malaysian employees in manufacturing firms. Conducting a factor analysis, they found out four dimensions of HRPs, namely employment security, result oriented appraisal, career

development and job description. Using multiple regression analysis, the results revealed that all the dimensions of HRP impact organisational deviance negatively, with the exception of result-oriented appraisal. Although the study intended to explore the dimensionality of WDB, the factor analysis revealed a one-dimensionality of WDB, namely interpersonal deviance.

Similarly, Saeed et al. (2014), in a survey carried out amongst 150 employees of banks in Pakistan, examined the impact of HRP (employee security, job description, career development and result-oriented appraisal) on WDB using four dimensions of HRPs. The finding revealed that all measures of HRP, but result-oriented appraisal negatively impacted deviance targeted at the organisation. On the other hand, Al-Shuaibi et al. (2013) examined the influence of HRPs, namely employee security, result-oriented appraisal, career development and compensation practices, on cyberloafing¹ and found out that of these HRPs, only two, that is, performance appraisal and career development have a negative relationship with cyberloafing. This study only focused on an aspect of WDB, that is organisational deviance, as this act hampers productivity and performance of the employees.

The reviewed studies revealed that researchers have used different measures to measure HRPs, as it has been argued that there is no best practice. The practice to be used must be culturally relevant to the setting as aforementioned. Specifically, Shamsudin et al. (2011) emphasised the effect of different organisational context, culture and population on WDB, therefore it becomes imperative to study WDB across cultures, which Nigeria is one culture that differs from other contexts where the majority of studies on HRP and WDB have been carried out. Four measures of HRPs (employee security, result-oriented appraisal, career development and compensation practices) coined from Delery and Doty (1996) and Snell and Dean (1992) will be used to measure HRP in this study, these HRPs have been found to be culturally relevant to the context of this study. For instance, Oluwole, Omomona and Mjoli (2020) examined the relationship between job security and counterwork behaviour (sabotage, abuse, withdrawal behaviour and production deviance). Using a sample of 380 employees of banks in Nigeria. it was found that job insecurity showed a positive relationship with these measures of counterwork behaviour. Additionally, Amah (2018), asserted that job insecurity is a major challenge for employees in Nigeria, thereby affecting their engagement in their various organisations. Ugwu (2009), also found out that job insecurity is a predictor of unethical workplace behaviour, the study was

¹ Goldbricking is the practice of doing less work than one is able to, while maintaining the appearance of working.

conducted among 167 employees working in various ministries in Nigeria. In the same vein, the author also affirmed that pay significantly predicted unethical behaviour.

Awoyemi and Bamigbade (2016) examined the role of reward system in predicting employee commitment study amongst the 2040 local government employees in Nigeria. It was revealed that reward system has a positive significant relationship with employee commitment. Ojokuku (2013) revealed that performance appraisal has a strong influence on the motivation and performance of academics in public universities in Nigeria. The study also revealed unfairness in the employee's perception of the appraisal system and therefore suggests a review of the appraisal system and the need for such review to ensure that jobs are adequately captured, evaluated and rewarded. It was also revealed that the issue of pay is also a source of concern for the academics in Nigerian public universities.

These studies have helped to understand that these practices are relevant in the Nigerian system but these studies either examined a single or two HRPs, the additive impact of these HRPs on WDB was not examined. Additionally, few of these studies examined both staff of public universities (academic and non-academic) by focusing on the academics only but it has been proven that the non-academic staff also engage in acts that are detrimental to the workplace. Furthermore, often neglected in HRPs study is how employees perceive HRPs. How an individual perceives HRPs has been affirmed to be a central motivator to explain why employees engage in deviance behaviour (Shamsudin et al., 2014). Consequently, organisations have been urged to focus on individual perception on HRPs rather than the organisations' intended aims. This is because individuals interpret situations differently, their perception will likely relate to their behavioural and attitudinal responses in the workplace (Khilji & Wang 2006; Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider 2008) as reported in (Alfes et al., 2013). Specifically, Guzzo and Noonan (1994) posit that employees' interpretation of HRM are often unintentional and personal, that is, several factors affect how an employee perceive the HRP in use in their organisation. This therefore suggests that to understand how HRP affects employee's behaviour, it is needful that employee's perception of these practices be examined rather than on what the HR policy seems to portray (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). ²Most of the studies on HRPs and WDB have not considered perception of HRPs, this study intends to consider employees' perceptions of HRPs. Therefore, this study intends to examine both the

² Factors influencing individual perception include past experiences, beliefs, values, and individual expectations (Alfes et.al, 2013)

individual and additive impact of employees' perception of HRPs amongst the staff of the public universities in Nigeria. It is, therefore, expedient to understand each of these practices and their relationship with WDB.

3.3.1 Result oriented appraisal

Performance appraisal involves observing, identifying, measuring as well as enhancing the performance of the human resource in the organisation (Carrol & Scheider, 1982). This process could therefore lead to enhanced motivation for the employees. Performance appraisal is useful in identifying employees training needs, career development, solving existing problems, enhance performance and distribution of rewards (Zulfiqar, Khan, Afaq, & Khan, 2013). Mathis and Jackson (1997) identified two roles of performance appraisal. The first role is to measure employee performance for the purpose of distributing rewards and making administrative decisions regarding, promotion, transfers and layoff. Secondly, it helps to get information and feedbacks, such as training needs of employees, potential work behaviour, employee performance and preferred future skills which may be necessary for the future development of the employees. In order to effectively achieve this, the appraiser is expected to stand in the position of a counsellor as against decision maker. Delery and Doty (1996) categorised performance appraisal approaches into two (behaviour-based appraisal and result-oriented appraisals) while Mathis and Jackson (1997) categorised it into three (trait-based rating approach, behaviour-based rating approach and result-oriented based rating approach).

In trait-based approach, the supervisor rates the degree to which the trait exhibited by an employee relates with the job. This approach has been criticised and termed weak on the basis that they are mere subjective assessment, as it is subject to the supervisor's bias (Grint, 2007). Behaviour-based appraisals focus on the behaviours of individuals necessary to perform the job effectively, for instance welcoming customers/clients. Delery and Doty (1996) noted that appraising the behaviour of employees could promote counterproductive behaviour. The third approach is the most widely used and most appropriate of the three approaches (Delery & Doty, 1996; Mathis & Jackson 1997). It focuses merely on appraising the consequences or results of employees' efforts.

Theories supporting result-oriented appraisal are agency theory (Eisenhardt, 1988; Fama, 1980; Fama & Jensen, 1983), transactional cost perspective (Jones & Wright, 1992) and control theory (Snell, 1992). They explained that when the result of these appraisals is made available

at the desired time, it motivates employees to perform more thereby yielding to higher organisational performance. This means its unavailability will make the employees unmotivated and may even lead to acts that could affect the organisation or its members.

Result-oriented appraisals have been affirmed to impact employee job satisfaction positively, thereby leading to increasing commitment to exhibit behaviour that are aligned to the organisational objectives (Kampkkotter, 2016). Specifically, Konradt et al. 2003 found that result-oriented pay and performance related pay are important in determining job satisfaction of digital workers (Curzi, Fabbri, Scapolan, & Boscolo, 2019). Saeed et al. 2014 found that result oriented appraisal do not have significant impact on WDB, while Alshuaibi et al. 2014 found that it does. Also, Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) examined the association between employee's perception of performance appraisal and WDB and found that perception of performance appraisal was negatively associated with WDB. Only a few researches conducted on result-oriented appraisal and WDB, as the majority of studies focused on other variables such as job satisfaction, commitment, productivity, amongst others, therefore, only few examined its impact on WDB. The few also has seen has conflicting effect on WDB, as a result this study, therefore, examines the impact of this practice on WDB.

3.3.2 Internal career opportunity

This refers to the use of internal labour markets, which can be explained as an organisation which, although vested with the right to fill in vacant position with either insiders or outsiders, decides to fill in this vacant position with employees already within the organisation. Organisation's preference for internal members is what is referred to as internal career opportunity (Delery & Doty, 1996). On the other hand, when an organisation decides to fill vacant positions with outsiders, employees tend to perceive this as an attempt to hinder their growth in the organisation, which leads to stress and frustration. When this happens, employees reciprocate this feeling by involving in acts that are harmful to the organisation (Shamsudin et al., 2011). Thus, Allen et al. (2003) aver that supportive HRPs signal management's willingness to invest in and recognise employee capabilities, thereby inducing employee affirmation and reciprocity. It must be noted that internal career opportunity does not only involve filling vacant positions with insiders but also involves giving adequate training to employees such that when such opportunities surface, they can be equipped and have necessary requirements for the job (Steel & Landon, 2010). As argued that the management perception

of HRP differs significantly from employee's perception, thus Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden and Bravo (2011), defined perceived career opportunity as how well employees perceive their career goal and interest aligns with the current work assignment and future job opportunities within their organisations. According to career motivation theory, the behaviour and decisions of employees at work are oftentimes motivated by their career goals (Londons & Mone, 2006). Explaining this Kraimer et al. (2011) noted that employees may be motivated to perform more on the job based on their desire to be considered for a position in the future that is in congruent with their career goals. These goals are not permanent or fixed as it may be influenced as they advance in their career path, by external opportunities, amongst others. Therefore, organisations should not assume that career opportunity only involves movement in a vertical path in the career. When an employee has set career goals and these goals are not met, it leads to frustration and stress. Some leave the job while others stay and as a means of reciprocating this feeling, they involve in acts that may be damaging to the organisation such as withdrawing of efforts, amongst others (Shamsudin et al., 2011).

Arthur (2011) found that organisations that make use of internal labour have less tendencies for their employees to engage in interpersonal deviance. This study did not reveal the impact of such on organisational deviance. This could be because the focus of the study was on interpersonal form of deviance. Nevertheless, studies such as Saeed et al. (2013), reveal that internal career opportunities are negatively linked with both forms of deviance (Saeed et al., 2013). Other studies have also linked internal career opportunities with one form of deviance or the other such as cyberloafing (Alshuaibi et al., 2014), turnover intention and turnover (Steel & Landon, 2010; George & Alex, 2011). Specifically, Steel and Landon (2010) suggested that promotion and transfer could be a means of satisfying the employees desire for change of job, which eventually would lead to reduction in employee turnover.

3.3.3 Employment Security

Employment security explains the employees psychological state and desire for employment stability, continuity and longevity on their jobs (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Davy, Kinicki & Scheck, 1997; Loi, Ngo, Zhang, & Lau, 2011). Colley (2019) noted that the notion of the traditional job security differs from that of employment security in that job security involves an employee holding a particular job or office while employment security goes beyond a particular job to a more general security of attachment to the organisation. Although most

researchers (Lam, Liang, Ashford, & Lee, 2015; Liu, Huang, Wang, & Liu, 2019) use these two words interchangeably referring to the same concept.

The extent to which employees are given employment security has many strategic implications as it reflects the quality of life for the majority of the employees as well as to the organisation (Delery & Doty, 1996; Lam et al., 2015; Sender, Arnold, & Staffelbach, 2016; Shamsudin et al., 2011). Most employees desire their employment on a long-term basis, irrespective of the ongoing change in the workplace (Shore, 2004). Due to the current economic situation even the most senior employees are not free from layoff, nevertheless there are groups of employees who enjoy some sense of security in their jobs than other employees, this could be due to some formal or informal organisational policy (Delery & Doty, 1996). When employees perceive that their desire for security on the job is fulfilled by the employees, an equal exchange is formed, that feeling is reciprocated with positive behaviour (Lam et al., 2015; Sender et al., 2016) but when such desires are not met, employees also reciprocate equally (Colquitt et al., 2014; Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Shamsudin et al., 2011). This reciprocity has been reported to negatively impact employees' attitudes at work as well their performance (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). This is because employees view the workplace as a place of exchange. That is, the employees expect that their expectations are met as a reward for their inputs into the organisation, which employment security is one of these expectations (Kraimer et al., 2005; Shaw et al., 2009).

Previous studies have linked employee security with job performance and showed that it predicted performance (Kraimer et al., 2005; Liu, Kwan, Wu, & Wu, 2010; Lu, Wu, Zu, & Zhang, 2017). Others have linked it with Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), while some found that it had a significant relationship (Dobbins & Gunnigle, 2009; Geary & Trif, 2011; Liu et al., 2019) others found an insignificant positive relationship between both concepts (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015). Specifically, Wong, Wong, Ngo, and Lui (2005) found that the impact of both job insecurity on OCB and performance depends on the type of organisation. On the other hand, few studies (Shamsudin et al., 2011, Alshuaibi et al., 2014) examined the impact of employee's security on WDB. Thus, this study examines the impact of employee's perception of employees' security on WDB as perception of one employee of employment security differs from another employee (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Kraimer et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2019)

3.3.4 Rewards (Pay)

As noted by Gupta and Shaw (2014), reward and compensation are thinly researched measures of the HRP. Tracey (2014) noted that research such as Bamberger and Belogolovsky, (2010); Jawahar and Stone, (2011); Misra, Rana and Dixit (2012) have linked financial rewards and communication on pay processes with employee behaviour, attitudes and performance. Their findings have, however, pointed to the need to understand the mechanism through which this reward and compensation, sometimes referred to as (pay, pay communication, incentives, benefits) affect employee's behaviour, reactions and attitudes. Furthermore, it was discovered that disparity in pay among employees could lead to frustration, thereby leading to employee turnover, low productivity, inequity perception amongst others (Gupta & Shaw 2014; Kuo, 2019).

Wu and Wang (2008) conducted a study on the impact OJ has on employee's pay satisfaction, work attitude and performance and found that OJ influences pay satisfaction among employees. Pay as one of the HRP employed in motivating employees, was found to influence satisfaction. It can be inferred that if employees are not satisfied with their pay, they are dissatisfied. In a bid to reciprocate this feeling, they involve in acts that are negative such as WDB. Few studies have examined the impact of pay on WDB, additionally, from a review of the literature, studies (Igbe et al., 2017) staff of Nigerian public universities are being unfairly treated in terms of pay (therefore this study adds to the literature by examining the impact of pay on WDB in Nigerian public universities.

3.4 HRP and Mediators

Researchers have argued that the relatively small effect HRP have on employee behaviour, can be attributed to other factors other than HRP (Allen et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2019). Specifically, Shamsudin et al. (2011), revealed that only 10% WDB can be explained by HRP and found that other factors needed to be examined that could influence HRP and WDB relationship. Bamberger and Belogolovsky (2010) also pointed to the need to understand the mechanism through which some HRP affect employee's behaviour, attitudes and behaviour. In the same vein, Alfes et al. (2013) also emphasised the need for studies to examine the various mechanism through which HRP impact WDB. Various mediators have been used to examine the relationship between HRP and WDB, such as work intensity (Boekhorst, 2015), OJ (Ko & Hur, 2014; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018; Wang et al., 2015; Zhang & Argawal, 2009), perceived

organisational support (Lin et al., 2016). Wang et al. (2015) found that Job insecurity was significantly negatively related to job performance when OJ was low but had no significant impact when OJ was high. A key factor among these mechanisms is OJ, which is the perception of employees about fair or unfair treatment in the workplace. There are three major forms of OJ, namely procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice. Greenberg (1987) classified interactional justice into two components, namely interpersonal justice and informational justice. This classification gave rise to further classification of the forms of justice into four, namely procedural, distributive, interpersonal and informational justice by some researchers such as (Colquitt et al., 2001). This study, therefore, examines the mediating role of OJ in the HRP and WDB relationship, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

3.5 Summary and concluding remarks

Chapter three provides clarification on HRPs as a concept that emanates from HRM and expounds the link between it and WDB. HRPs being a multidimensional concept, the motivation for the selection of certain dimensions such as the ROA, ICO, RS and ES are highlighted after a review of the relevant literature. There is an incentive for the examination of individual effects of each dimension as well as joint effect of the HRPs on WDB. The chapter further reviewed the mediators of HRPs-WDB, with OJ identified to potentially play a mediating role.

CHAPTER FOUR: ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

4.0 Introduction

The principles of OJ have been recognised as a bedrock for the effective running of an organisation as well as ensuring that employees' personal needs are met (Greenberg, 1990). Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler and Schminke (2001) suggest various reasons why employees join an organisation, one of which may be the desire to satisfy their economic needs, as well as satisfying their socio-emotional needs. Decisions relating to these needs and employees' experiences during these processes, arouse the question of fairness (Colquitt, 2001). Some of these decisions may concern salaries, social environment of the organisation and the job or role performed by individuals (Colquitt, 2001). OJ refers to the extent an employee perceives the employee-organisational relationship to be fair, ethical and equitable (Greenberg 1990; Cropanzano et al., 2007; Malik & Singh, 2014; O'Connor & Crowley-Henry, 2019). OJ emanates from attempts to examine the role of justice in the effective operation of the organisation (Greenberg, 1987, 1990b).

There are three major forms of OJ, namely procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice. Greenberg (1987) classified interactional justice into two components, namely informational justice and interpersonal justice. This classification gave rise to four further classifications of the forms of justice, namely procedural, distributive, informational and interactional justice by some researchers such as Colquitt et al. (2001). OJ, in its various forms, has been linked with several employee behaviours and attitudes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, turnover intentions and, by implication, the WDB. Additionally, it has been suggested that OJ could play an explanatory role in the HRP and WDB relationship. Consequently, this chapter traces the history of OJ in Section 4.1, expounds on the literature on the relationship between organisation justice and HRMPs in Section 4.2 and the mediating role of OJ in HRPs deviance relationship in Section 4.3. The concluding remarks are presented in Section 4.4.

4.1 History of organisational Justice

The concept of justice³ has interested scholars over ages, dating back to ancient times. For

³ Due to scarcity of research on the history of organizational justice, this section is majorly based on Colquitt, Greenberg and Zapata-Phelan (2005) and Byrne and Cropanzano (2001)

example, Aristotle was the pioneer of investigations on what constitutes fair distribution of resources amongst individuals (Ross, 1925). Justice theories emanated from existing theories of social justice, such as the equity theory proposed by Adams (1963) and distributive justice theory proposed by Homans (1961). Although the issue of justice has been a major source of concern in various fields and disciplines and issues of life (Colquitt et al., 2005), yet the focus of this study would be on justice in the workplace.

Justice in the workplace did not gain much attention until the mid-20th century when organisational behaviour and HRM began to apply psychological practices in understanding the organisational settings (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Buren, 2008). These applications helped to understand justice in the workplace better. Thus, OJ can be said to stem majorly from the social psychology field as the majority of its proponents had social psychology background. These pioneers in the study of OJ brought the application of their fields to the organisational setting. For instance, the study by Folger (1986) emanated from laboratory imitation, that of Thaibut and Walker (1975) emanated from studying the court room, while some organisational studies were also products of experiments (Adams, 1965; Homans, 1965). OJ gained traction as a separate field of psychology investigation following the seminar works of Robert Bies, Robert Folger, Jerald Greenberg, Allan Lind and Tom Tyler (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001, p. 4). Greenberg (1987, 1990b) averred that an attempt to examine the influence of justice on effective running of the organisation should be conceptualized as OJ. Notably, procedural justice, which led to the eventual growth of OJ amongst researchers was coined by Folger and Greenberg (1985).

OJ was initially conceptualised as a single construct, that is, distributive justice which is rooted in the equity theory of Adams (1976) and justice judgment model of Leventhal (1976). To understand individuals' experience of (in)justice at work, researchers have argued that it was insufficient to solely consider fairness in terms of outcomes, as a result, researchers began exploring other forms of justice (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007). With time, OJ developed into a multi-facet construct as researchers in the organisational behaviour field continued to include and examine further measures of justice (Qu, 2017). To understand the origin of OJ, it become needful to understand the waves of research in OJ. Due to scant recent research on the history of OJ, this review is going to be majorly based on Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) and Colquitt, et al. (2005) who reviewed three waves and four waves, respectively. These scholars' writings have consistently been referred to by researchers (Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, & Chu, 2015;

Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Cropanzano, Fortin, & Kirk, 2015; Kiersch & Byrne, 2015; Moon, 2017; Rupp, Shapiro, Folger, Skarlicki, & Shao, 2017). The former included the dearth of research in the era of research in justice and the era of two forms of justice, namely procedural and distributive, while the latter reviewed the era of the four forms of justice, that is, procedural, distributive, interpersonal and informational justice. This study, therefore, examines these eras or waves and how they emanated to what is now called OJ.

4.1.1 Relative deprivation (RD) wave

What is relative deprivation (RD)? What does this research communicate to give it much influence? In order to know these answers, we need to understand what it communicates. Two things are important; Crosby (1984) explained it as the negative feeling that comes as a result of seeing oneself as less advantaged to other persons when comparing status quo. Secondly, RD also discusses theories guiding how individual makes comparison and its effect. RD explains that individuals compare their outcome based on the standard they have formed, which is not but connected to that of a referent (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). The early RD's theorist proposed that individual anticipate some outcome for their efforts or inputs, in setting standards for their expectation they compare their input and outcome with that of one who they perceive is similar. When there is discrepancy in their expectation and outcome received, it results into a negative feeling of anger and resentment (Pettigrew, 1967). The main argument of relative deprivation is that the value an individual places on outcome is based on the individual's comparison with others and not based on an objective judgement (Crosby 1984; Kulik & Ambrose, 1992).

To further understand the relative deprivation era, Colquitt et. al. (2005) explains the experiment carried out on two groups of soldiers, namely the military police (MP) and the air corps (AC), during World War II by Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star and Williams (1949). They found out that the promotion rate of these two groups of soldiers differed, even with the same degree and length of service, specifically the MP had 34% chance while the AC had 56% chance of being promoted to the position of a non-commissioned officer. One would expect that if these two groups of soldiers were to judge the promotion system the MP would compare their promotion with that of the AC. It was surprising to find out that the MP officers aspired greatly to get promoted and any chance of getting promotion made them feel superior to their MP counterparts because the rate of promotion is low, while the AC did not feel much

superiority because getting promotion is not rare. As a result, delay in promotion to the AC did not bring as much frustration as for the MP. In the same vein, Stouffer et al. (1949) also compared African-American soldiers deployed to the north and those deployed to the south. They found that those deployed to the south had a better perception and feeling when compared to those deployed to the north. Findings revealed these soldiers compared their pay, not with each other, but with the civilians they were living with. What actually motivated the soldiers in the north was that they compared themselves to the civilians in the community they lived in and because the income level of the civilians in the south was low the soldiers felt superior and more motivated by comparison. The northern soldiers did not feel elated or in high spirits, as their level of income and status when compared to that of the civilians they lived with did not differ much. This finding helped to understand that individuals do not judge their outcome absolutely on a particular level, rather they compare their outcome with those of individuals they feel are similar to them, which may or may not be in the same job as them.

RD theory was not without its limitations, Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) highlight the criticism against RD. They note researcher arguments of RD being more of a broad idea as against a well-structured theory. Specifically, they report that Tyler, in an interview, argued if RD was ever a justice theory but acknowledged that it formed basis for further development of justice theories. The fact that an individual sees others as more advantaged may make such feel unlucky but may not necessarily be unfair (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Lind & Tyler 1992). Less pay should also not be seen as injustice (Van den boss, Wilke, Lind, & Vermunt, 1998); these researchers argued that a breach of ethical standard must have occurred before injustice can be said to have occurred. These limitations gave rise to more research being conducted.

4.1.2 Distributive wave

Researchers have long understood that employees' concerns extend beyond what the absolute level of their outcomes/reward (e.g., pay or promotions) are, but also with the extent to which those outcomes/rewards are fair when compared to others (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007). Attempt to find out if decisions about allocation of outcome or reward follows the laid-out norms of equality or equity is distributive justice. The distributive wave gave rise to OJ (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt, 2012). Colquitt et al. (2005) note that distributive justice stemmed from discrepancies in the way and manner employees are treated in the workplace, right from

the recruitment process, through pay rise, promotion, to the point of leaving the organisation. This differentiation in the workplace therefore led to concerns for the need to seek redress fairness, which prompted distributive justice studies. Distributive justice assesses the fairness of distribution of outcome (Deutsch, 1985). The distributive wave period spanned between 1950-1970, this does not mean that it is not relevant to this time but during this 30 years period it was a source of concern for the social scientist (Colquitt et al., 2005). This study reviews/examines the proponents of distributive justice below.

4.1.2.1 Homans, 1961: Social Exchange

Building on the relative deprivation theory, Homans (1961) formulated his theory on distributive wave, this was a build-up on his previous study 'Social Behaviour as Exchange' Homans (1958) where he conceptualised social exchange. He defined social exchange as a process in which a person's action impacts on another either by a form of reward or punishment. He further suggested five systematic propositions of social behaviour built up on the idea of reward and punishment, satiation, aggression and approval, deprivation and cost and profit.

Homans (1961) social exchange, can be explained using this scenario. A person in an exchange relation with another, gives incurring a cost and expects to receive a reward, as this exchange continues, the value placed on the reward becomes less. Over time, an individual begins to compare its reward with its cost in a bid to determine the value/profit derived from the exchange relation (Colquitt et al., 2005). This attempt by an individual to ensure that his/her reward is fairly commensurate with its cost, is called the rule of distributive justice. "A man in an exchange relation with another will expect that the rewards of each man be proportional to his costs—the greater the rewards, the greater the costs—and that the net rewards, or profits, of each man be proportional to his investments—the greater the investments, the greater the profit." (Homans 1961, p. 75). Consequent upon this, distributive injustice occurs when individual perceive a shortfall in his/her reward in comparison with its cost, this result in anger while if the cost fall short the reward may result in guilt. Although Homans, failed to highlight the behavioural effect of distributive justice, he merely specified that it could make individual abandon the exchange or find ways of ensuring equity (Colquitt et al., 2005). Worthy of note is that due to individual perceptual differences and bias, individuals may make differing inferences about distributive justice (Homans, 1961).

4.1.2.2 Blau (1964): The role of expectation

Blau (1964) notes that the satisfaction a person derives from an exchange relationship is largely dependent on the outcome received which is relative to what each party expects from the exchange (Colquitt et al., 2005). Although most of the distributive justice notion found in Homans (1961) can also be found in Blau (1964) argument of exchange relationship, yet there are still some distinguishing contributions. First, they distinguished between different forms of expectation, which are general expectation, motivated by prevailing norms and standards of the society and particular expectation which is dependent on certain beliefs about the exchange partners. The beliefs about the exchange partner, includes, the partner would conform to acceptable standards, the rewards provided by the partner would be competitive and not obtainable in other exchange relationships. The particular expectation served as a pointer to the procedural and interactional justice.

The third expectation is the comparative expectation, which explains that individuals compare their rewards with that of other partners in similar exchanges. These three expectations describe fair exchange (Colquitt et al., 2005). Furthermore, Blau (1964), describes two types of exchanges, namely economic and social exchanges. The former describes exchange of materials, these relationships are contractual and the specific quantities to be exchanged are stipulated in advance. In the latter the reward is not specified but it forms a future obligation and the form of exchange is such that it is left at the discretion of the exchange partner, it cannot be bargained. Due to its futuristic nature, social exchange is based on trust that the exchange partner will eventually fulfil his/her obligation. Blau (1964) also emphasised the importance of fairness when creating a social exchange relationship. This emphasis had contributed immensely to the growth of research on justice, for instance Cropanzano et al. (2001) amongst other researchers have often used social exchange to explain work behaviour (Colquitt et al., 2005).

4.1.2.3 Adams (1965): Equity theory

Researchers traced distributive justice to equity theory (Adams, 1965). Distributive justice was referred to as equity (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005; Miller, Konopaske, & Byrne, 2011). This theory suggests that individuals compare their input/efforts and outcome/reward ratio to that of relevant referent, this comparison forms their perception of how fair the outcome they receive (distributive justice) is (Miller et al., 2011). The theory built

on Homans (1961) distributive justice proposition by outlining exact and diverse responses to dissatisfaction, meanwhile Homans (1961) limited his discussion of the impact of lack of fairness on satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2005). Adams (1965) expanded on this theory by asking questions such as, is dissatisfaction simply a means of expression for an individual who feels unfairly treated? Are there no other consequences of this unfair exchanges? What do we understand unpredictable behaviour to mean?

Specifically, equity theory explained that individuals rationally evaluate and compare the ratio difference between its input and outcome with that of another person (Adams & Freedman, 1976). These inputs range from age, social status, intelligence, training, seniority, experience, ethnic background and efforts expended on the job while outcomes include, intrinsic rewards, pay, fringe benefits, status symbols, seniority benefits, satisfactory supervision, job status and a range of formally and informally authorised bonuses (Adams 1965). The theory maintained that inequity generates a psychological feeling of distress and tension that make individuals seek means of restoring balance (Adams, 1963, 1965). Specifically, individuals are satisfied when there is balance in their comparison with others but when imbalance occurs, referred to as underpayment inequity there is a feeling of anger and they tend to lower their contribution (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). It also addressed the situation that the ratio of the outcome to input is higher, referred to as overpayment inequity, such result in a feeling of guilt. Individuals in this case make efforts to adjust their contribution to ensure equity. Equity theory, resulted into flood of research and was widely accepted as a justice theory, because during the time the theory was introduced, organisations were faced with agitations from workers who felt dissatisfied with their pay and promotion, so the theory came just at the time it was most needed (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001)

Despite its tremendous input into justice theory, equity theory was not without its limitation. The first criticism was the indistinct descriptions of the outcome and input terms, as some of its variables, such as work responsibility was intertwined with other terms (Pritchard, 1969). The theory also did not specify those who would be included in the comparison, who are the other people and what forms the basis of their comparison. Another criticism was how testable the theory is? Lastly, the criticism that it failed to examine the impact of the interpersonal treatment received during the process of enacting outcome on individual. These criticisms led to procedural justice, as major early procedural justice researchers continued to contend the

equity theory, but it should be noted that equity theory brought a major breakthrough in OJ (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001).

4.1.2.4 Walster, Barscheid and Walster, 1973: Equity Theory Revised

Improving on Adam (1965) equity theory, Walster et al. (1973), suggested two improvements needed in the equity theory. First, they noted that when dealing with negative inputs the formula suggested by the equity theory may be counterintuitive of the formula for calculating the equity ratio which leads to illogical predictions. Secondly, they went further to divide inequity restoration into two forms, which Adams could not painstakingly develop (Colquitt et al., 2005). These two forms are: (a) restoring 'actual equity'. The individual underpaid may be compensated by being asked to reduce his input. Another strategy is to adjust one's outcome to the level of the exchange partner; what this means is that both parties can adjust their outcome and input to the level of the other partner who is experiencing under or over equity.

The second method proposed by Walster et al. (1973) in restoring equity is (b) restoring equity by altering reality. This suggests the party who is underpaying, referred to as the 'harm doer' may restore equity by exaggerating the outcome of the other party who is the victim of underpayment or try to in his mind minimise his own outcome. This in a way alters reality in his mind, as a result he can argue to himself that what was initially regarded as inequity is now equitable. Some of the methods used by the harm doer to alter reality are derogating the victim, or minimizing the suffering of the victim, or denying responsibility for the suffering of the victim (Walster et al., 1973). Distinguishing between these two forms of equity restoration, it was explained that individuals who are overpaid seeks to restore equity psychologically, in a bid to ensuring that their outcome is maintained, while one who is underpaid seeks to restore actual equity behaviourally, these individuals seek for a raise in their outcome.

Although the Walster et al. (1973) theory is less being used in the OJ literature, its contribution to understanding organisational setting is worth mentioning. Some of the issues it raises in relation to fair allocation of non-monetary outcome are of importance in the workplace (Greenberg, 1996). It also revealed the exploitative tendencies when there is imbalance in power. Furthermore, it helped to understand that workers behaviourally adjust to restore equity. This understanding may help managers understand employee's behaviour in the workplace. Lastly, the equity theory version helped inspire research in interpersonal treatment experience even beyond the work settings (Colquitt et al., 2005). Despite its contribution to understanding

the workplace setting, there were criticism to the theory. Critics of this theory argued that both the overpaid and underpaid can use both behavioural adjustment and psychological altering of reality to restore equity (Greenberg, 1988; 1989). Another criticism also comes from the formula suggested as an improvement to the equity theory, researchers argued that the formula was characterised with over assumption as it failed to reveal ways of combining inputs that remained unsettled (Colquitt et al., 2005). These developments led to Adams and Freedman (1976) admitting that there were problems with quantifying experienced inequity.

4.1.2.5 Leventhal, (1976a, 1976b) and Deutsch, (1975): Multiple Allocation Norms

Building on Adams (1965) and Walster et al. (1973) equity theory, Leventhal (1976b) shifted the focus of the justice literature from individual reaction to perceived inequity, to behaviour of the reward allocators. In distributing rewards, questions such as principles followed to ensure equity are to be asked. Leventhal (1976a) explained that the aim of allocators of rewards is to direct efforts of individuals towards achievement of group goal. Leventhal (1976a) defined allocation of distribution norms as “a social rule which specifies criteria that define certain distributions of rewards and resources as fair and just” (p. 94). This allocation of distribution norms as proposed by equity theory was just a rule which Leventhal, (1976a, 1976b) and Deutsch, (1975) argued that applying one rule or principle to determine fairness of allocation of rewards was often not suitable, most especially in a non-financial socio-emotional relation. They further argued that the equity rule did not foster interpersonal harmony and socio-economic relation as it requires that each individual contribution be distinguished, explaining that when the focus of allocator is on. According to Karuza and Leventhal (1976), Leventhal (1976b) proposed three fairness rules as against equity theory that proposed equity rule based on comparison of contribution, these three rules are on the basis of needs, which is distributing rewards based on needs of individuals. Secondly, equality, which translates into equally dividing rewards and thirdly, contribution rule, that is matching rewards with contribution. These rules were judged to be the distributive rule that will aid fair perception of rewards allocation. Consequent upon this study, studies have emanated with different numbers of rules that should guide fairness of allocation of rewards, it has increased from one, three, four till about 17 rules (Karuza & Leventhal, 1976; Lerner, 1977).

4.1.3 Procedural Justice wave

The procedural justice wave came with utmost importance and as a proof that there was something more to equity theory (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). Procedural justice describes the perception of fairness of procedures and processes used in deciding an outcome (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). The idea of a rational individual seeking to maximise profit guided the relative deprivation and distributive justice wave, but justice theorist began to see that individuals not only care about their rewards but also how they are being treated. What prompted the procedural justice wave was the question of what needed to be done to equity theory proposed by Leventhal (1980). The question came as a result of the criticism against the equity theory, noting its failure to consider the process that led to the distribution of outcome. Prior to that time, researchers had only been speculating the need for procedural fairness to be considered in the justice literature. They argued the need for investigation of the processes leading to the distribution of outcome (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). For instance, Blau (1964) posits that there are codes of conducts that are acceptable to the exchange partner. Likewise, Leventhal (1976b) gave a caution to the assumption that individuals are only concerned with the allocation of outcome, he stated that also of importance to an individual is how well the information that resulted into the allocation was framed. In the same vein, Deutsch (1975) pointed that in a social relationship, it is important to consider the fairness of the procedures deployed by the allocators of outcome. Leventhal (1980) in proposing procedural justice was inspired by the work of Thibaut and Walker (1975).

4.1.3.1 Thibaut and Walker (1975): Fairness in Dispute Procedures

Thibaut and Walker (1975) wrote on procedural justice by observing the legal settings. They suggest that the outcome fairness and the process fairness are independent and should be separated (Colquitt, 2001). Specifically, they consider two forms of legal systems, namely the adversarial system used in Great Britain and the United States and the inquisitorial system used in Europe. These two legal systems have varying characteristics. For instance, in the adversarial system the presentation of evidence in cases are not controlled by the judge, only the judgment is controlled by the judge, while the inquisitorial system, the judge controls both. Their major goal aside comparing the ability of each of the system to provide an objectively fair procedure was the perception of fairness of the outcome. In order to access this, a business imitation study was conducted in a laboratory, where students were to act as competitors and were given the

option of spying at each other's product name. If the other party charges for spying, a trial process would be set up to determine who is guilty or innocent and what the verdict would be under the two forms of legal systems.

Under the adversarial system the disputing parties were allowed to choose their attorney from two legal students, who would argue the degree of similarity of the product's names. Under the inquisitorial system, the judge was the one who decided than an attorney should argue for both disputing parties. Their main focus was to assess the perception of the procedures that led to the judgment and also to judge how satisfied the parties are with the judgment. Regardless of the judgment passed, judging the process that led to the judgment, the disputing parties noted that the adversarial system was fair as it affords them the opportunity to choose an attorney to speak on their behalf while they perceived the inquisitorial system to be unfair because they did not have control over the process that led to the verdict or judgement. To judge the main effect of the judgment, the study revealed that the party who got the innocent judgment felt satisfied. The major contribution of this finding is that it helped to understand that the outcome and process of a decision are perceived independently. That individual's behaviours are majorly driven by the procedures leading to their outcome not just the outcome. Thibaut and Walker (1975) stress that for procedures to be perceived as just, individual desire to have much control over the process leading to their outcome, with a comparative little control of the allocator or decision maker.

Thibaut and Walker (1975) proposed two conditions for procedural justice according to Colquitt (2001) "process control (e.g., the ability to voice one's views and arguments during a procedure) and decision control (e.g., the ability to influence the actual outcome itself)" (p. 388). Of these two criteria, the process control criteria have earned large support in the justice literature (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

4.1.3.2 Leventhal (1976): "Fairness in Allocation Procedures"

As mentioned earlier, the work of Thibaut and Walker (1975) inspired researchers to begin to argue that the distributive justice models needed to be augmented to assess the processes involved in allocation (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). Leventhal (1976, 1980) brought the argument for the relevance of procedural justice in the contexts of allocation, just as it was considered to be relevant in solving dispute. He noted that procedural justice can be categorised as the second form of justice. Procedural justice as defined by Leventhal (1980) is "an

individual's belief that allocative procedure which satisfy certain criteria are fair and appropriate" (p. 30). Procedural justice is assessed when an individual compares its process to some generalizable rules, if the rule is equitably applied then such can be termed to be fair (Colquitt, 2001). Leventhal, (1980); Leventhal et al. (1980) specified some procedural rules, which would assist in answering these questions of fairness of a procedure: Is the procedure consistent, that is, is it applicable to everyone and at any given time (consistency)? Is the process not influenced by the decision makers (bias-free)? Is there a platform for appealing procedures with bad outcome (correctability)? How accurate is the information available during procedures enactment (information accuracy)? How well are those influenced by the procedures represented (representation)? The representative rule embodies the Thibaut and Walker (1975) rule of process control. Does the procedure uphold ethical and moral standards (ethicality)?

As against Thibaut who noted that procedural justice was key in determining individual's behaviour and attitude. Leventhal (1980); Leventhal et al., (1980) opined that both procedural and distributive justice were minor determinants of the behaviour and attitudes of individuals. This argument prompted researchers to begin examining the effect of procedural justice (Colquit et al., 2005).

4.1.4 Interactional justice wave

Thibaut and Walker (1975) comparison of the adversarial and the inquisitorial court procedures gave a pointer to interactional justice but procedural researchers paid no attention to its importance or did not imagine it could lead to a new wave in the justice literature until in the 1980s when Bies and Moag (1986) introduced the interactional wave. Colquitt et al. (2005) explained that it was only used as a term in Bies and Shapiro (1987). Bies and Moag (1986) inspired by the result of a study conducted on job applicants who were asked to express their opinion on the fairness of recruitment process observed that there three sides to fairness as against the initial two. That is applicants were concerned about the decision made, the procedures through which decisions were made and the interpersonal treatment received while the procedure was ongoing. The duo opined that interpersonal treatment differs from the structuring of procedures (Colquitt et al., 2005), this argument, therefore, gave birth to interactional justice (Colquitt, 2012). Bies and Moag (1986) defined it as the degree of fairness of the interpersonal treatment an individual receives from an authority figure while enacting

procedures that determines their outcome. The authors focused on interpersonal treatment which is later to be termed interpersonal sensitivity (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2007). Bies and Moag (1986), further suggested rules that are needful to guide authorities in their interpersonal relationship with subordinates, as revealed in Colquitt et al. (2005), these rules are:

- Truthfulness: honesty and candidness in communication, while implementing procedures
- Justification: Adequate explanation for the outcomes received by employees
- Respect: Need for treatment with sincerity, dignity and refraining from attacking or being rude to others.
- Propriety: Avoidance of questions that could bring bias, such as sex, religion, age, race, amongst others.

Later on, Greenberg argued that the first two rules (truthfulness and justification) be distinguished from the other two rules (respect and propriety). As a result the interactional justice was divided into two, the first two rules were conceptualised as informational justice while the last two rules were conceptualised as interpersonal justice (Colquitt, 2012).

There was a continuous argument as to the distinction between interactional and procedural justice, specifically researchers such as (Folger & Greenberg 1985; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Blader, 2000) argued that interactional justice be incorporated into the procedural justice. Contrary to this, researchers have also argued that procedural justice is best left at examining the fairness of procedures while interactional justice should focus on the relationship. Specifically, Moorman, (1991) study eventually gave rise to the acceptance of interpersonal justice as a third type of justice, while Colquitt, (2001) study finally validated the proposed splitting of interpersonal justice into two, namely informational justice and interpersonal justice as initially proposed by Greenberg, (1993b)

4.2 Organisational Justice and workplace deviance

OJ has been linked with several employee behaviour and attitudes such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Jnaneswar & Ranjit, 2022; Moorman, 1991; Rahman & Karim, 2022), turnover intentions (for instance, Alyahya, Elshaer, & Sobaih, 2021; Daileyl & Kirk, 1992; Zhang & Agarwal, 2009) and WDB. It represents a situational based antecedent of WDB (Henle, 2005) and has been recognised as an important predictor of WDB

(Abbasi et al., 2020; Bennett & Robinson, 2000a; Dora & Azim, 2019; Fox & Spector, 1999; Holtz & Harold, 2013). Oluwole, Aderibigbe and Mjoli (2020), amongst several researchers proposed that one of the ways employees react to inequity or failure of the employers to fulfil their obligation to the employees is by involving in WDB. By this they believe they will be able to get even with the organisation. Additionally, employees appraise the fairness of their outcome, procedures, interactions within the organisation and what they perceive to be better done in other organisations which is yet to be embraced in their organisation (Osibanjo et al., 2015). If they perceive inequality or inequity, the feeling of frustration, anger, job dissatisfaction and lack of trust often develop, which may result in employees engaging in acts that are harmful to the organisation and their co-workers (Dora & Azim, 2019; Jerald Greenberg, 1993; Oluwole et al., 2020). The principle of retributive justice helps to understand the link between injustice and WDB. This principle explains that individual who perceives injustice seeks to get back and inflict harm on the offender, as a means of getting even (Holtz & Harold, 2013; Khattak et al., 2019; Okimoto, Wenzel, & Feather, 2009).

Studies have suggested that the forms of justice impact WDB differently (Abbasi et al., 2020), for instance some studies have suggested that distributive and procedural justice are negative linked with organisational deviance, while others have argued that it impacts both organisational and interpersonal deviance. In the same vein, the majority of studies have found that interactional justice is negatively linked with interpersonal deviance, arguing that interactional justice stems from relationship with others and therefore when injustice is perceived in this regard victims tend to vent their anger and/or frustration on the sources of injustice. Thus, this study examines arguments on these forms of justice and their relationship with WDB.

4.2.1 Distributive justice and workplace deviance

Distributive justice refers to perceived fairness of the distribution of the outcome received (Adams, 1965). It explains the level to which employee perceives the distribution of outcomes such as rewards, promotion to be fair (Colquitt, 2001; Sabokro, Tavakoli, & Malmiri, 2020). This type of justice was founded on the assumption that outcome or reward stirs the reaction and behaviour, individuals exhibit in the social world (Ghosh, Rai, & Sinha, 2014). Three rules have been found to guide distributive justice, they are equity, equality and needs (Cropanzano, Fortin, & Kirk, 2015). Equity theory has often been used to explain distributive justice, which

explains that individual compare their outcome with their input, if inequality is perceived, they seek to balance the inequity and one of the ways of balancing inequity is engaging in WDB (Alyahya et al., 2021; Henle, 2005; Pan, Chen, Hao, & Bi, 2018). The equality rule is often used when group harmony is the goal. It could be used to share profit or loss equally. The last rule is need, which explains that there are some outcomes that are received only by those who need them; for instance, sick leave can only be enjoyed by an employee who is sick, while those who are healthy need no such leave (Cropanzano et al., 2015).

Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) suggested that equity theory is not only useful in explaining distributive justice but also useful in explaining all the other forms of justice as well. Based on arguments in the literature, it has become necessary to link the forms of justice to specific forms of deviance (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). That is, since distributive justice has to do with outcomes, which is decided by the organisation, therefore harming the organisation in attempt to seek equity would bring satisfaction to such victim of injustice (Hastings & Finegan, 2011; Tziner & Vasiliu, 2020). Specifically, Ambrose (2002) found a correlation between distributive justice and sabotage at work while, Berry et al. (2007) found a 0.12 correlation between distributive justice and organisational deviance. On the contrary, other researchers have also found that distributive justice impacts not only deviance targeted at the organisation but also deviance targeted at individuals in the organisation. For instance, Henle (2005) found that distributive justice impacted the two forms of WDB. This was because in seeking equity, the employee, seeks to harm the source of the inequity, either an organisation or individual. Additionally, Greenberg and Barling (1999) found that distributive justice also relates with supervisor's directed aggression. Based on this argument in the literature, this study, therefore, examines the impact of distributive form of justice on both organisational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian tertiary institutions.

H1a: Distributive justice is negatively related with organisational deviance.

H1b: Distributive justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance.

4.2.2 Procedural Justice and workplace deviance

Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the procedures used in allocating employee's outcome (Cropanzano et al., 2015; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). It has been revealed that the fairness of the process of allocation is often times of more significance than the distribution of the outcome itself (Cropanzano et al., 2015). When rules guiding employees' judgment of fair

procedures are not followed, they tend to engage in acts that are detrimental to the organisation. Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found that procedural injustice has a significant relation with retaliatory behaviours, while Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found that procedural justice best predicted WDB. Retaliatory behaviour in this sense does not necessarily mean against the organisation, the employee may also retaliate on the individuals in the organisation. Berry et al. (2007) found a -0.21 correlation between procedural justice and organisational deviance, Abbasi et al. (2020) found an insignificant relationship between procedural justice and WDB. Despite this argument for procedural justice as the best predictor of WDB, researchers, such as (Henle, 2005; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018) suggested that all the forms of justice could be linked with WDB. Specifically, Henle (2005) on the other hand found that the relationship between procedural justice and organisational deviance is small nonetheless significant. In order to contribute to the literature on the justice-specific deviance argument, this study also examines the relationship between procedural justice and the two forms of WDB.

H2a: Procedural justice is negatively related with organisational deviance.

H2b: Procedural justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance.

4.2.3 Interactional justice and workplace deviance

Interactional justice refers to the treatment employees receive while procedures leading to their outcome is being enacted (Bies, Moag, Lewicki, Sheppard, & Bazerman, 1986). Specifically, individual perceives fair interpersonal treatment by the degree to which they are being treated with dignity, respect, sensitivity, truthfulness, politeness and how well explanations are provided for decisions relating to them (Alyahya et al., 2021; Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Colquitt, 2001; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Jerald Greenberg, 1990). Interactional justice also entails the manner in which information are shared and communicated and it is divided into two forms of justice, which are interpersonal and informational justice (Greenberg & Cropanzano, 1993). Interpersonal justice relates to the respect and dignity received from superiors while informational justice relates to how honestly and promptly are employees informed on matters affecting them (O'Connor & Crowley-Henry, 2019).

Interpersonal justice is mostly important in shaping employee's behaviour, due to the day-to-day interaction amongst employees (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006). Specifically, employees regard interpersonal justice to be more important when compared to other forms of justice (Bies, 2005). SET (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) explains that

individuals reciprocate the treatment they receive, either good or bad. Therefore, when employees perceive they are being treated unfairly, they tend to reciprocate with WDB (Holtz & Harold, 2013; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tziner & Vasiliu, 2020). Some meta-analytical analyses support the relationship that exist between interpersonal justice and WDB (Berry et al., 2007; Colquitt et al., 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Specifically, Masterson et al. (2000) suggested that interactional justice would be specifically linked with interpersonal deviance, as individuals are basically the source of this form of deviance. Against these findings, Berry et al. (2007) found that interactional justice had a lower correlation (-0.19) with interpersonal deviance when compared with other forms of justice. Overall, researchers (Aquino et al., 2004; Colquitt et al., 2001; Henle, 2005; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018) have found that interactional justice is linked with overall deviance although they acknowledged that interactional justice predicted deviance better than all other forms of justice. As a result of the argument in the literature, this study examines the effect of interactional justice (interpersonal and informational) on both organisational and interpersonal deviance.

H3a: Interpersonal justice is negatively related with organisational deviance.

H3b: Informational justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance.

H3c: Interpersonal justice is negatively related with organisational deviance.

H3d: Informational justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance.

4.3 Mediating role of organisational justice in HRPs and workplace deviance relationship

Researchers have argued that the relatively small effect HRPs have on employee behaviour, can be attributed to other factors other than HRPs (Allen et al., 2003). In this context, it is imperative to examine the mechanism through which HRP's would impact WDB (Alfes et al., 2013). Shamsudin et al. 2011 averred that OJ could play an explanatory role in the HRP and WDB relationship. For instance, distributive justice is concerned with ensuring that material outcomes (such as rewards, benefits and employment conditions, which are HRPs) are fairly distributed, whereas procedural justice concerns itself with fair processes which is associated with enjoying social and relational benefits, such as career development, employee participation (Cropanzano & Schminke 2001). Specifically, Colquitt et al. (2005), noted that distributive justice stemmed from discrepancies in the way and manner employees are treated in the workplace, right from the recruitment process, through pay rise, promotion, to the point

of leaving the organisation. The differentiation in these outcomes led to concerns for the need to seek redress, which prompted distributive justice studies. Furthermore, findings by Frenkel, Bednall and Restubog (2012) (2012) also revealed that HRP is positively related to procedural and distributive justice. Specifically, Hodson and Roscigno (2004) suggests that employees view decision making process as being fair when HRPs consistently and equitably uphold employee self-esteem thereby regulating the behaviour of management. Zhang and Argawal (2009) examined the mediating role of OJ on the HRPs and organisational citizenship behaviour and found that certain HRPs were positively related to procedural and distributive justice and both impact organisational citizenship behaviour although with a varying effect.

Few studies have examined OJ as a mediating variable between HRPs and deviant behaviour. Wu and Wang (2008) conducted a study on the impact that OJ has on employee's pay satisfaction, work attitude and performance and found that OJ influences pay satisfaction among employees. Pay as one of the HRPs employed in motivating employees, was found to influence satisfaction. It can be inferred that if employees are not satisfied with their pay, they are dissatisfied. In a bid to reciprocate this feeling, they involve in acts that are negative. Consequently, it can be assumed that a relationship exists between HRPs, OJ and WDB.

Wu and Xiao (2014) examined the mediating role of OJ on the relationship between discretionary HRPs and OCB and found that OJ mediated the assumed relationship. Frenkel et al. (2012) also examined the mediating roles of organisational identity, two forms of OJ, namely distributive and procedural in the relationship between HRPs and extra-role behaviour. Given the mediating role of OJ in the relationship between HRP and OCB, its mediating role in the relationship between HRPs and WDB is suggestive. Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) examined the association between employee's perception of performance appraisal and WDB by mediating this effect with OJ. They found out that perception of performance appraisal was negatively associated with WDB and that OJ mediated the relationship between HRP and WDB, especially, interactional justice. However, their study examined only one of the measures of HRPs. As a result of limited studies on the mediating role of OJ on HRP and WDB relationship, this study aims to add to the body of knowledge by examining the mediating role of OJ in the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB in tertiary institutions.

4.5 Summary and concluding remarks

In chapter four, a review of the history of OJ was carried out, followed by the review of the empirical literature on the relationship between organisation justice and HRPs. Studies suggest that various forms of justice impact WDB differently. It was also learnt that most authors studied the interactional justice as a construct despite its division into two sub-constructs (interpersonal and informational). These discoveries informed the study of individual effects of four dimensions of justice on each type of WDB on one hand as well as joint effect on the other hand. In relation to the previous chapter, it was further revealed that OJ could play a mediating role in the HRPs-WDB relationship, but relevant studies are scarce.

CHAPTER FIVE: PERSONALITY, ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND WORKPLACE DEVIANCE

5.0 Introduction

The link amongst personality, OJ and WDB has been based on the argument that employees who are aggrieved or feels an inequity in the way they are treated, often attempts to retaliate with an act that is harmful to the organisation (Henle, 2005). Expressing of grievances by resorting to deviant behaviour is rooted in social exchange theory. However, studies (de Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Henle, 2005; Holtz & Harold, 2013) reveal that not all individuals will reciprocate such feelings with deviant behaviour. Hence, whether an employee will react defiantly or not is a function of many variables. These variables entail perceived normative conflict, psychological factors, interpersonal justice, value and orientation and personality traits (de Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Fox & Spector, 1999; Henle, 2005; Holtz & Harold, 2013). Of the above-mentioned factors is personality trait, which has been affirmed to be an important predictor of WDB and reports a higher criterion-related validity relative to other predictors (Berry et al., 2007; Salgado, 2002).

Subsequently, this chapter examines the literature on personality, its meaning, types of personality traits and the relationship between personality and OJ. This is followed by the review of the literature on the interaction between personality and OJ and its resultant effect on WDB. Lastly, the chapter presents the summary and concluding remarks.

5.1 Personality

Larsen and Buss (2005) refer to individual personality trait refers as “the set of psychological traits and mechanisms within the individual that are organised and relatively enduring and that influence his or her interactions with and adaptations to, the intrapsychic, physical and social environments” (p. 4). In the same vein, the American Psychological Association (2019) defined personality as what differentiates a person’s thoughts, feelings and behaviour from that of another. According to Soutter, Bates and Möttus (2020), factors such as the belief, attitude displayed, motivation and values, amongst others are measures of an individual personality. These measures of personality can be used to describe an individual as either being gentle, sincere, talkative, amongst others. Further, McCrae and Costa Jr (1995) suggest that personality influences the patterns of feelings, thoughts and behaviours of individual and these patterns are

relative. Specifically, McCrae (2000) posits that due to the relative stability of these patterns, personality of an individual is considered to be consistent and predictable over time as they develop into adulthood. Understanding why individuals differ in these behavioural traits and the consequences of such differences have been a major concern for the personality psychologist (Lee, 2012). The ability of an individual's personality trait to influence their behaviour across varying circumstances has made it to be a relevant topic across disciplines (Anglim, & O'Connor, 2019).

There is a lexical approach which has been commonly used to examine personality structure (Pletzer et al., 2019). John, Angleitner and Ostendorf (1988) explain that the lexical approach suggests "those individual differences that are most salient and socially relevant in people's lives will eventually become encoded into their language; the more important such a difference, the more likely is it to become expressed as a single word" (p. 174). It explains that personality traits develop from those traits that have been found to be important, different and relevant and which have now formed a part of one's language; this language could be applicable in some or all languages (Galton, 1949; Greenberg, 1990; Pletzer et al., 2019).

Because of the many stable traits exhibited by individuals, psychologists continued to struggle with defining personality, as there exist countless traits to be captured by the researchers. This led to the proliferation of so many personality traits by the early personality researchers as they sought to examine and discover traits that could help understand some phenomena, such as leadership (Lee, Ogunfowora, & Ashton, 2005) Consequently, the personality literature suffered some setback as there was no framework for understanding the concept. In response to this setback, these traits have been calibrated into different domains, namely the Big Five and HEXACO, among others.

5.1.1 Big Five personality trait

The five-factor model of personality (FFM) comprises of five domains or dimensions of five broad traits, often referred to as the Big Five (Soto & John, 2017) and in this study, it is referred to as the Big Five. These personality traits have been widely applied in the workplace and accepted by most personality psychologist (Ashton, Lee, & Son, 2000; Pletzer et al., 2019). Due to the inconsistency amongst scholars as to what should be the acceptable personality traits, scholars came up with diverse number of traits. Goldberg, (1990) reviewing the development in personality traits reported that, Allport and Odbert (1936) had a list of almost

18 000 terms that he divided into four, the first in the four groups were categorised as stable traits. Developing on this, Cattell (1943) began by perusing personality terms in the English language and reworked these into about 171 scales using factor analysis, most of these traits were bipolar. Due to criticism by result of empirical analysis, Cattell (1945) further developed another set of 35 traits, at that time this was employed in various studies (Goldberg, 1990). According to John, Naumann and Soto (2008), Cattell et al. (1970), further developed these scales into 16 personality traits. Consequently, researchers continued to work on these 16 scales by analysing them using the orthogonal rotation method, when this was done just five of these factors were found to be replicable (McCrae & Costa, 1985,1987; Digman & Inouye, 1986; Norman, 1963). This orthogonal rotation method gave rise to the Big Five personality traits in the 1990s (Goldberg, 1990; Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The Big Five did not come without its critics as many scholars argued against the validity of this five-factor structure of personality. Notable amongst these as reported by Kottke and Kimura (2009), are Peabody and Goldberg (1989), however, their argument was refuted in a study conducted by Goldberg (1993), who after conducting an analysis of large data found support for the five-factor structure. In the same vein, McCrae and Costa (1987,1997) argued that there are three factors for personality, referred to as the NEO (neuroticism, extraversion and openness) personality inventory. However, subsequent study by Costa and McCrae (1992) affirmed the validity of the Big Five structure factor model (Kottke & Kimura, 2009). Furthermore, Myers and McCaulley (1985) proposed the Myers-Briggs type indicator. These authors categorized the human personality into four categories, extraversion or introversion, thinking or feeling, sensing or intuition, judging or perceiving. Nevertheless, when these scales were re-examined in a study by McCrae and Costa (1989) it was found that they correlate with four of the Big Five scales. When all the factors proposed by critics of the Big Five were factored, the result revealed the validity of the Big Five traits. Research on the cross-cultural validity by studies of these five factors further strengthened its acceptability (Salgado, Moscoso, & Lado, 2003; Kottke & Kimura, 2009).

After critical analyses, personality scholars have consented that the Big Five personality traits include most of the variances in personality. This Big Five personality domains include conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism (sometimes referred to as emotional stability), openness to experience (sometimes referred to as intellect or imagination) and extraversion (Saucier, 1994b; Pletzer et al., 2019). It is often with an acronym OCEAN or CANOE.

As a result of the manner in which the Big Five emerged, it is difficult to assign or trace the Big Five to a particular study, researcher, or group of researchers. Nevertheless, researchers have linked the journey to the Big Five to Catell (1943) findings (John et al., 2008). For instance, Goldberg (1990) acknowledged that Catell was one of the most prominent scientists to apply empirical processes to the development of a personality taxonomy. John et al. (2008) posit that notable amongst those who carried out lab studies to discover the Big Five and continued to improve on it, are, Costa and McCrae, (1992) and Goldberg, (1990). The most widely used measure of the Big Five is that of Costa and McCrae, (1992) (Rossberger, 2014; Ali, 2018). The table below explain three approaches to the facets developed by the aforementioned which includes a recent study by John, Naumann and Soto, 2008; The table explains the narrow facets of these five broad traits. Broad traits are heterogenous and more general traits while narrow traits are homogenous and more specific traits (DeVries, DeVries, & Born, 2011; Diener & Lucas, 2020)

Table 5.1: Three approaches to the Big Five

Lexical facet (18) (Saucier & Ostendorf, 1999)	NEO-PIR facet (30) (Costa & McCrae, 1992)	CPI-Big Five facets (16) (Soto & John, 2008)
<u>Extraversion (E) facets</u>		
E Sociability	E Gregariousness	E Gregariousness
E Assertiveness	E Assertiveness	E Assertiveness/Leadership
E Activity/Adventurous	E Activity	<i>[O Adventurous]</i>
E Unrestraint	E Excitement seeking	E Social confidence and
<i>[A warmth/affection]</i>	E Positive Emotions	Anxiety
	E Warmth	
<u>Agreeableness (A) facet</u>	<i>[E Warmth]</i>	
A Warmth/Affection	A Modesty	A Modesty vs Narcissism
	A Trust	A Trust/ Suspicion
A Modesty/Humility	A Tender-Mindedness	A Empathy vs Sympathy
A Generosity	A Compliance	A Altruism
A Gentleness	A Straightforwardness	
<u>Conscientiousness (C) facet</u>	C Order	C Orderliness
C Orderliness	C Achievement Striving	C Industriousness
C Industriousness	C Dutifulness	C Self-Discipline
C Reliability	C Self-Discipline	
C Decisiveness	C Competence	
<i>[O Perceptiveness]</i>	C Deliberation	
<u>Neuroticism (N) facet</u>	N Anxiety	N Anxiety
N Insecurity	N Angry Hostility	N Irritability
N Emotionality	N Depression	N Depression
N Irritability	N Self-Consciousness	N Rumination-
	N Vulnerability	Compulsiveness
	N Impulsiveness	<i>[E Social Confidence vs</i>
		<i>Anxiety]</i>
<u>Openness (O) facet</u>	O Idea	
O Intellect	O Aesthetics	O Intellectualism
O Imagination/Creativity	O Fantasy	O Idealism
O Perceptiveness	O Actions	O Adventurousness
	O Feelings	
	O Values	

Source: Soto and John (2017)

5.1.2 Beyond Big Five traits

The HEXACO personality domain was proposed by Ashton and Lee (2001). Before the advent of this domain, the Big Five/Five Factor Model (FFM) had been predominantly used as the acceptable scale for measuring personality traits. Earlier, some scholars (Goldberg & Saucier, 1998; Paunonen & Jackson, 2000, *inter alia*) identified 53 clusters of human traits which might fall outside the Big Five traits. These groups of human traits were gathered from personality traits that were used in the English lexical analysis and were found to be personality traits beyond the Big Five. In analysing the beyond Big Five traits, the authors employed a threshold of .30 as the cut-off value which resulted into a communality value of .09 in factor analysis. These traits included religiosity, heights, pure evaluation (such as evil, good, for nothing), educational status and age, among others. Following their analysis of traits beyond the Big Five, Goldberg and Saucier (1998) concluded that those clusters that are independent of the Big Five are the employment status, heights, negative valence, youthfulness, religiousness and girth. Based on this conclusion, it could be suggested that the human traits that are beyond the Big Five are not majorly personality traits. On the contrary, Paunonen and Jackson (2000) argued against this assertion that the underlying factor behind this conclusion could be the stringent measure used in defining the threshold of the trait cluster, because of this argument these authors relaxed the threshold used in identifying beyond Big Five traits from .09 to .20 communality value in factor analysis. This resulted into 9 personality traits falling beyond the Big Five personality trait from the human clustered traits suggested by Goldberg and Saucier (1998), while the authors included a trait that had been earlier suggested in their previous study (Paunonen & Jackson, 1996), the risk-taking traits. These 10 traits were later operationalised by these authors as the SPI (super numeracy personality inventory), (Paunonen, 2002; Paunonen, Haddock, Forsterling, & Keinonen, 2003). The 10 traits are “Conventionality, Seductiveness, Manipulativeness, Thriftiness, Humorousness, Integrity, Femininity, Religiosity, Risk Taking and Egotism” (Lee, Ogunfowora, & Ashton, 2005, p. 1440). These arguments prompted researchers to seek the sixth factor that the Big Five is yet to include.

As pointed out by the lexical approach theory that for a scale to be validated it must be testable across cultures, Lee, Ogunfowora and Ashton, 2005 reported that there are different languages in which the Big Five personality traits have been examined and consistently pointed out to a sixth factor of the personality traits which has not been captured in the Big Five. These languages include German (Angleitner & Ostendorf, 1989; Ostendorf & Angleitner, 1993);

Korean (Hahn, Lee, & Ashton, 1999), Dutch (De Raad, 1992), French (Boies, Lee, Ashton, Pascal, & Nicol, 2001), Italian (Caprara & Perugini, 1994; Di Blas & Forzi, 1998, 1999), Polish (Szarota, 1995), and Hungarian (De Raad & Szirmák, 1994; Szirmák & De Raad, 1994). To factor in the 6th factor of personality trait, the HEXACO domain came into existence.

5.1.3 HEXACO personality trait

The HEXACO personality trait suggest a sixth domain of personality traits as against the predominantly Big five trait that has been conceptually accepted by scholars as the model of personality traits. Based on lexical approach, re-analyses of data have offered support for the six-culturally replicable domain of personality (Ashton et al., 2014; De Raad et al., 2014; Hahn, Lee, & Ashton, 1999; Saucier, 2009). The acronym HEXACO represents six personality traits, namely H-Honesty-Humility, E-Emotionality, X-eXtraversion, A-Agreeableness, C-Conscientiousness, O-Openness to experience (Pletzer et al., 2019). There exist some similarities and differences between the Big Five and the HEXACO domains. The Openness to experience, Conscientiousness and Extraversion domain of the HEXACO are highly comparable to the Big Five domains (Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism (sometimes referred to as emotional stability), Openness to Experience (sometimes referred to as imagination or intellect) and Extraversion) (Ashton & Lee, 2008). On the other hand, the remaining three domains such as the Honesty-Humility, Emotionality and Agreeableness are importantly different from the Big Five domain of the Neuroticism and Agreeableness domain (Ashton & Lee, 2008; Pletzer et al., 2019). The Emotionality and the Agreeableness domain of the HEXACO are rotated variants of the Big Five Neuroticism and Agreeableness. More specifically, HEXACO Agreeableness and Emotionality are rotated variants of Big Five Agreeableness and Neuroticism. That is, some adjustment was made to some of the contents of these domains. For instance, the anger and irritability facets of the Neuroticism in the Big Five Neuroticism has been included in the Agreeableness domain of the HEXACO while the sentimentality facet of the Big Five Agreeableness has been included in the Emotionality domain of the HEXACO (Pletzer et al., 2019). Lastly the Honesty-Humility trait include the tendency to be genuine and fair in relating with others. This trait has been significantly linked with antisocial behaviour, such as WDB because individuals who are low in this trait engage in acts that could be harmful to others and to their society (Ashton & Lee, 2007,2008; Pletzer et al., 2019).

Several researchers have argued that only little can be gained if HEXACO is replaced with Big five, although within some of the measures of the Big Five agreeableness, the Honesty-Humility (H-H) domain of the HEXACO is sufficiently represented. Specifically, McCrae and Costa (2008) observed that conceptually and empirically the H-H of the HEXACO domain relates to the modesty and straightforwardness facets of the agreeableness trait of NEO PI-R of Costa and McCrae (1992). Therefore, characterizing them separately can be equated to being relatively subtle as both can be absolved in the Agreeableness domain of the Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO PI-R). Lately, DeYoung (2015), also noted that what the HEXACO model did was just to split the Agreeableness trait into two traits and blending it with the component of Neuroticism. Similarly, Watson, Stasik, Ellickson-Larew and Stanton (2015) revealed that the H-H measure highly correlates with the Big Five agreeableness and concluded that HEXACO personality model can be summarized as a Big five trait but having two indicators of Agreeableness.

Despite these criticism by these scholars, studies have continued to affirm that the HEXACO and the Big five differ significantly (Thalmayer, Saucier, & Eigenhuis, 2011; Miller, Gentile, Wilson, & Campbell, 2011; Miller, Gaughan, Maples, & Price, 2011; Hilbig, Moshagen, & Zettler, 2016). Specifically, Ashton and Lee, (2018) note that “the large amount of non-Big Five HEXACO variance can be understood in part by considering that HEXACO Agreeableness correlates only modestly with Honesty-Humility. The modest size of these correlations contrasts with what would be expected on the basis of the suggestion that HEXACO Agreeableness and Honesty-Humility are merely two markers of Big Five Agreeableness” (p. 571 emphasis added). In essence, it has been affirmed that it is a better predictor of WDB as against its Big Five counterparts, because of its Honesty-Humility scale (Lee, Ashton, De Vries, 2005; Pletzer et al., 2019).

5.2 Personality and workplace deviance

Personality is an important predictor of WDB (Pletzer et al., 2019, Colbert, Mount, Harter, & Witt, 2004). Personality generates unwanted behaviours because it influences employees’ perceptions, attribution, emotional reactions, assessment of the environment and self-control or control of aggression (Spector, 2011). Despite the existence of numerous personality traits, the Big-five and HEXACO personality traits have often been used by researchers to predict

WDB (Pletzer et al., 2019; Anglim & O'Connor, 2018; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Henle, 2005).

5.2.1 Big five and workplace deviance

Studying the influence of personality traits among 290 employees of different organisations in Pakistan, Khan et al. (2019) revealed that agreeableness is negatively associated with WDB. Abdullah and Marican (2016) examined the effect of the Big Five personality trait on WDB among public sector employees in Malaysia by focusing on the Big Five personality trait. The result of the findings after variables such as age gender were controlled for, revealed that surgency or extraversion and conscientiousness is positively and negatively associated with both interpersonal and organisational deviance respectively while openness to experience was found to be negatively associated with organisational deviance only. Other personality traits (agreeableness, adjustment, emotional stability) were found to be insignificant in predicting WDB. In contrast, Amin et al. (2021) also examined the relationship that exist between personality traits, group norms and counterproductive behaviour, using a sample of 375 academic and non-academics staff of Nigerian Universities, the finding revealed that four of the five personality traits, namely perceived (extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism and agreeableness) positively influenced counterproductive work behaviour, while perceived openness was not found to influence counterproductive work behaviour.

O'Neill, Lewis and Carswell's (2011) study investigated the effect of OJ and personality on WDB, using a sample of 464 employees in a retail organisation. They suggested the need to consider personality beyond the Big Five, by including the sixth factor, called the H-H, as it had incremental effect on WDB beyond employee's perception of justice. As the study found little support for the incremental effect of justice on WDB. This study helped to gain insight into the importance of the H-H domain of the HEXACO. The study, however, did not consider the moderating effect of personality in the OJ-WDB relationship. Probably if the relationship was moderated the moderating effect could have impacted the effect justice has on WDB.

5.2.2 HEXACO personality scale and workplace deviance

Lee et al. (2005) asserted that the HEXACO model significantly outperformed its Big Five counterpart in predicting WDB, following comparative analyses of the two domains in a three-country sample, namely the Netherlands, Australia and Canada. Ashton and Lee (2018) further

asserted that using the Big Five as an alternative to the HEXACO scales will result largely to loss of information and can be equated to the same amount as would be lost if one of the scales of the Big Five is discarded. Pletzer et al. (2019) affirmed these assertions in a comparative meta-analysis of the Big Five and the HEXACO personality in predicting WDB. It was found that the variance of the HEXACO domain in WDB is more than its counterpart in WDB with HEXACO having 31.97 percent relative to Big Five (19.05%). Basically, the H-H scale was a major predictor of deviance as much as all the other five combined did.

If an organisation is seeking to screen applicants, the HEXACO personality scale could be use in detecting applicants who are likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour (Anglim & O'Connor, 2019). Furthermore, the HEXACO scale would result in novel research, particularly when examining morally related behaviour because the H-H scale would yield novel insights and improved prediction. Burtaverde, Chraif, Anitei and Dumitru, (2017) explored the link between personality and risky driving behaviour and the comparison between the big five and the HEXACO personality traits. Using samples of 227 undergraduate students and of 244 community respondents. The study concluded that the HEXACO model was a better predictor of aggressive driving and revealed that the H-H trait of the HEXACO personality domain explained the risky driving behaviour of the respondents, of which is the tendency to express verbal aggression.

Furthermore, Pletzer et al. (2019), in a meta-analysis of 749 articles compared the validities of the Big-five and the HEXACO personality domains and revealed that both domains conceptually differ and that the latter better predicted WDB. Specifically, the H-H had the strongest correlation with WDB, followed by the conscientiousness domain of the Big Five and the HEXACO in predicting WDB The Neuroticism in Big Five, is characterised as emotionality with some slight differences of the exclusion of the quick temper in the HEXACO domain. These duo domains, that is the Neuroticism (positive) and the emotionality (negative) also strongly correlated with WDB, though not as the H-H domain. However, the openness to experience and Extraversion domain of the HEXACO and the Big Five did not significantly contribute to predicting WDB. Although, 749 articles were used for the meta-analysis but the criteria employed in selecting these articles were, at least one of the domains must have been included in the study which means studies that considered the relationship between agreeableness and WDB were included. It could be inferred that only few of the studies used for the meta-analysis, examined all the six-facet of the HEXACO domain.

The HEXACO personality traits have been tested in various contexts reporting good internal consistency and have also reported correlation between the openness to experience, conscientiousness and extroversion scales (DeVries, Ashton & Lee, 2009). For instance, in the Brazilian-Portuguese context, Costa, Jesuino, de Souza Lima and Shu (2019) reported the psychometric adequacy of the scales. Additionally, the HEXACO personality scales have been used to examine different forms of attitudes. For example, Soutter et al. (2020) based on meta-analysis, compared the impact of the Big five and the HEXACO scale on pro-environmental behaviours and attitudes. The study revealed that pro-environmental attitudes and behaviour has a strong correlation with the honesty-humility and openness to experience. While the agreeableness and conscientiousness and extraversion had a weak correlation with pro-environmental attitudes and behaviour. Although the association with extraversion is weaker when compared with the Agreeableness and conscientiousness traits.

Based on the above review of the literature, the major differences between the HEXACO and Big five lies in the three traits, namely H-H, Agreeableness and Emotionality (H-HAE). As noted by Pletzer et al. (2019), the other three personality traits in the HEXACO are similar to the Big five, it is therefore expected that they will share similar relation in predicting WDB. In the same vein, Hastings and O'Neil (2009), note that it is expedient that the items used in measuring personality is minimized in order to accomplish a comparable prediction. Summarily, few of the studies on HEXACO domain and WDB have consistently reported that these three traits (H-HAE) are significant in predicting WDB (Lee et al., 2005; Pletzer et al., 2019). Due to scant research examining the HEXACO and WDB, specifically its moderating role in the OJ-WDB relationship, this study examines the moderating role of these three distinguishing HEXACO traits in this assumed relationship, taking cognizance of the need for comparable prediction as stressed by Hastings and O'Neil (2009). It is important to understand these three HEXACO traits and how it relates to WDB:

5.2.2.1 Honesty-Humility (H-H)

Individuals who would not exploit others even when there are no negative consequences of doing such possess the honesty-humility trait (Ashton & Lee, 2007). In general, individuals high in H-H can be described as altruistic, sincere, generous, loyal, honest, faithful, non-deceptive, helpful and so on. In addition, those who score high on this trait have the tendency to be fair, sincere and modest, while those who score low have the tendency to be pretentious

and deceitful (Ashton & Lee, 2007; Ashton & Lee, 2012). Specifically, It expresses the likelihood of being genuine or sincere, noncorrupt/nonfraudulent, uncovetous and modest in one's relationship with others (Anglim & O'Connor, 2019; Lee & Ashton, 2004). Burtaverde et al. (2017) found that the H-H trait of the HEXACO personality domain explained the risky driving behaviour of the respondents. The study revealed that drivers who are low in this personality trait have the tendency to involve in expression of verbal aggression. Although this study focuses on driving behaviour, which is a social deviance unlike the WDB examined in this study, the study made a contribution that is worthy of note as it revealed that the H-H trait reveals the tendency for an individual to express verbal aggression which is a form of deviance which can also be exhibited in the workplace.

This trait has been found to be the most significant in predicting WDB, yet not adequately captured by the Big Five domain (Ashton, Lee, & Son, 2000; Ashton et al., 2014). Pletzer et al. (2019) in a meta-analysis found that the H-H trait showed the strongest prediction of WDB while Ashton and Lee (2008) noted that individuals low in H-H are linked with acts that are harmful to individuals, society and entire humanity. Such acts involved in by these individuals are fraud, theft, vandalism and workplace delinquency. Lee et al. (2005) posits that the H-H trait has a clear conceptual link with WDB and argued that its absence in the Big Five makes it lack the ability to capture individual differences in their tendencies to exploit and deceive others (Ashton et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2005; Paulhus & Williams, 2002), which may be the core characteristics of individuals who involve in WDB (Lee, Ashton, & Shin, 2005). Furthermore, lexical study by Ashton et al. (2000) revealed that acts such as Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970), social adroitness (Jackson, 1994) primary Psychopathy (Harpur, Hare, & Hakstian, 1989; Levenson, Kiehl, & Fitzpatrick, 1995), which are personality constructs used in defining manipulative and exploitative individuals are all strongly correlated with the H-H trait. The lexical big five scale does not reveal such significant correlation with these personality variables which are not captured in the lexical Big Five scales, suggesting the supremacy of HEXACO.

Anglim and O'Connor (2019) note that H-H trait is important in predicting a range of important outcomes, such as manipulative, deceptive, unethical behaviour (for instance, Jonason & O'Connor, 2017; Lee, Gizzarone, & Ashton, 2003; Lee, Ashton, Morrison, Cordery, & Dunlop, 2008), and prosocial behaviour (Zhao & Smillie, 2015) over and above the Big Five. When H-H is reversed, it is almost the same with measures of the dark triad: which include

machiavellinism, narcissism and psychopathy, the term is referred to as dark because the traits reflect malicious qualities (Aghababaei, Mohammadtabar, & Saffarinia, 2014; Paulhus & Williams 2002). Smith, Hill, Wallace, Recendes and Judge (2018) posits that including H-H personality trait aligns with recent interest in dark personality.

Studies have found the moderating role of this trait in the OJ and WDB relationship. The argument is that an employee who suffers injustice does not necessarily resort to deviance act if they are high in H-H and vice versa. For instance, O'Neill et al. (2011) suggest the need to consider personality beyond the big-five, by including the sixth factor, called the H-H, as it had incremental effect on WDB beyond employee's perception of justice. Cohen (2015) also affirmed that the H-H trait of the HEXACO is an important predictor of WDB, while comparing the two models of personality traits as measures of moral character and its impact on predicting WDB. Anglim, Morse, De Vries, MacCann and Marty, 2017; Hough and Connelly, 2013, suggest that organisations seeking job applicants who are less likely to involve in deviant acts such as theft, bullying, amongst others may find the H-H personality traits particularly useful while selecting employees for job positions.

5.2.2.2 Agreeableness

As previously explained, the Big Five agreeableness differ significantly from that of the HEXACO. Studies have suggested that agreeableness and WDB/ counterproductive behaviour are negatively related (Costa & Macrae, 1992; Pletzer et al., 2019). This could be attributed to the characteristics of an agreeable person. For example, employees who are agreeable show more concern for the welfare of other employees, help others in the completion of their tasks and are highly beneficial to the organisation. These individuals have a good interpersonal relationship with other employees (Witt, Burke, Barrick, & Mount et al., 2002). The implication is that employees who are disagreeable or low in agreeableness are more likely to engage in counterproductive-work behaviour unlike those who are high (Barrick & Mount, 1991). In organisations, agreeable individuals or employees show a forward-looking level of interpersonal ability and aptitude (Witt et al., 2002)

The HEXACO agreeable trait explains the tendencies to be forgiving, gentle, flexible and patient. Individuals who score high on this scale easily agree with others. They are not revengeful, they are willing to compromise their stand and agree with others, they ordinarily want to avoid arguing with others, so you can hardly see them involved in verbal aggression or

any form of violence. They would prefer to be cheated than to disagree with others. This, therefore, implies that employees high in this trait, would not take revenge or retaliate, even when they are unfairly treated. On the other hand, individuals who score low are critical, respond angrily to mistreatment, hold grudges, are stubborn and easily lose their tempers (McCrae & Costa, 1985; Rossberger, 2014). The low scorer tends to exhibit interpersonal deviance against their others, (Lee & Ashton, 2007). Pletzer et al. (2019) differentiating between the HEXACO and Big Five personality trait, highlighted the high levels of association between HEXACO Agreeableness and Big Five Agreeableness while high level of HEXACO Agreeableness is somewhat associated with lower levels of Neuroticism in the Big Five model. Few studies have been conducted on the agreeableness trait of the HEXACO domain and WDB. Yet the few studies conducted affirmed that agreeableness negatively predicts WDB (Bourdage, Goupal, Neilson, Lukacik, & Lee, 2018; Lee et al., 2005; Pletzer et al., 2019).

5.2.2.3 Emotionality

This trait in the HEXACO differ significantly from that of the Big Five as previously mentioned. Individuals who are high in this trait are dependent on other for emotional support, fearful and anxious. They have empathy for others and are sentimentally attached with others. Individuals who are low in this trait are not afraid of physical harm, worry less even in a stressful situation and may have little need for emotional support from others (Lee & Ashton, 2007). High levels of HEXACO Emotionality are associated with higher levels of Big Five Neuroticism and somewhat higher levels of Big Five Agreeableness. This trait captures the sentimentality trait of the Big Five. This difference may influence its prediction of WDB (Pletzer et al., 2019). Louw, Dunlop, Yeo and Griffin (2016) while examining the HEXACO personality trait found that emotionality was a strong predictor of WDB Likewise, study conducted by Lee et al. (2005), examining personality as a correlate of antisocial behaviour; targeted at both organisation and individual. Their findings revealed that emotionality played significant role in the prediction of both organisational and interpersonal antisocial behaviour. In the same vein Pletzer et al. (2019) also found support for this.

5.3 Moderating role of personality in the organisational justice and WDB relationship

Interactional effect on WDB has been suggested as another better way of predicting WDB. Research on WDB suggests the need to study the effect of the interaction between situational

factors such as perceived organisational support, leadership, OJ, amongst others (Colquitt et al., 2013; El-Akremiti et al., 2010) and personal factors, comprising, personality traits, philosophy or value held, individual differences and attitudes (Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Rogojan, 2009; Vigoda & Golembiewski, 2005) on WDB. The argument is that studying the interaction would provide better explanation for WDB than using just one of the antecedents. Until the interactional effect was introduced, researchers have often argued that one of the two was better than the other (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005) but the interactional theorists suggest that considering the interactions between these two antecedents would contribute to understanding predictors of WDB (Henle, 2005; Colbert et al., 2004; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Specifically, Sackett and DeVore (2001) noted that the two domains are crucial to the understanding of counterproductive behaviour.

Despite the direct relationship found between personality and WDB, it has been suggested that personality possibly plays a more indirect or moderating role in explaining employees' responses to provocations which could arise out of injustice in the workplace (O'Leary-Kelly, et al., 1996; Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004). Specifically, Bennett and Robinson (2003) suggest that personality be examined from a broader angle. Consequently, personality has been used to moderate the relationship between many situational variables and WDB (Henle, 2005; Mount et al., 2004).

OJ constitutes a key situational factor that personality has been used to moderate. Greenberg (1990) noted that OJ is a bedrock for the effective running of organisation as well as ensuring that employee's personal needs are met. Also, Cropanzano and Schminke, (2001) suggested various reasons why employees join an organisation, such as the desire to satisfy their economic needs and/or to satisfy their socio-emotional needs, among others. Decisions relating to these needs and employees experience during these processes, is of utmost importance to the employee (Colquitt, 2001). According to social exchange theory individuals attempt to ensure that their needs are met and wants their organisation where they work to prioritise their welfare. When these needs and expectations are not met, such individuals are grieved or feel an inequity in the way they are treated and oftentimes seek ways of balancing the inequity perceived. One of the ways of doing this is to involve in acts that are detrimental to the organisation or individuals within the organisation (Henle, 2005). Recent studies have revealed that not all individuals will reciprocate such feelings with deviant behaviour. For instance, Wenzel and Okimoto (2010) opine that not reacting to unfair treatment could yield the victim

of injustice greater power. In the same vein, Holtz and Harold (2013), noted that not reacting to unfair treatment can help restore desired justice balance and could even be as effective as when such individual retaliates. These perceptions vary amongst individual depending on their personality difference. For instance, a person who acts before thinking would not think that keeping quiet could restore inequity perceived. This therefore points out that an individual personality trait to a large extent influences involvement in WDB regardless of the injustice perceived.

In this context, Mount et al. (2004) hypothesise that deviant behaviour as a response to the negative perception of the work situation may be influenced by individual personality trait. Implying that individual may involve in WDB not only when they have a negative perception of their work situation but also when their personality traits do not constrain them from engaging in deviant behaviour. Using measures of situational perceptions such as employee development and perceived organisational support, they found support for the negative relationship between these measures and WDB. In the same vein using the Big five personality traits to measure personal factors, their findings revealed that agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability moderated the relationship between situational perception measures and WDB. Furthermore, Henle (2005) examined how OJ and personality interacts to predict WDB. Measures of personality traits used were impulsivity and socialisation. These two personality traits were used in moderating the relationship between OJ and WDB. The findings of the study revealed that procedural and distributive justice failed to interact with both personality traits, while interactional justice did. Since the forms of personality only interacted with the interactional form of justice this study proposes that if other measures (H-HAE) of personality are used, it may interact with more forms of justice.

Colbert et al. (2004) examined the interactional effect of the individual and situational factors as predictors of WDB. The individual factor considered in the study was personality trait, while developmental environment, OJ and perceived organisational support were the situational factors considered. It was hypothesised that positive perception of the work environment will be negatively related to WDB and found support for this hypothesis. Furthermore, to test the interactional effect, three personality traits were used to moderate the relationship between the work situation variables and WDB relationship. It was found that low emotional stability or conscientiousness strongly influenced the relationship between developmental environment

and organisational deviance, while low agreeableness strongly influenced the relationship between POS and interpersonal deviance.

In Nigeria, Enwereuzor, Onyishi, Onyebueke, Amazue, and Nwoke (2017) examined the role of personality (agreeableness and conscientiousness) in moderating emotional exhaustion and WDB relationship among teachers in the South-East region. Using a hierarchical moderated regression model, they found that the two personality traits examined negatively predicted WDB, although agreeableness predicted WDB beyond conscientiousness (24% as compared to 19%, respectively). Furthermore, it was noted that employees who are low in agreeableness have the tendency to engage in WDB when they are emotionally exhausted, unlike a conscientious person, thus concluding the emotional exhaustion and WDB relationship was only moderated by agreeableness. This study, although conducted in Nigeria differs from the present study. First, the HEXACO model of personality was not used, implying that vital personality trait, such as the H-H, which has been found to be a significant predictor of WDB, was omitted. Secondly the emotional exhaustion and WDB relationship was examined as opposed to OJ and WDB that this study examines. Thirdly, the study was not carried out in a university but in a secondary school.

Aquino et al. (2004) motivated by the argument for an interaction between the person-situation model of WDB, examined the moderating role of social status and aggression on the interpersonal justice-deviance relationship. They hypothesized that employees who are aggressive tend to engage in deviance when they experience interpersonal injustice. In the same vein it was hypothesized that low social status would moderate the link between interpersonal justice and deviance. The study conducted among 192 employees in the public sector revealed that aggressiveness is significantly and directly linked with interpersonal deviance. Furthermore, the result of the findings supported the hypothesized interaction amongst aggressiveness, social status measures and interactional justice. Khattak et al. (2019) examined the mediating role of anger and moderating role of personality traits (Big Five agreeableness and neuroticism) in the direct association between perceived injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and WDB. The findings of the study carried out among 327 employees of insurance companies in Netherland revealed that anger fully mediated the assumed direct relationship between distributive injustice and interactional injustice and WDB, while it partially mediated the direct relationship between procedural injustice and WDB. The moderation analysis also revealed that neuroticism and agreeableness moderated the

relationship between anger and WDB, as the result revealed that this relationship was weaker when employees are high in neuroticism and stronger when employees are highly agreeable.

The foregoing suggests that when individuals are high in neuroticism, their perception of injustice may be detrimental to organisations, while employees who are highly agreeable may be less detrimental. The implication of this for organisations is that an employee who is high in neuroticism may result in WDB when he/she perceives unfair treatment unlike a highly agreeable employee, thereby guiding the organisation in employee selection. Conclusively, studies have been conducted on the relationship between personality trait and WDB and found that personality trait has a relationship with WDB. However, very few studies have examined its moderating role in the OJ and WDB relationship (Henle, 2005; Khattak et al., 2017), while these few studies used other domains or models of personality trait, other than HEXACO, which does not include the H-H trait. Consequent upon this, this study aims to moderate the OJ and WDB relationship using the three HEXACO traits (H-H, agreeableness and emotionality) that has been affirmed to differ from the Big Five personality trait.

5.4. Conceptual Framework

An attempt is made to design a structure for this study to aid proper comprehension of the study’s objectives. Figure 1 explains what the study proposes.

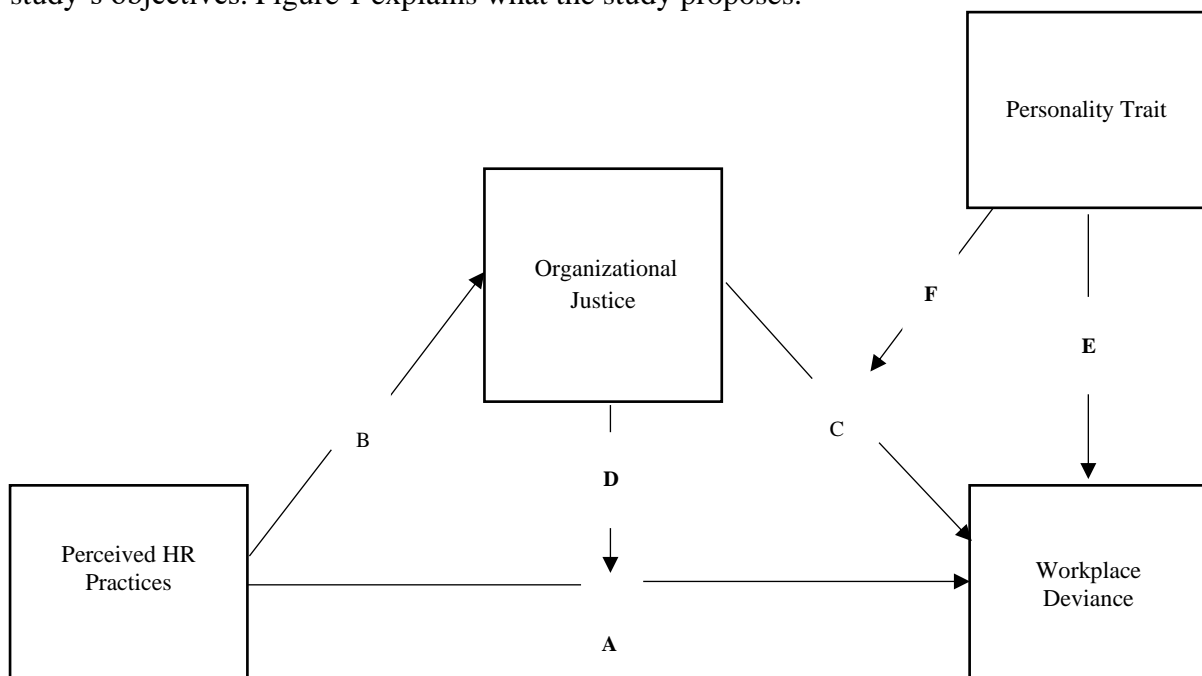


Figure 5.1: Conceptual framework

Source: Author’s Design (2020)

Firstly, the figure implies that perceived HRPs have an implication for employees' behaviour (WDB) as expressed through channel A. Secondly, it proposes that a relationship exists between employees' perception of HRPs and organizational justice via channel B, and between organizational justice and WDB via channel C, respectively. Subsequently, it proposes that organizational justice is a mechanism through which the impacts of the perceptions on HRPs on workplace deviance are mediated. In addition, it is presumed that employees' personality traits determine their disposition to workplace deviance, and consequently, personality traits moderate or have a force to bear on the strength of the relationship between organizational justice and workplace deviance.

5.5 Summary and concluding remarks

Chapter five focuses on the personality *vis-à-vis* WDB. This chapter examines the literature on personality, different domains of personality traits and the relationship between personality and OJ and its resultant effect on WDB. It was found that that not all individuals will reciprocate grievances or injustice with deviant behaviour. Hence, whether an employee will react defiantly or not is a function of many variables, particularly, personality trait. Thus, personality could be a direct antecedent or a moderator. The chapter revealed that the evaluation of HEXACO is scarce as most studies have used the Big Five personality domain, despite the former being a better predictor of WDB compared to its counterparts.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH METHODS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the research methods adopted to empirically investigate the interplay between perceptions of HRPs and WDB in the Nigerian public universities. The research methods were carefully selected to ensure that the appropriate ones are selected for the study. This research methods chapter starts with the reintroduction of the research objectives and hypotheses. It includes the research paradigm, philosophy and approach. This chapter further includes the study population and sampling techniques, data collection methods and research instruments, statistical tools used for analysing the obtained data, limitations and ethical considerations, and summary and concluding remarks

6.1 Research Objectives

The broad objective of this study is to examine the effects of employees' perceptions of HRPs on workplace deviant behaviour (WDB) in South-West Nigeria public universities. The specific objectives are:

- i. To determine the link between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB.
- ii. To find out the relationship that exist between employees' perception of HRPs and OJ.
- iii. To find out the link between OJ and WDB.
- iv. To determine the mediating effect of OJ on the relationship between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB.
- v. To find out the relationship between personality traits and WDB
- vi. To determine if employee personality traits will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

6.2 Research hypotheses

- i. H1: Perception of HRPs (result-oriented appraisal, internal career opportunity, employment security and pay) are negatively related to WDB (organisational and interpersonal)

- ii. H2: Perception of HRPs (result-oriented appraisal, internal career opportunity, employment security and pay) are positively related to OJ (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice).
- iii. H3: OJ (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice) is positively related to WDB.
- iv. H4: OJ (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice) will mediate the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB.
- v. H5: Employee personality traits (Honesty-Humility, Agreeableness, Emotionality) are negatively related to WDB.
- vi. H6: Employee personality traits (Honesty-Humility, Agreeableness, Emotionality) will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

6.3 Research philosophies

The assumptions and beliefs about a chosen enquiry, construct or object explains what research philosophies is. A researcher makes some few assumptions which may be ontological, epistemological or axiological. Ontology explains how researchers deduce realities from their encounters in their research, epistemology predicts how researchers infer realities about human knowledge, while axiology explains the influence researchers' ideals influences the research development (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). Each of these views has a different philosophy, these are positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism; all these influence the researcher's idea of the research process (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009; Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2015). Understanding the philosophies surrounding a research project is important as it helps to determine the methods to be used in answering the research questions (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015). Additionally, all these assumptions predict the choice of methods, designs and strategies to be employed by the researcher to answer the research questions (Greener, 2008; Saunders et al., 2009). The research onion, as suggested by Saunders et al. (2009), will be used in this study to explain the research philosophies.

6.3.1 Positivism

Scholars who believe in this philosophy are referred to as positivists. The positivists hold the belief that there is only one way of accessing reality and this is through scientific enquiry (Loosemore 1999; Rahmani & Leifels, 2018). The positivists strictly focus on scientific method of inquiry, intended to produce pure data and facts that are not influenced by the researcher's

interpretation or biasness; here the researcher maintains an objective stance (Saunders et al., 2019). Because the positivists follow some set guidelines in a scientific manner to form their conclusions, they rely on quantitative methods of data collection and analysis, this may include a range of data. This approach involves formulation of hypotheses and statistical analysis (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Initial positivist adopted the inductive approach, but recent positivists have adopted the deductive approach as it tends towards the quantitative suggestions. The positivists view organisations and social entities as real as physical objects.

6.3.2 Realism

Epistemologically, the two philosophies, that is positivism and realism, are similar as they both assume a scientific method of inquiry (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Two major similarities in the two assumptions are that the method of data collection for both scientific and social research should be uniform and that there are extraneous realities other than what the researcher describes (Bryman & Bell, 2011). There are two types of realism, they are empirical/ direct and critical realist. The former suggests that what you get reflects what you see, that is what we have come to experience through our senses describes the world accurately; meanwhile, critical realism goes a step forward to processing what is experienced and viewing it in the reality, thereby emphasising reality. These realities are viewed as extraneous and independent and cannot be observed through our human senses and what we know about them. It explains that what we experience are manifestations of what exists in the real world and not the actual things (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 138-139). Critical realism argues against direct realism assumption about human senses and realities arguing that what the human senses portray as reality may be deceptive (Novikov & Novikov, 2013), therefore, what is not seen may be the underlying causes of the situation (Saunders et al., 2007). Researchers such as Sekaran and Bougie (2016) argue that there are some phenomena whose measurement are subjective as against the belief held by direct realism, these phenomenon include, motivation, satisfaction and emotion. The critical realist combines some feature of the positivisms and interpretivism philosophies.

6.3.3 Interpretivism

Those who hold this assumption are referred to as interpretivists; this belief came up as a criticism against positivism, just as the critical realism although this belief is from a subjective perspective (Saunders et al., 2019). Interpretivism suggest that human cannot be viewed as

objects as they create meanings, each participant have different perception and interpret their social environment differently (Hennik, Hutter, & Bailey, 2020). This approach does not separate the researcher and participants as it holds that data are obtained through interaction between the participants and the researcher in a study. Although interpretivist aim at creating new, better understanding and interpretation of the social environment (Saunders et al., 2019), critics have argued the reliability, validity and generalisability of its findings (Kelliher, 2011). This approach focuses on the use of qualitative data and analysis. Another criticism is the fact that it is impossible to avoid bias in research, yet interpretivist researcher argues that it addresses the issue of bias strongly (Ross, Narayanan, Hendrix, & Myneni, 2011)

6.3.4 Pragmatism

Pragmatism emphasises that the relevance of a concept depends on whether they support action. The pragmatist argue that research problem should suggest the approach to be adopted in a study (Kelemen & Rumens 2008; Saunders et al., 2019). Pragmatism belief in the diversity of the universe therefore to find the best solutions to the challenges confronting it, demands adopting different techniques (Creswell, 2009; Hanson et al., 2005). Pragmatist research is driven out of doubt or sense that something is wrong and, therefore, needs inquiry into, after which researchers re-create belief when the problems have been resolved (Elkajaer & Simpson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2019). The pragmatist first develops problems in research then aims to find out practical solution that could aid future research, specifically, a pragmatist researcher is more interested in practical outcomes than abstract distinction (Saunders et al., 2019). The assumption, therefore, combines both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis. The present study adopts this philosophy as it seeks to find out the mechanism through which employees engage in WDB.

6.4 Research Approach

There are three approaches to scientific research, they are inductive, deductive and abductive approach (Saunders et al., 2019; Wilson, 2014).

6.4.1 Deductive Approach

Deductive approach involves constructing theories and testing hypotheses by gathering and analysing sets of data; these theories can either be constructed or borrowed, these theories are

then developed into one or more hypothesis which are analysed against some set of data (Blaikie & Priest, 2017). It is referred to as the 'top down' approach because the data collection process is preceded by theories (Patten & Newhart, 2018). A deductive reasoning begins from a theoretical standpoint, that is without an existing theory deductive research cannot be carried out as it involves the application of theory (Wilson, 2014). Another way to explain this approach is to move from a general principle to affirming if it holds in a specific case (Patten & Newhart, 2018). These theories are then used to formulate hypothesis, which are subjected to test. This hypothesis can only be observed when the theory turns out to be true (Kalof, Dan, & Dietz, 2008). The conclusion being true when all the premises are true (Ketokiyi & Mantere 2010). For the test to be true the result of the analysis must be in consistence with the premise if not the test fails or part of the theories are questioned (Patten & Newhart, 2018) but when the result of the analysis is in consistence with the premise then the theory is validated (Blaikie, 2009). Majorly in testing hypothesis deductive approach makes use of quantitative data, this does not infer that qualitative data cannot be collected but what it emphasises is that data needs to be operationalized to generate data that is measurable, which are often done quantitatively. The challenge with using this approach is the problem of reliability, as there is need for strong methodology to ensure data replication.

6.4.2 Inductive Approach

An inductive approach as against deductive approach process aimed at building theories from observation of specific events or phenomenon with the aim of generalisation (Wilson, 2014). It is referred to as the 'ground up' approach, in this approach data are first collected before theories are formed. It moves from specific observation to general observation, in that observation are first made before theories are formed (Patten & Newhart, 2018). Behavioural science and management researchers note that the inductive approach is capable of producing results that could validate causal relationships among concepts through in-depth interview, with the aim of formulating hypotheses. The inductive approach enables an interaction between the researcher and the participants during the research process. One of the advantages of using this approach is that it provides an understanding of a phenomenon rather than just viewing humans as a mechanistic object that can be scientifically examined as assumed in deductive approach.

6.4.3 Abductive approach

Abductive reasoning was introduced by Peirce (1955) and it explains the process of starting a process of enquiry with examining facts or results and then formulating a theory to explain those facts. The facts observed are then linked with other observations to formulate a hypothesis (Rahmani & Leifels, 2018). The abductive approach came up because of the need to create a synergy between the deductive and inductive approach, in order to minimize the bias of using a single approach. The combination of the two approaches complement abductive approach as means of testing plausible theories (Saunders et al., 2018; Van Maanen, Sørensen, & Mitchell, 2007). Instead of testing theory per se, abduction links the idea of hypothesis to ordinary experience in order to explain the ordinary circumstances and their status quo (Rahmani & Leifels, 2018; Shank 1998).

6.4.4 Applicable approach for this study

The approach adopted for this study is the abductive approach while adopting a pragmatic belief, which combines both the quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection, also referred to as mixed methods of data collection. The adopted approach helps to attend to emerging and irregular problems that may arise in the data collection process (Charmaz, 2008). It helps researchers to proactively give theoretical standpoint and justification to data and draft before they are analysed (Charmaz, 2006). Table 6.2 below further explains the applicability of this approach to this study by highlighting the characteristics of the abduction approach that best suit this study. This study examines HRP and WDB relationship and it has been suggested in the literature that the abductive approach is best used when there is need to understand the explanatory cause-effect relationship amongst variables (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016). Therefore, in a bid to understand how and why HRP influences WDB this study adopts this approach.

Table 6.1: Comparison of the deduction, induction and abduction methods

Stage	Deduction	Induction	Abduction
1	Development of theoretical framework.	Areas of enquiry are identified, but no theoretical framework	Development of theoretical framework based on constructs.

2	Variables are identified for relevant constructs.	Respondents identify constructs and explain the relationship between them.	Some variables are identified for relevant constructs-others can be identified by respondents.
3	Development of research instruments.	Identification of broad themes for discussion.	Researcher converts the <i>a priori</i> theoretical framework into theoretical questions.
4	Data is collected from respondents	Respondents discuss general terms of interest.	Respondents discuss the seemingly general questions and identify constructs which are meaningful to them and explain the relationships between the constructs.
5	Data is analysed in terms of prior theoretical framework.	Researcher develops theory on a purely inductive basis.	Data collected from respondents is analysed according to existing theory, or theory is developed on an inductive basis-without regard for the existing theory.
6	Outcome; theory tested based on decision whether to accept or reject the formulated hypotheses.	Outcome; theory developed	Outcome; either theory is adapted or alternative theoretical framework is presented.

Source: Ali and Birley (1999)

6.5 Target Population and Sample

A population is “the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 262). The target population is the entire subject of investigation of a researcher (Wilson, 2014). It becomes expedient in social research to clearly define the target population in a study, because it is from this population that the sample to be used for the study is drawn, so that findings gotten from the selected samples can be generalised across the entire population.

For this study, the target population is employees (academic and administrative) of three selected public universities in South-West Nigeria. The choice of South-West Nigeria is born out of the fact that regions in Nigeria have a wider educational gap (Onwuameze, 2013), some part of the regions are adjudged to be academically poor, especially the northern part (Rios,

Mikailu, & Bashir, 2020). In order to be able to eradicate the impact of regional differences on employee's behaviour as examined in this study, the study chose to focus on the region known to be top ranking region in terms of education in Nigeria (Onwuka, 2019). There are six states in the South-West region of Nigeria. A preliminary survey revealed that the region has 14 public universities comprising of eight states and six federal institutions. Three out of the 14 institutions comprising of one multipurpose federal-owned institution (University of Lagos, Akoka, Lagos), one state-owned institution (Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State) and one federal-owned university of technology (Federal University of Technology, Akure, Ondo State) will be selected for this research work.

The study elicited information from the academic and non-academic staff members. Academic and non-academic staff of the three universities being investigated are employees whose perception and involvement in the variables under consideration was asked. The study population comprised 1 955 members of academic staff and 5 463 non-academic staff of the three institutions under consideration as shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Population distribution

S/N	Universities	Academic	Non-academic	Total
1.	Federal University of Technology, Akure	587	1413	2000
2.	Ekiti State University Ado-Ekiti	555	1500	2055
7.	University of Lagos, Akoka	813	2550	3363
	Total	1955	5463	7,418

Field Survey 2020

6.5.1 Sampling technique

The process by which a sample is arrived at is referred to as sampling techniques. There are basically two forms of sampling, they are probability and non-probability sampling. The probability sampling techniques give every element in the population an equal chance of being selected, while the non-probability sampling does not give every element in the population an equal chance of being selected. Probability sampling include simple random, cluster, systematic, multi-stage and stratified random sampling, while non-probability sampling include snowball, convenience, purposive and quota sampling (Wilson, 2010). This study

employs the use of both forms of sampling, that is the study employed simple random probability sample to select samples of academic and non-academic employees, this gives equal chance of being selected to all the members of staff in the selected Universities. The choice of the three institutions is also based on purposive non-probability sampling selection criteria (inclusion and exclusion criteria) and ease of data collection. In this context, employees of these universities have had at least one case of deviance reported on newspaper and social media (Premium Times, 2017; Punch, 2021; Sahara Reporter, 2017; Sahara reporter, 2019). In addition, each of them must be in existence for 10 years or more. The practice of targeting a study population towards a specific marked group is well accepted in the literature (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009).

To have a representative proportion of the sample, due to the largeness of the sample, the Taro Model by Yamane (1967) was employed to derive sample size out of the captive population of the estimated 1 955 academic staff and 5 463 non-academic staff while ratio scale analysis is used to delineate the sample. The model being a probabilistic form of sampling enables the measurement of estimation error, so that the sampled population can be the representative of the entire population. This gives it an advantage over the deliberate form of sampling (Kothari, 2004).

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N * (e)^2}$$

n= the sample size

N= Total population for the study

e= the acceptable sampling error at (0.05)

Equation 6.1 Yamane Model

Source: Yamane (1967)

Relying on this model, the study sampled 704 respondents. The sample size from this model is found to be representative and guarantee the required degree of precision and confidence (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). The sample size is thus obtained as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N * (e)^2}$$

$$1. \quad n = \text{academic} = \frac{1,955}{1 + 1,955 * (0.05)^2} = \frac{1,955}{5.8875} = 332$$

$$2. \quad n = \text{non-academic} = \frac{5,463}{1+5,463*(0.05)^2} = \frac{5,463}{14.6575} = 372$$

Total sample = 704

Equation 6.2 Distribution of sample among academic and non-academic staff

Source: Author’s computation

With the aid of ratio scale analysis, the sample 332 and 372 academic staff and non-academic staff members respectively from each of the three universities is presented below.

Table 6.3: Distribution of sample size amongst the universities

S/N	Universities	Academic	Non-academic	Total
1.	Federal University of Technology, Akure	56	134	190
2.	Ekiti State University Ado-Ekiti	53	144	197
7.	University of Lagos, Akoka	77	240	317
	Total	186	518	704

Author’s computation 2020

Of these questionnaires distributed (704), 572 questionnaires were retrieved, cleaned and used for analysis, representing an 81% response rate. Of these 572 questionnaires, the total number of missing data across the questions varied from 1 to 16. How the missing data was handled is discussed in section 6.7.

6.6 Data collection methods

The method of data collection employed for this study is mixed method, which enabled the combination of the quantitative and qualitative method at the same time. Quantitative data were collected using structured close ended questionnaire. Qualitative data were used through the administration of open-ended questionnaire. Although the majority of studies that combine the mixed method often use in-depth interview for collection of qualitative data but because of the sensitivity of the research problem, that is deviant behaviour, which are behaviours that are not permitted or encouraged in the workplace. Hence because of the sensitivity, interviews were not employed in this study. Furthermore, past studies on the topic, have often used only quantitative method, using a close ended questionnaire (Henle, 2005; Shamsudin et al., 2014).

For instance, a study carried out by Spector and Howard (2021), methods employed by workplace ostracism studies, reviewed 95 past studies on workplace ostracism (a deviant act), it was found that only 1 study employed qualitative method using in-depth interview. Hence, in a bid to gather necessary and salient information on the influence of HRPs on WDB and still maintain the anonymity of the participants (which is necessary to achieve the research objectives), the researcher employed structured open-ended questions.

The research objective of the study and the reviewed literature identified gaps, which were carefully considered in the design of the questionnaire. Some of the past studies distributed questionnaires to supervisors or management of the organisation, co-workers and acquaintances of the respondents but the literature also argues that not all WDB act occurring in the organisation are reported by the victims, therefore these other sources may only have a general impression but may not be aware of the occurrence of these acts in their organisation. Also, management staff may not be willing to report the occurrence of such act in their organisation, hence these methods may not be the best method of soliciting such a sensitive information. As a result, the questionnaires were distributed to the employees of the organisation with the assistance of research assistants.

6.6.1 Research instrument

The study employed the concurrent transformative mixed methods of data collection and analysis in order to achieve the study's objective. The research instrument adopted for this study was survey questionnaire, which contained multiple choice numerical and open-ended non-numerical data. This allowed both forms of data to be collected simultaneously (Creswell, 2009). In the design of the questionnaire, the researcher considered the alignment of the questionnaire with the research objective, questions and/or hypothesis. In the same vein, the researcher ensured that the questionnaires were written in simple and unambiguous language for the ease of understanding by the participants and they were concise.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections with 93 questions. Section A was designed to solicit demographic information about the respondents. Information such as gender, age, educational qualification, work experience was collected in this section. This was necessary to be able to examine the effect of these demographic variables on the relationship between HRPs and WDB utilizing OJ and personality traits as mediating and moderating variables. Section B collected information on the core variables examined in this study that is the relationship

between HRPs and WDB in the Nigerian public universities. A four-point Likert-type rating scale was used, ranging from one (strongly disagree) to four (strongly agree); one (never) to four (every time). The reason for adopting this kind of scale is to ensure that the respondents can give their opinion of the subject matter without sitting on the fence. This is because the questions asked are daily experience of the respondents at work, therefore respondents cannot be neutral specifically as it related to issues that concern their behaviour and welfare as in HRPs. Also, this kind of scale aid ease interpretation (Hartley, 2014; Atiku, 2014). The close ended questions used in this study were adapted. Section C contained open ended questions which were derived from a review of the literature and aimed at soliciting salient information on the HRPs and WDB relationship.

6.6.2 Measures adapted for the study

6.6.2.1 Workplace deviance measures

WDB measures of Bennett and Robinson (2000) were adopted. This scale consists of two forms of deviance, namely organisational deviance, which consists of 12 items with statements such as “falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on office expenses” and interpersonal deviance, consisting of seven items with statements such as “said something hurtful to someone at work”. The respondents were asked to respond to how often they involve in each of these items at work on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from four (never) to one (every time). These measures have reliability scores of .81 and .78 respectively.

6.6.2.2 Human resource practices measures

HRPs was measured using Delery and Dotty (1996) and Snell and Dean (1992) scale, the scale measured internal career opportunities, result oriented appraisal, employee security and reward system, each of these scales consists of four items, five items, three items and four items, respectively. Result oriented appraisal and reward system were adapted from Snell and Dean (1992) scale with internal reliabilities ranging between .70 and .85 while internal career opportunities (.64) and employee security (.66) were adapted from Delery and Doty (1996) scale. With questions such as “I have more than one potential position I could be promoted within this organisation” “results of performance appraisal are often being discussed with me”, “if the university faces problems, employees in this job are the last to get cut” “my pay is closely tied to my performance”. The respondents responded on their level of agreement with

these statements on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from four (strongly disagree) to one (strongly agree).

6.6.2.3 Organisational justice measures

OJ was measured using Colquitt (2001). This scale was used to measure distributive and procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice which consists of 7 items, 4 items, 4 items and 5 items respectively, with questions such as “Does your (reward) reflect the effort you have put into your work?” “Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?” “Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?” “Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?” The respondents were asked to respond to how often they experience each of these items at work on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from four (never) to one (every time). The scales have reliability coefficient of .78, .79, .70, .92 respectively.

6.6.2.4 Personality measures

Ashton and Lee (2009) HEXACO personality scale was used to measure personality traits, which include the honesty-humility, emotionality and agreeableness. These three traits consist of 10 items each. With items such as “I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.” “My attitude toward people who have treated me badly is “forgive and forget” “When it comes to physical danger, I am very fearful.”. The respondents responded on their level of agreement with these statements on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from four (strongly disagree) to one (strongly agree). The scales have internal reliability ranging from .70 to .80

6.6.3 Administration of the questionnaire

The questionnaire administration lasted for five months with the aid of three research assistants, this was due to the COVID-19 regulations that prevented the researcher from travelling to the place of study. However, research assistants were properly oriented on the ethics requirement in administering questionnaire which they did adhere to. The questions were first distributed to 30 respondents who helped in identifying an error in the questions which was corrected and the questions distributed.

6.7 Procedure for data analysis and cleaning

572 questionnaires were retrieved and used for the analysis of this study, some of the items in these questionnaires were not responded to by the respondents, which is often referred to as missing data. Reasons for missing data may not be accurately known but this study assumes that some of the questions were unanswered because of their sensitivity. For instance, questions relating to involvement in workplace deviance, perception of fairness: which relates to the organisation and superior-subordinate relationship, honesty-humility traits, amongst others. In the literature, the condition for deleting a questionnaire or question with missing data is when the percentage of missing item is greater than 15 percent of the whole questionnaire or questions (Hair Jr, et al., 2019). The percentage of missing data in this study is lower than 5 percent, hence, the pairwise method of handling missing data, also known as available data case analysis (Allison, 2003) was used in handling the missing data. It is assumed when using this method that the data is missing completely at random (MCAR) (Peugh & Enders, 2004). When the MCAR assumption is met, pairwise deletion method is capable of producing consistent and unbiased parameter estimates (Glasser, 1964; Allison, 2003). Hair Jr, et al. (2021) further posit that Smart PLS-SEM also uses pairwise deletion method in handling reasonable level of missing data, specifically, 5 percent of the total questionnaire with limited effect on the result of the analysis.

The descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the questionnaire collected for this study. Section A include information on respondent's demographics, these were analysed using descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, frequency counts and simple percentages, which were presented in graphical and tabular forms using bar chart, pie chart and frequency tables. Data in Section B were analysed using inferential statistics such as Pearson correlational analyses, multiple regression analysis and structural equation modelling (SEM).

The numeric data collected from both sections were coded and analysed using the IBM statistical package for the social sciences (SSPS), version 21. Before coding the reverse coded questions were considered and were reversed during the coding to align with other questions that were not reversed. To reverse a reverse coded question, questions ticked as strongly agree are reversed to mean strongly disagree and vice-versa, this is because the questions were asked reversely. To test the hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was used to analyse hypotheses 1 to 3 and 5, while PLS-SEM was used to analyse hypotheses 4 and 6. The non-numeric data

collected in Section C were analysed using content analysis. Further discussions on how these data were analysed are presented below.

6.7.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics helps to present analysis of data in a meaningful form for easy interpretation. It aids in drawing conclusion and providing a description of numerical data collected (Wilson, 2014; Patten & Newhart, 2018). According to Patten and Newhart (2018), there are number of ways in which descriptive statistics summarizes data, they include averaging, presenting the range, determining which is the most common answer, or examining how data are distributed or spread out. With this explanation, descriptive statistics can be categorized into three, namely frequency distribution, (bar chart, pie charts, histogram and line charts), measures of central tendency (mean, median and mode) and measures of variability (range, standard deviation and variance).

The Section A of the questionnaire consisted of information on the respondents' demographics such as age, gender, educational qualification and years of experience, the purpose of asking these questions is to reveal the impact of these demographic data on the variables considered in the study. In analysing the demographic variables, the study combined the measure of central tendency and variability to present the numeric data collected in a meaningful and easy-to-interpret form.

6.7.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics aid in generalising the result of a sample to the population (Patten & Newhart, 2018) and assists in giving statistical confirmation to the research hypothesis (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Inferential analysis helps to make inferences about relationship that exists among variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). In conducting the statistical test of the research hypothesis, the study employed the parametric test. In statistics there are two ways of statistically testing hypothesis, they are parametric and non-parametric. Parametric statistics assumes that population is normally distributed (Chin & Lee, 2008; Savani & Barrett, 2009) and sample size is drawn from such population (Wilson, 2014). On the other hand, non-parametric statistics are used when the population are not normally distributed and therefore does not make assumptions (Savani & Barrett, 2009; Wilson, 2014). The most commonly used form of parametric tests are linear regression, multiple regression, Pearson correlation, analysis

of variance (ANOVA) and T-test, amongst others, while non parametric testing uses the Spearman's rank correlation, Mann-Whitney tests, chi-square and Fisher's exact test, amongst others (Savani & Barrett, 2009). The parametric tests used in this study will be explained below.

6.7.2.1 Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (PMCC)

This method is the most commonly used in analysing numerical data (Nettleton, 2014) and it is used to explain the relationship and the extent of the relationship that exists among variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). It was used in this study to examine the extent of the relationship that exists among the latent variables in order to answer the research questions using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 21. In interpreting the result of PMCC, the result ranges from the values -1 and one. When the coefficient is zero it shows no correlation, when its one it shows a total positive correlation, when it is -1 is shows total negative correlation (Nettleton, 2014; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). This method of analyses reveals the type of relationship that exists between variables. For instance, if variable A and B shows a correlation coefficient of 0.80, this simply implies that the relationship that exist amongst them is significant and positive, that is an increase in variable X will result in an increase in variable Y. If the coefficient value is -80 it shows that an increase in variable X will result in a decrease in variable Y. As noted by Pallant (2013), PMCC only examines the strength of the relationship that exists among variables but does not reveal if a change in variable is caused by the other variable.

6.7.2.2 Multiple regression analysis

This method assesses the degree of relationship that exists between a set of independent variables and the dependent variable, it is often referred to as a multivariate statistical tool (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The difference between linear regression and multiple regression is that the linear regression examines the relationship between an independent variable and dependent variable. On the other hand, multiple regression enables the assessment of more than one independent variable and a dependent variable (Hair, Page, & Brunsveld, 2019). The result of multiple regression analysis allows for the prediction of the dependent variable by the independent variable (Bryman & Cramer, 2011; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010).

The formula for calculating multiple regression (Wilson, 2014) is thus:

$$Y = a_1 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4 + \dots + b_nx_n$$

Where;

x = independent variable

y = dependent variable

a = point where the line intersects the y axis

b = gradient line

Equation 6.3 Formula for calculating multiple regression

6.7.3 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

SEM is a multivariate quantitative technique which is used to describe the relationship among observed variables (Jitesh, 2020). The study employed partial least square-structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). PLS-SEM, is a SEM technique, based on an iterative approach that maximizes the explained variance of endogenous constructs (Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014, p. 107). Its operation is similar to multiple regression. Although not popular as the covariance-based approach (CB-SEM) yet its acceptance has been its ability to deal with issues that often arise in social science, such as complex model as non-normal data (Hair Jr et al., 2014). PLS-SEM was employed in this study due to the complex model involved as the study aimed to establish the mediating influences of OJ on the HRP and WDB relationship. As well as establish the moderating influence of personality traits on the OJ and WDB relationship. The convergent and discriminant validity of the construct were conducted and established, basing it on the analysis of the multi-trait multi-method matrix (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The hypotheses were testing using PLS-SEM and was also used in re-specifying the proposed model before achieving the final results.

6.7.3 Content Analysis

The qualitative data were collected through open-ended questionnaires and analysed using content analysis. Content analysis is “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). It must be emphasised that content analysis goes beyond a counting process, it involves the process of linking the results of the collected data to the context or environment they were produced (Bengtsson, 2016). The following open-ended questions were asked in this study:

- i. How do you feel about the human resource practices of your institution?
- ii. Do these human resource practices emphasise employees' welfare?
- iii. Will you justify employee involvement in WDB on the basis of unfair treatment?
- iv. What would you advise the government to do in order to curb WDB in public institutions?

The non-numerical data collected for this study were coded by grouping them into themes and subthemes based on the research questions. Similar themes were then grouped together and conclusions were drawn. A frequency analysis of the text was carried out to determine key recommendation and associated frequency. Statements with different words but same meanings were grouped together and a list of most recurring recommendations were grouped together thereafter.

6.7.4 Reliability

A test can be referred to as being reliable if it yields consistent results (Patten & Newhart, 2018). When a test produces the same result given the same time and condition then such can be said to be reliable (White & McBurney, 2012). Validity and reliability are linked, explaining this relationship Patten and Newhart (2018) highlighted three principles. First principle states that a test may be highly reliable but the validity low. Second principle is that it is better to have a test that is valid but modestly reliable and thirdly for a test to be useful it must be both reasonably valid and reliable (Patten & Newhart, 2018). To determine the internal consistency and reliability of the measures used in this study, the Cronbach alpha reliability was used. Cronbach alpha helps measure how reliable an instrument is and the level to which items in the instrument are positively correlated (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). In the literature, Cronbach alpha values with coefficient 0.60- 0.70 and above are said to be acceptable (Hulin, Netemeyer, & Cudeck, 2001; Van Griethuijsen, Eijck, Haste, Brok, Skinner, & Mansour, 2014). Methodological triangulation, which is the combination of both quantitative and qualitative method also assisted in ensuring reliability of the measures.

6.7.5 Validity

Validity refers to the extent an instrument measures what it was designed to measure and performs what its intended to perform (Saunders et al., 2016; Wilson, 2014; Paten & Newhart, 2018). "This will authenticate the cause-and-effect relationship and applicability of the

variables to the immediate environment” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 158). There are three basic approaches to measuring validity of an instrument they are judgmental validity, empirical validity and judgmental-empirical validity (Paten & Newhart, 2018). This study employed judgmental and judgmental-empirical validity. Judgmental validity includes the use of content and face validity, while judgmental-empirical validity includes construct validity. In order to achieve the content validity of the instrument, the instrument was given to the supervisor and experts and professionals in the field whose opinion were sought to evaluate the face validity before administering the instrument. Sampling validity was also sought by ensuring that the research instrument aligns with the research objectives and constructs.

Additionally, convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs were established. Convergent validity reveals the extent of the relationship between measures of the same phenomenon (Hair, Hollingsworth, Randolph, & Chong, 2017). Discriminant validity ensures the empirical uniqueness of each construct while ensuring that each construct captures a phenomenon not represented by other constructs in the model (Sarstedt et al., 2022). According to the rule of thumb, the acceptable threshold for the AVE is 0.5 (Hair et al., 2021). The results of the AVE showed that all constructs considered for the structural model are valid. Lastly, external validity of the study was achieved by making a comparison between the outcomes of this study and other similar studies across the world and other sectors of Nigeria.

6.7.6 Trustworthiness of qualitative instrument

In order to reduce the biasness associated with content analysis of the qualitative data sourced in Section C and at the same time ensure its validity and reliability, the research instrument was given to the supervisor and experts to ensure it aligns with the research objectives. Additionally, a double checking of the coding was done before objective categories were reached.

6.8 Limitations

The study was not without its limitations. The first limitation is that this study is limited to the mechanism through which HRP affects WDB, while OJ was used as the only mediator and personality the only moderator. Subsequent studies should examine other mechanism through which HRPs affect WDB.

Another limitation is the use of a cross-sectional survey instead of the use of a longitudinal survey. This technique, therefore, limited the ability to draw a causal conclusion from the study. The choice of this technique was based on the time limit available to the respondents, this was also affected by the COVID-19 pandemic as most of the staff had limited time to attend to questionnaires as they were all in a hurry to ensure that the time lost to the pandemic was recovered.

Another limitation of this study was the use of self-report for deviance, but the researcher, based on previous research, assumed that using supervisor and co-workers to report deviant act may not be accurate because they may lack information as not all victims of WDB report to superiors or co-workers. Assuring respondents of anonymity and that the study is purely for academic purpose helped solicit information from the participants.

6.9 Ethical considerations

The researcher aimed to ensure that the conduct of this study was in full compliance with the ethical integrity and requirement of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. This standard includes the approval of the conduct of the study by the Ethics Committee of the university before conducting the study. The application was attached with the gatekeeper's consent from the management of the sampled university. The application was approved by the Humanity and Social Science Research Ethic Committee (HSSREC) on 5 January 2021 with reference number HSSREC/00002245/2020. Field work commenced in February 2021 and lasted until June 2021. Subsequently, the researcher ensured that the ethical guidelines guiding the rights of the participants and stakeholders concerned were duly respected as presented below:

- i. The gatekeeper's consent was sought and signed given by the management of the organisation, authorising the researcher to conduct the research in the organisations
- ii. The universities permitted the use of their names in the research and the researcher ensured that the data collected were purely used for the purpose for which it was collected.
- iii. The questionnaires were distributed only after approval was given by the gatekeeper's representative.
- iv. Personal and human rights were given consideration as such questions that could violate or infringe these rights were avoided.
- v. Utmost confidentiality and respondent's anonymity were ensured

- vi. The respondents were informed that the purpose of the research was purely for academic purposes prior to administering questionnaire and explanations were given where necessary.
- vii. Respondent were informed by a consent letter attached to each of the questionnaires that participating in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw their participation. In addition, the consent letter included a confidentiality clause.
- viii. All the data gathered will be stored by the School of Management, IT and Governance at the UKZN for protection.

6.10 Conclusions

The chapter presented a review of the various philosophies and approaches underlying research, discussing the challenges and advantages of using each of them. After the review, the pragmatic philosophy was adopted for the study and the abductive approach was adopted. Pragmatic philosophy enabled the researcher to apply the method that best suits the research objective while the abductive method allowed for the use of mixed methods to combine the benefits accrued to each of these methods. The explanatory research design was used, while adopting the concurrent transformative mixed technique, which enabled both the quantitative and qualitative data to be collected concurrently. The study combined both probability (simple random sampling) and non-probability sampling (purposive sampling) to select the sample size drawn from the study population. Furthermore, it discussed the data analysis techniques, ethical consideration and the limitations of the methods adopted in the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

7.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the steps and procedures for the collection of quantitative and qualitative data were explained in detail. This chapter presents the results of the analyses of the collected data and the interpretation thereof. The chapter has eight main sections presented, based on the objectives of the study. Following the introduction section, the next sections, 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3 show the response rate, demographic data analysis and descriptive statistics for the measures of the research constructs. Section 7.4 re-introduces the study hypotheses. Section 7.5 contains the results and interpretation of the quantitative data collected, this includes Pearson correlation coefficients and multiple linear regressions meant to show the correlation and individual effects of different dimensions of independent on dependent variables, the PLS-SEM analysis, which is presented for the purpose of testing the main hypotheses of this study. Section 7.6 shows the qualitative analysis, while Section 7.7 provides the summary and concluding remarks for the chapter.

7.1 Response rate

Following the procedure described in Section 6.5, 704 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents for the purpose of the study. 572 questionnaires were eventually recovered from the study participants, subsequently coded and used for the analysis. This response rate constitutes 81 percent of the distributed questionnaire and proves sufficient for further analyses, interpretation and drawing inferences.

7.2 Demographic data analysis

Four key demographic information, namely age group, educational level, work experience and gender, feature in the structured questionnaire used for the purpose of data collection in this study. This demographic information was analysed using descriptive statistics and the results are presented in this section.

7.2.1 Age distribution

Table 7.1 shows the age distribution of respondents from the sampled public universities in South-West Nigeria who participated in the survey. The table revealed that 5.8 percent of study participants represented by 33 individuals, fall within the 21-25 age classification while 10.8 percent and 16.1 percent of them represented by 62 and 92 individuals fall within 26-30 and 31-35 age classification respectively. In addition, 134 of the participants representing 23.4 percent and 251 of them representing 43.9 percent are in the 36-40 and 40-above age ranges. These figures suggest that public university staff increases with age and young people are not duly represented. In other words, studied university staff are most likely matured adults as 67.4 percent of the total respondents are above 35 years of age.

Table 7.1: Age distribution of the participants

AGE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	21-25 years	33	5,8	5,8	5,8
	26-30 years	62	10,8	10,8	16,6
	31-35 years	92	16,1	16,1	32,7
	36-40 years	134	23,4	23,4	56,1
	40 years & above	251	43,9	43,9	100,0
	Total	572	100,0	100,0	

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

7.2.2 Educational level

Table 7.2 presents the educational qualification distribution of the respondents where 6.1% of study participants represented by 35 individuals, hold school certificates, the least educational qualification while 12.9 percent represented by 74 individuals are National Diploma holders. A total of 238 staff are HND/B.Sc. holders representing 41.6 percent of the respondents followed by 159 respondents with a master's degree constituting 27.8 percent. This is followed by 66 respondents who hold the highest educational qualification, representing 11.5 of the respondents. In this context, first- and second-degree holders constitute the bulk of the participants. This suggests that the majority of the staff might not have attained the highest

level of education. At the same time, many of the staff in this category have busy work schedules and occupy management/leadership positions, inhibiting their availability for participation in the survey. The majority of the non-teaching staff would normally hold a first degree and below, while the teaching staff strive to attain highest academic qualification. The frequency distribution revealed that 225, representing 39.3 percent of the respondents, are masters and PhD holders. This suggests that non-teaching and academic staff are duly represented.

Table 7.2: Distribution of participants by educational qualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	School cert.	35	6,1	6,1	6,1
	National Diploma	74	12,9	12,9	19,1
	HND/BSc	238	41,6	41,6	60,7
	Master degree	159	27,8	27,8	88,5
	PhD	66	11,5	11,5	100,0
	Total	572	100,0	100,0	

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

7.2.3 Work experience

Table 7.3 shows the frequency distribution for the number of years spent by the participant in the university.

Table 7.3: Frequency distribution of participants' experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Up to 5 years	98	17,1	17,1	17,1
	6-10 years	138	24,1	24,1	41,3
	11-15 years	175	30,6	30,6	71,9
	16-20 years	74	12,9	12,9	84,8
	20 years & above	87	15,2	15,2	100,0
	Total	572	100,0	100,0	

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

It shows that 98 (17.1%) of the 572 total participants have worked for 5 years and below in the universities while 138 (24.1%) and 175 (30.6%) participants have had 6-10- and 11-15-years' work experience respectively. In addition, respondents with 16-20- and 20-above job experience are 74 and 87, representing 12.9 percent and 15.2 percent of the total participants, respectively. The descriptive analysis revealed that most of the respondents have had 11 years and more experience in their workplace. This could be traced to good HRMPs or lack of job opportunities.

7.2.4 Gender

Table 7.4 presents the gender distribution of the respondents where male gender constitutes 288 of the total 572 respondents and their female counterpart constitutes 279 and respondents who prefer not to answer constitutes 5 of the total respondents. This shows that male participants are more than the female, however, marginally. The frequency distribution revealed that male and female counterparts are almost equally represented, constituting 50.3 percent and 48.8 percent respectively.

Table 7.4: Frequency distribution of participants' gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Male	288	50,3	50,3	50,3
	Female	279	48,8	48,8	99,1
	Prefer not to answer	5	0,9	0,9	100,00
	Total	572	100,0	100,0	

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

7.3 Descriptive statistics for the measures of the research constructs

Tables 7.5 to 7.8 present the participants responses to the items that make up each of the study's adapted constructs for the key variables, namely HRP, OJ, WDB and personality scales.

HRP scale: HRPs constructs are broad. Consequently, the study justified the selection of construct considered relevant for this study in Chapter 3. The respondents are requested to

indicate their level of agreement with the following HRP's such as internal career opportunity, result oriented appraisal, employee security and reward system in their institution.

Table 7.5.1 Internal career opportunities (ICO)

SN	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I have a clear path within this organisation	23 (4,0%)	34 (5,9%)	329 (57,5%)	186 (32,5)
2	I have very little future within this organisation (reverse coded)	46 (8%)	154 (26,9%)	223 (39%)	149 (26%)
3	My career aspirations within the organisation are known by my immediate supervisors	34 (5,9%)	74 (12,9%)	353 (61,7%)	111 (19,4)
4	I have more than one potential position I could be promoted within this organisation	29 (5,1%)	70 (12,2%)	304 (53,1%)	169 (29,5%)

Table 7.5.2 Result oriented appraisal (ROA)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	This organisation put much effort in measuring employee performance	21 (3,7%)	57 (10%)	339 (59,3%)	155 (27,1%)
2	As an employee in this organisation, I do participate in goal setting and appraisal	35 (6,1%)	89 (15,6%)	298 (52,1%)	150 (26,2%)
3	Results of performance appraisal are often being discussed with me	82 (14,3%)	150 (26,2%)	262 (45,8%)	78 (13,6%)
4	When my performance are discussed emphasis are not placed on finding avenues of personal development for me (reverse coded)	64 (11,2%)	217 (37,9%)	215 (37,6%)	76 (13,3%)
5	Promotion, pay raise, amongst others, are not tied to performance appraisal (reverse coded)	86 (15%)	187 (32,7%)	197 (34,4%)	102 (17,8%)

Table 7.5.3. Employee security (ES)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	In this University, I can stay as long as I wish without being unjustly dismissed.	48 (8,4%)	101 (17,7%)	270 (47,2%)	153 (26,7%)
2	It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this job	29 (5,1%)	158 (27,6%)	282 (49,3%)	103 (18,0%)
3	If the university faces problems, employees in this job are the last to get cut	29 (5,1%)	167 (29,2%)	284 (49,7%)	92 (16,1%)

Table 7.5.4. Reward system (RS)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	There is wide range in pay across members in this work unit	33 (5,8%)	136 (23,8%)	312 (54,5%)	91 (15,9%)
2	Differences in pay across members in this organization represent differences in their contribution	50 (8,7%)	173 (30,2%)	278 (48,6%)	71 (12,4%)
3	I am paid according to my worth in this organization	59 (10,3%)	166 (29,0%)	273 (47,7%)	74 (12,9%)
4	My pay is closely tied to my performance	80 (14%)	204 (35,7%)	232 (40,6%)	56 (9,8%)

Organisational justice scale: In addition, considering the role of OJ in inducing various workplace attitude, respondents were requested to indicate their level of agreement with items under the following: OJ, procedural justice, distributive, interpersonal and informational justice.

Table 7.6.1: Procedural justice (PJ)

The following items refer to the procedures followed before decisions on your reward (pay/promotion/benefits) are made. To what extent:

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Everytime
		1	2	3	4
1	Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	112 (19,6%)	220 (38,5%)	195 (34,1%)	45 (7,9%)
2	Have you had influence over the (reward) arrived at by those procedures?	174 (30,4%)	208 (36,4%)	148 (25,9%)	42 (7,3%)
3	Have those procedures been applied consistently?	71 (12,4%)	179 (31,3%)	245 (42,8%)	77 (13,5%)
4	Have those procedures been free of bias?	78 (13,6%)	188 (32,9%)	245 (43,4%)	58 (10,1%)
5	Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	58 (10,1%)	169 (29,5%)	261 (45,6%)	84 (14,7%)
6	Have you been able to appeal the (reward) arrived at by those procedures?	140 (24,5%)	173 (30,2%)	214 (37,4%)	45 (7,9%)
7	Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	67 (11,7%)	155 (27,1%)	268 (46,9%)	82 (14,3%)

Table 7.6.2 Distributive justice (DJ)

The following items refer to your reward (pay/promotion/benefits). To what extent:

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Everytime
1	Does your (reward) reflect the effort you have put into your work?	86 (15%)	193 (33,7%)	217 (37,9%)	75 (13,1%)
2	Is your (reward) appropriate for the work you have completed?	89 (15,6%)	179 (31,3%)	214 (37,4%)	89 (15,6%)
3	Does your (reward) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?	84 (14,7%)	193 (33,7%)	202 (35,3%)	93 (16,3%)
4	Is your (reward) justified, given your performance?	78 (13,6%)	173 (30,2%)	201 (35,1%)	120 (21,0%)

Table 7.6.3. Interpersonal justice (ITJ)

The following items refer to the authority figure (supervisor/head of department or unit/Dean) who enacted the procedures. To what extent:

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Everytime
1	Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?	24 (4,2%)	69 (12,1%)	260 (45,5%)	219 (38,3%)
2	Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?	21 (3,7%)	70 (12,2%)	260 (45,5%)	220 (38,5%)
3	Has (he/she) treated you with respect?	12 (2,1%)	66 (11,5%)	248 (43,4%)	245 (42,8%)
4	Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?	41 (7,2%)	71 (12,4%)	256 (44,8%)	203 (35,5%)

Table 7.6.4. Informational justice (IFJ)

The following items also refer to the authority figure (supervisor/head of department or unit/Dean) who enacted the procedures

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Everytime
1	Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?	24 (4,2%)	80 (14%)	261 (45,6%)	207 (36,2%)
2	Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?	26 (4,6%)	90 (15,7%)	270 (47,2%)	183 (32%)
3	Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	37 (6,5%)	86 (15%)	289 (50,5%)	158 (27,6%)
4	Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?	30 (%)	88 (%)	268 (%)	183 (%)
5	Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?	55 (9,6%)	105 (18,4%)	249 (43,5%)	161 (28,1%)

Workplace deviance scale (WDB): This study focuses on the organisational and interpersonal deviance because these two forms of WDB have been identified in the literature and each is targeted differently, for instance, organisational deviance is targeted at the organisation, while

interpersonal deviance is targeted at co-workers in the organisation. Subsequently, respondents are requested to indicate their level of agreement with items under the two WDB constructs.

Table 7.7.1: Organisational deviance (OD)

	Statement	Never 1	Rarely 2	Often 3	Everytime 4
1	Have you ever taken property from work without permission	430 (75,2%)	82 (14,3%)	40 (7,0%)	17 (3,0%)
2	Spent too much time on non-work related activities while at work	348 (60,8%)	181 (31,6%)	36 (6,3%)	5 (0,9%)
3	Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on office expenses.	474 (82,9%)	48 (8,4%)	35 (6,1%)	13 (2,3%)
4	Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.	410 (71,7%)	107 (18,7%)	42 (7,3%)	11 (1,9%)
5	Came in late to work/classes without permission.	364 (63,6%)	154 (26,9%)	39 (6,8%)	12 (2,1%)
6	Neglected to follow your boss's instruction	467 (81,6%)	77 (13,5%)	19 (3,3%)	9 (1,6%)
7	Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	438 (76,6%)	98 (17,1%)	28 (4,9%)	8 (1,4%)
8	Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	486 (85%)	59 (10,3%)	14 (2,4%)	8 (1,4%)
9	Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.	509 (89%)	34 (5,9%)	21 (3,7%)	6 (1%)
10	Put little effort into your work	448 (78,3%)	61 (10,7%)	35 (6,1%)	24 (4,2%)
11	Taken property from work without permission	483 (84,4%)	52 (9,1%)	24 (4,2%)	9 (1,6%)
12	Spent too much time on non-work-related activities while at work	428 (74,8%)	107 (18,7%)	25 (4,4%)	8 (1,4%)

Table 7.7.2. Interpersonal deviance (ID)

	Statement	Never 1	Rarely 2	Often 3	Everytime 4
1	Made fun of someone at work	358 (62,6%)	157 (27,4%)	48 (8,4%)	7 (1,2%)
2	Said something hurtful to someone at work	413 (72,2%)	123 (21,5%)	29 (5,1%)	5 (0,9%)
3	Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	416 (72,7%)	110 (19,2%)	33 (5,8%)	12 (2,1%)
4	Cursed at someone at work	464 (81,1%)	74 (12,9%)	22 (3,8%)	10 (1,7%)
5	Played a mean prank on someone at work	422 (73,8%)	105 (18,4%)	31 (5,4%)	13 (2,3%)
6	Acted rudely toward someone at work	459 (80,2%)	72 (12,6%)	26 (4,5%)	14 (2,4%)
7	Publicly embarrassed someone at work	469 (82%)	55 (9,6%)	33 (5,8%)	15 (2,6%)

Personality scale: This study further examines personality traits, due to its ability to influence a person's reaction to perceived injustice. Consequently, the three of the HEXACO personality traits, namely Honesty-Humility (H-H), Emotionality and Agreeableness are examined, the selection of these three of the six personality traits has been justified in Chapter 5. Subsequently, respondents are requested to indicate their level of agreement with items under the three personality traits constructs.

Table 7.8.1: Honesty-humility (H-H)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4
1	I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.	137 (24%)	104 (18,2%)	211 (36,9%)	120 (21%)
2	If I knew that I could never get caught, I would be willing to steal a million dollars. (reverse coded)	73 (12,8%)	68 (11,9%)	147 (25,7%)	280 (49%)
3	Having a lot of money is not especially important to me.	112 (19,6%)	211 (36,9%)	189 (33%)	55 (9,6%)
4	I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is. (reverse coded)	62 (10,8%)	155 (27,1%)	245 (42,8%)	103 (18%)
5	If I want something from someone, I will laugh at that person's worst jokes. (reverse coded)	35 (6,1%)	92 (16,1%)	235 (41,1%)	203 (35,5%)
6	I would never accept a bribe, even if it were very large.	115 (20,1%)	124 (21,7%)	193 (33,7%)	132 (23,1%)
7	I would get a lot of pleasure from owning expensive luxury goods. (reverse coded)	45 (7,9%)	125 (21,9%)	248 (43,4%)	151 (26,4%)
8	I want people to know that I am an important person of high status. (reverse coded)	51 (8,9%)	115 (20,1%)	245 (42,8%)	156 (27,3%)
9	I wouldn't pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favors for me.	128 (22,4%)	145 (25,3%)	192 (33,6%)	100 (17,5%)
10	I would be tempted to use counterfeit money, if I were sure I could get away with it. (reverse coded)	41 (7,2%)	64 (11,2%)	189 (33%)	272 (47,6%)

Table 7.8.2. Emotionality (E)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4
1	I would feel afraid if I had to travel in bad weather conditions.	62 (10,8%)	149 (26%)	270 (47,2%)	87 (15,2%)
2	I sometimes can't help worrying about little things.	65 (11,4%)	175 (30,6%)	271 (47,4%)	56 (9,8%)
3	When I suffer from a painful experience, I need someone to make me feel comfortable	49 (8,6%)	166 (29%)	276 (48,3%)	78 (13,6%)
4	I feel like crying when I see other people crying.	47 (8,2%)	149 (26%)	306 (53,5%)	66 (11,5%)
5	When it comes to physical danger, I am very fearful.	51 (8,9%)	136 (23,8%)	298 (52,1%)	83 (14,5%)
6	I feel strong emotions when someone close to me is going away for a long time.	39 (6,8%)	117 (20,5%)	314 (54,9%)	98 (17,1%)
7	I remain unemotional even in situations where most people get very sentimental. (reverse coded)	46 (8%)	214 (37,4%)	226 (39,5%)	77 (13,5%)
8	I can handle difficult situations without needing emotional support from anyone else. (reverse coded)	72 (12,6%)	283 (49,5%)	170 (29,7%)	44 (7,7%)
9	Even in an emergency I wouldn't feel like panicking. (reverse coded)	59 (10,3%)	233 (40,7%)	216 (37,8%)	59 (10,3%)
10	I worry a lot less than most people do. (reverse coded)	60 (10,5%)	237 (41,4%)	195 (34,1%)	70 (12,2%)

Table 7.8.3. Agreeableness (A)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4
1	I rarely hold a grudge, even against people who have badly wronged me.	59 (10,3%)	137 (24%)	280 (49%)	91 (15,9%)
2	People sometimes tell me that I am too critical of others. (reverse coded)	38 (6,6%)	148 (25,9%)	299 (52,3%)	78 (13,6%)
3	People sometimes tell me that I'm too stubborn. (reverse coded)	39 (6,8%)	136 (23,8%)	275 (48,1%)	117 (20,5%)
4	People think of me as someone who has a quick temper. (reverse coded)	20 (3,5%)	91 (15,9%)	307 (53,7%)	149 (26%)
5	My attitude toward people who have treated me badly is "forgive and forget"	53 (9,3%)	122 (21,3%)	279 (48,8%)	113 (19,8%)
6	I tend to be lenient in judging other people.	59 (10,3%)	93 (16,3%)	315 (55,1%)	89 (15,6%)
7	I am usually quite flexible in my opinions when people disagree with me.	64 (11,2%)	113 (19,8%)	313 (54,7%)	69 (12,1%)
8	Most people tend to get angry more quickly than I do.	53 (9,3%)	121 (21,2%)	287 (50,2%)	98 (17,1%)
9	Even when people make a lot of mistakes, I rarely say anything negative.	54 (9,4%)	109 (19,1%)	304 (53,1%)	92 (16,1%)
10	When people tell me that I am wrong, my first reaction is to argue with them. (reverse coded)	54 (9,4%)	86 (15%)	277 (48,4%)	142 (24,8%)

Tables 7.5 to 7.8 exhibit the responses of the participants on the scale in relation to the adapted items of the 12 constructs in this study. These responses form the basis for subsequent analysis of the research questions in Section 7.5.

7.4 Analysis of research questions and test of hypotheses

The research questions and hypotheses were formulated such that they both align. Therefore, when a hypothesis is tested, the research question is also answered. The following hypotheses were formulated and tested in this study:

- H1: Perceptions of HRPs are negatively related to WDB.
- H2: Perceptions of HRPs are positively related to OJ.
- H3: OJ is negatively related to WDB.
- H4: OJ will mediate the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB.
- H5: Employee personality traits are negatively related to WDB.
- H6: Employee personality traits will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

To test the hypotheses and answer the research questions, Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the correlations among the constructs, multiple regression was used to determine the effect of each dimension of an independent variable on each dimension of the dependent variable and partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was conducted to determine the joint effect of all dimensions of an independent variable on all dimension of the dependent variable, as well as the mediation and mediator effects. In essence, the SmartPLS version 3.3 was used to conduct the PLS-SEM to test the main hypothesis of this study, although multiple regression also shed more light on dimensional or individual effects.

7.5. Result of quantitative analysis

7.5.1a Correlation between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB

First, the study determines the extent of correlation between the dimensions of HRPs (i.e., Internal career opportunities, result oriented appraisal, employee security and reward system) and forms of WDB (organisational and interpersonal and combined) by conducting Pearson product-moment correlation.

Table 7.9: Pearson's correlation: HRP versus WDB

		ICO	ROA	ES	RS	ORG D	INTD	WDB
ICO	Pearson's correlation	1	.625**	.309**	.098*	-.123**	-.209**	-.161**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,020	0,003	0,000	0,000

	N	572	572	563	556	561	569	559
ROA	Pearson Correlation	.625**	1	.427**	.341**	-.099*	-.172**	-.125**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,000	0,000	0,019	0,000	0,003
	N	572	572	563	556	561	569	559
ES	Pearson Correlation	.309**	.427**	1	.270**	0,042	-0,018	0,028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000		0,000	0,329	0,674	0,514
	N	563	563	563	550	552	560	550
RS	Pearson Correlation	.098*	.341**	.270**	1	0,074	0,006	0,051
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,020	0,000	0,000		0,086	0,891	0,234
	N	556	556	550	556	546	553	544
ORG D	Pearson Correlation	-.123**	-.099*	0,042	0,074	1	.690**	.950**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,003	0,019	0,329	0,086		0,000	0,000
	N	561	561	552	546	561	559	559
INTD	Pearson Correlation	-.209**	-.172**	-0,018	0,006	.690**	1	.881**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,674	0,891	0,000		0,000
	N	569	569	560	553	559	569	559
WDB	Pearson Correlation	-.161**	-.125**	0,028	0,051	.950**	.881**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,003	0,514	0,234	0,000	0,000	
	N	559	559	550	544	559	559	559
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

The correlation results in Table 7.9 show that the dimensions of WDB have very strong, statistically significant correlation among them (.690, .950, .881), suggesting a high degree of relationship between interpersonal and organisational WDB. Additionally, relationships among the four dimensions of perceived HRPs is positive and significant at 1 percent and 5 percent level of significance. Specifically, a strong correlation (0.625) exists between ICO and ROA dimensions of HRPs, suggesting a high degree of relationship. The correlation between ICO and ES (0.309), ROA and ES (0.427), ROA and RS (.341) is medium (3.0-4.9), suggesting a moderate relationship while the correlation between ICO and RS (0.098), ES and RS (0.270) is small (<2.9), suggesting a small relationship.

Importantly, ICO and ROA dimensions of perceived HRPs have significant negative relationship with interpersonal and organisational WDB individually and collectively. The finding supports Shamsudin et al. (2011) and Saeed et al. (2014) who show negative correlation between ICO and ROA in relation to organisational deviance and Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) who showed negative correlation between effective performance appraisal and WDB. However, ES and RS have very low and insignificant correlation with both forms of WDB. The study findings of no significant relationship between reward system and interpersonal deviant behaviour is consistent with Omoankhanlen and Mutairu (2021) who submitted that compensation has no relationship with interpersonal WDB but contradicts Omoankhanlen and Mutairu (2021) who found significant negative relationship between compensation and organisational WDB in Nigerian manufacturing industry. The finding also contradicts Shamsudin et al. (2011) and Saeed et al. (2014) who showed negative correlation between employee security and organisational deviance. In general, perceived HRPs has significant negative correlation with WDB, albeit ES and RS dimensions.

7.5.1b Individual effects of employees' perception of HRPs on WDB

While the correlation measures the degree of relationship among the variables, it does not determine the effect of one on the other. Hence, the linear multiple regression is used to determine whether the negative relationship amounts to negative impact of HRPs on the two forms of WDB. As depicted in the upper section of Table 7.110, the R square as shown in the regression model indicates 0.032 with adjusted R square of 0.026. This implies that the independent variables (reward system, internal career opportunities, employee security and result oriented behaviour) explain 3.2 percent variance in the organisational deviant behaviour. ANOVA index is used to predict the total fit of the model. The index is associated with p-values which are less than 5 percent, suggesting the regression model is of good fit.

The standardised beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: ROA ($\beta=-0.115$, $p>0.05$); ICO ($\beta=-0.88$, $p>0.05$); ES ($\beta=0.087$, $p>0.05$); and RS ($\beta=-0.097$, $p<0.05$). Looking at the sign of the coefficients, the results show a negative effect of ROA and ICO on OD and a positive effect of ES and RS on OD, which is similar to the correlation results. Taking the statistical significance of the results into consideration, perceptions of HRPs (ROA, ICO, ES, RS) do not have negative effects on organisational deviance because where the negative influence was found, it is statistically insignificant.

As depicted in the lower section of Table 7.10, the R square of 0.052 with adjusted R square of 0.045 reveals that the independent variables (ROA, ICO, ES, RS) explain 5.2 percent variance in the organisational deviant behaviour. The standardised beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: result oriented behaviour ($\beta=-0.113$, $p>0.05$); Internal career opportunities ($\beta=-0.162$, $p<0.05$); employee security ($\beta=0.063$, $p>0.05$); and reward system ($\beta=0.043$, $p>0.05$). Consequently, perception of ROA, ES and RS do not have negative effects on interpersonal deviance. However, perception of ICO is negatively related to interpersonal deviance at 5 percent significant level.

Table 7.10: Regression model Summary on Deviance behaviour and HRPs

Variables	B	B	T	P-value	R ²	F	Df	p-value
Dependent Variable: Organisational_deviance								
Constant	17.552		9.934	<.0005	0.032	4.666	4; 556	<.0005
ROA	-.238	-.115	-1.945	>.05				
ICO	-.245	-.088	-1.627	>.05				
ES	.267	.087	1.857	>.05				
RS	.232	.097	2.124	<.05				
Dependent Variable: Interpersonal_deviance								
Constant	13.512		11.676	<.0005	0.052 (0.045)	7.717	4;564	<.0005
ROA	-.158	-.113	-1.945	>.05				
ICO	-.301	-.162	-3.037	<.05				
ES	.129	.063	1.377	>.05				
RS	.070	.043	.962	>.05				

Source: Author's estimation (2022)

Overall, the perceived HRPs have no significant negative effect on WDB when considered individually. The only exception is ICO which significantly reduces interpersonal deviance. Otherwise, RS worsens organisational deviance while ROA and ES do not play a significant role against the *a priori* expectation.

7.5.2a Correlation between perception of HRPs and organisational justice

This study set out to understand the correlation between the perceived HRPs and all forms of OJ individually. The correlation results in Table 7.11 show that the four dimensions of OJ are positively and significantly correlated at 1 percent or 5 percent level of significance.

Table 7.11: Pearson correlation: HRP versus OJ

		ICO	ROA	ES	RS	PJ	INTJ	DJ	INFJ
ICO	Pearson Correlation	1	.625**	.309**	.098*	0,076	.268**	0,010	.279**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,020	0,077	0,000	0,820	0,000
	N	572	572	563	556	545	571	571	569
ROA	Pearson Correlation	.625**	1	.427**	.341**	.204**	.263**	.124**	.302**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,003	0,000
	N	572	572	563	556	545	571	571	569
ES	Pearson Correlation	.309**	.427**	1	.270**	.153**	.237**	0,019	.282**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,661	0,000
	N	563	563	563	550	539	562	562	560
RS	Pearson Correlation	.098*	.341**	.270**	1	.391**	.227**	.363**	.211**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,020	0,000	0,000		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
	N	556	556	550	556	534	555	555	553
PJ	Pearson Correlation	0,076	.204**	.153**	.391**	1	.275**	.522**	.289**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,077	0,000	0,000	0,000		0,000	0,000	0,000
	N	545	545	539	534	545	545	545	543
INTJ	Pearson Correlation	.268**	.263**	.237**	.227**	.275**	1	.255**	.705**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000		0,000	0,000
	N	571	571	562	555	545	571	571	569
DJ	Pearson Correlation	0,010	.124**	0,019	.363**	.522**	.255**	1	.224**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,820	0,003	0,661	0,000	0,000	0,000		0,000
	N	571	571	562	555	545	571	571	569
INFJ	Pearson Correlation	.279**	.302**	.282**	.211**	.289**	.705**	.224**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	
	N	569	569	560	553	543	569	569	569
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).									
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).									

Source: Author’s compilation (2021)

However, the relationship is not high enough to constitute multicollinearity problem in the subsequent regression. Fairly strong correlation exists between perceived interpersonal and informational justice as well as procedural and distributive justice dimensions. In general, the correlation between perceived HRP and perceived OJ are positive and statistically significant. The only exception is in the case of ICO that has no significant correlation with PJ and DJ and ES that has no significant relationship with DJ (sig.>5%). This is consistent with Misra et al. (2012) who reveal a positive relationship between rewards and distributive and procedural justice among employees in Delhi and NCR region as well as Ajlouni et al. (2021) who revealed the presence of significant positive correlation between four dimensions of OJ and HRP at individual and aggregate levels in northern Jordan. Hence, it can be concluded that four dimensions of perceived HRP relate positively with four forms of OJ.

7.5.2b Individual effects of employees' perception of HRPs on OJ

Subsequently, the model summary result of the multiple regression estimated to determine the influence of perceived HRPs on all forms of OJ is presented in Table 7.12. ANOVA index is used to predict the total fitness of the models. The index is associated with p-values, which are less than 5 percent, suggesting the regression models are of good fit. Distributive justice increases with RS ($\beta=0.505$, $p<0.05$) and reduces with ES ($\beta=-0.165$, $p<0.05$) but ICO ($\beta=-.054$, $p>0.5$), ROA ($\beta=.061$, $p>0.5$) have not significant effect on it at 5 percent level of significance. The results shows that distributive justice relate positively with reward system and negatively with employees' security. However, ICO and ROA have an insignificant negative and positive effect on distributive justice, respectively.

Table 13 further revealed that the perceived HRPs have positive effects on procedural justice though only RS ($\beta=0.334$, $p<0.05$) is statistically significant. At the 5 percent level of significance, ROA, ICO and ES are not statistically significant. Thus, ROA, ICO and ES have no positive effect on procedural justice; however, RS has a positive impact on procedural justice.

With interpersonal justice as dependent variable, the coefficient of determination, R^2 is 0.125 with adjusted R square of 0.119. This shows that the independent variables (ROA, ICO, RS and ES) explain 12.5 percent variance in the interpersonal justice. The standardised beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: result oriented behaviour ($\beta=.038$, $p>0.05$); internal career opportunities ($\beta=-0.193$, $p<0.05$); employee security ($\beta=0.116$, $p<0.05$); and reward system ($\beta=0.160$, $p<0.05$). The results revealed that perceptions of HRPs have positive effects on interpersonal justice at 5 percent significant level, albeit the statistical insignificance of ROA; therefore, the study concludes that ICO, ES, RS have a positive effect on OJ.

Table 7.12: Regression model Summary on OJ and HRP

Variables	B	B	T	P-value	R ²	F	Df	p-value
Dependent Variable: Distributive justice								
Constant	5.846		6.254	<.05	0.138	22.688	4;566	<.0005
ROA	.072	.061	1.092	>.05	0.132			
ICO	-.054	-.034	-.671	>.05				
ES	-.165	-.095	-2.171	<.05				
RS	.505	.368	8.655	<.05				
Dependent Variable: Procedural justice								
Constant	7.697		6.233	<.05	0.151	25.203	4;567	<.0005
ROA	.128	.081	1.480	>.05	0.145			
ICO	.008	.004	.077	>.05				
ES	.107	.046	1.067	>.05				
RS	.611	.334	7.920	<.05				
Dependent Variable: Interpersonal justice								
Constant	5.392		6.529	<.0005	0.125	20.170	4;566	<.0005
ROA	.039	.038	.675	>.05	0.119			
ICO	.267	.193	3.775	<.05				
ES	.177	.116	2.639	<.05				
RS	.193	.160	3.740	<.05				
Dependent Variable: Informational justice								
Constant	5.355		5.068	<.0005	0.141	23.107	4;564	<.0005
ROA	.127	.095	1.717	>.05	0.135			
ICO	.285	.159	3.139	<.05				
ES	.307	.157	3.582	>.05				
RS	.180	.116	2.724	>.05				

Source: Author’s compilation (2021)

Further, the second section of Table 7.12 revealed that the perceived HRP dimensions, notably ICO ($\beta=0.159$, $p<0.05$) have positive effect on informational justice while the positive effects of others ROA ($\beta=.095$, $p>0.05$), ES ($\beta=.157$, $p>0.05$) and RS ($\beta=.116$, $p>0.05$) are not statistically significant. Therefore, ROA, ES and RS have no positive effect on informational justice while the ICO has a positive effect on informational justice.

Even though certain dimensions of HRP are not statistically significant, their effects on dimensions of OJ are generally positive. The only exception is ICO and ES in relation to

distributive justice. This is consistent with positive correlation mostly established using Pearson correlation coefficient. With a few exceptions, it can be inferred that perceived HRPs have positive correlation and effect on dimensions of OJ, although different dimensions of HRPs affect different dimensions of OJ.

7.5.3a Correlation between OJ and WDB

The third objective of this study was to determine the link between OJ and WDB. First, the study determines the extent of correlation between the dimensions of OJ (i.e. informational justice, distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice) and forms of WDB (organisational and interpersonal and combined) by conducting Pearson Product-Moment correlation.

The correlation results in Table 7.13 show the dimensions of WDB have very strong, statistically significant correlation among them (690), suggesting high degree of relationship between interpersonal and organisational WDB. The relationships among the four dimensions of perceived OJ is positive and significant at 1 percent and 5 percent level of significance. These results are in line with Faheem and Mahmud (2015) and Baig and Ullah (2017) who show positive significant correlations among the three dimensions of OJ among public hospital and NGO employees in Pakistan.

Procedural and distributive justice have significant positive correlation with organisational deviance in line with Baig and Ullah (2017), while interpersonal and informational justice have negative correlation with OJ, however, not significant. An insignificant relationship of interpersonal justice with DWB was reported by Faheem and Mahmud (2015). There are positive correlations between procedural and distributive justice viz-a-viz interpersonal deviance. However, the correlations are not significant. Further, interpersonal and informational justice have significant negative correlations with interpersonal deviance.

In general, procedural and distributive justice have significant negative correlation with organisational deviance and an insignificant positive correlation with interpersonal deviance. Conversely, informational and interpersonal justice have significant negative relationships with interpersonal deviance, which is in support of Maqsood, Qayyum and Tariq (2021) who discovered a positive relationship between interpersonal and informational justice and WDB.

Table 7.13: Pearson correlation: OJ versus WDB

		OrgD	IntD	ProceJ	DistrJ	InterJ	InforJ
OrgD	Pearson Correlation	1	.690**	.130**	.096*	-.121**	-0,055
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,002	0,022	0,004	0,191
	N	561	559	561	561	561	560
IntD	Pearson Correlation	.690**	1	0,074	0,020	-.115**	-.124**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,076	0,629	0,006	0,003
	N	559	569	569	569	569	567
ProceJ	Pearson Correlation	.130**	0,074	1	.518**	.298**	.317**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,002	0,076		0,000	0,000	0,000
	N	561	569	572	571	571	569
DistrJ	Pearson Correlation	.096*	0,020	.518**	1	.255**	.224**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,022	0,629	0,000		0,000	0,000
	N	561	569	571	571	571	569
InterJ	Pearson Correlation	-.121**	-.115**	.298**	.255**	1	.705**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,004	0,006	0,000	0,000		0,000
	N	561	569	571	571	571	569
InforJ	Pearson Correlation	-0,055	-.124**	.317**	.224**	.705**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,191	0,003	0,000	0,000	0,000	
	N	560	567	569	569	569	569
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).							

Source: Author’s compilation (2021)

7.5.3b Individual effect of OJ and WDB

While the correlation measures the degree of relationship among the variables, it does not determine the effect of one on the other. Hence, the linear multiple regression is used to determine whether the negative (positive) relationship amounts to negative (positive) impact of OJ on the two forms of WDB.

ANOVA index is used to predict the total fitness of the models. The index is associated with p-values, which are less than 5 percent, suggesting the regression models are a good fit and

capable of determining the emergence of deviant behaviour. As depicted in the upper section of Table 7.14, the R square, as shown in the regression model, indicates 0.048 with adjusted R square of 0.042. This implies that the independent variables (informational justice, distributive justice, procedural justice and interpersonal justice) explain 4.8 percent variance in the organisational deviant behaviour.

The regression coefficients are used to determine the ability of each regressor to predict independent variable. The standardised beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: procedural justice ($\beta=.150$, $p<0.05$); distributive justice ($\beta=.063$, $p>0.05$); interpersonal justice ($\beta=-.198$, $p<0.05$); and informational justice ($\beta=.022$, $p>0.05$). Based on this outcome, whether OJ (informational justice, distributive justice, procedural justice and interpersonal justice) is positively related to organisational deviance, depends on the forms of justice. Specifically, there is a positive relationship between procedural justice and organisational deviance, while there is no positive relationship between other forms of justice and organisational deviance. As opposed to the *a priori*, this finding suggests that procedural justice increases organisational deviance. In line with the *a priori*, interpersonal justice reduces organisational deviance. However, Informational justice and Distributive justice do not exert significant effect on organisational deviance.

With respect to the interpersonal justice, regression result revealed that the independent variables (Informational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice) explain 3.2 percent of its variation. Furthermore, the standardised beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: Procedural justice ($\beta=.133$, $p<0.05$); Distributive justice ($\beta=-.005$, $p>0.05$); Interpersonal justice ($\beta=-.077$, $p>0.05$); and Informational justice ($\beta=.022$, $p>0.05$). Based on this outcome, the effect of OJ (Informational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice) on interpersonal deviance, depends on the forms of justice. Specifically, there is a positive relationship between procedural justice and interpersonal deviance while there is no positive relationship between other forms of justice and interpersonal deviance at 5 percent level of significance. As opposed to the *a priori*, this finding suggests that procedural justice increases interpersonal deviance. Interpersonal, Informational justice and Distributive justice reduce interpersonal deviance; however, the reducing effects are not statistically significant.

Table 7.14: Regression model summary on effect of OJ on WDB

Variables	B	B	T	P-value	R ²	F	df	p-value
Dependent Variable: Organisational_deviance								
Constant	15.822		12.259	<.05	0.048	7.058	4;555	<.05
Procedural justice	.197	.150	2.971	<.05	0.042			
Distributive justice	.111	.063	1.292	>.05				
Interpersonal justice	-.396	-.198	-3.366	<.05				
Informational justice	.034	.022	.369	>.05				
Dependent Variable: Interpersonal_deviance								
Constant	10.496		12.053	<.05	0.032 (0.025)	4.677	4;562	<.05
Procedural justice	.118	.133	2.658	<.05				
Distributive justice	-.005	-.005	-.093	>.05				
Interpersonal justice	-.103	-.077	-1.291	>.05				
Informational justice	-.115	-.110	-1.858	>.05				

Source: Author's estimation (2022)

Overall, this study established through Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression that there exists significant positive relationship and influence of procedural justice on both forms of WDB, worsening WDB. This is not consistent with the *a priori* expectation. However, interpersonal justice has a negative relationship with and influence on interpersonal deviance, ameliorating interpersonal deviance. This is consistent with the *a priori* expectation.

7.5.4a Correlation between personality trait and WDB

The previous sections concentrate on the organisational antecedents of WDB. A key individual predictor of WDB is personality traits which have been found to report a higher criterion-related validity when matched with other predictors of WDB (Salgado, 2002; Berry et al., 2007). This study investigated the correlation between HEXACO personality traits on deviant behaviour, as well as the effect of the former on the latter.

Table 7.15: Pearson Correlation: Personality traits and WDB

		OD	ID	H_H	E	A
OD	Pearson Correlation	1	.690**	-.234**	-.114**	-.194**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,008	0,000
	N	561	559	539	544	536
ID	Pearson Correlation	.690**	1	-.213**	-0,044	-.241**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,000	0,305	0,000
	N	559	569	547	550	543
H_H	Pearson Correlation	-.234**	-.213**	1	-0,056	.219**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000		0,193	0,000
	N	539	547	549	534	533
E	Pearson Correlation	-.114**	-0,044	-0,056	1	.115**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,008	0,305	0,193		0,008
	N	544	550	534	552	533
A	Pearson Correlation	-.194**	-.241**	.219**	.115**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,008	
	N	536	543	533	533	545
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

Table 7.15 shows that the correlation between each of the three dimensions of personality traits, namely Honest_humility (-.234**), Emotionality (-.114**), Agreeableness (-.194**) viz-a-viz organisational deviance are negative and significant at 1 percent or 5 percent level of significance. Similarly, Honest_humility (-.213**), Emotionality (-0,044) and Agreeableness (-.241**) each demonstrate negative correlation with interpersonal deviance, albeit statistical insignificance of Emotionality. The correlation results show that H-HAE personality traits is negatively related to WDB.

7.5.4b Individual effect of Personality trait and WDB

The results of multiple linear regression aimed at testing whether the negative correlation transmits to negative effect of personality traits on WDB is presented in Table 7.16. ANOVA index is used to predict the total fitness of the models. The index is associated with p-values, which are less than 5 percent, suggesting the regression models are of good fit. In Table 7.16, the R² of the regression model indicates 0.091 with adjusted R² of 0.086. This implies that the H-HAE personality traits explain 9.1 percent variance in the organisational deviant behaviour.

The standardised beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: Honest_humility ($\beta=-0.206$, $p<0.05$); Emotionality ($\beta=-0.138$, $p<0.05$); Agreeableness ($\beta=-0.131$, $p<0.05$). The results revealed that the H-HAE personality traits is negatively related to organisational deviance. Hence, H-HAE personality traits reduces organisational deviance.

Table 7.16: Regression model Summary on effect of Personality traits on WDB

Variables	B	B	T	P-value	R ²	F	Df	p-value
Dependent Variable: organisational deviance								
Constant	34.376		12.901	<.0005	0.091	17.080	3;509	<.0005
Honest_Humility	-.298	-.206	-4.735	<.05	0.086			
Emotionality	-.214	-.138	-3.224	<.05				
Agreeableness	-.169	-.131	-2.994	<.05				
Dependent Variable: Interpersonal deviance								
Constant	20.163		11.322	<.0005	0.086	16.084	3;518	<.0005
Honest_Humility	-.161	-.167	-3.842	<.05	0.080			
Emotionality	-.058	-.056	-1.307	>.05				
Agreeableness	-.170	-.196	-4.488	<.05				

Source: Author's estimation (2022)

Further, H-HAE explain 8.6 percent variance in the interpersonal deviant behaviour. The standardised beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: Honest_humility ($\beta=-.167$, $p<0.05$); Emotionality ($\beta=-.056$, $p>0.05$); Agreeableness ($\beta=-.196$, $p<0.05$). Similarly, the H-HAE personality traits is negatively related to interpersonal deviance, although the negative effect of Emotionality is not statistically significant. Overall, the results of the regression analyses suggest that H-HAE personality traits individually have reducing effects on the organisational and interpersonal forms of deviance. The negative effect of each of the personality trait on both organisational and interpersonal forms of deviance behaviour as found in the regression results corresponds to the negative correlation revealed in Pearson Correlation results.

From the previous sections, it is established that different dimensions of HRP have different effect on different forms of WDB and OJ. Similarly, different dimensions of OJ have different

effect on different forms of deviant behaviour, some significant and others not significant. Subsequently, all the dimensions of the constructs are consolidated to arrive at a definite conclusion and especially when investigating the mediating role of OJ in the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB on the one hand and the moderating role of personality traits in the relationship between OJ and WDB on the other hand.

7.5.5 Correlation between HRPs, OJ, WPD, Personality trait

It is relevant to also evaluate the correlations among the consolidated variables and the correlation results are presented in Table 7.17. The Pearson correlation coefficients show a negative correlation between WDB and each of HRPs and OJ. In addition, perceived HRPs has a positive relationship with OJ and personality traits.

Table 7.17: Pearson Correlation: HRPs, OJ, WPD, Personality trait

		WDB	HRPs	ORGJ	PTrait
WDB	Pearson Correlation	1	-.116**	-.105*	-.133**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,006	0,013	0,002
	N	559	559	558	552
HRPs	Pearson Correlation	-.116**	1	.328**	.127**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,006		0,000	0,003
	N	559	572	569	563
ORGJ	Pearson Correlation	-.105*	.328**	1	.125**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,013	0,000		0,003
	N	558	569	569	561
PTrait	Pearson Correlation	-.133**	.127**	.125**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,002	0,003	0,003	
	N	552	563	561	563
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,228	0,000	0,000	0,169
	N	559	572	569	563
ORGD	Pearson Correlation	.950**	-.084*	-.091*	-.194**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,047	0,031	0,000
	N	559	561	560	554
INTD	Pearson Correlation	.881**	-.178**	-.130**	-0,031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	0,000	0,002	0,467
	N	559	569	567	561
	N	534	545	543	541

Source: Author's estimation (2021)

7.5.6 PLS-SEM Analysis

As indicated in Section 7.5, the smart PLS-SEM is deployed to estimate the mediating role of OJ on the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB as well as the moderating role of personality traits on the relationship between OJ and WDB effects. In the process, the PLS-SEM results leads to the test of the following key or main hypotheses:

- H1: Perception of HRPs are negatively related to WDB.
- H2: Perception of HRPs are positively related to OJ.
- H3: OJ is negatively related to WDB.
- H4: OJ will mediate the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB.
- H5: Employee personality traits is negatively related to WDB.
- H6: Employee personality traits will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

7.5.7 Test of reliability and validity of the constructs

This study examines the reliability and validity of the study constructs⁴ which are derived from the conceptual framework, with the aid of the popular Cronbach's alpha (CA) and composite reliability (CR) coefficients and discriminant and convergent validity determined by the PLS-SEM method. The reliability of the constructs for this study were measured using Cronbach's alpha (CA) and composite reliability (CR). The results of the reliability test conducted showed that both the CA and CR were above the accepted threshold of 0.7. The convergent validity was measured using the average variance extracted (AVE). According to the rule of thumb, the acceptable threshold for the AVE is 0.5 (Hair et al. 2021). The results of the AVE showed that all constructs considered for the structural model are valid. Discriminant validity was calculated using the Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion. The result shows that discriminant validity was not violated in this study judging from the value in the diagonal, which is greater than the AVE.

The CA refers to the measurement of the internal consistency in terms of the close relationship of the set of questionnaire items when considered as a group (Taber, 2018). In the literature, Cronbach alpha values with coefficient 0.60- 0.70 and above are said to be acceptable (Van

⁴ The Figure 7.1 shows that most questions relating to certain constructs (RS, ES, DJ, PJ, H-HA) are deleted to achieve reliable factor loading.

Griethijssen et al., 2014; Hulin, Netemeyer & Cudeck, 2001). As a rule of thumb, a CA coefficient of 0.7 and above reliably and adequately measures the inter-item or internal consistency (Lubua, 2014). Table 7.18 presents the CA for this study and shows that the coefficients range from acceptable (>0.7) to excellent (>0.9) by existing standard⁵. Specifically, the CA coefficients for OJ, perceived HRPs, personality traits and WDB are 0.92, 0.72, 0.71 and 0.92 respectively as shown in the first column of the table. This suggests that the internal consistency of the measuring instruments used in this study is reliable. Additionally, composite reliability (CR) provides a measure of construct reliability and the decision-making criteria is much like the CA. As shown in column 2 of the table, the coefficients for CR are comparatively and generally higher than what is obtained with CA, ranging from good (>0.8) to excellent (>0.9) and confirming the reliability of the chosen constructs.

Average variance extracted (AVE) is a measure of convergent validity, which discloses the extent of positive correlations between indicators of the same variable (Hair Jr et al., 2014). To be acceptable, AVE must be less than CR but equal to or greater than 0.5 (Byrne, 2010; Gaskin, 2012; Hair Jr, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). AVE coefficients presented in Table 7.18 are 0.62, 0.54, 0.53 and 0.54 for OJ, perceived HRPs, personality traits and WDB, respectively. This means that the constructs' loading is greater than the barest minimum, thus upholding the convergent validity. To achieve the discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) posit that inter-construct correlation must be less than the square root of AVE, given by the diagonal. This condition is upheld in this study and the discriminant validity is not violated.

Table 7.18: Construct reliability and validity

S/N	Construct	CA	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4
1.	Organisational justice	0.924	0.936	0.621	0.788			
2.	Perceived HR practices	0.718	0.823	0.540	0.339	0.735		
3.	Personality trait	0.707	0.816	0.529	0.128	0.147	0.728	
4.	Workplace deviance	0.917	0.927	0.540	0.144	0.146	0.157	0.735

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

⁵ CA of 0.7, 0.8 and 0.9> and above corresponds to acceptable, good, excellent (George & Mallery, 2003)

7.5.8 Mediating effect of OJ on the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB

The PLS-SEM was employed to examine the mediating role of organisational justice on the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB, resulting in the tests of H1, H2, H3 and H4. The result of the PLS-SEM used for this purpose is presented in Figure 7.1, showing the direct and indirect effect of the predictors on the outcome variables, along with the associated R^2 . In terms of the link between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB, H1 is tested. Figure 7.1 shows the path coefficient from HRPs to WDB ($r=-0.146$, $p<0.05$), which revealed that HRPs exert a significant direct influence on WDB. This implies that the dimensions of perceived HRPs contribute significantly to reduction of WDB among the employees of public universities in South-West Nigeria. Thus, the hypothesis of negative relationship between perceived HRP and WDB is accepted.

With respect to the relationship that exists between employees' perception of HRPs and OJ, H2 is tested. Figure 7.1 shows the path from HRPs to OJ ($r=0.339$, $p<0.01$), which suggests that perceived HRPs exerts a significant impact on OJ. It means that OJ improves with an improvement in the perception of HRPs. This leads to the acceptance of the hypothesis of positive relationship between perceived HRP and WDB. In this context, the coefficient of determination represented by the R^2 shows that 11.5 percent of the variation in OJ can be explained by changes in perceptions of HRPs.

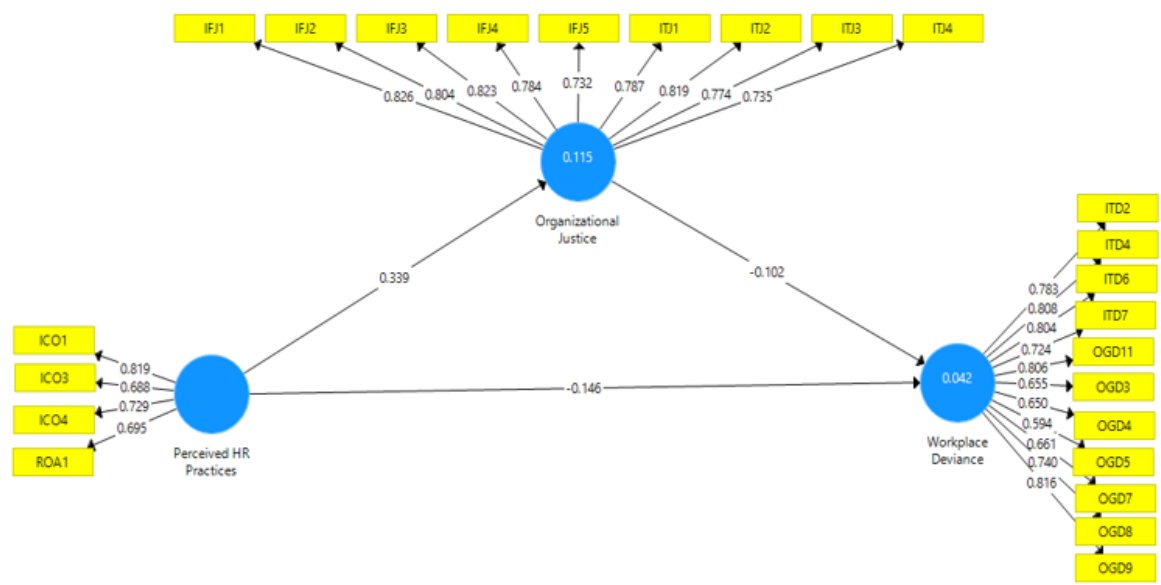


Figure 7.1: SEM: the interplay among perceived HRPs and WDB and OJ
 Source: Author's estimation (2021)

H3 is tested to reveal the relationship between OJ and WDB. Fig 7.1 shows the path from OJ to WDB ($r=-0.102$, $p<0.05$). Hence, shows that HRPs exerts a significant negative direct influence on WDB. The R^2 indicates that 4.2 percent of the variation in WDB can be explained jointly by changes in HRPs and OJ. In revealing the mediating effect of OJ on the relationship between employees' perception of HRPs and WDB, the outcome of this PLS-SEM analysis proves that perceived HRPs exert significant inverse indirect influence on WDB via organisation justice ($r=-0.102$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, OJ mediates the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB. Overall, the results of this statistical analysis indicate that, HRPs exerts both a direct and an indirect influence on WDB.

The first layer of Table 7.19 complements the Figure 7.1, showing the direct effect of the input on output variable as previously interpreted. PLS-SEM also shows the path coefficients' significance using the average estimates from the bootstrapping resample of Hair et al. (2014). The bootstrapping procedure generates both the total and specific indirect effects results with their associated t-statistics and p values as presented in Table 7.19. The goodness of fit of the SEM rests on the magnitude of each structural path represented by the R^2 for the dependent variable (Briones-Penalver, Bernal-Conesa, & De Nieves-Nieto, 2018).

Table 7.19: Path analysis of the relationship between HRPs and WDB and mediator (OJ)

Variables	Coefficient	T Statistics	P value
Perceived HR Practices -> Workplace Deviance	-0.146	2.665	0.008
Perceived HR Practices -> Organisational Justice	0.339	7.421	0.000
Organisational Justice -> Workplace Deviance	-0.102	2.335	0.020
Total indirect effect			
Perceived HR Practices -> Workplace Deviance	-0.035	2.213	0.027
Specific indirect effect			
Perceived HR Practices -> Organisational Justice -> Workplace Deviance	-0.035	2.213	0.027
Total effect			
Perceived HR Practices -> Workplace Deviance	-0.181	3.649	0.000
Perceived HR Practices -> Organisational Justice	0.339	7.421	0.000
Organisational Justice -> Workplace Deviance	-0.102	2.335	0.020

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

The first layer of the Table 7.19 complements Figure 7.1, showing the direct effect of the input on output variable as previously interpreted. PLS-SEM also shows the path coefficients' significance and the procedure generates both the total and specific indirect effects results with their associated t-statistics and p values as presented in Table 7.19. It can be seen from the second layer of the table that the total indirect effect of perceived HRPs on WDB ($r=-0.035$, $p<0.05$) is significant and inverse. In addition, the specific indirect effect on the path from perceived HRs through the OJ to the WDB ($r=-0.035$, $p<0.05$) confirms the significant mediating effect of OJ on the interaction between perceived HRPs and WDB at 5 percent level of significance. As shown in the table, only the path from HRPs to WDB has direct and indirect effect. Therefore, the total effect from HRPs and WDB is significant.

Commenting on the mediating role of OJ in the perceived HRPs and WDB relationship, the mediation analyses support the mediating role of OJ. This study establishes a reducing effect of the HRP on WDB, when OJ is employed as mediator. This is similar to the result obtained without a mediator. It can be concluded that OJ partially mediates the relationship between HRPs and WDB. This is because the negative statistically significant relationship holds between HRPs and WDB with or without OJ.

7.5.9 Moderating effect of personality traits on the relationship between OJ and WDB

This study proposes that employees' personality traits will determine whether they will reciprocate feelings of injustice with deviant behaviour. An hypothesis was formulated to establish the moderating influence of employee personality traits on the relationship between OJ and WDB. Table 7.20 illustrates the outcome of the statistical analysis conducted to test the moderating influence of personality traits. In the process, hypotheses H5 and H6 are tested. The results of the PLS-SEM estimated for this purpose are also presented in Figure 7.2.

To test the moderating influence of personality trait, a bootstrapping method using 1000 subsamples was employed in SmartPLS. The goodness of the structural equation model rests on the magnitude of each structural path represented by the R^2 for the dependent variable (Briones-Penalver et al. 2018). Figure 7.2 produces a R^2 of approximately 0.05, hence the predictive capability of the model is acceptable.

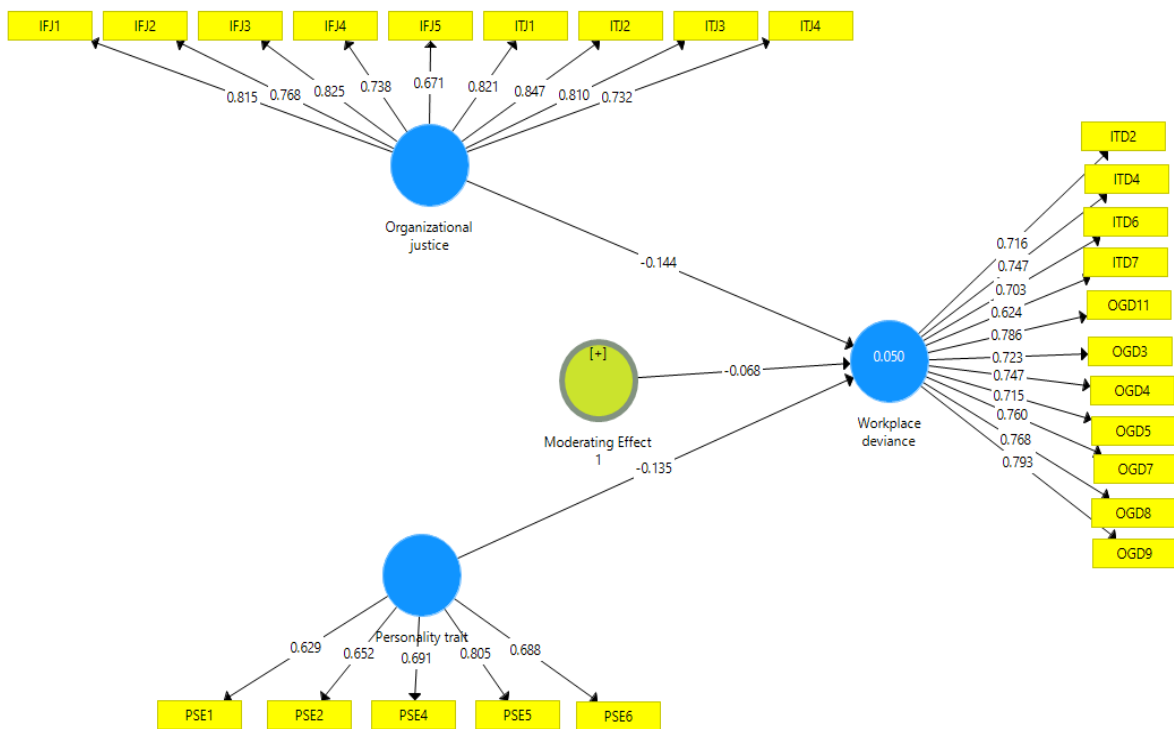


Figure 7.2: Interplay among OJ, WDB and mediator, Personality traits

Source: Author’s compilation (2021)

Figure 7.2 and Table 7.20 shows the path from OJ to WDB ($r=-0.144$, $p<0.01$), which suggests that perceived OJ exerts a significant negative direct impact on WDB. This was already established in the previous section. It means that WDB reduces with an improvement in the perception of OJ. In terms of the link between personality trait and WDB, Figure 7.2 and Table 7.20 show the path coefficient from personality trait to WDB ($r=-0.135$, $p<0.01$) and discloses that the impact of the formal on the latter is negative and significant. Going by the negative regression coefficient, an improvement in the personality traits (predominantly represented by A) have a significant reducing effect on the WDB at 1 percent level of significance. This supports H5.

Moderation analysis was performed to assess the moderating role of personality traits. This introduction of personality trait as a moderating variable does not exert a significant influence on WDB ($r=-0.068$, $p>0.05$). Thus, the study established an insignificant mediating role of personality traits on the relationship between OJ and WDB. Based on Table 7.20, the hypothesis for the moderating effect, for the moderator personality traits cannot be rejected. This suggests that personality trait does not moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

Table 7.20: Path analysis of the relationship between OJ and WDB: personality trait moderator

Variables	Coefficient	T Statistics	P value
Organisational Justice -> Workplace Deviance	-0.144	3.533	0.000
Personality Trait -> Workplace Deviance	-0.135	2.770	0.006
Moderating Effect 1 -> Workplace Deviance	-0.068	1.409	0.159

Source: Author's estimation (2021)

The summary of decisions on formulated hypotheses is presented in Table 7.21. H1 shows that HRPS has a negative relationship with WDB. The implication is that an improvement in perceived HRPs as a whole brings about a reduction in WDB. H2 shows that HRPs improves OJ. H3 shows that OJ reduces WDB. H4 reveals that OJ partially mediate the relationship between HRPs and WDB. H5 shows that HEXACO personality traits reduces WDB. H6 discloses that HEXACO personality traits does not mediate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

Table 7.21: Decisions on the formulated hypotheses based on Smart PLS-SEM

H	Latent variables	Coefficient	T Statistics	P value	R ² value	Decision
H1	Perceived HR Practices -> Workplace Deviance	-0.146	2.665	0.008	0.042	Accepted
H2	Perceived HR Practices -> Organisational Justice	0.339	7.421	0.000	0.115	Accepted
H3	Organisational Justice -> Workplace Deviance	-0.102	2.335	0.020	0.042	Accepted
H4	Perceived HR Practices -> Organisational Justice -> Workplace Deviance	-0.035	2.213	0.027	0.042	Accepted
H5	Personality traits -> Workplace Deviance	-0.135	2.770	0.006	-	Accepted
H6	Moderating effect -> Workplace Deviance	-0.123	1.305	0.193	-	Rejected

Source: Author's estimation (2021)

7.6 Results of the qualitative analysis

This study collected qualitative data from the respondents using four open ended question and the report is hereby presented. Out of the 572 questionnaires eventually recovered from the study participants, those who responded to open ended questions range from 326 to 365. This response rate proves sufficient for further analyses, interpretation and drawing inferences from the qualitative data collection point of view and it would have been impossible to generate as much response via interview. In the course of the analysis, direct texts that are extracted from the responses are stated with some modification to update the grammatical errors and wrong construction of sentences. These open-ended questions sought to elicit response from the respondents in terms of: (i) how they feel about HRPs in their organisations; (ii) whether HRPs emphasises employees' welfare; (iii) whether they would justify involvement in WDB on the basis of unfair treatment; (iv) how in their opinion the WDBs could be curbed by government.

7.6.1 How do you feel about the human resource practices of your institution?

A total of 365 people answered this question. The consolidated responses were classified and answers were found to fall into four major areas.

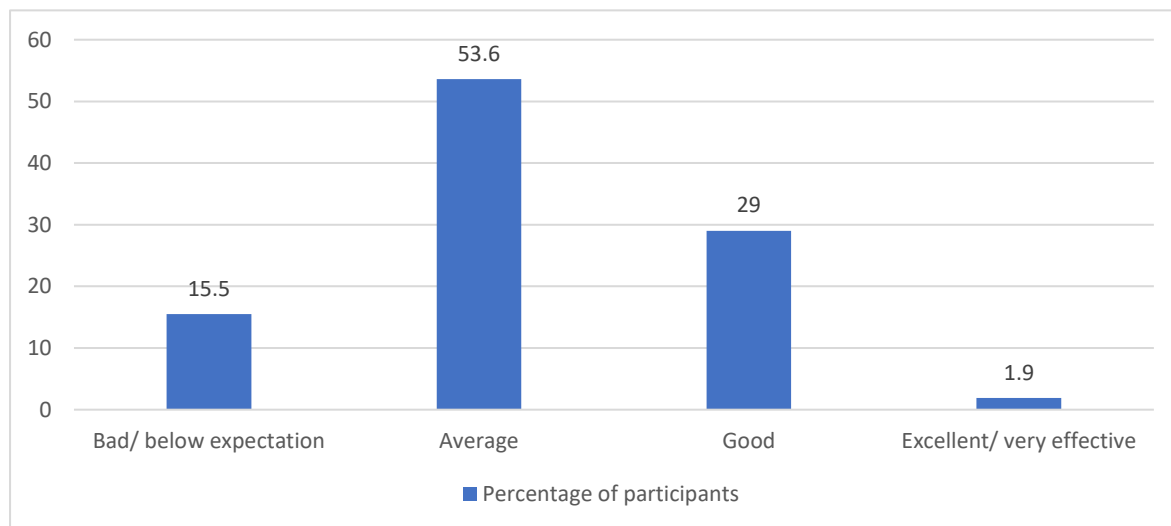


Figure 7.3: Employees feeling about the HRPs in their institutions

Source: Field survey (2021)

As shown in Figure 7.3, 15.5 percent of the respondents feels that the HRPs in Nigerian public university is bad or below expectations. Two of the respondents in this category states that, specifically respondent 317 and 370 respectively:

“The HRPS are not in place to address the workers’ needs, the management should look into this”

“The Human resource practices should be made for the benefit of the workers”

Conversely, only 1.9 percent admitted that the HRPs in these institutions are excellent and very effective. This suggest that those with extreme bad feeling exceeded those with extreme good feeling as far as HRPs are concerned. The 29 percent of the respondents are of the opinion that the HRPs is good while the majority of them represented by 53 percent are of the opinion that the HRPs in the Nigerian university is on the average, and needed significant improvement. Some of the respondents in this category stated that:

“The Human resource practices are averagely good, but requires a significant improvement”

“The Human resource practices are good on average, but improvement can be made going forward”

“The Human resource practices need improvement”

“The Human resource practices need improvement and in particular must be made staff focused”

“The Human resource practices are not friendly enough”

The implication is that the majority do not feel that practices aimed at ensuring that employees are attracted, retained and motivated on the job, are good enough in these universities. The implication of this revelation is not good for the institutions of higher learning as quantitative analysis suggests that low perceptions on the HRPS will increase WDB.

7.6.2 Do these human resource practices emphasise employee’s welfare?

A total of 364 participants answered question of whether HRPs emphasise employees’ welfare and answers were classified into three groups. The chart in Figure 7.4 shows that 58 percent of the respondents to this question agreed that the HRPs emphasises their welfare. The 30 percent of the respondents opined that the HRPs do not place emphasis on employee’s welfare while the remaining 12 percent partially agreed to the HRPs placing emphasis on employees’ welfare in the public universities. As much as the majority (58%) of the respondents suggests that their welfare is emphasised in the HRPs, the percentage of people who disagreed (42%) is concerning.

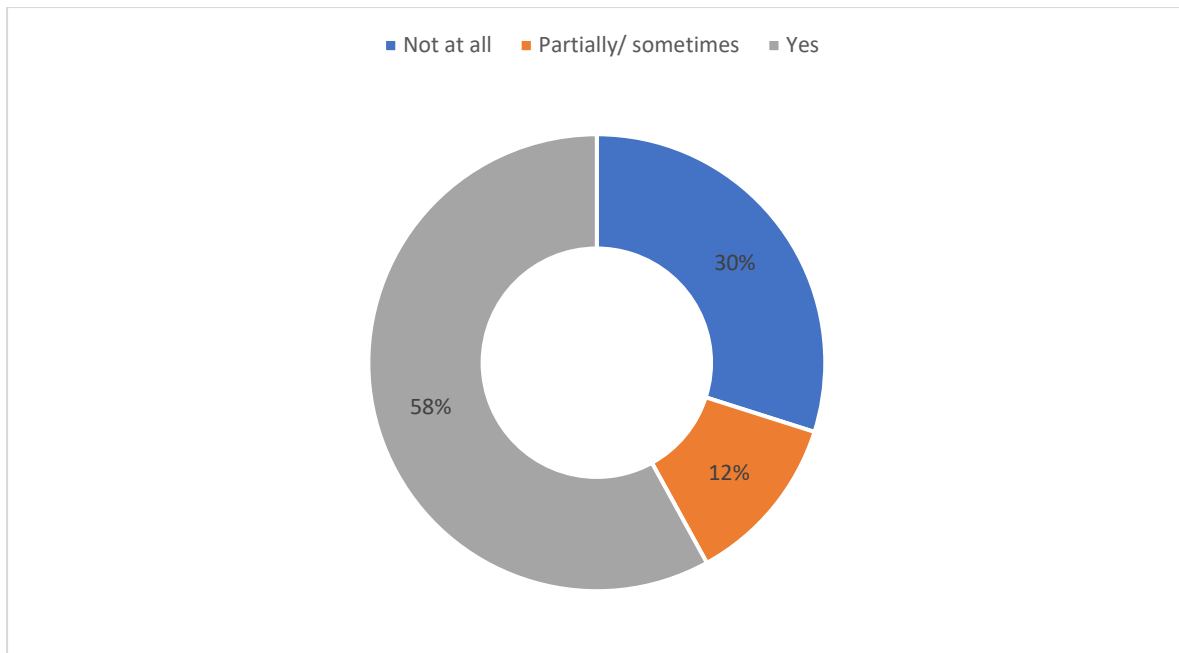


Figure 7.4: The HRPs' emphasis on employees' welfare

Source: Field survey (2021)

7.6.3 Will you justify employee involvement in workplace deviance on the basis of unfair treatment?

The responses of the 326 respondents who answered the question on whether they would justify involvement in WDB on the basis of unfair treatment were classified into three groups. The first subgroup, representing 54 percent, shows that they would not condone an involvement in WDB even in the face of unfair treatment. Although the responses are generally short words and sentences, some of the extracts are:

“I don't support destructive work behaviour”

“I would never be a part of bad practices”

“Two wrongs don't make it right and what is bad is bad”.

The second subgroup, representing 35 percent of the respondents, indicated that they would justify WDB on the basis of unfair treatment while the remaining 11 percent provided conditional response. Examples of responses in this category are:

“Not really but to some extent, WDB could be adduced to unfair treatment”.

“It depends on the circumstances”

As much as the majority of the respondents would not justify unwanted behaviour based on unfair treatment, the percentage of the employees who would do so is concerning. The implication of this revelation is not good for the universities as quantitative analysis suggests that organisation injustice or perception of unfairness would escalate WDB.

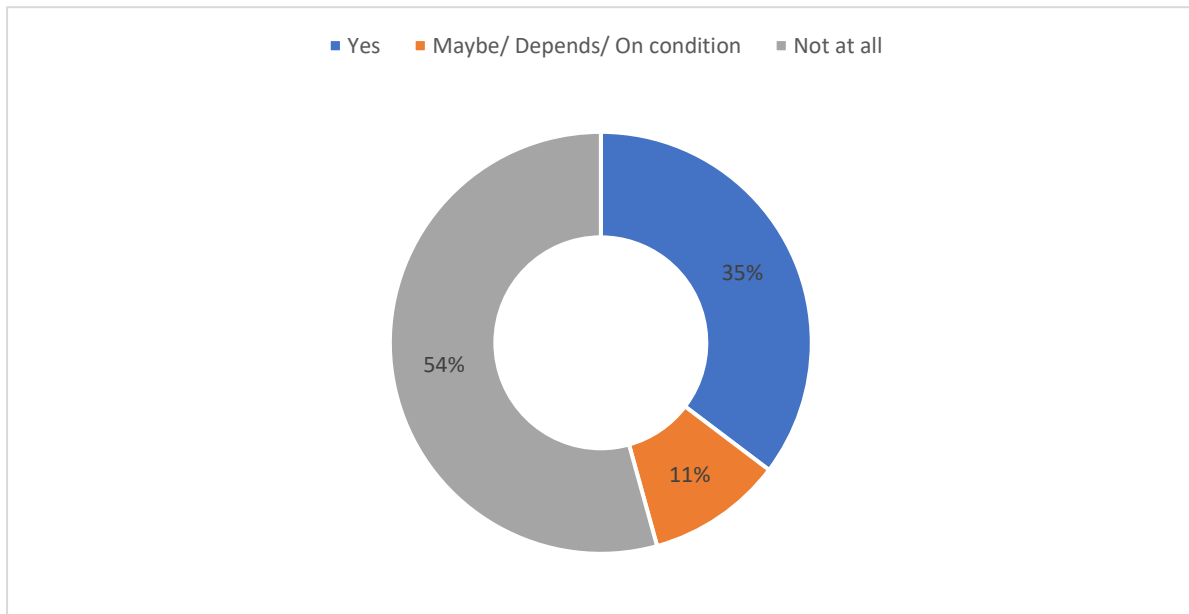


Figure 7.5: Justifying WDB on the basis of unfair treatment

Source: Field survey (2021)

7.6.4 What would you advice the government to do in order to curb workplace deviance in public institutions?

Up to 333 participants responded to the call for suggestions on how government could curb WDBs in public universities. Most responses were highly fragmented and unspecific, but the suggestions commonly mentioned were reduced to eight sub-themes listed in Figure 7.5. First, employees’ suggestions in Figure 7.6 revealed that fair treatment of employees would go a long way in reducing WDB among employees of the Nigerian public universities. For example, some of the participants indicated that:

“Government and management must ensure fair treatment and provide a good welfare package”

“Government must make sure that there is transparency in the organisation”

“WDB can be ameliorated by ensuring just treatment”

“Fairness to all staff members is one of the ways to deal with WDB”

“The authorities must be honest in their dealings with the employees”

This recommendation further emphasises the role of fair treatment in the WDB discourse. This implies that OJ is key in curbing WDB in the public university. Secondly, employees suggest that attending to the basic needs of the employees for welfarism can be used by government to curb WDB. In this regard, commitment to employee’s welfare cannot be ignored in reducing WDB. Thus, the poorer the welfare package, the higher the tendency for WDB. For instance, respondents 72 and 59 respectively emphasised:

“Support the welfare of the workforce”

“Good welfare package”

- Need for equal treatment of staff
- Attend to employee basic needs for welfare
- Break from local stereotypes
- Create a conducive work environment
- Employ fairly to ensure only qualified get the posts
- Government to strengthen and enforce the labour law
- Employer to incentivise hard working employees
- Use of periodic monitoring teams

Figure 7.6: Employees suggestions on curbing WDB

Source: Field survey (2021)

Thirdly, employees suggest that government and management of public universities should break away from local stereotypes and embrace international standard and practices. This is quite revealing as universities are universal and most of the unwanted behaviour found in the Nigerian public universities today are detrimental to the international university environments. For example, respondents 77 suggested that the Universities need to:

“Break from the local stereotype”

Fourthly, employees suggest that creating a conducive work environment can be a reliable antidote to the WDB enigma perverting the public institutions. This encompasses comfortable

office environment, shared respect, attention and empathy, meritocracy and truthfulness. For example, some of the respondents indicated:

“Provision of conducive environment”

“Create a better work environment”

Fifthly, fairness in the recruitment process which is one of the HRPs not covered in this study, especially employing qualified candidate to vacant positions is suggested as one of the ways by which WDB can be curtailed in the public universities. It suggests that competency of the appointee must not be handled with levity in the effort to rid our *alma mater* of unwanted behaviour. Below are some of the responses from the respondents:

“Encourage employment that are based on ability”

“Employ only qualified”

Sixthly, others recognise the need for government to strengthen and enforce labour law in a bid to curb WDB. In this instance, the law governing the relationship among the employees, institutions, employee union and government must be reinforced and implemented. This suggest that the right of the employees and employment contract must be protected and respected. For example, one of the responses from the respondents suggested that:

“Government should strengthen the labour law and also enforce it”

Seventhly, incentive for hardworking employees can also be used to remedy WDB. This could be in the form of reward-oriented appraisal. The suggestion means that an employee who is not rewarded for hard work, could demonstrate destructive behaviour. For instance some of the respondents emphasised:

“More incentives”

“Help workers to get well paid”

Lastly, the use of a periodic monitoring team is suggested as one means through which WDB can be addressed in the public university. This implies that employees tend to resort to WDB

if they are not monitored from time to time. Below are some of the responses from the respondents:

“The government should at intervals send monitoring teams and make investigations with recommendations on how to curb workplace deviance”

“Government should introduce clock in card”

“The supervisor should be sent by govt. to monitor staff & workplace for proper & good environment to work”

7.7 Chapter summary

The focus of this chapter was to present the results of the data analysis, interpret the results and test the hypotheses. Quantitative data were generated via structured questionnaires and analysed using inferential statistics of multiple regression analysis and SEM. There are several sub-hypotheses generated from the five main hypotheses. The sub-hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analysis and the main hypotheses were tested using SEM by SMART-PLS. Qualitative data were generated via open-ended questionnaires and analysed using descriptive statistics to provide more information that cannot be revealed by the quantitative analysis. The results of the main hypothesis showed that: (i) perceived HRPs are negatively related to WDB; (ii) perceived HRPs are positively related to OJ; (iii) OJ is positively related to WDB; (iv) OJ partially mediates the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB; (v) Employee personality traits is negatively related to WDB; (vi) employee personality traits does not moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB. The analysis of the qualitative data revealed that HRPs-related factors such as welfare, reward, recruitment, conducive work environment and monitoring are negatively related to WDB and OJ factors such as fair treatment, enforcement of labour law are negatively related to WDBs. A full discussion of the findings is presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

The hypotheses of the organisational (HRPs and OJ) and individual (personality) antecedents of WDB, as well as the mediator of HRPs-WDB relationship and moderator of OJ-WDB relationship, were analytically examined in the previous chapter. The present chapter discusses the major findings from the tested hypotheses. The discussion intends to link the findings to the prior studies as well as relevant theories. In this context, the findings are discussed *vis-à-vis* the prior studies and the literature. Thus, the subsequent segments of this chapter involve the discussion of findings on the effect of HRPs on WDB, the discussion of findings on the effect of HRPs on OJ, the discussion of findings on the effect of OJ and WDB, the discussion of findings on the mediating effect of OJ in the HRPs-WDB relationship, the discussion of findings on the effect of personality traits on WDB, the discussion of findings on the moderating effect of personality on the OJ-WDB relationship and the summary of the chapter.

8.2 Discussion of findings on the effect of HRPs on WDB

This study examined the effects of perceived HRPs on WDB by examining individual effect of each dimension of perceived HRPs on each of the two main dimensions of WDB on the one hand and by testing combined effects of all dimensions of perceived HRPs on aggregate WDB on the other hand.

- H_{1A}: Perceptions of dimensions of HRPs (ROA, ICO, ES, RS) are negatively related to organisational and interpersonal WDB
- H_{1B}: Perception of HRPs is negatively related to WDB (MAIN)⁶

On the one hand, the null hypothesis, which states that perception of each dimension of HRPs (ROA, ICO, ES, RS) has a negative effect on organisational and interpersonal deviance was not supported because where the negative influence was found, it was statistically insignificant, based on the multiple regression results. The key finding from this hypothesis is that reward system has a positive (increasing) effect on organisational deviance, while ICO has a reducing effect on interpersonal deviance.

⁶ Main hypothesis as stated in Chapter 1

The study findings are consistent with Saeed et al. (2014) who showed that ROA and ICO have no significant impact on organisational deviance among bankers in Pakistan. With respect to the ICO, this suggests that the present opportunities to progress in the career ladder cannot significantly reduce organisational deviance in the tertiary institutions. Thus, employees tend to engage in counterproductive behaviour due to the absence of the opportunity to progress in the career path. This finding suggests insignificant dependence on internal labour markets as well as limited training and development to develop employees for future opportunities in the tertiary institutions. When an organisation decides to fill vacant positions with outsiders, employees tend to perceive this as an attempt to hinder their growth in the organisation, which leads to stress and frustration. When this happens, employees reciprocate by becoming involved in acts that are harmful to the organisation (Shamsudin et al., 2011). However, this study is consistent with Shamsudin et al. (2011) who report that ICO has a reducing effect on interpersonal deviance. This study shows that ICO only significantly reduces interpersonal and not organisational deviance. In this respect, Arthur (2011) opines that employees are not likely to embark on interpersonal deviance in an organisation that is favourably disposed to internal labour market.

The null hypothesis, which states that perception of ROA has negative effects on both forms of WDB is not supported because the observed negative effect is not statistically significant. This finding is contrary to Alshuaibi et al. (2014) and Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) who disclosed that effective performance appraisal has a significant negative effect on WDB. The insignificance of ROA is consistent with Shamsudin et al. (2011) who found that ROA is not a significant determinant of interpersonal deviance in Malaysia Manufacturing sector and Saeed et al. (2014) in Pakistan. This finding is a pointer to weak appraisal system in the university system. This suggests a need to improve on measures of employee performance for the purpose of distributing rewards and making administrative decisions regarding, promotion, transfers and layoff and measures used to get information and feedback, such as training needs of employees, potential work behaviour, employee performance and preferred future skills which may be necessary for the future development of the employees.

This study found that employee security does not determine WDB. The finding of insignificant impact of employee security contradicts Shamsudin et al. (2011) and Saeed et al. (2014) who revealed that same variable significantly reduces organisational deviance in Malaysia and Pakistan, respectively and Qin, Wu, Liu, Liu and Wu (2021) who concluded that employment

stability and longevity causes employee to deviate from organisational deviance in Chinese state-owned enterprises. However, the finding is in consonance with Van Der Westhuizen (2019) who concluded that job insecurity has insignificant impact on deviance behaviour and Wong et al. (2005) who found that the impact of job insecurity on organisational citizenship behaviour and job performance depends on the type of organisation, although the study focuses on OCB and job performance, it is assumed that when employees are not motivated to perform on their job or put up citizenship behaviour they are motivated to do otherwise such as withdrawal of efforts (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) which is a form of WDB. Their findings suggest that the impact of employment security on WDB depends on the organisational context. Employment security entails employment stability, continuity and longevity as well as security of attachment to the organisation whose absence is usually reciprocated by WDB. The *a priori* expectation is rooted in the social exchange theory whereby an employee is expected to reciprocate the job security offered by the organisation with good behaviour and *vice versa* (Qin et al., 2021). Surprisingly, this study finds that perception of employee's security spurs both forms of deviance, albeit insignificantly. The finding is concerning and suggests that the impact of perception of job security is context dependent.

Against the expectation, this study found that reward system increases organisational deviance and not interpersonal deviance. This suggests that dissatisfaction to reward system is expressed towards the organisation who is the originator. It could be that the increase in the reward system is not substantial. Reward and compensation are one of the thinly researched measures of the HRPs (Gupta & Shaw, 2014). Research has linked financial rewards and communication on pay processes with employee behaviour, attitudes and performance (Tracey 2014). While university employees are not necessarily poorly remunerated from the national viewpoint, their remuneration does not compare favourably internationally. Dissatisfaction with pay has been linked to incessant industrial action in the Nigerian university system. This study adds to the literature on the impact of pay on WDB in Nigeria (Igbe et al., 2017).

Aside the individual impact of the dimensions of perceived HRPs on each form of WDB, this study examined the joint effect of perceived HRPs on aggregate WDB using the SEM-PLS. This study finds that an increase in perceived HRPs (predominantly ICO and ROA), jointly reduce aggregate WDB. This finding is consistent with the *a priori* expectation and studies. For instance, (Nwuche & Eketu, 2015) who conducted their study in Nigeria found that when employees perceive that the organisation do not care about their career development could

trigger WDB. Huiras, Uggen and McMorris (2000) also found that when employees perceive their career to be at stake, they could result into workplace misconduct. This is congruent with the social exchange theory, which is used to explain exchanges that take place between employees and the organisation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2018). According to this theory employees who feels the organisation cares less about the future retaliates by involving in WDB as a means of expressing their dissatisfaction. In other words, a reduction in the perception of HRPs would increase the WDB in the Nigerian public universities. From the qualitative analysis of the open-ended questions, most of the employees opined that the HRPs in these institutions are not good enough, as it does not emphasise concern for employee's welfare which HRPs ought to emphasise. In addition, employees suggest that improved welfare, improved reward, fair recruitment process, conducive work environment and periodic monitoring are necessary to reduce WDB. Thus, there is high tendency for an increase in WDB if the HRPs are not enhanced in these public universities.

8.3 Discussion of findings on the effect of HRPs on OJ

There are limited studies on the impact of OJ on HRPs from the global and Nigerian perspectives; certain studies (Ajlouni et al., 2021) examined the impact of the latter on the former. The second objective of this study examined the effects of HRPs on OJ by examining individual effect of each of the four HRPs dimensions on each of the four main dimensions of OJ on the one hand and by testing combined effects of HRPs dimensions on aggregate OJ on the other hand. Social exchange theory was used to explain the relationship that exists between HRPs and OJ (Bernhard-Oettel, Eib, Griep, & Leineweber, 2020; Piccoli & Belotto, 2015)

H2A: Perceptions of HRPs facets (ROA, ICO, ES, RS) are positively related to OJ facets (PJ, DJ, IJ, FJ).

H2B: Perception of HRPs is positively related to OJ. (MAIN)

The results revealed that the null hypothesis (H2A), which states that perceptions of HRPs facets have no positive effects on interpersonal justice, is rejected at 5% significant level, albeit the statistical insignificance of ROA. This study equally found that ICO has a significant direct influence on informational justice while ROA, ES, RS do not pose a significant impact. This study contributes to the literature as comparative studies of dimensional impact are scarce. Although, Swarts, Leeuw and Mukonza (2019) focus on interactional justice in South Africa

and found it to be significantly impacted by promotion and performance management, their finding compares to this study's significant impact of ICO on interpersonal and informational justices as promotion is a subset ICO and interpersonal and informational justices are the subsets of interactional justice. However, the current study shows that ROA has no significant impact on interpersonal and procedural justice while reward system significantly enhances procedural and distributive justice. Thus, when performance management is considered as a subset of ROA, this study differs from Swarts et al. (2019) who showed that procedural justice increases with an increase in performance management while compensation has no impact on procedural and interactional justice. The significant impact of ES on interpersonal justice in this study lends supports to Sobieralski and Nordstrom (2012). However, this study finds that ES is not a significant determinant of procedural and informational justice, hence, contrasts with Sobieralski and Nordstrom (2012) who showed that job insecurity (lay-off) reduces procedural and interactional justice.

Importantly, this study found that distributive, procedural and interpersonal justices increase with an increase in the reward system. This finding is consistent with the *a priori* expectation. Thus, suggesting that an improvement in the employee's reward system compares to receiving fair treatment from the organisation. In this context, this finding is in line with Laundon (2018) who found that information justice increases as employees are being adequately informed about reward system and staff-oriented reward system increases perceived interpersonal justice in a big insurance and financial firm based in Australia. In this context, Fischer (2004) holds that rewarding employees speaks volume of how much an organisation values their employee. The finding suggests that a rise in the reward system is tantamount to a perception fair distribution of resources amongst individuals, fairness of procedures and processes used in deciding an outcome as well as a feeling of respect and propriety in the interaction between subordinate and superior, altogether. Incidentally, all forms of justice, individually and jointly, have a reducing effect on WDB among employees of the public universities under consideration. This suggests that reward system might have a multiplier or mediating effect in terms of reducing WDB in the university system through OJ. In this regard, it is necessary to investigate the mediating role of reward system in justice-WDB relationship in the future

Furthermore, this study found that ES enhances interpersonal justice; hence, employment stability and general security of attachment to the organisation tends to enhance the level of respects and propriety in the interaction between subordinate and superior or managers.

Bernhard-Oettel et al. (2020) found that job security enhances the perception of justice. From the social exchange perspective, employment security is evidence of support from the organisation and view employment security as a reward for the efforts put into the organisation and disrespect and lack of propriety is unlikely to ensue. This finding is desirable because interpersonal justice has a reducing effect on WDB. According to Jeon (2009), OJ and employment security spur certain levels of trust in organisation management. On the contrary, this study found that employee security reduces distributive justice. This finding is at variance with the *a priori* and the literature (Piccoli & De Witte, 2015; Piccoli & Belotto, 2015), which portend that job security goes hand-in-hand with distributive justice. Thus, in the context of the South-West Nigeria public university, employment stability and attachment to the organisation tends to increase unfair perception of distribution of resources amongst employees. This could be due to other underlying factors such as comparison with employees from other sectors. Equity theory suggests that individuals compare their input and outcome ratio to that of relevant referent, this comparison forms their perception of how fair the outcome they receive is (Miller et al., 2011). In Nigeria, one of the most poorly remunerated employees are employees of public universities (Vanguard, 2021) although they have more job security when compared to their referent in other sectors such as banking. Hence, when employees of these public universities compare their outcome to their referent, they may begin to perceive the distribution of resources to be unfair even though there is job security (Miller et al., 2011).

After exploring the individual effect of dimensions HRP on dimensions of OJ, the aggregate effect is examined using PLS-SEM. It is found that dimensions of HRP (predominantly ICO and ROA) altogether improves the OJ (predominantly informational and interpersonal). Linking this finding to the extant literature, Kurian (2018) submitted that HRDPs have justice perception influence on employees in a big US public university. Ajlouni et al. (2021) revealed a significant positive impact of four dimensions of OJ on HRP at individual and aggregate levels in northern Jordan. Tarban and Ariffin (2019) using SEM, showed that HRP has significant joint direct effect on OJ in Malaysia's public universities by focusing on academic staff Li and Li (2020) showed a significant positive correlation between OJ and HRP, while Atikbay and Öner (2020) found that combined HRP boost combined three forms of OJ (procedural, distributive and interactional justice) in northern Cyprus municipalities. While the current study from Nigerian context compared to other studies from other national context, those studies have focused mainly on three dimensions of OJ, by not taking the division or

subset of interactional justice into consideration. The current study also expands the literature from the dimensional specific impact viewpoint.

8.4 Discussion of findings on the effect of OJ and WDB

This study examined the effects of OJ on WDB by examining individual effect of each dimension of OJ on each dimension of WDB on the one hand and by testing combined effects of all dimensions of OJ on aggregate WDB on the other hand.

- H_{02A}: Dimensions of OJ (PJ, DJ, IJ, FJ) are positively related to organisational and interpersonal WDB
- H_{02B}: OJ is negatively related to WDB (MAIN)

Testing the null hypothesis of significant positive effect of dimensions of OJ on WDB, this study established through multiple linear regression that there exist significant positive relationship and influence of procedural justice on both forms of WDB, worsening WDB. Increasing effect of procedural justice on WDB is not consistent with the *a priori* expectation. It is also in contradiction with Faheem and Mahmud (2015), Dora and Azim (2019) and Abbasi et al. (2020) who found that procedural justice has insignificant negative effect on WDB among employees of Pakistan public hospital and multimedia companies and SMEs in Malaysia, respectively. The finding also contradicts Baig and Ullah (2017) who concluded that procedural justice significantly reduces aggregate WDB. There exists a limited study on the impact of procedural justice on WDB in Nigeria, however, the study contradicts Ohioyenoye and Eguavoen (2019) who posit that procedural, interactional and distributive justice boosts employee's commitment in tertiary institutions in Edo state Nigeria. Under the procedural justice wave, the fairer the processes leading to the distribution of outcome, the lower the tendency to embark on deviant behaviour. The study finding contravenes this theory, suggesting that employees of the universities under consideration are negatively disposed to fairness of procedures and processes used in deciding an outcome by been involved in organisational and interpersonal deviance.

This study found that distributive justice has an insignificant positive impact on organisational deviance and an insignificant negative impact on interpersonal deviance. This finding suggests that employees of the studied public university are literally indifferent as to the fairness of distribution of outcome (Deutsch, 1985). This study's finding differs from Baig and Ullah

(2017), Dora and Azim (2019) who found that distributive justice posed significant negative effect on WDB as well as Butt and Atif (2014) and Sabokro et al. (2020) who concluded that distributive injustice increases WDB significantly, although these studies examine aggregate deviant behaviour.

The extant literature (Baig & Ullah, 2017; Dora & Azim 2019; Faheem & Mahmud, 2015; Sabokro et al. 2020) concentrated on interactional justice effect as opposed to its two subsets, namely the interpersonal and informational justice, which are examined in this study. Although its negative effect on interpersonal deviance is not significant, the study finds that interpersonal justice has significant negative influence on organisational deviance, reducing deviant behaviour. This is consistent with the *a priori* expectation. With interpersonal justice being a subset of interactional justice, the finding of this study is in consonance with Sabokro et al. (2020) who submitted that interactional injustice spurred deviant behaviour, even though insignificantly. This finding also supports Dora and Azim (2019) and Abbasi et al. (2020) who concluded that interactional justice significantly reduces deviant behaviour. Unlike most extant literature, the current study shows the individual effects of interpersonal and informational components of interactional justice. Interpersonal justice is achieved when the interpersonal relationship of authorities with subordinates are guided by rules such as respect (need for treatment with sincerity, dignity and refraining from attacking or being rude to others) and propriety (avoidance of questions that could bring bias, such as sex, religion, age, race, amongst others) (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2005). The study finding suggests that higher level of interpersonal justice in the form of respectful treatment and propriety in the public university is accompanied by lowering WDB, especially the organisational deviance. In other words, respect and dignity received from superiors go a long way in reducing WDB.

This finding corresponds to the widely-held view that employees regard interpersonal justice to be more important when compared to other forms of justice (Alfes et al., 2013; Leineweber et al., 2020; Moon, 2017) as well as social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity which explains that individuals reciprocate the treatment they receive, either good or bad. As opposed to most studies who linked interpersonal justice to interpersonal deviance, this study shows that interpersonal justice predicts organisational deviance more than it predicts interpersonal deviance.

Furthermore, this study revealed an insignificant negative impact of informational justice on both organisational and interpersonal deviance. Informational justice ensued when the interpersonal relationship of authorities with subordinates are guided by rules such as truthfulness (honesty and candidness in communication, while implementing procedures) and justification (adequate explanation for the outcomes received by employees) (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). The study finding is consistent with Sabokro et al. (2020) who found that interactional injustice has insignificant positive effect on deviance behaviour and Faheem and Mahmud (2015) who found that interactional justice has significant negative effect on deviant behaviour. Although there is scant literature on informational justice and WDB, El Akremi et al. (2010) found informational injustice triggers supervisor-directed deviance. It can be concluded that how honestly and promptly employees are informed on matters affecting them has no significant reducing effect on deviant behaviour in public universities. It can also be deduced that interpersonal justice is relatively more important than its counterpart (informational justice), as far as prediction of WDB is concerned.

This study subsequently examined the joint impact of the four dimensions of OJ on aggregate WDB using PLS-SEM. The study found that OJ (predominantly informational and interpersonal) has a reducing effect on WDB. This finding is consistent with results of the qualitative analysis in which the employees commented on the need for fair treatment of employees as a way of curbing WDB. In fact, a fairly high percentage of the employees would justify WDB on the basis of unfair treatment. This finding is consistent with Gull, Qamar, Khan and Tanvir (2020) who find that positive perception of OJ would discourage employees of Pakistan banking sector to deviate from disruptive behaviour and Hany, Hassan and Badran (2020) who found negative relation between the two concepts among staff nurses.

The finding is also compatible with the conclusion of Rafiee, Hoveida and Rajaeipoor (2015) in Tehran Universities and Baharom, Sharfuddin and Iqbal (2017) in Pakistan public enterprises and Kasemsap (2017) in Thailand. This study suggests that perceived fairness of the distribution of the outcome received, fairness of procedures and processes used in deciding an outcome; respect and dignity received from superiors and how honestly and promptly employees are informed on matters affecting them, are wholly and jointly required to instil non-destructive behaviour among employees of public university in the South-West region of Nigeria. This finding is congruent with the social exchange theory, equity theory and norm of reciprocity.

8.5 Discussion of findings on the mediating effect of OJ on HRPs-WDB relationship

- H4: OJ mediates the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB (MAIN)

The outcome of this PLS-SEM analysis proves that perceived HRPs, notably the ICO and ROA, exert significant inverse indirect influence on organisational and interpersonal WDB via organisation justice, particularly interpersonal and OJ. Therefore, OJ mediates the relationship between perceived HRPs and WDB. Because HRP has a reducing effect on the WDB, with and without OJ, this study finds that the mediating effect of OJ is partial rather than total. Thus, the presence or absence of OJs, particularly informational and interpersonal, is necessary, to a limited extent, for HRPs to be effective in curtailing both organisational and interpersonal deviance in the Nigerian South-West region public universities.

The ability of OJ in mediating relationships that exist between HRP and WDB, can be explained by the equity theory. For instance, Wu and Wang (2008) used equity theory to justify employees' engagement in deviant behaviour as a way to restore inequity by reducing their input, when it is perceived that the ratio of their output (rewards) to input is imbalanced, termed unfair treatment. In the same vein, Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) argue that employees tend to reduce the negativity in the ratio of their input-outcome ratio, by embarking on WDB to reduce the unfairness. In line with the qualitative analysis, a significant percentage of the employees would justify WDB on the basis of unfairness.

8.6 Discussion of findings on the effect of personality on WDB/

This study examined the effects of H-HAE dimensions of HEXACO personality domain on WDB by examining the individual effect of each dimension on each of the two main dimensions of WDB on the one hand and by testing combined effects of H-HAE dimensions on aggregate WDB on the other hand.

- H5A: Dimensions of employee personality traits (H-HAE) are negatively related to WDB
- H5B: Employee personality traits is negatively related to WDB (MAIN)

The null hypothesis, which states that each dimension of H-HAE personality traits is positively related to each organisational and interpersonal WDB is not supported. Hence, H-HAE personality traits individually reduces organisational and interpersonal WDB. Several studies

(Anglim, Lievens, Everton, Grant, & Marty, 2018; Raza & Rehmat, 2019; Bourdage et al., 2018; Van Der Westhuizen, 2019) confirm the predictive ability of H-H in reducing WDB. However, this study finding contradicts Ripley (2019) who found that H-H does not determine police officers WDB in Canada. H-H trait includes the tendency to be fair and genuine in relating with others and individuals who are low in this trait engage in acts that could be harmful to others and to their society (Ashton & Lee, 2007; 2008; Pletzer et al., 2019). The study findings revealed that higher levels of H-H traits tend to significantly alleviate the worrisome state of anti-productive behaviour currently being experienced at the public universities. Thus, the HR departments of these institutions can confidently curb WDB by considering this H-H trait in their recruitment processes. This study adds to the extant literature (Mase, 2016; Kwentoh, Joe-Akunne, & Anzor, 2020; Amin, Shamsudin, Razimi, Suleiman, & Tunbosun, 2018) in Nigeria by assessing H_H facets of HEXACO, which is not present in the Big Five domain commonly applied by few recognised personality studies in Nigeria.

This study established negative effect of Agreeableness on the organisational and interpersonal classifications of WDB. This finding is in consonance with Khan, Khan and Zia (2019) who associated employees with high level of agreeableness trait with low level of destructive behaviour in Pakistan and Anglim et al. (2018) who affirmed its predictive ability on counterproductive attitude among job applicants and non-applicant. Various other studies (Bourdage et al., 2018; Ripley, 2019) have alluded to the potency of agreeableness in instilling desirable workplace behaviour. The difference in domain notwithstanding, the finding of this study is in line with Kwentoh et al. (2020), Amin et al. (2018) who showed that agreeableness of Big Five has predictive relevance for curing WDB in Nigerian beverage firms and North-Western universities respectively, but not congruent with Mase (2016) and Lim, Teh and Benjamin (2016) who showed that agreeableness of Big Five has no impact in Benue state-Nigeria civil service and Malaysian voluntary service sector, respectively. Also, the finding is not in line with van der Westhuizen (2019) who concludes that agreeableness has an insignificant negative impact on deviance behaviour. This study differs from the identifiable literature in Nigeria in terms of region, by focusing on HEXACO-Agreeableness construct. HEXACO-Agreeableness is a rotated variant of Big Five agreeableness as it includes the irritability and anger facets of the Big Five Neuroticism (Pletzer et al., 2019), making it a stronger version. This finding reveals that increases in the number of agreeable employees who

would not revenge or retaliate even when they are unfairly treated, would ameliorate the menace of WDB currently plaguing the university system.

Further, this study found a significant inverse effect of emotionality on both organisational and interpersonal WDB. This finding is in agreement with the extant literature (Chirumbolo, 2015; Ahmad, Omar, Radzali, & Saidu, 2017; Pletzer et al., 2018), who found that emotionality has a significant reducing effect on WDB but in contradiction to Van Der Westhuizen (2019) and Ripley (2019) who conclude that emotionality has an insignificant negative impact on employees' and police officers' chances of being deviant. Similarly, the study finding is also compatible with Rahman, Ferdausy and Karan (2012) and Robinson, Persich, Stawicki and Krishnakumar (2019) who linked low levels of organisational and interpersonal deviance to high emotional intelligence among Bangladesh private university students. HEXACO emotionality is a rotated variant of Big Five neuroticism, as the sentimentality facet of the Big Five, agreeableness, has been included in the emotionality domain of the HEXACO (Pletzer et al., 2019), making it a stronger version. This study has contributed to the literature on emotionality-WDB relationship, especially in Nigeria, suggesting that employing individuals with high scores in emotionality will play a key role in curbing organisational WDB in the Nigerian South-West region public universities. Contrasting the effect of personality with OJ on WDB, the current finding supports O'Neill, Lewis and Carswell (2011) who found that personality traits is more effective in curtailing WDB than OJ.

In terms of the combined effect of H_HAE HEXACO domain on aggregate WDB using PLS-SEM, this study finds that personality represented by emotionality has a significant inverse effect on WDB. This finding is in consonance with the *a priori* expectation. This finding from HEXACO domain supports the conclusion of Mase (2016) who finds that Big Five traits jointly predicted counterproductive attitudes in Nigerian Benue State Civil service and Abdullah, Nasruddin and Mokhtar (2021) reveal that employees who are high in Big Five personality traits have a lower tendency of being involved in deviant acts in private firms, although the context differs. Thus, the findings agree with the individual effects of H_HAE facets of HEXACO domain on WDB. Overall, the finding suggests that an increase in employees scores in H-HAE is associated with a decrease in counterproductive WDB in Nigerian public universities.

8.7 Discussion of findings on the moderating effect of HEXACO personality traits on OJ-WDB relationship.

- H6: Employee personality traits will moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB (MAIN)

It has been argued that whether employees would embark on WDB when melted with injustice depends on individual personality traits. With this in mind, this study examined the moderating influence of H-HEA HEXACO domain on the justice-WDB relationship. As already established, it was found that that both types of WDB reduce with OJ (particularly informational and interpersonal) and increase with injustice. Essentially, the moderating effect of E-HEXACO selected by the SEM is found to be insignificant. Although different measures of personality were used, this finding is not consistent with Henle (2005), who found among working class US undergraduate students that WDB would not necessarily increase with injustice provided employees are rich in impulsiveness and sociable personality, suggesting personality moderated justice-WDB relationship as Khattak et al. (2018) who found that neuroticism and agreeableness moderated the effect of anger on interpersonal and organisational WDB in an HR department in the Netherlands.

This study also differs from Maqsood et al. (2021) who showed counterproductive acts of the Lahore police officers when faced with interpersonal and informational injustice can be moderated by conscientiousness, although this trait was not studied in the current research. The meaning is that the assumption of individual or personal factors influencing reaction to injustice cannot be established in the Nigerian public university context. Simply put, staff members tend to react positively to OJ by dissociating themselves from WDBs that are harmful to co-workers and organisation, not because of their personality trait. In other words, they would react to lack of justice by displaying behaviour that are detrimental to individuals and organisation even when they are rich in E-personality traits. Unlike the current study, Darsana and Riana (2018) also confirm the moderating role of personality. Based on the current study finding, it can be inferred that the reducing effect of emotionality personality traits on WDB previously established in Section 8.6 might not hold in the face of injustices, however, this is a question for further studies.

8.8 Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, the findings are richly discussed according to the study hypotheses and objectives. Findings that the perceived HRPs are negatively related to WDB found support from the theoretical literature and related studies. This also applies to the positive relationship between perceived HRPs and OJ as well as negative relation between OJ and WDB. OJ partially mediates the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB and employee personality traits is negatively related to WDB as already established in different context. Enhancing HRPs and OJ would go a long way in curtailing excessive WDB in the Nigerian public university context. Conversely, this study finding is at variance with the literature, which established that employee personality traits do moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB. The subsequent chapter provides the summary, states the conclusions and study contributions and highlights the limitations and recommendations of the study for relevant stakeholders and future researchers.

CHAPTER NINE: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

Tertiary institutions play a key role in the production of graduates who are worthy in character and learning to serve the society and act as agents for national development and social-economic change. It is indeed an irony that employees of the tertiary institutions who are directly involved in the pursuit of these objectives could exhibit low moral standards and ethically wrong acts, which are detrimental to its goals and could put the whole nation in jeopardy. Reported cases of deviant acts amongst university staff motivated the exploration of the organisational and individual antecedents of WDB in this study with a focus on selected public universities in the South-West region of Nigeria. This study comprises of nine chapters devoted to the introduction, WDB and determinants, WDB cum HRPs, WDB cum OJ, WDB *vis-à-vis* personality, research methods, data analysis and interpretation, discussion of findings and summary and conclusion, respectively. The summary of each chapter is presented in this chapter, followed by the concluding remarks, contributions of this study, policy recommendations and future research

9.2 Summary of the chapters

Chapter one of this study presented the circumstances surrounding the topic and explains the incentive for the examination of the link between HRPs, OJ, personality and WDB in the Nigerian public university. The prevalence of WDB and the identification of researchable gaps for determining its antecedents inform the study, whether there can be mediating effect of organisational variable or moderating effect of individual variable. Thus, the rationale for this study, as well as the fundamental objectives, are succinctly captured in this introductory chapter.

The second chapter was devoted to the discussion of WDB being a key component and the dependent variable of this research, presenting the literature on WDB, its classifications, effects and antecedents. Furthermore, WDB in the context of Nigerian universities was explored with examples. The chapter layed the theoretical basis for the selection of certain antecedents, mediator and moderator (HRPs, OJ, personality, respectively) of WDB through the review of the social exchange theory, equity theory, theory of met expectation and the cognitive social theory.

Chapter three provided clarification on HRPs as a concept that emanates from HRM and expounds the link between it and WDB. HRPs being a multidimensional concept, the motivation for the selection of certain dimensions such as the ROA, ICO, RS and ES were highlighted after a review of the relevant literature. There was an incentive for the examination of individual effects of each dimension as well as joint effect of the HRPs on WDB. The chapter further reviewed the mediators of HRPs-WDB, with OJ identified to play a mediating role.

In chapter four, a review of the history of OJ was carried out, followed by the review of the empirical literature on the relationship between organisation justice and HRPs. Studies suggest that various forms of justice impact WDB differently. It was also learnt that most authors studied the interactional justice as a construct despite its division into two sub-constructs (interpersonal and informational). These discoveries informed the study of individual effects of four dimensions of justice on each type of WDB on one hand as well as joint effect on the other hand. In relation to the previous chapter, it was further revealed that OJ could play a mediating role in the HRPs-WDB relationship, but relevant studies are scarce.

Chapter five focuses on the personality *vis-à-vis* WDB. This chapter examined the literature on personality, different domains of personality traits and the relationship between personality and OJ and its resultant effect on WDB. It was found that that not all individuals will reciprocate grievances or injustice with deviant behaviour. Hence, whether an employee will react defiantly or not is a function of many variables, particularly, personality trait. Thus, personality could be a direct antecedent or a moderator. The chapter revealed that the evaluation of HEXACO is scarce as most studies have used the Big Five personality domain, despite the former being a better predictor of WDB compared to its counterparts.

Chapter 6 gave a complete account of the methodology and empirical strategies, which were used to attain the aims of this study. After the review of various philosophies and approaches, the pragmatic philosophy and the abductive approach were adopted for this study. Pragmatic philosophy enabled the researcher to apply the method that best suits its research objective while the abductive method also allowed for the use of mixed methods to combine the benefits accrued to each of these methods. The explanatory research design was used, while adopting the concurrent transformative mixed technique, which enabled both the quantitative and qualitative data to be collected concurrently. The study combined both probability (simple random sampling) and non-probability sampling (purposive sampling) to select the sample size

drawn from the study population. Furthermore, it discussed the data analysis techniques, ethical considerations and the limitations of the methods adopted in the study.

Chapter 7 presented the results of data analysis, interpretation of the results and tests of the hypotheses. Quantitative data are generated via structured questionnaires and analysed using inferential statistics of multiple regression analysis and SEM. Qualitative data were generated via open-ended questionnaires and analysed using descriptive statistics to provide more information that cannot be revealed by the quantitative analysis. Regression results on the sub-hypothesis revealed that the effect of perceived HRPs (OJ) on WDB depends on the dimension of HRP (OJ) and WDB; while all dimensions of H-HEA personality traits reduce WDB. The results of the main hypotheses based on PLS-SEM lead to the acceptance of H1, H2, H2, H4 and H5 and the rejection of H6. The analysis of the qualitative data revealed that HRPs-related factors such as welfare, reward, recruitment and conducive work environment; monitoring is negatively related to WDB and OJ factors such as fair treatment and enforcement of labour laws are negatively related to WDBs.

In Chapter eight, the findings were discussed *vis-à-vis* the literature. On aggregate level, findings that the perceived HRPs are negatively related to WDB found support from the theoretical literature and related studies. This also applies to the positive relationship between perceived HRPs and OJ as well as negative relation between OJ and WDB. OJ partially mediates the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB and employee personality traits is negatively related to WDB as already established in different context. Conversely, this study finding is at variance with the literature, which established that employee personality traits do moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB.

9.3 Concluding remarks

In this study, conclusions are drawn from the individual or dimensional effects of independent variables on the dependent variables (i.e., sub-hypotheses) based on multiple linear regression. In this regard, this study concludes that:

- In relation to the perceived HRPs-WDB relationship, only ICO has a desirable effect, by reducing the interpersonal deviance while RS has no desirable effect, increasing organisational deviance.

- In relation to the perceived HRPs-justice relationship, RS is the most influential HRP, contributing significantly to distributive, procedural and interpersonal justice. This is followed by ICO, which spurs both interpersonal and informational justice and ES, which increases interpersonal justice but reduces procedural justice.
- In relation to justice-WDB relationship, only interpersonal justice has a desirable effect, by reducing the organisational deviance while procedural justice has no desirable effect, increasing organisational deviance and interpersonal deviance.
- In relation to WDB, all dimensions of H-HEA personality trait have the desirable reducing effect on both individual and organisational WDB.

From the highlighted conclusions, H-HEA personality is the most potent factor for dealing with both organisational deviance and interpersonal deviance in the Nigerian public university. Aside from the H-HEA, this study submits that the effect of other factors depends on their dimensions and forms of deviance. Specifically, it is more effective in curtailing WDB, compared to HRPs and justice. In ensuring justice, reward system is found to be a key weapon stimulating virtually all forms of justice. With respect to the main hypotheses of the study, as derived from the PLS-SEM results, this study concludes that:

- perceived HRPs are negatively related to WDB;
- perceived HRPs are positively related to OJ;
- OJ is positively related to WDB;
- OJ partially mediates the relationship between perception of HRPs and WDB;
- employee personality traits is negatively related to WDB;
- employee personality traits does not moderate the relationship between OJ and WDB in the selected public universities in South-West Nigeria.

From these conclusions, HRPs, OJ and personality traits, on aggregate, each have an expected reducing effect on WDB. This suggests that all dimensions of these constructs must be treated as all or nothing when it comes to addressing the WDB menace in the selected Nigerian public universities. Despite the desirable effect of personality traits in reducing WDB, it can be concluded that it does not moderate the relationship between justice and WDB.

9.4 Contribution of the study

9.4.1 Theoretical/literature contributions

Although ample studies exist on organisational behaviour, not many empirical studies have been conducted to examine the role of organisational factors such as HRPs in dealing with WDB in tertiary institutions, particularly in Nigeria. This study has been able to examine employees' perceptions of HRPs on WDB, which in the literature has been identified to be important, as what employers intend to communicate through HRPs may differ from what employees perceives the HRPs to be. Furthermore, it has also examined both the individual HRPs and the additive HRPs and found that additive HRPs influence WDB more than examining the individual perceptions of HRPs.

There are limited studies on the impact of OJ on HRPs from the global and Nigerian perspectives. Most of the existing literature has treated interactional justice as a single construct. However, it has been pointed out that the construct has two angles to it; interpersonal and informational. This study contributes to OJ-WDB by examining the effect of each of these dimensions and showing that they have different effects on WDB. Thus, while comprehensive studies on justice focuses on three dimensions (distributive, procedural, interactional), the current study examined the four dimensions of OJ. Similarly, this study contributes to HRPs-OJ by examining the effect of each of these dimensions and their additive effect and showing that they react differently to different type of HRPs.

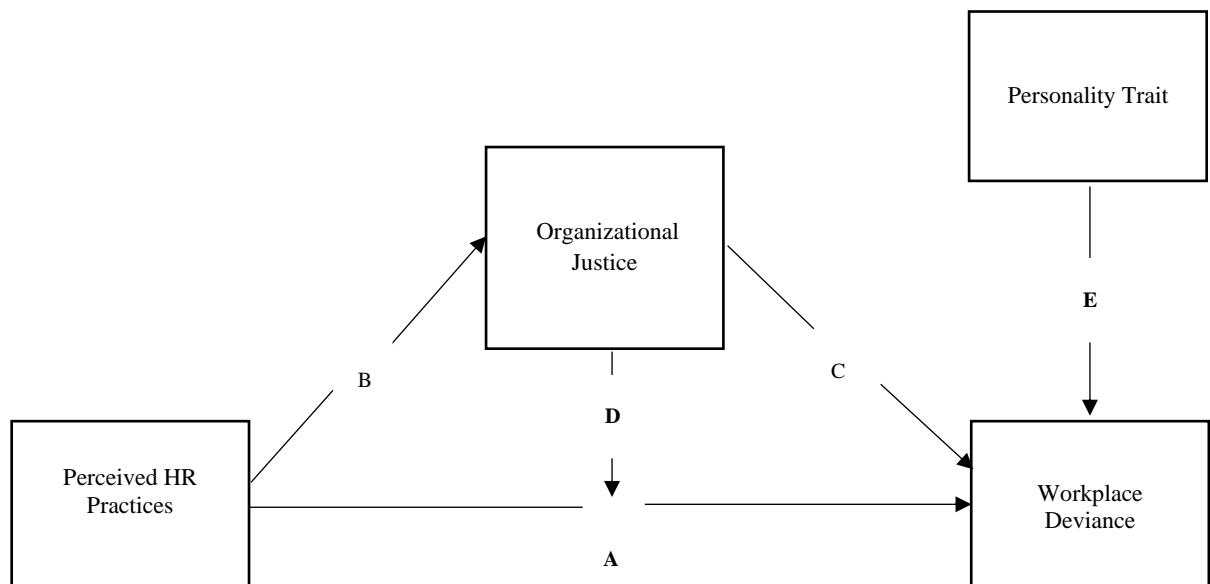
This study contributes to the body of knowledge on personality traits and deviance acts in a Nigeria setting. Extant studies on the subject matter leave further gaps to fill in Nigerian public universities. For example, Ruwan, Ajodo and Kwasau (2016) focus on secondary schools in the Northern region, while Amin et al. (2021) focus on universities in the North-West region of Nigeria. The aforementioned studies focused on the links between the big five personality traits (openness, conscientiousness, emotionality, agreeableness and neuroticism). This study deviates from the Nigerian literature by focusing on HEXACO personality domain. In the literature, the evaluation of HEXACO is scarce as most studies have used the Big Five personality domain, despite the former being a better predictor of WDB compared to its counterparts. Thus, the HEXACO scale result in novel research, particularly when examining

morally-related behaviour, because the honesty-humility scale would yield novel insights and improved prediction.

The extant literature argues for the need to examine the underlying factors in the HRP-WDB relationship. This study examined OJ as an underlying factor that influences the relationship and establishes a partial mediating influence of OJ in the HRP-WDB relationship. This study contributes to the literature by presenting a comprehensive examination of the WDB and HRPs, HEXACO and justice through examining the individual and additive effects. Hitherto, most studies focused on one dimension of the constructs or the other. This holistic approach is helpful to the stakeholders for policy decisions.

9.4.2 Empirical contributions

It must be recalled that the study was guided by the conceptual framework presented in section 5.4. Following a comprehensive analysis of the hypothesised relationships, on the variables demonstrating significant relationships are included in Figure 9.1. In summary, the study’s findings and the concomitant contributions to the body of empirical literature is hereby summarised.



Source: Author’s Design (2020)

Figure 1: Conceptual framework

9.4.3 Practical contributions

This study contributes to practice, proffering suggestions on how the study findings can be used to reduce the financial, social and psychological costs of WDB to the institution, its members and society at large. The findings thus have certain implications for human resources practitioners, university management and government, providing insight into the appropriateness of the existing HR policies and the need for improvement. HR practitioners must consider redrafting their policy documents to incorporate, not just the usual HRPs but also the personality and justice factors that have a force to bear on employees' behaviour. In the same vein, university management must consciously design an institutional operating policy that instils organisation justice in the medium and long term. Governments at state and federal levels, who are the effective owners of the public universities, must also embark on a review of the existing compensation and reward policy with the aim of enhancing it. Specific policy recommendations are further detailed in the following section.

9.5 Recommendations and policy implications

Based on the findings of this study, the following policy recommendations are suggested to the stakeholders in the Nigerian public university system:

- The HR departments of these institutions can confidently curb WDB by considering staff with H-H traits in their recruitment processes
- Increasing the number of agreeable employees would ameliorate the menace of WDB currently plaguing the university system
- Employing individuals with high scores in emotionality will play a key role in curbing vices of organisational WDB in South-West Nigeria public universities
- If the stakeholders have to choose among the four dimensions of perceived HRPs, ICO is recommended in dealing with interpersonal deviance
- On a relative scale, RS and IC must be prioritised in that order over other dimensions of HRPs in order to enhance OJ
- If the stakeholders have to choose among the four dimensions of justice, interpersonal justice must be accorded higher priority in dealing with organisational deviance
- Above developing strategies on using different dimensions of the explanatory variables in curtailing different type of WDB, holistic evaluation of the HRPs, justice dimensions

and personality traits is required to address the WDB in the public universities as revealed by SEM

In addition to the quantitative analyses-based recommendations above, the following recommendations extracted from the qualitative data would proffer further solutions to the WDB enigma in the Nigerian public University system. The government and university management must:

- ensure equal treatment of staff
- attend to employees' basic needs for welfare
- break from local stereotypes and embrace international best practices
- create a conducive work environment
- employ fairly to ensure only qualified personnel get the posts
- strengthen and enforce the labour law
- incentivise hard working employees
- use periodic monitoring teams.

9.6 Limitations and suggestion for future studies

In considering the interpretation of this study, it is needful to consider the following limitations. This study adopted a cross-sectional design, thereby making it difficult for causal inference to be made on the result of the findings. Future studies could consider adopting longitudinal designs so as to examine the effects over time. In the same vein, a self-report measure was used, which could lead to a common method bias, however, the study sample consists of employees from different universities and groups. Similarly, some of the questions were reversed to avoid order effect. These had a reducing effect on common method bias (Alfes et al., 2013; Henle, 2005; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Future studies could consider collecting data from multiple sources.

Although the literature has revealed that some of the demographic factors (such as age, sex, experience and educational qualifications) could influence WDB, these factors ought to be controlled, which this study did not; future studies should consider controlling for these factors.

Furthermore, some of the results of the study do not support the hypotheses and arguments in the literature. This is of concern and future studies could consider a larger sample, although the sample (572) used for this study is large enough according to the literature; further studies

could consider using a larger sample and also include more universities to affirm if the interactive effect would be achieved; that is, if they indeed exist in the context of the study. Regardless of these limitations, this study has been able to provide an understanding of the HRPs and WDB relationship and the factors that could influence this relationship as the cost of WDB to organisations cannot be overemphasised.

This study was limited to public universities in South-West Nigeria. Despite this limitation, this study is of crucial importance because addressing the prevalence of WDB in the university is tantamount to addressing the root-cause of the menace considering the role of the university system in shaping character, instilling discipline and as social-economic change agent. Nevertheless, other sectors of the economy would benefit from a study of this nature as they cannot be exempted from the unwanted deviant acts. The use of SEM would also contribute to future research as the model is capable of untangling the interconnections among the antecedents, mediators and moderators of WDB.

In addition, four dimensions of HRPs were explored in relation to WDB in the Nigerian public universities leaving out various other dimensions. The motivation for the four dimensions studied are given in Section 3.3.1 (Chapter 3). For example, loggerhead over pay and reward system constitutes an age-long battle between academic staff unions of Nigerian universities and the government. In addition, the selected HRPs are scarcely examined in spite of their relevance. Having said that, the exploration of other dimensions, which are not included in this study, such as recruitment, selection and employee relations, could provide additional insight.

Although this study shows that the interpersonal and informational have different effects on WDB or react differently to HRPs despite being two types of interactional justice, the focus of the study was limited to public universities. Since there exist limited studies separating the interpersonal and informational perspectives of interactional justice, their effects on WDB and reactions to HRPs in other sectors of the economy are recommended.

In relation to personality traits, this study focused on the HEXACO model, which has been thinly investigated, unlike the Big Five domain that has received extensive research attention. Considering its predictive capacity, it would be beneficial to extend the relevance of the HEXACO domain in dealing with WDB in sectors other than education sectors. Hence, the evaluation of the HEXACO domain in other sectors of the Nigerian economy is recommended

In relation to the mediating relationship examined, this study examines OJ's mediating role in the HRPs-WDB relationship. It is recommended that further studies examine other antecedent of WDB as mediators in the relationship.

Although the study reveals that personality traits did not mediate the OJ-WDB relationship, it must be noted that this study employed three of the HEXACO personality traits. Further studies should consider employing the six personality traits to affirm if they would jointly moderate the relationship.

The use of open-ended questionnaires to collect qualitative data in this study presents a few challenges due to short answers. The shortcoming suggests that the use of focus groups or in-depth interviews might produce a more revealing information and analysis that would support claims and conclusion on the phenomena understudy. Nevertheless, the data collected rightfully qualifies the content analysis. Data analysis both qualitative and quantitative meets the standard required for this kind of study. Future study may consider the use of in-depth interview to collect qualitative data. Further, a comparative study can be considered among public and private universities and among the academic and non-academic staff in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

Date: 02/02/2021

Greetings,

My name is Grace Obalade from University of Kwazulu-Natal, Human Resource Management, School of Management, IT and Governance.

Email: 218087627@stu.ukzn.ac.za. Tel: +[REDACTED], +[REDACTED]. My Supervisor is Dr Vuyokazi Mtembu-Hlophe. Email: Mtembul@ukzn.ac.za. Tel: +[REDACTED].

You are being invited to consider participating in a study that involves research titled **“Perception on human resource practices and workplace deviance: a case of public Universities in South-West Nigeria”**. The aim and purpose of this research is to investigate the how employee’s perception of the human resource practices, justice and their personality, influence their involvement in workplace deviance. The study is expected to include 704 participants: 332 academic staff and 372 non-academic staff in three public Universities in South-West Nigeria. It will involve the following procedures: self-administration of questionnaire, through the researcher or a research assistant. The duration of your participation if you choose to participate and remain in the study is expected to be 15-20 minutes.

The study does not involve any risk. We hope that the study will create the following benefits, if the result of the research indicates that employees’ perception of unfair practices is a predictor of workplace deviance, it will help to communicate to management and Government the need to emphasize fair HR practices in the institutions.

This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (approval number: HSSREC/00002245/2020).

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at Email: 218087627@stu.ukzn.ac.za. Tel: +[REDACTED], +2[REDACTED] or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus
Govan Mbeki Building Private Bag X 54001
Durban 4000 KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Your participation in the study is voluntary and by participating, you are granting the researcher permission to use your responses. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in the study. Your anonymity will be maintained by the researcher and the School of

Management, I.T. & Governance and your responses will not be used for any purposes outside of this study.

All data, both electronic and hard copy, will be securely stored during the study and archived for 5 years. After this time, all data will be destroyed.

If you have any questions or concerns about participating in the study, please contact me or my research supervisor at the numbers listed above.

Sincerely,



Grace Oluwafunmilayo Obalade

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I have been informed about the study entitled “Perception on human resource practices and workplace deviance: a case of public Universities in South-West Nigeria” by Grace Oluwafunmilayo Obalade.

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study (add these again if appropriate).

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

I have been informed about any available compensation or medical treatment if injury occurs to me as a result of study-related procedures.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at Email: 218087627@stu.ukzn.ac.za. Tel: [REDACTED], + [REDACTED]

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557 - Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Signature of Participant

Date

SECTION A: Demographic Data

1. Gender

Male	Female	Prefer not to answer

2. Age group

21-25years	26-30years	31-35years	36-40years	40+years

3. Educational Qualification

School Cert.	National Diploma	Higher National Diploma/ Bachelor of Science	Master Degree	PhD

4. Work Experience

Up to 5years	6-10years	11-15years	16-20years	20+years

SECTION B: This section requires you to mark the option that best suits your opinion with an 'X', in accordance to the scale provided.

Items indicated with reverse coded are reverse-keyed items; for these items, responses should be reversed prior to computing scale scores: 41, 4 Æ 2, 3 Æ 3, 2 Æ 4, 1 Æ 5

Human Resource Practices: indicate your level of agreement with the following HR practices in your institution.

1 Internal career opportunities

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I have a clear path within this organization				
2	I have very little future within this organization (reverse coded)				
3	My career aspirations within the organization are known by my immediate supervisors				
4	I have more than one potential position I could be promoted within this organization				

2. Result oriented appraisal

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	This organization put much effort in measuring employee performance				
2	As an employee in this organization, I do participate in goal setting and appraisal				
3	Results of performance appraisal are often being discussed with me				
4	When my performance are discussed emphasis are not placed on finding avenues of personal development for me (reverse coded)				
5	Promotion, pay raise, amongst others, are not tied to performance appraisal (reverse coded)				

3. Employee security

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	In this University, I can stay as long as I wish without being unjustly dismissed.				
2	It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this job				
3	If the university faces problems, employees in this job are the last to get cut				

4. Reward system

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	There is wide range in pay across members in this work unit				
2	Differences in pay across members in this organization represent differences in their contribution				
3	I am paid according to my worth in this organization				
4	My pay is closely tied to my performance				

Organizational Justice scale

Procedural justice: Procedural justice: The following items refer to the procedures followed before decisions on your reward (pay/promotion/benefits) are made. To what extent:

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Every time
		1	2	3	4
1	Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?				
2	Have you had influence over the (reward) arrived at by those procedures?				
3	Have those procedures been applied consistently?				
4	Have those procedures been free of bias?				
5	Have those procedures been based on accurate information?				
6	Have you been able to appeal the (reward) arrived at by those procedures?				
7	Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?				

Distributive justice: The following items refer to your reward (pay/promotion/benefits). To what extent:

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Every time
1	Does your (reward) reflect the effort you have put into your work?				
2	Is your (reward) appropriate for the work you have completed?				
3	Does your (reward) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?				
4	Is your (reward) justified, given your performance?				

Interpersonal justice: The following items refer to the authority figure (supervisor/head of department or unit/Dean) who enacted the procedures. To what extent:

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Every time
1	Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?				
2	Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?				
3	Has (he/she) treated you with respect?				
4	Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?				

Informational justice: The following items also refer to the authority figure (supervisor/head of department or unit/Dean) who enacted the procedures

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Often	Every time
1	Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?				
2	Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?				
3	Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?				
4	Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?				
5	Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?				

Workplace Deviance scale

Organizational deviance

	Statement	Never 1	Rarely 2	Often 3	Every time 4
1	Have you ever taken property from work without permission				
2	Spent too much time on non-work related activities while at work				
3	Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on office expenses				
4	Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace				
5	Came in late to work/classes without permission				
6	Neglected to follow your boss's instructions				
7	Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked				
8	Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person				
9	Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job				
10	Put little effort into your work				
11	Taken property from work without permission				
12	Spent too much time on non-work related activities while at work				

Interpersonal deviance

	Statement	Never 1	Rarely 2	Often 3	Every time 4
1	Made fun of someone at work				
2	Said something hurtful to someone at work				
3	Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work				
4	Cursed at someone at work				
5	Played a mean prank on someone at work				
6	Acted rudely toward someone at work				
7	Publicly embarrassed someone at work				

Personality Scale
Honesty-humility

	Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly agree 4
1	I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.				
2	If I knew that I could never get caught, I would be willing to steal a million dollars. (reverse coded)				
3	Having a lot of money is not especially important to me.				
4	I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is. (reverse coded)				
5	If I want something from someone, I will laugh at that person's worst jokes. (reverse coded)				
6	I would never accept a bribe, even if it were very large.				
7	I would get a lot of pleasure from owning expensive luxury goods. (reverse coded)				
8	I want people to know that I am an important person of high status. (reverse coded)				
9	I wouldn't pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favors for me.				

10	I would be tempted to use counterfeit money, if I were sure I could get away with it. (reverse coded)				
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Emotionality

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4
1	I would feel afraid if I had to travel in bad weather conditions.				
2	I sometimes can't help worrying about little things.				
3	When I suffer from a painful experience, I need someone to make me feel comfortable.				
4	I feel like crying when I see other people crying.				
5	When it comes to physical danger, I am very fearful.				
6	I feel strong emotions when someone close to me is going away for a long time.				
7	I remain unemotional even in situations where most people get very sentimental. (reverse coded)				
8	I can handle difficult situations without needing emotional support from anyone else. (reverse coded)				
9	Even in an emergency I wouldn't feel like panicking. (reverse coded)				
10	I worry a lot less than most people do. (reverse coded)				

Agreeableness

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4
1	I rarely hold a grudge, even against people who have badly wronged me.				
2	People sometimes tell me that I am too critical of others. (reverse coded)				
3	People sometimes tell me that I'm too stubborn. (reverse coded)				

4	People think of me as someone who has a quick temper. (reverse coded)				
5	My attitude toward people who have treated me badly is “forgive and forget”.				
6	I tend to be lenient in judging other people.				
7	I am usually quite flexible in my opinions when people disagree with me.				
8	Most people tend to get angry more quickly than I do.				
9	Even when people make a lot of mistakes, I rarely say anything negative.				
10	When people tell me that I am wrong, my first reaction is to argue with them. (reverse coded)				

SECTION C: This section contains open ended questions, please answer the following questions. Your responses are completely anonymous and confidential and will not be seen by anyone. You can be completely honest in your answer.

1. How do you feel about the human resource practices of your institution?

2. Do these human resource practices emphasise employee’s welfare?

3. Will you justify employee involvement in workplace deviance on the basis of unfair treatment?

4. What will you advice the Government to do in order to curb workplace deviance in public institutions?

APPENDIX B: SUBMITTED PAPER

Effect of Organisational Justice on Workplace Deviant Behaviour: A case of public Universities in South-West Nigeria

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Abstract

Orientation: Universities in Nigeria every so often experience the challenges of workplace deviant behaviour (WDB). These acts amongst university's staff could be detrimental to the attainment of the fundamental objectives of tertiary education hence it is vital that drastic measures are taken to curb such behaviours.

Research purpose: The objective of this study is to evaluate the effect of organisational justice (OJ) on WDB in Nigerian public Universities

Motivation for the study: Although ample studies exist on organisational behaviour, not many empirical studies have been conducted to examine the role of organisational factors such as OJ (perception of fairness) on employee's deviant behaviour in universities especially in Nigeria.

Research design, approach, and methods: This quantitative design employed a positivism research paradigm in achieving its objectives. Survey was conducted among 572 employees of selected public universities in South-West Nigeria.

Main findings: The findings revealed that procedural justice has significant and increasing effect on both organisational and interpersonal deviance. Conversely, interpersonal justice has a significant reducing effect on organisational deviance, while informational and distributive justice do not determine WDB.

Practical/managerial implications: Based on the finding of this study, managers of public universities must pursue interpersonal justice as a way out of organisational deviance.

Contribution/value-add: The study's findings contribute to justice-deviance literature in Nigeria and emphasised the need for Government and Management alike to emphasise interactional justice in the workplace if deviant acts would be curbed.

Keywords: organisational justice, workplace deviance, public Universities, Tertiary institutions, Nigeria.

Introduction

Higher institutions in Nigeria are characterised by menace of workplace deviant behaviours (WDB) as cases of sexual harassment, embezzlement, forging of certificate, irregular attendance of classes/ official duties, extortion, fraud, sex for grade, impersonation, money for grade, examination misconduct, distortion of records, admission fraud amongst others have been reported amongst staff (1-3). These practices have led to the dismissal of some staff while others have been sent to jail (4, 5). This study focuses on public universities because the incident of WDB is comparatively higher in Nigerian public universities than their private counterpart (2).

Organizations have been putting up measures to curb deviance at work. Such measures include, checking of cars before leaving the work premises, keeping of registers at work, issuing of queries, setting up committees to address issues on harassment in the workplace, annual appraisal of employees, suspension of staff engaged in unethical behaviours at work, amongst others (6). However, Robbins and Judge (7) posit that these strategies of curbing WDB may be ineffective if the underlying causes of deviant acts exhibited by employees of an organization are not examined. This suggests that WDB may not be as a result of an employee being deviant, it could be as a result of a negative treatment received and the employees attempt to reciprocate by also involving in acts that are harmful to the organization (8).

As a result, Osibanjo, Falola (9), suggested that efforts should be directed at dealing with the underlying causes of deviance in the organization, so as to minimise its negative effect on the organization, its members, and the society at large. Although ample studies (for instance, 10, 11) exist on organisational behaviour, not many empirical studies have been conducted to examine the role of organisational factors such as organisational justice, in tertiary institutions. There is an ongoing argument in literature regarding the organizational variables as antecedents of WDB (WDB). Some scholars argued that organizational factors such as OJ are the major determinant of deviance regardless of individual differences (11).

The main objective of this study is to evaluate the effect of organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) on deviant behaviour in Nigerian public Universities.

- To examine the relationship that exist between distributive justice and WDB
- To find out the link between procedural justice and WDB
- To evaluate the link of interactional justice on WDB

The following were the research questions the study sought to answer:

- What relationship exist between distributive justice and WDB?
- What relationship exist between procedural justice and WDB?
- How is interactional justice linked with WDB?

Literature Review

Workplace deviant behaviour

Employees' behaviours at work could either be positive or negative (12). A positive workplace behaviour would yield a productive result and enhance the work environment in the organization. Negative workplace behaviours are also known as workplace deviant behaviours (13). Workplace deviant behaviour is an intentional and voluntary act that violates organizational norms, and is capable of causing harm to the organization, its staff or both (13, 14). These acts include but not limited to, absenteeism, sabotage, cyber loafing, favouritism, withholding or withdrawing effort, sexual harassment, intentionally working slow, taking long breaks, theft, gossiping, blaming others, verbal abuse, physical abuse, receiving a bribe, and being corrupt (15). Robinson and Bennett (13) proposed a typology of WDB , by dividing workplace deviant acts into two based on the target, namely organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance. Organisational deviance refers to deviant acts exhibited by employees, which are directed towards the organisation while interpersonal deviance refers to deviant acts targeted at co-workers, supervisors and subordinates in the workplace. Due to the differences in the target of each of these forms of deviant acts, this study examines these two forms of WDB , that is organizational and interpersonal.

Organisational justice

The principles of OJ have been recognized as a bedrock for the effective running of organization as well as ensuring that employee's personal needs are met (16). Cropanzano, Rupp (17), suggested various reasons why employees join an organization, one of which may be the desire to satisfy their economic needs while some could be to satisfy their socio-emotional needs. Decisions relating to these needs and employees experience during these processes, arouse the question of fairness (18). Some of these decisions may concern salaries, social environment of the organization and the job or role performed by individuals (18). Greenberg (16) defined as the extent an employee perceives the employee-organizational relationship to be fair, ethical and equitable (16, 19). OJ emanates from attempts to examine

the role of justice in the effective operation of the organization (16, 20). There are three major forms of OJ, namely, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, while interactional justice is classified into two components, namely interpersonal justice and informational justice. This classification gave rise to further classification of the forms of justice into four, namely distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice by some researchers such as (21). Procedural justice describes how organizational procedures are perceived to be fairly designed and how fairly these processes are used in the determination of outcome allocation (22). Distributive justice describes the perception of fairness of distribution of rewards (23). Interactional justice describes how employees perceive they are being fairly treated by the decision makers with respect and dignity. Informational justice defines how employees perceive they are fairly informed of procedures that affect them. It refers to explanations of why certain procedures are used and why certain rewards are distributed the way they were. How employees perceive these explanations to be honest and adequate leads to different forms of behavioural outcomes (21).

Organisational justice and workplace deviance

OJ has been linked with several employee behaviour and attitudes such as organizational citizenship behaviour (24), turnover intentions (for instance, 25, 26) and WDB . It represents an situational based antecedent of WDB(27) and has been recognized as an important predictor of WDB(15, 28, 29). Oluwole, Aderibigbe (30), amongst several researchers proposed that one of the ways employees react to inequity or failure of the employers to fulfil their obligation to the employees is by involving in WDB . By this they believe they will be able to get even with the organization. Additionally, employees appraise the fairness of their outcome, procedures, interactions within the organization and what they perceive to be better done in other organizations which is yet to be embraced in their organization (9). If they perceive inequality or inequity, the feeling of frustration, anger, job dissatisfaction and lack of trust often develop, which may result into employees engaging in acts that are harmful to the organization and their co-workers (28, 30). The principle of retributive justice helps to understand the link between injustice and WDB . This principle explains that individual who perceives injustice seeks to get back and inflict harm on the offender, as a means of getting even (31).

Distributive Justice and workplace deviance

Distributive justice refers to perceived fairness of the distribution of the outcome received (32). It explains the level to which employee perceives the distribution of outcomes such as rewards, promotion to be fair (18, 33). This type of justice was founded on the assumption that outcome or reward stirs the reaction and behaviour, individuals exhibit in the social world. Cropanzano and Ambrose (34) suggested that equity theory is not only useful in explaining distributive justice but also useful in explaining all the other forms of justice as well. Based on argument in literature, it has become necessary to link the forms of justice to specific forms of deviance (35). That is, since distributive justice has to do with outcomes, which is decided by the organization, therefore harming the organization in attempt to seek equity would bring satisfaction to such victim of injustice (36, 37). Berry, Ones (38) found an insignificant positive insignificant correlation between distributive justice and organizational deviance. On the contrary, other researchers have also found that distributive justice impacts not only deviance targeted at the organization but also deviance targeted at individuals in the organization. For instance, Henle (27) found that distributive justice impacted the two forms of WDB , that is, organizational and interpersonal deviance. This was because in seeking equity, the employee, seeks to harm the source of the inequity, either an organization or individual. Additionally, Greenberg and Barling (39) found that distributive justice also relates with supervisor's directed aggression. Based on this argument in literature, this study therefore examines the impact of distributive form of justice on both organizational and interpersonal deviance in Nigerian tertiary institutions.

H1a: Distributive justice is negatively related with organizational deviance

H1b: Distributive justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance

Procedural Justice and workplace deviance

Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the procedures used in allocating employee's outcome (40). It has been revealed that the fairness of the process of allocation is often times of more significance than the distribution of the outcome itself (40). When rules guiding employees' judgment of fair procedures are not followed, they tend to engage in acts that are harmful to the organization. Skarlicki and Folger (41) found that procedural injustice has a significant relation with retaliatory behaviours, while Cohen-Charash and Spector (42) found that the best predictor of workplace deviant behaviour is procedural justice. Retaliatory behaviour in this sense does not necessarily mean against the organization, the employee may

also retaliate on the individuals in the organization. On the other hand, Berry, Ones (38) found a negative but insignificant correlation between procedural justice and organizational deviance, Abbasi, Baradari (29) also found an insignificant relationship between procedural justice and WDB . Despite this argument for and against procedural justice as the best predictor of WDB , researchers, such as (14, 27) suggested that all the forms of justice could be linked with WDB . Hence, the study formulates the following hypotheses:

H2a: Procedural justice is negatively related with organizational deviance

H2b: Procedural justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance

Interactional Justice and workplace deviance

Interactional justice refers to the treatment employees receive while procedures leading to their outcome is being enacted (43). Specifically, individual perceives fair interpersonal treatment by the degree to which they are being treated with dignity, respect, sensitivity, truthfulness, politeness and how well explanations are provided for decisions relating to them (16, 18, 25). Interactional justice also entails the manner in which information are shared and communicated and it is divided into two forms of justice, which are interpersonal and informational justice (18). Interpersonal justice relates to the respect and dignity received from superiors while informational justice relates to how honestly and promptly are employees informed on matters affecting them (19).

Interpersonal justice is mostly important in shaping employee's behaviour, due to the day-to-day interaction amongst employees (44). Specifically, employees regard interpersonal justice to be more important when compared to other forms of justice (45). Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity explain that individuals reciprocate the treatment they receive, either good or bad. Therefore, when employees perceive they are being treated unfairly, they tend to reciprocate with WDB(37). Thus, this study examined the two dimensions of interactional justice, namely, interpersonal and informational, as a result, the following hypotheses are formulated for the study:

H3a: Interpersonal justice is negatively related with organizational deviance

H3b: Informational justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance

H3c: Interpersonal justice is negatively related with organizational deviance

H3d: Informational justice is negatively related with interpersonal deviance

Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Homans (46) defines social exchange as a process in which a person's action impacts on another either in the form of reward or punishment. The quality of the social exchange existing between employees and management can also be directly affected by the perception of fairness, that is, OJ (27). When employees perceive unfair treatment from the supervisor or the organisation, they develop a feeling of violation of the social exchange and hence, compare the cost of remaining in the organisation with their rewards, if the cost outweighs the rewards, they seek means of revenge and hence, resort to acts that are harmful to the organisation or its individuals such as withdrawing of efforts, absenteeism and other deviant behaviours (45, 47). Using SET to explain the relationship between OJ and turnover, Moon (48) explains that employees believe that the values the organisation places on them can be judged by the fairness/unfairness of the treatment received (which includes their outcome, the outcome procedures and the interpersonal treatment received during the procedures) which to them is a benefit. When unfairness/injustice is perceived, according to the norm of reciprocity, they also seek to reciprocate by involving in deviant acts (49). In using SET to explain OJ and WDB Greenberg and Scott (50) and Tuzun and Kalemci (14) Tuzun and Kalemci (2018) opine that employee's perception of unfairness/injustice could lead them into involving in WDB. One of the ways this could be done is to change their input to restore equity. SET is also used in explaining the fairness perception of employee's relationship with the supervisor, as this could determine how well employees are committed to the supervisor, the organisation and other members of the organisation (45)

Equity Theory

This theory originally known as justice theory suggests that individuals compare their input and outcome ratio to that of relevant referent, this comparison forms their perception of how fair the outcome they receive is (51). The theory better established the underlying processes and effects of OJ (52). Specifically, equity theory explained that individuals rationally evaluate and compare the ratio difference between its input and outcome with that of another person. The theory maintained that inequity generates a psychological feeling of distress and tension

that make individuals seek means of restoring balance (32). Specifically, individuals are satisfied when there is balance in their comparison with others but when imbalance occurs, referred to as underpayment inequity there is a feeling of anger and they tend to lower their contribution (53) and resort into deviant acts. Colquitt, Scott (54) opined that to lessen the tendencies of employees engaging in deviant behaviour there is need for organizations to ensure employees perceive their outcome and processes to be fair.

Research Methodology

Study design and sampling

This quantitative design employed a positivism research paradigm in achieving its objectives. This approach focuses on scientific method of inquiry, intended to produce pure data and facts that are not influenced by the researcher's interpretation or biasness; hence, the researcher maintains an objective stance (Saunders, Lewis and Thornbill, 2019). Survey was conducted using open-ended questionnaire, 704 employees (academic and non-academic) were targeted of which 572 provided usable data, thus yielding 81% response rate. The study employed simple random probability sample to select samples of academic and non-academic employees, this gives equal chance of being selected to all the members of staff in the selected Universities. The choice of the three institutions is also based on purposive non-probability sampling selection criteria (inclusion and exclusion criteria) and ease of data collection. In this context, employees of these universities have had at least one case of deviance reported on newspaper and social media (4, 55, 56). In addition, each of them must be in existence for ten years or more.

To have a representative proportion of the sample, due to the largeness of the sample, the "Taro Model" by (57) was employed to derive sample size out of the captive population of the estimated 1955 academic staff and 5463 non-academic staff while ratio scale analysis is used to delineate the sample.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N * (e)^2}$$

n= the sample size

N= Total population for the study

e= the acceptable sampling error at (0.05)

Equation 1: Yamane model

Relying on this model, the study sampled 704 respondents. The sample size from this model is found to be representative and guarantee the required degree of precision and confidence. The sample size obtained from the model showed that 332 of the sample size are academic while 372 are non-academic

With the aid of ratio scale analysis, the sample 332 and 372 academic staff and non-academic staff members respectively from each of the three universities is presented below.

Table 1

S/N	Universities	Academic	Non-academic	Total
1.	Federal University of Technology, Akure.	56	134	190
2.	Ekiti State University Ado-Ekiti	53	144	197
7.	University of Lagos, Akoka	77	240	317
	Total	186	518	704

Author's computation 2020

Data collection method

Quantitative data were collected using structured close ended questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed with the aid of three research assistants, the research assistants were well oriented on the purpose of the data and processes of data collection. The data were collected within a 6-month period. Purpose of the study was explained, confidentiality of information supplied, and anonymity of respondents were guaranteed.

Workplace deviance measures

WDBmeasures of Bennett and Robinson (15) was adopted. This scale consists of two forms of deviance, namely, organizational deviance which consists of 12 items with statements such as

“falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on office expenses” and interpersonal deviance, consisting of 7 items with statements such as “said something hurtful to someone at work”. The respondents were asked to respond to how often they involve in each of these items at work on a 4-point-Likert typing scale ranging from 4 (never) to (1) everytime. The reason for adopting this kind of scale is to ensure that the respondents can give their opinion of the subject matter without sitting on the fence. This is because the questions asked are daily experience of the respondents at work, therefore respondents cannot be neutral specifically as it relates to issues that concern their behaviour and perception. Also, this kind of scale aid ease interpretation (58). These measures were found to have reliability scores of .81 and .78 revealing that the measures adopted are reliable.

Organisational justice measures

OJ was measured using Colquitt (18). This scale was used to measure procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice, and informational justice which consists of 7 items, 4 items, 4 items and 5 items respectively, with questions such as ‘have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?’ “Does your (reward) reflect the effort you have put into your work?” “Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?” “Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?” The respondents were asked to respond to how often they experience each of these items at work on a 4-point likert typing scale ranging from 4 (never) to (1) everytime. The scales have reliability coefficient of .78, .79, .70, .92 respectively, revealing that the measures adopted are reliable.

Ethical Considerations

This study complied with the University of Kwazulu-Natal ethical clearance policy, the permission to carry out the study was submitted and approved by the Humanities and Social Research Ethics committee, with reference number: HSSREC/00002245/2020. All the participant consented to participate in the survey by signing a consent form and participated voluntarily. Participants were informed that the data collected was purely for research purpose while their Confidentiality and anonymity was also assured.

Data Analysis

The descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the questionnaire collected for this study. Section A include information on respondent’s demographics, these were analysed

using descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, frequency counts and simple percentages, which were presented in graphical and tabular forms using bar chart, pie chart and frequency tables. Data in section B include information on WDB and organisational justice were analysed using inferential statistics such as Pearson correlational analyses and linear multiple regression analyses.

Findings

Demographic Data Analysis

The demographic data collected reveals the following characteristics: Participants' gender reveals 288 (50.6%) male, 279 (49.0%) female and 2 (0.4%) preferred not to answer, 98 (17.1%) respondents have worked for 5 years and below, 138 (24.1%) have worked between 6-10 years, 175 (30.6%) have worked between 11-15 years, 74 (12.9%) have worked between 16-20 and 84 (15.2%) 20 years and above. The educational qualification held by the respondents ranges from school certificates, National diploma, HND/BSc., MSc. and PhD, with percentages of 35(6.1%), 74(12.9%), 238 (41.6%), 159 (27.8%) and 66 (11.5%) respectively. Lastly information on the age of the respondents reveals that 33 (5.8%), 62 (10.8%), 92 (16.1%), 134 (23.4%), 251 (43.9%) of the respondents fall between 21-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41 and above respectively. This demographic information is analysed using descriptive statistics and has the following characteristics.

Link between organisational justice and workplace deviance

The objective of this study was to determine the link between organisational justice and WDB. The objective is achieved in two steps. Firstly, the study determines the extent of relationship between the dimensions of OJ (i.e., Informational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice) and forms of WDB(organizational and interpersonal, and combined) by conducting Pearson Product-Moment correlation. Secondly, the study determines the influence of dimensions of OJ on forms of WDB using multiple linear regression.

The correlation results in Table 1 shows the dimensions of WDB have very strong, statistically significant correlation among them (690), suggesting high degree of relationship between interpersonal and organizational WDB. The relationships among the four dimensions of perceived OJ is positive and significant at 1% and 5% percent level of significance. The

correlation between procedural and distributive (.518**), procedural and interpersonal (.298*), procedural and informational (.317**), are not high enough to pose multicollinearity problem in subsequent linear regression, *albeit* a high correlation between interpersonal and informational justice.

Procedural and distributive justice have significant positive correlation with organizational deviance leading to the acceptance of null hypothesis while interpersonal and informational justice have negative correlation with OJ, resulting in rejection of null hypothesis. However, the latter is not significant. Likewise, there exist positive correlations between procedural and distributive justice viz-a-viz interpersonal deviance. However, the correlations are not significant. Further, interpersonal, and informational justice have significant negative correlations with interpersonal deviance.

In general, procedural, and distributive justice have significant negative correlation with organisational deviance and insignificant positive correlation with interpersonal deviance. Conversely, informational, and interpersonal justice have negative relationships with interpersonal deviance.

Table 2: Pearson Correlation: Organisational justice versus Workplace Deviance

		OrgD	IntD	ProceJ	DistrJ	InterJ	InforJ
OrgD	Pearson Correlation	1	.690**	.130**	.096*	-.121**	-0,055
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,002	0,022	0,004	0,191
	N	561	559	561	561	561	560
IntD	Pearson Correlation	.690**	1	0,074	0,020	-.115**	-.124**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,076	0,629	0,006	0,003
	N	559	569	569	569	569	567
ProceJ	Pearson Correlation	.130**	0,074	1	.518**	.298**	.317**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,002	0,076		0,000	0,000	0,000
	N	561	569	572	571	571	569
DistrJ	Pearson Correlation	.096*	0,020	.518**	1	.255**	.224**

	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,022	0,629	0,000		0,000	0,000
	N	561	569	571	571	571	569
InterJ	Pearson Correlation	-.121**	-.115**	.298**	.255**	1	.705**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,004	0,006	0,000	0,000		0,000
	N	561	569	571	571	571	569
InforJ	Pearson Correlation	-0,055	-.124**	.317**	.224**	.705**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,191	0,003	0,000	0,000	0,000	
	N	560	567	569	569	569	569
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).							

Source: Author's compilation (2021)

While the correlation measures the degree of relationship among the variables, it does not determine the effect of one on the other. Hence, the linear multiple regression is used to determine whether the negative (positive) relationship amounts to negative (positive) impact of organisational justice on the two forms of WPD with the results presented in Table 2. As depicted in the upper section of the Table, the R square as shown in the regression model indicates 0.048 with adjusted R square of 0.042. This implies that the independent variables (Informational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice) explain 4.8% variance in the organisational deviant behaviour. The standardized Beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: Procedural justice ($\beta = .150$, $p < 0.05$); Distributive justice ($\beta = .063$, $p > 0.05$); Interpersonal justice ($\beta = -.198$, $p < 0.05$); and Informational justice ($\beta = .022$, $p > 0.05$). Based on this outcome, the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis (H1) which states that, organisational justice (Informational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice) is positively related to organizational deviance, depends on the forms of justice. Specifically, the null hypothesis of positive relationship between procedural justice and interpersonal deviance is accepted while the null hypothesis of positive relationship between other forms of justice and interpersonal justice is rejected. As opposed to the *a priori*, this finding suggests that procedural justice increases organisational deviance. In line with the *a priori*, interpersonal justice reduces organisational deviance.

However, Informational justice and Distributive justice do not exert significant effect on organisational deviance.

With respect to the interpersonal justice, the regression result revealed that the independent variables (Informational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice) explain 3.2% of its variation. Furthermore, the standardized Beta value for each of the independent variables indicated: Procedural justice ($\beta = .133$, $p < 0.05$); Distributive justice ($\beta = -.005$, $p > 0.05$); Interpersonal justice ($\beta = -.077$, $p > 0.05$); and Informational justice ($\beta = .022$, $p > 0.05$). Based on this outcome, the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis (H1) which states that, organisational justice (Informational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice) is positively related to interpersonal deviance, depends on the forms of justice. Specifically, the null hypothesis of positive relationship between procedural justice and interpersonal deviance is accepted while the null hypothesis of positive relationship between other forms of justice and interpersonal justice is rejected. As opposed to the *a priori*, this finding suggests that procedural justice increase interpersonal deviance. In line with the *a priori*, interpersonal, Informational justice and Distributive justice reduce interpersonal deviance, however, the reducing effects are not statistically significant.

Table 3: Regression model Summary on Deviance behaviour and OJ

Variables	B	B	T	P-value	R ²	F	Df	p-value
Dependent Variable: Organizational_deviance								
Constant	15.822		12.259	<.05	0.048	7.058	4;555	<.05
Procedural justice	.197	.150	2.971	<.05	0.042			
Distributive justice	.111	.063	1.292	>.05				
Interpersonal justice	-.396	-.198	-3.366	<.05				
Informational justice	.034	.022	.369	>.05				
Dependent Variable: Interpersonal_deviance								

Constant	10.496		12.053	<.05	0.032 (0.025)	4.677	4;562	<.05
Procedural justice	.118	.133	2.658	<.05				
Distributive justice	-.005	-.005	-.093	>.05				
Interpersonal justice	-.103	-.077	-1.291	>.05				
Informational justice	-.115	-.110	-1.858	>.05				

Source: Author's estimation (2022)

Overall, this study established through Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression that there exist significant positive relationship and influence of procedural justice on both forms of WDB, worsening WDB. This is not consistent with the *a priori* expectation. However, interpersonal justice has negative relationship with and influence on interpersonal deviance, ameliorating interpersonal deviance. This is consistent with the *a priori* expectation.

5. Discussion of findings on the effect of organisational justice and WDB

This study examines the effects of organisational justice on WDB by examining individual effect of each dimension of organisational justice on each dimension of WDB on the one hand and by testing combined effects of all dimensions of organisational justice on aggregated WDB on the other hand.

Overall, this study established through Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression that there exist significant positive relationship and influence of procedural justice on both forms of WDB, worsening WDB. Increasing effect of procedural justice on WDB is not consistent with the *a priori* expectation. It is also in contradiction to Faheem and Mahmud (59), Dora and Azim (28) and Abbasi, Baradari (29) who found that procedural justice has insignificant negative effect on WDB among employees of Pakistan public hospital, and multimedia companies and SMEs in Malaysia, respectively. The finding also contradicts Baig and Ullah (60) who concluded that procedural justice significantly reduces aggregate WDB. Under the procedural justice wave, the fairer the processes leading to the distribution of outcome, the lower the tendency to embark on deviant behaviour. The study finding contravenes this theory,

suggesting that employees of the universities under consideration are negatively disposed to fairness of procedures and processes used in deciding their outcomes.

This study finds that distributive justice has insignificant positive impact on organisational deviance, and insignificant negative impact on interpersonal deviance. This finding suggests that employees of the studied public university are literally indifferent as to the fairness of distribution of outcome (Deutsch, 1985). This study finding differs from Baig and Ullah (60), Dora and Azim (28) who found that distributive justice posed significant negative effect on WDB as well as Butt and Atif (61) and Sabokro, Tavakoli (33) who concluded that distributive injustice increases WDB significantly, although these studies examine aggregate deviant behaviour. On the other hand, Khan, Quratulain (62) suggest that fairness may not be enough, that is fairness does not oftentimes lead to employees exhibiting good behaviours. The authors argued that envy could make an employee involve in WDB even when the processes are fair, this could be as a result of employees comparing themselves with other employees who are enjoying higher fairness of distribution justice.

Extant literature (28, 33, 59, 60) has concentrated on interactional justice effect as opposed to its two subsets, namely the interpersonal and informational justice which are examined in this study. Although its negative effect on interpersonal deviance is not significant, the study finds that interpersonal justice has significant negative influence on organisational deviance, reducing deviant behaviour. This is consistent with the *a priori* expectation. With interpersonal justice being a subset of interactional justice, the finding of this study is in consonance with Sabokro, Tavakoli (33) who submitted that interactional injustice spurred deviant behaviour, even though insignificantly. This finding also supports Azim and Dora (10) and Abbasi, Baradari (29) who concluded that interactional justice significantly reduces deviant behaviour. Unlike most extant literature, the current study shows the individual effects of interpersonal and informational components of interactional justice. Interpersonal justice is achieved when the interpersonal relationship of authorities with subordinates are guided by rules such as respect (need for treatment with sincerity, dignity and refraining from attacking or being rude to others) and propriety (avoidance of questions that could bring bias, such as sex, religion, age, race, amongst others) (49). The study finding suggests that higher level of interpersonal justice in the form of respectful treatment and propriety in the public university is accompanied

by lowering WDB, especially the organisational deviance. In other words, respect and dignity received from superiors go a long way in reducing WDB.

This finding corresponds to the widely held view (45, 48, 63) that employees regard interpersonal justice to be more important when compared to other forms of justice as well as social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity which explains that individuals reciprocate the treatment they receive, either good or bad. As opposed to most studies who linked interpersonal justice to interpersonal deviance, this study shows that interpersonal justice predicts organisational deviance more than it predicts interpersonal deviance.

Furthermore, this study revealed an insignificant negative impact of informational justice on both organisational and interpersonal deviance. Informational justice ensued when the interpersonal relationship of authorities with subordinates are guided by rules such as truthfulness (honesty and candidness in communication, while implementing procedures) and justification (adequate explanation for the outcomes received by employees) (49). The study finding is consistent with Sabokro, Tavakoli (33) who found that interactional injustice has insignificant positive effect on deviance behaviour and Faheem and Mahmud (59) who found that interactional justice has significant negative effect on deviant behaviour. Although there is scant literature on Informational justice and WDB, El Akremi, Vandenberghe (64), found informational injustice triggers supervisor-directed deviance. It can be concluded that how honestly and promptly employees are informed on matters affecting them has no significant reducing effect on deviant behaviour in public universities. It can also be deduced that interpersonal justice is relatively more important than its counterpart (informational justice), as far as prediction of WDB is concerned.

Conclusion

It can be concluded from the findings of the study that the interpersonal deviance reduces in the presence of distributive, informational and interpersonal justice, *albeit* insignificantly. On the other hand, procedural justice increases interpersonal and organisational deviance. With the distributive and informational justice also having insignificant positive effect on organisational justice, the only dimension of justice that supports the *a priori* expectation is the interpersonal justice which tends to significantly reduce the organisational deviance. Our finding differs from most extant literature where justice has a reducing effect on WDB. These differences suggest that the effect of justice on WDB could be context dependent. In addition, it implies that WDB

is deep rooted and endemic in the Nigerian public university system to such an extent that organisational justice alone cannot curtail it. Based on the finding of this study, managements of the public university system must pursue interpersonal justice as a way out of organisational deviance.

Limitation

The present study is not without its limitations, firstly, cross-sectional design was adopted for the study, thereby making it difficult for causal inference to be made on the result of the findings. Future study could consider adopting longitudinal designs so as to examine the effects over time. Secondly, self-report measure was used which could lead to a common method bias, however the study sample consists of employees from different Universities and groups. This has been established to have reducing effect on common method bias (63). Future studies could consider collecting data from multiple sources. Furthermore, for organisational justice to have a desirable effect on WDB , intervening variables may be required to mediate the relationship. For example, it has been suggested that job satisfaction, personality traits, *inter alia*, mediate the relationship between justice and WDB in recent literature. This is beyond the scope of this study; however, it presents a researchable gap for future researcher to fill in the Nigerian context. Regardless of these limitations, this study has been able to provide an understanding of the OJ and WDB relationship.

Recommendations

If the stakeholders have to choose among the four dimensions of justice, interpersonal justice must be accorded higher priority in dealing with organizational deviance in Public Universities in Nigeria. It must be ensured that superiors treat their subordinates with respect and dignity, as this would impact on the feeling of injustice which has been affirmed to lead to deviant behaviour. In addition, the study recommends that future studies examine one of the two groups of staff, that is, future studies should focus on either academic staff or non-academic staff due to the different deviant acts exhibited by them.

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APPENDIX C: GATE KEEPERS' LETTERS

EKITI STATE UNIVERSITY, ADO-EKITI

P.M.B. 5363, ADO-EKITI, NIGERIA.
OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR



Registrar
AKIN AROGUNDADE
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lawarogundade@yahoo.com

Ref. No: AD/ FD.41/Vol.IV/54

19th August, 2020

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION: GATEKEEPER CONSENT

I write to introduce to you, **Grace Oluwafunmilayo Obalade**, Student No.218087627, a Ph.D (Human Resource Management) student at the University of Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa, who is conducting a research titled: "*Perception on human Resource Practices and Workplace Deviance: A Case of Public Universities in South-West Nigeria*".

She has been granted permission to distribute questionnaires on the research work to academic and non-teaching staff of the University.

The Vice Chancellor has also approved her request to cite the name of Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti in the dissertation, if she wishes to, please.

[REDACTED]
Ojo-Eyitope E. A.
For: Registrar





UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS

The University of First Choice & The Nation's Pride
Senate House, University of Lagos, Akoka, Lagos, Nigeria

E-mail: registrar@unilag.edu.ng

Tel: [REDACTED]
Website: www.unilag.edu.ng

25th September, 2020

Ms. AB Pearce,
Research & Higher Degrees,
School of Management, IT & Governance,
College of Law and Management Studies,
Westville Campus,
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
South Africa.

Dear MS AB Pearce,

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Your letter and e-mail of 11th September and 21st August, 2020 to the Registrar on the above subject refers, please.

This is to inform you that your request that **Mrs. Grace Oluwafunmilayo Obalade (Matric No:218087627)** a Ph.D. Student in Human Resource Management in the University of Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa be allowed to administer questionnaires in the University of Lagos Campus has been granted.

Kindly ensure that the data obtained is strictly for research purpose and the confidentiality of the data is strictly adhere to.

By a copy of this letter, all relevant Departments/Units are being duly informed to accord **Grace Oluwafunmilayo Obalade** necessary support in her research exercise.

I wish her success in her research endeavour.

Thank you.

Yours Sincerely,

[REDACTED]

Registrar

Registrar: Oladajo Azeez, Esq.

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Office of the Vice Chancellor

Vice Chancellor: **PROF. JOSEPH ADEOLA FUWAPE, fnas, ffps**
B.Sc, M.Sc, Ph.D, (Ibadan)

Tel: [REDACTED]

e-mail: [REDACTED]

VC.REF/259

October 26, 2020

Ms. A B Pearce,
Research and Higher Degrees,
School of Management,
IT and Governance,
University of Kwazulu-Natal,
Westville Campus.

Dear Ms AB Pearce,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I, Professor Joseph Adeola Fuwape in my capacity as Vice Chancellor hereby give permission to student name: Grace Oluwafunmilayo Obalade (Student No: 218087627) to conduct research in my organization.

The student may use the name of the organization in the dissertation.

Closed

PROF.
VICE C

APPENDIX D: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



05 January 2021

Mrs Grace Oluwafunmilayo Obalade (218087627)
School of Management, IT & Governance
Westville Campus

Dear Mrs Obalade,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00002245/2020

Project title: Perception on human resource practices and workplace deviance: a case of public Universities in South-West Nigeria

Degree: PhD

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 11 November 2020 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted FULL APPROVAL.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

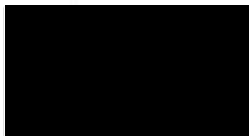
This approval is valid until 07 January 2022.

To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours sincerely,



Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/ms

Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

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