THE INFLUENCE OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND LEADERSHIP STYLE ON JOB SATISFACTION AND CYBERDEVIANCE AMONGST ADMINISTRATIVE EMPLOYEES IN JORDANIAN UNIVERSITIES

AHMAD SAID IBRAHIM AL-SHUAIBI

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA

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By

AHMAD SAID IBRAHIM AL-SHUAIBI

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Nama Pelajar
(Name of Student)

:   Ahmad Sa'id Ibrahim Al- Shuaibi

Tajuk Tesis/Dissertation
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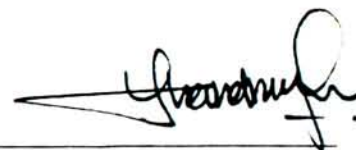(Name of Supervisor/Supervisors)

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ABSTRACT

The advent of the Internet has transformed the way in which people work and live. While the Internet has offered many advantages and benefits to the workplace particularly in terms of speeding up information search, it also has potential drawbacks. One drawback is that people can misuse the Internet while at work. This phenomenon, which is called cyberdeviance, is a form of production deviance. As our theoretical understanding of cyberdeviance is still limited, this study attempts to investigate the role of HR practices and leadership style in cyberdeviant activities. It also seeks to examine the mediating influence of job satisfaction, with the application of social exchange theory. A survey of 273 administrative employees in in four universities in Amman, Jordan who were randomly selected using a cluster technique, was carried out for the period of five months from February until June 2011. Frequency, descriptive statistics, correlation, multiple regression, and hierarchical regression analyses were run to test the research hypotheses. Factor analyses revealed four dimensions of HR practices, i.e., performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, and employment security. Leadership style produced a single dimension labelled supportive leadership style, while job satisfaction yielded two dimensions, namely, satisfaction with pay, and satisfaction with workload. Results showed that performance appraisal and leadership style were significantly and negatively related to cyberdeviance, contrary to expectation.But collectively, the predictor variables of dimensions of HR practices and leadership were found to explain 63.8% of variance in cyberdeviance. Two dimensions of job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with workload, partially mediated the link between leadership style and cyberdeviance. But satisfaction with pay was found to partially mediate performance appraisal and cyberdeviance.It is recommended that organizations implement a good performance appraisal system and demonstrate supportive leadership as ways to reduce cyberdeviance at work.

Keywords: cyberdeviance; HR practices; Internet; job satisfaction; Jordan; leadership style

ABSTRAK

Perkembangan Internet telah banyak mengubah kehidupan dan pekerjaan manusia. Walaupun Internet memberi banyak kelebihan dan kebaikan di tempat kerja khususnya dari segi mempercepatkan pencarian maklumat, tetapi ia turut mempunyai kelemahan. Salah satu kelemahannya ialah penyalahgunaan Internet semasa bekerja. Fenomena ini dikenali sebagai devian siber, iaitu satu bentuk devian pengeluaran. Oleh kerana pengetahuan teoritis tentang devian siber masih terhad, maka kajian ini dilakukan untuk menyelidik peranan amalan pengurusan sumber manusia (PSM) dan gaya kepemimpinan dalam mempengaruhi aktiviti devian siber. Ia juga menyiasat pengaruh kepuasan kerja dengan mengaplikasi teori pertukaran sosial (*social exchange theory*). Satu tinjauan dilakukan terhadap 273 orang pekerja pentadbiran yang bekerja di empat buah universiti di Amman, Jordan telah dipilih secara rawak dengan menggunakan teknik kluster yang dijalankan dalam tempoh lima bulan mulai bulan Februari sehingga Jun 2011. Analisis kekerapan, deskriptif, korelasi, regresi berbilang dan regresi hierarki digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis kajian. Analisis faktor mendedahkan empat dimensi amalan PSM iaitu penilaian prestasi, amalan pampasan, kemajuan kerjaya, dan jaminan kerja. Gaya kepemimpinan menghasilkan satu dimensi yang dilabelkan sebagai gaya kepemimpinan sokongan manakala kepuasan kerja menghasilkan dua dimensi iaitu kepuasan dengan bayaran dan kepuasan dengan beban tugas. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa penilaian prestasi dan gaya kepimpinan sokongan mempengaruhi secara signifikan dan negatif devian siber, tidak seperti yang dijangkakan. Walau bagaimanapun, secara kolektifnya pemboleh ubah peramal iaitu empat dimensi amalan PSM dan gaya kepemimpinan didapati menjelaskan 63.8% daripada varians dalam devian siber. Dua dimensi kepuasan kerja iaitu kepuasan dengan bayaran dan kepuasan dengan beban tugas menjadi pengantara sebahagian dalam hubungan antara gaya kepemimpinan dengan devian siber. Namun, kepuasan dengan bayaran menjadi pengantara sebahagian dalam hubungan antara penilaian prestasi dengan devian siber. Oleh itu, organisasi dicadangkan agar melaksanakan sistem penilaian prestasi yang baik dan mempamerkan sokongan kepemimpinan bagi mengurangkan devian siber di tempat kerja.

Kata kunci: devian siber; amalan pengurusan sumber manusia (PSM); Internet; kepuasan kerja; Jordan; gaya kepemimpinan

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person you wanted me to be always. To these people, I always fall short of words and feel impossible to describe their support in words. If I have to mention one thing about them, among many, then I would proudly mention that my parents are very simple and they have taught me how to lead a simple life. I would simply say, "Father, Mother you are the greatest!" I ask God to keep them safe, and shower them with His blessing constantly.

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Suhair, caring and sharing is the one of the human basic needs. And this is what you have always reminded me about whenever we are together. Your support is much appreciated.
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From the depth of my heart, I wish to thank everyone. May Allah help me return the favour to you.

Ameen.

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Ahmad Said Ibrahim Al-Shuaibi
2013

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BTS	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
CA	Career Advancement
CD	Cyberdeviance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CP	Compensation Practice
DWB	Deviant Workplace Behaviour
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ES	Employment Security
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HR	Human Resources
JD	Jordanian Dinar
JDI	Job Descriptive Index
JDS	Job Diagnostic Survey
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MJS	Measure of Job Satisfaction
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MLT	Multifactor Leadership Theory
MSA	Measure of Sampling Adequacy
MSQ	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
N	Sample Size
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour
PA	Performance Appraisal
PCA	Principal Components Analysis
r	Correlation Coefficient
R^2	Coefficient of Determination
SLS	Supportive Leadership Style
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SWL	Satisfaction with Workload
SWP	Satisfaction with Pay
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1　　BACKGROUND OF STUDY

The advent of the Internet has brought both positive and negative impacts on organizations (Case & Young, 2002), prompting Richards (2012) to call it a "double-edged" sword. A positive impact is that the Internet has enabled better communication both within an organization and with other organizations. It has allowed employees to work faster, smarter, which leads to increased productivity due to enhanced accessibility to information (Chen, Chen, & Yang, 2008; Henle & Blanchard, 2008). However, these technological advancements have also brought many unintentional and unforeseen problems. One of these problems is that the new technology offers an opportunity for employees to engage in new forms of deviant behavior during work hours such as surfing non-work related sites (Roman, 1996; Tapia, 2006), playing games, performing personal banking online, updating personal blogs/websites, or wasting organizational time by using email (Weatherbee, 2010). In other words, the accessibility of the Internet at work has enabled employees to engage in non-work related activities while at work. Furthermore, according to Lim and Teo (2005), since accessing the Internet has changed ways that work could be done, it also has added to people more chances to waste time at the cyberspace in the name of doing work. The Internet has also been used to send emails that are harassing and abusive in nature (Drolet, 2000). In other words, employees at the workplace are finding even more novel ways for their misuse of the Internet and the domain consists of a wide range of

behaviors that are evolving. These behaviors are in tandem with the enabling technologies which are changing at a fairly rapid pace such as SMS, twitter, and blogs, to name a few (Weatherbee, 2010).

When the employees engage in activities that are deemed to be wasting their time while at work as they are non-work related, they can be said to be misbehaving (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999). Internet-related misbehavior has been called by various names and terminologies such as cyberdeviance (Weatherbee, 2010), cyberloafing (Blau, Yang, & Ward-Cook, 2006; de Lara, Verano-Tacoronte, & Ding, 2006; Henle & Blanchard, 2008; Henle, Kohut, & Booth, 2009; Krishnan, Lim, & Teo, 2010; Lim, 2002; Lim & Teo, 2005), cyber-slacking (Block, 2001; Garrett & Danziger, 2008; Greengard, 2000; Lavoie & Pychyl, 2001), cyber incivility (Lim & Teo, 2009), Internet abuse (Bellm, 1998; Galletta & Polak, 2003; Griffiths, 2003; Mirchandani & Motwani, 2003), and personal web usage (Anandarajan & Simmers, 2005; Mahatanankoon, Anandarajan, & Igbaria, 2004), to name a few. Regardless of the terminology used, scholars tend to be in agreement that Internet-related misbehavior, which is referred as cyberdeviance in the present study, is a form of behavior that is harmful and dysfunctional to the organizational effectiveness.

As indicated by various surveys, cyberdeviance is claimed to be rife in organizations. For instance, the latest survey conducted by Salary.com in 2012 indicated prevalence of Internet misuse as one of the ways how employees are wasting their time at work (Gouveia, 2012). The survey conducted on more than 3200 individuals in the USA between February and March 2012 found that 64% of those surveyed indicated that they visit non-work related websites every day during work hours. Even though the survey highlighted that the number was down by 10% from the last survey conducted in 2011, it maintained that the reason could be that

employees might have less time to waste because they were spending more time on their added job responsibilities at the time when many people have lost their jobs in the USA. Indeed, when asked how much they waste time at work on the computer, 39% said they spent a mere 1 hour a week or less on non-work related items, followed by 29% who spent up to 2 hours a week, and 21% who wasted up to 5 hours a week. Only 3% of respondents spent 10 hours or more on personal tasks while at work in a given week.

The findings of the latest survey by Salary.com in 2012 in the USA seem to be consistent with some surveys conducted earlier. For instance, a survey by the Internet Data Corp in 2008 in the USA published by Snapshot Spy reported that up 40% of workplace Internet use was not business related and 60% of all online purchases were made during regular work hours. A study conducted by Lim and Teo in 2005 in Singapore found that among 226 working adults who had accesses to the Internet at work, 2.7 hours were spent every day by surfing non-related work websites. In addition, estimates indicate that between 20% and 30% of companies have fired an employee for cyberdeviance including accessing pornographic sites, online gambling, and online shopping (Case & Young, 2002; Greenfield & Davis, 2002). According to the second annual survey by America Online and Salary.com, the biggest distraction at work is personal use of the Internet, which was committed by 52% of the 2,706 respondents during July 2006 (Malachowski & Simonini, 2012).

If the above statistics are to be reflective of what is happening now at the workplace, organizations will eventually report losses in productivity and performance. Employers are increasingly concerned about cyberdeviance at the workplace (Lim, Teo, & Loo, 2002; Mastrangelo, Everton, & Jolton, 2006) as it can cost the organization. Drolet (2000) asserted that organizations are now increasingly

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combating emails that are harassing in nature and e-mail viruses which cause financial loses to the company and reduced productivity as result of the misuse of technology and browsing of infected sites. These misuses also cause damage to the organization's assets. Therefore, behaviors like these need to be curbed and managed effectively.

1.1.1 Jordanian Scenario

Jordan is an Arab country in the Middle East. It is located surrounded by Syria to the North, Iraq to the Northeast, Saudi Arabia to the Southeast and Israel and West Bank to the West. The capital of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is Amman. According to the Department of Statistics (2012), currently Jordan population is reported to be around 6.4 million. Islam is the official religion of the country and approximately 92% of the people who live in Jordan are Muslims (Department of Statistics, 2012). While Arabic is the national language, English is widely spoken and used in commerce, government, medicine, universities, and education. Both languages are mandatory as medium of instruction in both private and public schools and universities.

Unlike many Arab countries in the Middle East that are rich in oil and gas resources, Jordan does not possess such resources. Instead, its economy is much diverse in nature in which government services contribute 20.4% to the country's GDP (Bank Audi sal, 2013). In addition, other main economic activities include finance, real estate, and business services (17.5%), manufacturing (16.5%), trade, restaurants, and hotels (9.4%), construction (4.4%), mining and quarrying (3.3%), agriculture (2.8%), transport and communication (12.0%), and others (13.8%) (Bank Audi sal, 2013).

Realizing that human capital is an important component for the development of the Kingdom, Jordan gives concerted efforts in enhancing its education sector. Go to MOHE website. In addition, it aims to become the hub of education particularly in the Middle Eastern region (Akour & Shannak, 2012), and towards this objective the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan has invested heavily in the establishment of its higher education sector and this can be witnessed with the growing number of institutions of higher learning such as universities (Kanaan, Al-Salamat, & Hanania, 2010). As of now, the number of universities, both public and private, has reached 27 while there are 51 college universities (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2010). In fact for 2013, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research of Jordan has been allocated an increase of 27% in the budget (Faek, 2013). In fact, the Kingdom has been recognized as having quality higher education, reflected in the number of foreign students enrolling in various academic programs at the Jordanian universities that is close to 28,000 students, who come from all over the world (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2010.

Being one of the first countries in the Arab world to introduce information technology (IT) to industry and economy, Jordan has initiated reforms in the ICT by deregulating the industry and lowering Internet usage costs especially in the government sector through e-education and e-government (Ministry of Information & Communication Technology [MoICT], 2013). In fact, Jordan has managed to export successfully its e-education management systems and e-education content to the United States, Oman, Bahrain, Syria, Saudi Arabia, Algeria and Morocco (MoICT, 2013). Indeed, the adoption of ICT in higher education institutions is also in line with the Kingdom's aspiration to become the centre of ICT in the region (Al-Jaghoub, &

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Westrup, 2008). Indeed, Jordan has seen a dramatic increase in the usage of Internet since 2000, as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1
Internet Growth and Population Statistics in Jordan

Year	Users	Population	% of Population
2000	127,300	5,282,558	2.4 %
2002	457,000	5,282,558	8.7 %
2005	600,000	5,282,558	11.4 %
2007	796,900	5,375,307	14.8 %
2008	1,126,700	6,198,677	18.2 %
2009	1,595,200	6,269,285	25.4 %
2010	1,741,900	6,407,085	27.2 %
2012	2,481,940	6,508,887	38.1 %

Source: Internet World Stats (2012)

As shown by Table 1.1., there has been a steady Internet usage growth in relation to the growth of the population in Jordan, as reported by the Internet World Stats (2012). For instance, the population grew by only 1.5% from 2010 to 2012, but Internet users increased significantly by 40%. As of September 2012, the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) reported that there are around 2.5 million Internet users in Jordan, representing 38.1% of the total population (Internet World Stats, 2013). With the increase in Internet usage amongst Jordanian population, it is anticipated that some degree of cyberdeviance may also take place at the workplace. Indeed, according to Mashhour, Al-Saad, and Saleh (2011), employees in Jordanian companies were found to misuse the Internet to browse online shopping, games, and personal blogs, to name a few, which has the potential to cause lost in time and productivity. They studied a sample Internet log file from a private company in Jordan to identify Internet abuse at the workplace. If this situation is reflective of what is happening in a wide range of organizations in Jordan, then management needs to consider ways to manage such phenomenon especially when the Jordanian

government intends to achieve its national agenda of becoming the hub of telecommunication and education sectors in the Middle East (Al-Jaghoub & Westrup, 2008). These two service sectors in the economy have been earmarked as being the engine of economic growth in Jordan particularly when the service sector in general is the biggest employer of almost 60% of the population (Department of Statistics, 2012).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

If cyberdeviance at the workplace is rife as reported by the surveys mentioned earlier, and if some practical measures are to be instituted in organizations to curb the misuse, the question apt to be asked is why such phenomenon takes place.

Because cyberdeviance can be costly to organizations, as indicated earlier, it has attracted scholarly attention and interest. Literatures on cyberdeviance are indeed growing as more research works have been conducted to understand the phenomenon. Furthermore, as the phenomenon of cyberdeviance has increasingly become a major concern of employers, it represents a very new and on-going challenge for contemporary scholars and practitioners (Anandarajan, Teo, & Simmers, 2006). But according to Selwyn (2008),while related issues to serious cybercrime i.e. spreading of virus-ware, hacking, the misappropriation of virtual money, online violence, and harassment, have been attracting an increasingly considerable interest from academics (Wall, 2005; Williams, 2000), cyberdeviance, which is the element that characterizes the major portion of Internet misuse by users have not received the same interest. In a similar vein, Krishnan, Lim, and Teo (2010) mentioned that a few attempts have been made to study the dark side of the phenomenon, such as cyberdeviance, but they are

generally descriptive in nature and largely unguided by theory. As discussed later, the present study attempts to approach this topic by locating it within social exchange theory.

To date, studies that have attempted to explain why cyberdeviance happens at work have looked at individual and organizational variables. Among individual factors that have been examined include personality variables such as self-esteem (Ferris, Lian, Pang, Brown, & Keeping, 2010; Lim & Teo, 2005; Renaud, Ramsay, & Hair, 2006) and locus of control (Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Chak & Leung, 2004; Hair, Renaud, & Ramsay, 2007). Among organizational factors that have been considered are organizational sanctions (D'Arcy & Hovav, & Galetta, 2009; Henle & Blanchard, 2008), and monitoring (Vorobyov, 2005). It has been generally found that organizational sanctions and organization punishment are negatively associated with employees cyberloafing, which means that when punishment exists workers will be more dissuaded from engaging in deviant behavior (de Lara, Verano-Tacoronte, & Ding, 2006).

While organizational controls such as monitoring (Vorobyov, 2005) and policies regarding acceptable use of Internet at work (Ugrin & Pearson, 2008) are important in curbing cyberdeviant activities, there are other factors in the organization that could also contribute to the phenomenon of cyberdeviance at work. In the present study, two organizational-related variables, which have not been examined before but have not the potential to influence cyberdeviance, are considered. They are leadership and human resource practices (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Past studies have generally indicated that favorable HR practices make a significant difference in employee work-related outcomes (e.g., Alnaqbi, 2011; Abu Elanain, 2010; Baloch, Ali, Kiani, Ahsan, & Mufty, 2010; Gardner, Moynihan, Park, & Wright, 2001; Gould-Williams, 2003;

Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Shahzad, Bashir, & Ramay, 2008; Suliman, 2007), and that favorable leadership style is generally found to create good work-related outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Babcock-Roberson& Strickland, 2010; Bass, 1998; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Lian & Tui, 2012; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2004). If favorable HR practices and leadership style are associated with good performance, alternatively it is reasonable to expect that they could negatively affect employee poor performance such as deviant behavior on the cyberspace.

Theoretical link between HR practices and leadership style, and cyberdeviance is possible with the application of social exchange theory, which essentially maintains that reciprocity between at least two actors is developed when social exchanges occur. Within the context of employment relations, this theory fundamentally argues that employees will demonstrate good behavior and hence good performance as a way to reciprocate the positive contributions made by the organization. On the other hand, employees will reciprocate negatively when they perceive that the organization is not contributing favorably toward the exchange as expected (Gouldner, 1960). When this happens, negative reciprocity is said to occur.

However, whilst social exchange theory has been consistently used to explain deviant behavior at work, scholars have suggested that the "why" should be incorporated into the theory to enhance understanding the mechanics and dynamics of the occurrence of such behavior (e.g., Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009). Implicit in the social exchanges is that the maintenance of the social relationship between the two parties depends on the favorable attitude each party has with one another (Gouldner, 1960). Hence, consistent with this proposition, the present study

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theorizes that the link between organizational factors (i.e. HR practices and leadership style) and cyberdeviance can be made possible through job satisfaction. In addition, past studies have shown that the effect of HR practices on organizational and employee performance is not direct; the relationship between the two is purported to be mediated by some processes or mechanisms that are able to link between two (Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2003). The literature has pointed out that HR practices may evoke favorable attitudes in employees, and consequently employee behavior. Indeed, Allen, Shore, and Griffeth (2003) argued that there is a need for a mediating link between HR practices and organizational performance such as turnover because the empirical evidence seems to indicate that the HR practices might be "somewhat dismal determinants of turnover" (p. 102). Similar recommendation was also expressed by Gardner, Moyhihan, Park, and Wright (2001), who noted that previous works tended to neglect the mediating processes especially when the evidence seems to indicate a weak relationship between HR practices and firm performance.

In separate studies, HR practices have generally been found to positively affect job satisfaction (e.g., Absar, Azim, Balasundaram, & Akhter, 2010; Hunjra, Chani, Aslam, Azam, & Rehman, 2010; Gould-Williams, 2003; Goyal & Shrivastava, 2012; Javed, Rafiq, Ahmed, & Khan, 2012; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Poon, 2004; Sirca, Babnik, & Breznik, 2012), and job satisfaction has also been shown to be associated with specific deviant behavior outcomes such as absenteeism (e.g., Hausknecht, Hiller, & Vance, 2008; Scott & Taylor, 1985), turnover (Singh &Loncar, 2010; Wang & Yi, 2011), and even general deviant workplace behavior (e.g., Darratt, Amyx, & Bennett, 2010; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Kidwell & Valentine, 2009; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). Similarly, constructive and positive leadership style has been

generally observed to elicit job satisfaction (e.g., Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011; Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, & Sutton, 2011). By integrating these two distinct strands of research, it is possible to theorize a link between organizational characteristics of HR practices and leadership style, and cyberdeviance, mediated by job satisfaction. However, none has considered the theoretical possibility before and the present study attempts to fill the gap. By doing so, our theoretical understanding on the dynamics and mechanisms of job satisfaction in explaining the effect of HR practices and leadership style on cyberdeviance is enhanced. Furthermore, investigating the mediating role of job satisfaction in the theoretical linkages between HR-cyberdeviance and leadership-cyberdeviance is consistent with the recommendation made by Weatherbee (2010), in his review of the state-of-the-art of cyberdeviance literature. He noted that "To accommodate the potential complexity of the cyberdeviance domain, investigation and study must also account for the processes in which cyberdeviance events come into being" (p. 41).

In sum, the present study is motivated by the fact that much more needs to be done to increase our theoretical understanding of cyberdeviance at work. Weatherbee (2010, p. 37) summed up the gaps in the literature that need to be filled in his excellent review:

"Given the recent and preliminary nature of much of the study of ICT misuse, work largely focuses on individual misuse behaviors, prevalence rates, predictors, and outcomes. Consequently, we have collectively not yet accumulated sufficient studies to proclaim strong predictive relationships concerning the influence of individual differences, situational factors, or interactions. The field has not yet reached the state where findings make it is possible to 'profile' either a likely candidate-individual or

the situational factors under which ICT misuse may be predicted, nor have the full range of individual, groups or organizational outcomes been explored."

But it is argued that no single research work can accomplish the task of filling the existing gaps for various reasons; instead our theoretical knowledge toward understanding is incremental at best and the present study attempts to add to the existing knowledge by considering additional two factors in the organization purported to have some bearings on the social phenomenon of cyberdeviance at work.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the existing gaps identified above, the present study intends to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of cyberdeviance exhibited by employees in organization?
2. Do HR practices have any significant influence on cyberdeviance?
3. Does leadership style have any significant influence on cyberdeviance?
4. Does job satisfaction mediate the link between HR practices and cyberdeviance?
5. Does job satisfaction mediate the link between leadership style and cyberdeviance?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The present study generally seeks to examine the influence of HR practices and leadership on job satisfaction, which subsequently affects cyberdeviance at work. To

be consistent with the research questions above, the present study aims to achieve the specific objectives as follows:

1. To identify the level of cyberdeviance among employees in organization.

2. To investigate the influence of HR practices on cyberdeviance.

3. To examine the influence of leadership styles on cyberdeviance.

4. To determine the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between HR practices and cyberdeviance.

5. To investigate the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between leadership styles and cyberdeviance.

1.5   SCOPE OF STUDY

To answer the research questions and meet the objectives specified above, this study was conducted amongst administrative employees of universities in Jordan. Justification why this group of study was considered particularly to examine cyberdeviance is presented in the method chapter. Jordan, in particular, is chosen as the context of the study as studies on cyberdeviance have been largely carried out in the West (e.g. de Lara &Olivares-Mesa,2010; Henle& Blanchard, 2008; Liberman, Seidman, McKenna, & Buffardi, 2011; Weatherbee, 2010) or other countries such as Singapore (e.g., Henle & Blanchard, 2008; Lim, 2005; Lim & Chen, 2012; Lim, Loo & Teo, 2001; Lim & Teo, 2005).To date, no one has considered studying the issue in Jordan. As Jordan is aiming to develop itself socially, economically and politically, issues such as cyberdeviance are particularly pertinent to be addressed or otherwise the development of the country will be adversely affected. Furthermore, as a country

that lacks natural resources, Jordan relies much on services sector to develop its economy, as mentioned above.

In order to achieve the research objectives set above, a survey was carried out involving distribution of questionnaires amongst administrative employees randomly selected in universities located in Amman, Jordan (more detailed explanation on the sampling procedure is offered in Chapter Four). The use of survey in the present study was appropriate because the research is concerned about knowing how HR practices and leadership style can influence employee cyberdeviance by including job satisfaction as a mediating variable in this relationship. The data collection period took place within five months from early February 2011 to end of June 2011.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The findings of the proposed study can contribute to both theory and practice. From the theoretical perspective, this study is important as it further contributes to the growing literature on cyberdeviance. In addition, if the findings of the present study are valid, the study contributes to existing knowledge by incorporating the role of HR practices and leadership into the understanding of cyberdeviance at work. Specifically, the findings will be able to show to what extent HR practices and leadership within the organization could play an important role in shaping employee's reciprocal behavior towards the organization through the engagement of cyberdeviance at work. More importantly, the present study is able to enhance the existing body of knowledge by showing how job satisfaction mediates the effect of HR practices and leadership on cyberdeviance via the application of social exchange theory.

This study also contributes to our theoretical understanding on cyberdeviance as it is exhibited by administrative employees in the Jordanian universities. The present study is important for a country like Jordan that has witnessed a growing occurrence of this issue, which has led to financial and productivity costs, as remarked by the chairman of the telecommunications regulators in Jordan (Mashhour, Al-Saad, & Saleh, 2011).

Practically speaking, if the findings are correct, the present study will help managers formulate strategies that can curb the occurrence of cyberdeviance in companies in general and the Jordanian education sector in particular through improvements in HR practices and enhanced leadership. In particular, the results of the study would help managers and practitioners to determine the types of HR practices and leadership styles to adopt that will satisfy employees in their job and consequently reduce cyberdeviance and keep it to the minimum.

1.7   DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

To reiterate, the present study aims to examine the influence of HR practices and leadership style on job satisfaction and cyberdeviance. To assist in understanding the research, definitions of the main terms are offered as follows:

Cyberdeviance refers to deviant activities engaged by employees in cyberspace. It is also used interchangeably with terms such as "cyberloafing", "cyberslacking" and "cyberbludging" to connote the unproductive time spent at work on the Internet for non-work related purposes by using the company's property. Whether the Internet is used to browse online activities, shop, or harassing others at work, improper use of company's time and property is involved. In this context,

cyberdeviance is considered a form of production deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

HR practices refer to a set of activities used by an organization to manage its human resources toward accomplishing the organizational goals and objectives. Storey (1995) contended these interrelated activities are implemented to acquire, develop, manage, motivate, and gain commitment from the organization's employees. Various other researchers (e.g., Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler & MacMillan, 1984; Wright & Snell, 1991) unanimously agreed that HR practices can be defined as managing the pool of human resources and making sure that the resources are utilized for the fulfillment of organizational goals.

Leadership is defined as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (Yukl, 2006, p. 8). In a similar vein, Northouse (2007) defined leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. These definitions highlight several important components of leadership. According to Daft (2002), leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes. He identifies six main components of leadership: influence, change, intention, shared purpose, followers, and personal responsibility and integrity.

Leadership style refers to the behavior a leader exhibits in influencing employees at work. Although there is a myriad of leadership styles, in the present study two types of leadership style is examined i.e. transactional and transformational leadership. According to Burns (1978), transformational leaders offer a purpose that goes is long term and focuses on higher order intrinsic needs of their followers. These

leaders are described as those who use motivation to guide their subordinates to perform to the best of their ability and to raise their levels of confidence through constant support. On the other hand, transactional leaders offer something employees want in exchange what the leaders want. In other words, transactional leaders exchange resources with their employees.

According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. This definition, according to Sirca, Babnik, and Breznik (2012), should be considered as an individual's affection to his/her job or work.

1.8 ORGANIZATION OF THESIS

This study will be structured into five chapters. Chapter one has discussed the background of the study by highlighting the practical issues of cyberdeviance before it proceeded with identifying the gaps in the existing literatures on the role of leadership style and HR practices in affecting cyberdeviant activity through the intervention of job satisfaction. Based on the research gaps, research questions and problems have been identified. The scope and significance of study were then highlighted.

Chapter two reviews the past and existing empirical works in the area of deviant behavior which is specifically related to `cyberdeviance and the issues related to the effect of leadership style and HR practices on cyberdeviance, and the mediating effect of job satisfaction. This chapter also discusses the conceptualizations of the main constructs, and social exchange theory as the main theory that underpins the research work. In addition, based on the review of the literatures, relevant hypotheses are then developed.

Chapter three deals with the method used in the present study. Specifically, aspects of research design such as population and sample, sampling technique, instrumentation, data collection procedure and technique, and data analyses are discussed. In this chapter also a discussion on a pilot study to check the instruments used is also offered. Chapter four presents the research findings based on the analyses of data collected and their subsequent interpretations. Finally, chapter five discusses the findings by relating them to previous literatures and relevant theories specifically social exchange. This chapter also offers some recommendations, based on the results found, for future research and practice, and highlights limitations of the study. This chapter ends with some concluding remarks.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The first chapter has presented theoretical gaps that still exist in the current knowledge of cyberdeviance while at work. In particular, it argues that cyberdeviance could be explained by looking at factors in the organisation namely HR practices and leadership style, as little understanding exists on how HR practices and leadership style play a role in cyberdeviance, and how such theoretical link can be enhanced by considering the mediating role of job satisfaction. Basing on the premise that cyberdeviance is a form of production deviance (more on this later), the present study attempts to apply social exchange theory to specifically examine why employees in cyberdeviant activities as a way to reduce work effort and limit production while at work. These two factors in the organisation are chosen as they are relevant to social exchange perspective that argues essentially that perceived positive contributions of the organisation are reciprocated in kind by employees. This chapter attempts to offer theoretical discussion on this issue.

Toward such purpose, this chapter is organized as follows: Firstly, a discussion on social exchange theory that underpins the whole research work is presented. Next, conceptualizations of the main variables are offered and readers will notice the different terminologies used in the literature that complicate theoretical understanding of the phenomenon under study. Then, a discussion on the main research works that have been carried out in the literature specifically those that

pertain to the proposed link between HR practices, leadership, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance, will be presented, leading to the development of the research hypotheses. The chapter ends with a summary of the key points that have been discussed.

2.2 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

A number of theories have been applied to explain general workplace deviance, and social exchange theory is one of them. This study is located within the social exchange perspective because this theory embodies well the nature of the work relationship between two parties i.e. employer and employee. Indeed, other theories that have been used to explain deviant behaviour at work such as inequity theory (Adams, 1963) or psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1989) suggest one important implication, that is, the relations between workers and management are based on exchange. It is within the exchange that social, psychological, and sociological processes come into play. For instance, good exchanges perceived between interested parties are the basis for the maintenance of good relationship as these exchanges signify trust and fairness. Hence, to understand whether equity or justice or psychological contract is met requires that one locates it within the social relationship first. It is for this reason that the present study argues how deviant behaviour at work can be understood.

One of the main proponents of social exchange theory is Peter Blau in addition to other theorists such as George Homans, George Simmel, and Broanslaw Malinowski. But it was George Homans who founded the theory in the 1960s before it was further developed by other theorists. Of these scholars, Blau devoted more time

to social exchange theory in his book *Exchange and Power in Social Life* (1964). One main difference that can be discerned between these scholars is their theoretical viewpoints of social exchange. For instance, while Homans's primary concern was on the behaviour of individuals in a social interaction and how social structures such as power, conformity, status, leadership and justice are important in understanding social interactions, Blau's perspective was utilitarian and economic. He argued that social interaction depends much on the anticipated reward and not so much on what has been offered in the past. In other words, the next move one makes in enhancing (or degrading) the social relationship depends on what reward is likely to be received. In this manner, Blau argued that people learn to view and value the social relationships more and decide whether the social interaction should be maintained or otherwise. Regardless of the differences in theoretical viewpoints, social exchange theory essentially argues that people calculate the overall worth of a particular relationship by subtracting its costs from the rewards it provides, which could be in different forms such as support, companionship etc. It is the value of the rewards that determine people's behaviour and responses toward the social relationship. In other words, social relations are governed by the norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which simply states that people should return benefits given to them in a relationship.

Exchange theorists suggest that human interactions are characterized by social economics, where people are concerned about the inputs they invest in relationships and the outcomes they receive from these relationships (e.g., Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961; Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). Social exchange theory hence is centrally based on the premise that the exchange of social and material resources is a fundamental form of human interaction (Michener, 2004). According to Gouldner's (1960) norm of reciprocity, social exchange occurs when one party acts in a way that benefits another

party, and when this happens implicit obligation for future reciprocity is created, resulting in behaviours designed to benefit the initiating party. Due to its wide implications, the term "social exchange" has often been used to describe the group processes and intergroup relations that develop between individuals in an organisation (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). One classic example of such a relationship would be that between employers and employees, where the most basic exchange are that of time and effort from employees in doing work in return for compensation from their employers. Foa and Foa (1975) noted that what may be exchanged in human interactions is not limited to money and material goods. Rather, social goods, such as information, respect and status, among others, may also be exchanged.

But according to Gouldner (1960), there are two kinds of reciprocity: positive and negative. While the former concerns returns of benefits, the latter is about returns of injury. It is the second form of reciprocity that is more relevant to the present study. The idea that negative reciprocity can occur in an employer-employee relationship is further advanced by Kemper (1966, p. 293), who stated that "when the organisation, either as an entity, or in the person of a superior, has defaulted on the obligation of the organisation to its members, reciprocal deviance can result." He went on to say that if this happens, then reciprocal deviance by employees is the deviance evoked as punishment. It is with this general proposition that exchange theory is developed. Under this context, theoretically speaking, deviant behaviour at work such as cyberdeviance can be interpreted as a form of response toward the exchange that happens. Indeed, social exchange theory has become a recurring explanation of why inequity links workplace deviance. Within the social exchange framework, employees misbehave by performing acts of cyberdeviance as a response that seeks to redress the perceived unfair treatment offered by organisations

(Greenberg & Scott, 1996; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). In other words, advantageous and fair transactions in these relationships produce effective work behaviour and positive employee attitudes. It is this line of reasoning that has received much attention.

As mentioned in the first chapter, whilst social exchange theory has been consistently used to explain deviant behaviour at work (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), some scholars recommended further the need to provide any explanation as to "how" and "why" such behaviour occur (e.g., Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009). According to social exchange theory, social interactions and relations are maintained when people in the relationship are satisfied and have developed a sense of trust that the other party will continue to reciprocate in kind (Homans, 1958). Thus, based on the notion that reciprocity occurs because the two parties to the relationship are satisfied with the exchanges made, it is possible to theorise the role of job satisfaction as a potential mediating link in the context of an employment relationship.

2.2.1 Deriving the Relevant Constructs

As mentioned earlier, within the context of employment relationship, employees are likely to reciprocate positively or negatively to the organization accordingly. When they perceive that the organization is treating them well, the employees will feel obligated to reciprocate in kind. Because cyberdeviance is considered as a form of organizational deviance, as indicated in the later discussion in this chapter, it is apt that organizational factors are considered. As explained in the first chapter, two organizational factors are considered i.e. HR practices and leadership because these factors are yet to be considered scientifically in influencing cyberdeviance. But in

considering the role of HR practices and leadership style on cyberdeviance, the present study does not in any way discount the theoretical contribution of personal factors on cyberdeviance. Whilst personal factors could also play a role, the study, however, concentrates on the effect of organizational characteristics only on cyberdeviance at the workplace for several reasons.

Firstly, the present study assumes that cyberdeviance is a form of production deviance. Production deviance is one of the four main dimensions of workplace deviance, developed by Robinson and Bennett (1995), who extended the original categorization made by Hollinger and Clark (1982). Production deviance is defined as behaviours that violate the organization norms by delineating the quality and quantity of work to be accomplished (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). In other words, cyberdeviance is an organizationally focused deviant behaviour (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Because cyberdeviance is an act of employees using their companies' Internet access for personal purposes during work hours, it is categorized under the rubric of production deviance, which includes relatively minor, organisationally harmful misbehaviour (Lim, 2002). In other words, cyberdeviance could be classified as organisational deviance since those who misuse the Internet while at work for non-work related purposes act directly against the company's Internet system (Lim, 2002).

Secondly, in its attempt to explain cyberdeviance at work, the present study applies social exchange theory. As mentioned earlier, within the context of employment relations, employees are expected to perform well as a way to reciprocate the positive contributions made by the organization. On the other hand, employees will reciprocate negatively when they perceive that the organization is not contributing favourably toward the exchange as expected (Gouldner, 1960). Hence, based on social exchange theory, organizational characteristics are apt to be

considered here, as it implies that employees engage in cyberdeviance because of the purported unfavourable treatment they receive from the organization (e.g., Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu & Hua, 2009; Thau et al., 2009).

Thirdly, unlike personal factors, organizational variables are less studied. For example, past researchers have examined the role of personality, organizational tenure, self-esteem, and locus of control (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Lim, 2002; Martin, Brock, Buckley, & Ketchen, 2010; Pogson, Cober, Doverspike, & Rogers, 2003; Wimbush & Shepard, 1994). Furthermore, examining cyberdeviance from the personal perspective implies that cyberdeviance is attributed to psychological disorder when it may not necessarily be so. In fact, human behaviours are also the result of the environment and surrounding (Appelbaum & Roy-Girard, 2007) and this assumption shifts the "cause" not to the personal idiosyncrasies but to the environmental or contextual factors. Furthermore, along similar lines, Weatherbee (2010) argued that personal factors such as demographics are less strongly related to counterproductive work behaviours than situational factors.

Consistent with social exchange theory, the next section conceptualizes these constructs used in the study i.e. HR practices, leadership, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance.

2.3   CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF MAIN CONSTRUCTS

This section will begin with cyberdeviance before it proceeds with the independent variables of HR practices, leadership style, and job satisfaction. As literatures in

cyberdeviance are still less developed, with studies on issues on misuse of computers as early as late 1990s, hence, general literatures on deviant workplace behaviour are employed, as and when they are relevant and necessary. Thus, it is apt to briefly discuss what workplace deviant behaviour is and how cyberdeviance is located within the general literature of workplace deviance.

2.3.1 Deviant Workplace Behaviour (DWB)

Many scholars argue the importance of employee job performance toward the accomplishment of organisational goals and objectives, and various theoretical propositions have been developed on how employee performance could be achieved so that they could be translated into practical measures. As many scholars are in consensus that employee performance is not a simple concept, it has been conceptualised within three broad domains, namely, task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (or generally referred to as contextual performance), and deviant workplace behaviour (DWB) (Borman, & Motowidlo, 1997; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). While both task performance, which refers to the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organisation's goals (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), and OCB, which is the positive voluntary work behaviour, are essentially positive job performance, which is expected of the employees, DWB fundamentally represents negative job performance (Hunt, 1996; Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002). From a definitional perspective, OCB and DWB are in opposition as task performance and OCB benefit the organisation whereas DWB harms it. Because of their fundamental difference in the effects they have on the well-being of the

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organisation, the concepts are treated as a separate and distinct construct (Kelloway, Loughlin, Barling, & Nault, 2002). Furthermore, empirical evidence demonstrates that OCB is negatively related to DWB (e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002; Miles et al., 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002).

Because behaviours must be purposeful and functional toward organisational goals, actual behaviours are expected to help achieve organisational effectiveness and efficiencies. However, when normal work behaviour goes outside the norms of the organisation, organisational performance will suffer as a result (Coccia, 1998). Thus this violation of the norms is something that employers are increasingly worried about (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector & Fox, 2002). But literatures in management and organisational studies indicate that many studies conducted on employee job performance have widely focused on positive behaviours that result in constructive outcomes for organisations such as organisational citizenship behaviour and pro-social behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Griffin & O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). This can be attributable to the fact that top management generally has no interest in studying DWB in their firms because they are worried that such study may tarnish their own or the company's reputation (Vardi & Weitz, 2004). Nevertheless, as early as 1990s, management scholars and practitioners have shown interests to the study of negative behaviours at workplace, i.e. work deviant behaviour (DWB). The increasing interest in research concerning DWB is due to its prevalence and harmful effects in the organisations (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Because organisational performance can be influenced by workplace deviant behaviour, researchers are therefore interested to know what causes or influences deviant behaviour.

Even though interests in studying DWB are widening, theoretical development in this phenomenon is hampered partly because of inconsistency in its conceptualization. Various terminologies have been used to refer to the said phenomenon such as misbehaviour (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999; Richards, 2008; Vardi & Wiener, 1996), antisocial behaviour (Aquino, & Douglas, 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), dysfunctional behaviour (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998), mistreatment and incivility (Felblinger, 2008; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Pearson & Porath, 2005), counterproductive behaviour (Fox & Spector 1999), and wrongful behaviour (Shamsudin, Subramaniam, & Ibrahim, 2011).

Some of the conceptual definitions of DWB or its variants are shown below:

a.   Workplace deviant behaviour – any voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms, goals, policies or rules and threatens the well-being of the organisation, its members, or both (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

b.   Organisational misbehaviour - Any intentional action that violates core organisational and/or societal norms (Vardi & Weiner, 1996); any act that falls within the 'not-supposed-to-do' category at work, regardless of motive or intent (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999);

c.   Anti-social behaviour - any behaviour that brings harm, or is intended to bring harm to the organisation, its employees, or its stakeholders (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997);

d.   Counterproductive behaviour - any intentional behaviour on the part of an organisations member viewed by the organisation as contrary to its legitimate interests (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001);

e.   Dysfunctional behaviour - any motivated behaviour by an employee or group of employees that has negative consequences for an individual within the organisation and/or the organisation itself (Griffin et al., 1998).

By looking at the definition, it can be discerned that DWB is a concept in the study of organisational behaviour that is different from the study of ethics (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). According to Robinson and Bennett, the study of DWB focuses on behaviour that violates organisational norms but ethics are about whether a behaviour is right or wrong based on organisational values, justice, or law. A particular behaviour can be both deviant and unethical, yet the values associated with the act are different (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). For example, the act of whistleblowing is considered deviant because it is against company's policies not to reveal the company's (bad) practices publicly. But the act is considered ethical especially when it is to protect the well-being of the greater society from any harm that may result from such bad practices. According to Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2004), it is important to note the difference between unethical behaviour and negative deviant behaviour because while the former deals with the breaking of societal rules, the latter focuses on violation of significant organisational norms.

Regardless of the different terminologies used and different conceptualizations proposed, deviant workplace behaviour and its variant forms are simply negative behaviours that employees engage in at work, which needs to be managed and handled effectively so as not to harm and reduce organizational effectiveness and efficiency. And this is what the present study is located. The present study further assumes negative behaviours at the workplace exist and could be prevalent, suggesting that employees are not all the time good citizens of the organisation

(Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999). Furthermore, it is assumed that employees engage in deviant workplace behaviour because they suffer from or born with psychological disorder, but they do so as a form of response to the specific cues in the environment, consistent with stimulus-response theories (Guthrie, 1935; Hull, 1943). This assumption is further in line with the argument offered by Ackroyd and Thompson (1999), who maintain that human beings are creative and ingenious individuals, who are likely to find ways and means to survive in their environment.

Because of their ingenuity, employees are observed to engage in various forms of negative or deviant behaviours while at work. Due to the sheer number and variety of deviant behaviours, which are hampering further the effort in theoretical advancement of the phenomenon, a number of scholars have developed typologies of deviant behaviour. According to Robinson and Bennett (1995), a typology is important for the categorization of behaviours into clusters or families, and as a starting point for the development of a systematic theory based on the phenomenon. At least two main typologies are identified from the literatures: those developed by Hollinger and Clark (1982), and by Robinson and Bennett (1995). Initially, Hollinger and Clark grouped deviant behaviour into two categories i.e. property deviance and production deviance. Later, Robinson and Bennett extended these categories into four categories based on two dimensions of whether the acts are minor or serious, and whether they are directed at the organisation or at other individuals in the organisation. These categories are production deviance, political deviance, property deviance, and personal aggression. They called these deviant activities as the 4Ps of deviance. Hence Robinson and Bennett developed a typology to integrate the various deviant workplace behaviours into a single framework in order to gather the

increasingly scattered research available on the subject into one comprehensive chart. The four categories of Robinson and Bennett are shown in Figure 2.1.

ORGANIZATIONAL

Production Deviance
- Leaving early
- Taking excessive breaks
- Intentionally working slowly
- Wasting resources

Property Deviance
- Sabotaging equipment
- Accepting kickbacks
- Lying about hours worked
- Stealing from company

MINOR ←————————————→ SERIOUS

Political Deviance
- Showing favouritism
- Gossiping about co-workers
- Blaming co-workers
- Competing non-beneficially

Personal Aggression
- Sexual harassment
- Verbal abuse
- Stealing from co-workers
- Endangering co-workers

INTERPERSONAL

Figure 2.1
Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of deviant workplace behaviour
Source: Robinson and Bennett (1995)

According to Robinson and Bennett (1995), production deviance refers to behaviours that violate the formally prescribed norms delineating the quality and quantity of work to be accomplished. Included in this category are behaviours such as leaving early, taking excessive breaks, intentionally working slowly, and wasting resources. The second category contains property deviance, which refers to those instances where employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the organisation without authorization. Among wrongful behaviours included in this

category are activities such as sabotaging equipment, accepting kickbacks, lying about hours worked, and stealing from the company. The third category is political deviance, which is defined as the behaviour in social interaction that puts other individuals at a personal or political disadvantage. Showing favouritism, gossiping about co-workers, blaming co-workers, and competing non-beneficially are some of the wrongful behaviours that fall within this category. The last category describes personal aggression, which reflects individuals who behave in an aggressive or hostile manner towards other individuals. Among wrongful behaviours included in this category are sexual harassment, verbal abuse, stealing from co-workers, and endangering co-workers.

As shown in Figure 2.1, political deviance and personal aggression are deviant acts that are targeted at individuals inside and/or outside the organisation. On the other hand, property deviance and production deviance fall under the category of organizational deviance as the deviant acts such as stealing or sabotaging equipment are targeted at the organisation.

2.3.2 Cyberdeviance

So, within the typological framework of workplace deviance by Robbins and Bennett (1995), where is cyberdeviance located? Since employees who cyberdeviant are those who misuse the company's resources i.e. Internet access and time, therefore, cyberdeviance is generally considered as a form of production deviance (Lim, 2002, 2005; Weatherbee, 2010) because when employees engage in deviant activities in cyberspace, they limit their work effort and waste time on things that are non-work related. Furthermore, previous scholars have identified cyberdeviance under the

organisational deviance category (Lim, 2002, 2005; Weatherbee, 2010) because cyberdeviant individuals act directly against the company's Internet system (Lim, 2002). Even if they send hate emails to embarrass and harass other individuals, they are doing these acts using the company's property and time (Lim, 2002, 2005), and when they do so, they are not putting fully their effort into work (Hoffman, 2009). In fact, Martin et al. (2010) refer to wasting time at the Internet at the expense of the organization's time as time banditry. Next, conceptualization of cyberdeviance is presented.

2.3.2.1 What is Cyberdeviance?

New technologies such as the Internet have drastically transformed the place of work as we could perform more conveniently and effectively our work but they also ironically give rise to a number of wrongful behaviour at work (Tapia, 2006). Indeed, researchers sense a growing threat of Internet misuse and abuse at the workplace that can endanger and harm the well-being of the organization (Gabel & Mansfield, 2003; Griffiths, 2003; Sharma & Gupta, 2003/2004; Rogers, Smoak, & Liu, 2006; Taillon, 2004; Tapia, 2006). According to Joinson (2005), the Internet provides new opportunities for deviance like the creation and development of virus ware, cyber terrorism, computer hacking, online harassment and self-harm behaviours. Joinson further remarked that owing to the convenience and ease of use of the Internet, and the easy access to various kinds of information, it has led to the facilitation of crimes i.e. fraud, identity theft, and money laundering. He noted succinctly that "people have always lied, cheated, and stolen, but the Internet enables some of them to do it more easily, quickly, and cheaply" (p. 5). Due to the double sided character of the Internet,

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which Richards (2012) called it as a "double-edged sword due to the advantages and disadvantaged Internet brings, researchers now face various theoretical and methodological challenges in trying to reconcile the effect of the Internet upon deviant behaviour. The same contradicting element of the Internet has also been argued by Tapia (2006) who stated that the same tools that the employer provides the employee to carry out their work related tasks may be negatively utilized for the purpose of deviant, non-work activities. Tapia reiterated that technology is not what causes deviant behaviour but ICT facilitates it and provides for new avenues of deviant behaviour that could prove fatal to the organisation.

While researchers have generally agreed that the Internet has paradoxical utility – it can be both functional and dysfunctional depending on how it is used – little consensus is reached as how to conceptualize the dysfunctionality of work behaviour associated with the Internet. As a result, one can be easily overwhelmed by the variety of terminologies that exist in the literature that speak of a similar phenomenon. Just like the term "workplace deviance", "cyberdeviance" is also referred to by various terminologies to capture and conceptualize it as a form of deviant behaviour at work (Lim, 2002; Lim & Teo, 2005; Weatherbee, 2010). As indicated in the first chapter, "cyberdeviance" or its variant has been referred to as "cyberloafing" (Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Blau, Yang, & Ward-Cook, 2006; de Lara, Tacoronte, & Ding, 2006; Henle & Blanchard, 2008; Henle, Kohut, & Booth, 2009; Krishnan, Lim, & Teo, 2010; Lim, 2002; Lim & Teo, 2005), "cyberslacking" (Block, 2001; Garrett & Danziger, 2008; Greengard, 2000; Ince & Gull, 2011; Lavoie & Pychyl, 2001; Ugrin, Pearson, & Odom, 2007), and "cyberbludging" (Mills, Hu, Beldona, & Clay, 2001), and "cyberslouching" (Urbaczewski & Jessup, 2002), to name a few.

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The following are some of the definitions used to conceptualize the disparate terminologies used:

a.   Cyberdeviance – An employee's voluntary act regarding the use of the companies' Internet access while on the clock, to surf non-work related websites to satisfy personal needs (Lim, 2002).

b.   Cyberloafing – Employees' non-work related use of company provided email and the Internet while working (Henle & Blanchard, 2008).

c.   Cyberslacking - The usage of e-mail and Internet opportunity unrelated to job in office hours for the aims that is supplied to workers (Phillips & Reddie, 2007).

d.   Cyberslouching – Unproductive Internet surfing (Urbaczewski & Jessup, 2002).

In addition to the above terminologies, other variants are also employed that share similar theoretical understanding. For instance, Mahatanankoon, Anandarajan, and Igbaria (2004) used the term "personal web use (PWU) instead. They PWU as an online web behaviour of an employee during work hours, utilizing any of the organisation's resources to carry out activities that are not included in his current customary job/work requirements. Similarly, Malachowski (2005) defined PWU as any Internet activity carried out during work hours that is not work related. They listed the following activities as PWU: accessing of sports information, news, email, gambling or banking websites, and downloading of videos and music. Yet, other notions have been used. Ozler and Polat (2012) mentioned several other terminologies in their review which include on-line loafing, Internet deviance, problematic Internet use, Internet misuse, and Internet abuse. Despite the variety of terminologies that exist, scholars tend to agree that they all describe unproductive use of the Internet at work (Ugrin, Pearson, & Odom, 2007) that wastes time (Martin et al., 2010), and that

makes employees procrastinate (Lavoie & Phychyl, 2001). As the Internet makes it possible for the employees to disguise themselves as being actually working, for this reason, sometimes this phenomenon is called "goldbricking" (James, 2010).

Regardless of the terminologies used. it appears that scholars seem to be asserting that misusing the Internet to engage in non-work related activities as a form of time wasting or time purloining. When employees waste time at work by not being productive. they are said to engage in time banditry (Martin et al., 2010). While Martin and her colleagues focused on the time spent as a criterion to define deviant behaviour in cyberspace, Lim (2002) consider it as the misuse of company property.

Due to the deviant nature of the activities at the cyberspace, Weatherbee (2010), and Weatherbee and Kelloway (2006) grouped them under the umbrella term cyberdeviancy, which they define as voluntary behaviour using information and communications systems which either threatens or results in harm to an organization, its members, or stakeholders. The present research concurs with the definition provided by Weatherbee (2010), and Weatherbee and Kelloway (2006), and uses it as the guiding definition since cyberloafing and its variant can be harmful to the organizational well-being. Furthermore, regardless of the terminologies and definitions used, many scholars seem to agree that cyberdeviant activities at work is a negative form of work behaviour as it involves some degree of computer misuse and abuse while at work. More importantly, as cyberdeviant activities while at work such as chatting online, browsing entertainment websites, vacation planning, reading news, watching movie online, shopping online, emailing activities and downloading music or movies, to name a few, involves employees spending unproductive time and energy on non-work related matters, the present study uses the different terminologies of cyberdeviance, cyberloafing and cyberslacking interchangeably.

As the name suggests, cyberdeviance involves "abuse" or "misuse", a term that has a negative connotation. But it is worthy of note that some authors perceive "cyberdeviance" as not entirely bad. For instance, it is argued that cyberloafing can be functional to employees as it allows them to refresh and hence boosts their productivity (Vitak, Crouse, & LaRose, 2011), and can lead them to learn new things that may be of value to the organization (Anandarajan, 2002). Blanchard and Henle (2008) also maintained that some forms of cyberdeviance such as sending and receiving personal emails or checking news headlines are rather innocuous, especially if limited in duration. Blanchard and Henle (2008) further noted that sending and receiving personal emails while at work "is similar to taking personal phone calls at work and may be considered a perk" (p. 1069), suggesting that these activities are rather normal things people do at work. While the arguments have some truth to it, the present study maintains that if these activities are done in a prolonged period of time and in an excessive and frequent manner, then they become dysfunctional and counterproductive as they are carried out at the expense of the organization's time and property (Lim, 2002), are more time consuming and hence reduce productivity (e.g., online shopping), are inappropriate behaviour at work (e.g., online gambling), or because they expose the organization to legal liabilities (e.g., downloading music) (Blanchard & Henle, 2008). Because of the prevalence of the cyberdeviant activities at work that many organizations begin to institute some kind of monitoring policies (Greenfield & Davis, 2002; Ugrin & Pearson, 2008), suggesting that the phenomenon may be becoming out of control.

In the present study, while cyberdeviance is seen as an umbrella term to refer to deviant activities engaged by employees at cyberspace, it is used interchangeably with terms such as "cyberloafing", "cyberslacking" and "cyberbludging" to connote

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the unproductive time spent at work on the Internet for non-work related purposes by using the company's property. Whether the Internet is used to browse online activities, shop, or harassing others at work, improper use of company's time and property is involved.

2.3.2.2 Typologies and Taxonomies of Cyberdeviance

Like general deviant workplace behaviour, there are various ways employees can engage in deviant activities in cyberspace during work hours. For instance, Frauenheim (2005) and Malachowski (2005) listed the following activities as misuse of the Internet: accessing of sports information, news, email, gambling or banking websites, and downloading of videos and music. According to Ozler and Polmat (2012), as the technology evolves, one can expect newer ways of cyberdeviance people will engage in at work, which can pose more challenge to organizations. Due to the variety of cyberdeviant activities employees are likely to engage in while at work, several typologies have been developed to facilitate theoretical understanding of the topic.

Literatures indicate that the taxonomies and typologies of cyberdeviance or its variant depends much on how it is conceptualized. For example, Lim (2002) argued that because of the impreciseness of the definition of cyberdeviance, she developed her own definition based on her understanding of the literatures and defined it as "any voluntary act of employees' using their companies' internet access during office hours to surf non-job related Web sites for personal purposes and to check (including receiving and sending) personal emails" (p. 677). Explicit in her conceptualization is that cyberloafing/cyberdeviance consists of two main deviant activities in cyberspace

that detract employees from carrying and completing their main job duties. They are: surfing (or browsing) and emailing activities. The taxonomy was later tested on Singaporean working adults who had access to the internet. Exploratory factor analysis conducted on the measure of 11 items (originally 15) showed that the scale yielded two factors, as anticipated. The browsing/surfing dimension showed a reliability coefficient of .85 while the emailing dimension produced a reliability coefficient of .90. Blau et al. (2006) tested the scale developed by Lim (2002) and found that it yielded three factors instead of two, as originally theorised. The first category concerns Internet surfing or browsing; the second one concerns the non-work related use of email, and the third one concerns any activity requiring higher degrees of interactivity (e.g. online gaming).

Arguing that Lim's (2002) typology is not sufficient enough to reflect the differences among Internet activities, Blanchard and Henle (2008) proposed a different typology of cyberdeviance that is drawn from Robinson and Bennett's typology of deviant behaviour at work. They postulated that cyberloafing amongst employees can be categorised as being minor and serious, and believed that such typology is more valid as it is grounded in deviance research. Minor forms of cyberdeviance consist of activities that are "common" such as sending and receiving personal email or visiting mainstream news. In this way, "minor cyberloafing is similar to commonly tolerated although not entirely appropriate behaviours at work: taking personal phone calls, reading the Wall Street Journal at one's desk, and chatting by the water cooler" (Blanchard & Henle, 2008, p. 1070). On the other hand, serious forms of cyberdeviance are those that are abusive and potentially illegal such as online gambling, downloading music, and viewing adult oriented sites. They

provided empirical support for the validation of the typology in their study among 221 MBA students at a Southeastern university in the USA.

Warren (2003) took a rather different perspective in developing his taxonomy of deviance at work in general. Using an outcome perspective, Warren argued that deviance may not necessarily destructive or dysfunctional in nature as contended by many scholars such as Lim (2002). He proposed that the outcomes of cyberdeviance can be of two forms: constructive and destructive. It is argued that Warren's proposition could be applied to cyberdeviance in that outcomes of cyberdeviance may not necessarily be destructive but they can be constructive as well. For instance, some small scale studies have indicated that cyberdeviance can be positive if the Internet is used in brief periods of time on tasks not related to work because the Internet allows employees to get relief from boredom, fatigue or stress and it can enhance their creativity (Eastin, Gkynn, & Griffiths, 2007; Oravec, 2002; Reinecke, 2009; Stanton, 2002).

Mastrangelo, Everton, and Jolton (2006) also shared similar view with Warren (2003) in that they argued that cyberdeviance is not entirely destructive. Based on their data on 329 employees' responses to an online survey in which participants were asked to self-report the frequencies for 41 computer behaviours at work. They observed two categories of cyberdeviance that reflect the degree of harm or destruction such activity is to the organization. These categories are counterproductive computer use, which refers to behaviours that conflict with organization's goals such as engaging in illegal software downloading, distribution of pornography exposing the firm's systems to viruses, or 'malware' through surfing, and non-productive computer use, defined as behaviours that are not destructive, yet not directly productive. They further maintained that activities like emailing, chatting,

shopping, and banking online are means used by employees to socially connect with the world, and which are more prevalent.

In the present study, Lim's (2002) typology was used to indicate the categorisation of cyberdeviance as her typology has been widely used and validated to encompass the different types of cyberdeviant activities that employees can engage in while at work (e.g., de Lara 2006, 2007, 2009).

2.3.2.3 Studies on Cyberdeviance

This section begins by discussing studies on cyberdeviance in general before going to specific evidence that links between HR practices and leadership, and cyberdeviance. The main objective of doing so is to orient readers on the current status of studies on cyberdeviance. Whilst the description of the literatures is not exhaustive, this section nonetheless paints some picture of the types and approaches the studies have carried out. As readers will notice, as the topic of cyberdeviance is relatively new, literatures on it are growing, inviting opportunities for future studies to be carried out.

Various research streams on cyberdeviance are identified in the literature. In a review of literature of cyberdeviancy, Weatherbee (2010) indicated that due to the relative novelty of the study on cyberdeviance, much work seems to focus on individual misuse, behaviours, prevalence rates, predictors, and outcomes. However, she further noted that despite the burgeoning studies on this topic, "we have collectively not yet accumulated sufficient studies
to proclaim strong predictive relationships concerning the influence of … situational factors, or interactions...[but] there are some areas where evidence is beginning to accumulate" (p. 37).

Firstly, some scholars attempted to examine the prevalence of cyberdeviance by developing a profile of who is likely to cyber deviate at the workplace, and by identifying the types of cyberdeviant activities engaged by employees. For instance, Lavoie and Pychyl (2001) conducted a study in North America with an attempt to determine the level to in which the employees spent online was related to self-report of procrastination. Data collection was done through an online survey involving a sample of 308 respondents. The results of the study revealed that 50.7% of the respondents reported frequent Internet procrastination, and 47% of online time was spent procrastinating. Additionally, Internet procrastination was revealed to be positively related with the perception of the Internet as an entertaining, stress-reliever tool.

Another related study was carried out by Ugrin et al. (2007) to profile individual cyber-slacking activities, defined as any time that employees waste on the Internet, on the basis of various factors such as demographic, situational (job related), and cultural factors. Using cluster analysis, they developed clusters of typical patterns of cyber-slacking involving 255 individuals from United States and Asia. The authors categorized typical Internet abuses like online gaming, online shopping, personal investment managing, personal emailing, chatting, media watching and viewing pornography. They revealed that executives and younger individuals were inclined to be super slackers but gender, culture, years of service, and pay status had no significant influence on respondent's degree of cyber-slacking. Stanton (2002) also found no significant differences in Internet use between gender and age groups.

In a more recent study by Lim and Chen (2012) to investigate gender differences in employees' perception towards cyberloafing in Singapore, they found that respondents felt some form of cyberloafing at work was acceptable. They also

observed that men were more likely to report that cyberloafing has a positive impact on work compared to women. Their findings also suggested that browsing activities had a positive impact on employees' emotion while emailing activities had a negative impact. Indeed, there is growing evidence that shows that gender makes a difference in ICT misuse at work. For instance, Garrett and Danziger (2008) revealed that men were more likely to engage in ICT production-deviance at work than women, with the behaviour more prevalent in younger men (Henle & Blanchard, 2008). According to Weatherbee (2010), gender may also play a role in interpersonal aggression in email but these effects may be due to the occupational status men and women hold in organizations, as equity of gender in management levels has generally not been achieved. Previous studies also found that age may be a factor that influences Internet misuse at work. For instance, while Morris and Venkatesh (2000) revealed that older employees were found to be more likely to use the Internet according to the organizational norms, Zhang (2005) observed that younger workers tended to violate it while at work. In a more recent study, Vitak, Crouse, and La Rose (2011) found that being younger, male, and a racial minority positively predicted cyberslacking variety and frequency, as did routinized Internet use at work and higher perceived Internet utility.

A second stream of research on cyberdeviance pertains to unravelling its potential "triggers" or "causes" using different theoretical perspectives, and this stream has been generating much interests amongst scholars. Toward this, a number of predictors or antecedents have been proposed and investigated. In general, the factors that may be contributing to cyberdeviance can be classified into three categories: personal, work/organisational related. One of the personal factors that have been considered is self-control, which was found to influence counterproductive

use of Internet access at work (Higgins, Wolfe, & Marcum, 2008; Yellowees & Marks, 2007). Internet addiction as a significant predictor of Internet abuse at work was revealed by Galetta and Polak (2003) in their survey of 571 Internet users in the USA by using theory of perceived behavioural control. In a survey of 167 employees in China and Singapore with the application of theory of perceived behavioural control, Bock, Park, and Zhang (2010) found that non-work related computing, defined as any voluntary use by employees of their companies' Internet access during office hours for non-work purposes, was an habitual behaviour that was significant in influencing employees to engage in such dysfunctional activity at work. Pee, Woon, and Kankanhalli (2008) also found that habit significantly determined non-work related computing (NWRC). In sum, whilst these studies have merit on their own, they provide little insight as to what triggers them to engage in cyberdeviancy at work because individuals often react to the stimulus surrounding them (Homans, 1961). In other words, by focusing on personality factors to explain cyberdeviance suggests that individuals work in a vacuum in that their behaviour is determined primarily by their own set of inherent characteristics.

Within the category of work/organizational-related factors, a number of predictors have been considered. Looking at cyberloafing as a response of work stress, Henle and Blanchard (2008) found that employees were more likely to cyberloaf when they perceived more role ambiguity but were less likely to do so when they experienced role overload. The study was carried out among 194 employed MBA students at a south-eastern university in the USA. In addition to work stressors, the authors also examined the role of organizational sanctions and observed that employees were more likely to engage in cyberloafing in response to work stressors

when they perceived that organizational sanctions for cyberloafing were unlikely to be implemented.

Due to the need to deter cyberdeviance at the workplace, several researchers have focused on the role of organizational sanctions and control. For instance, Ugrin and Pearson (2008) investigated the role of deterrence mechanisms at work in reducing Internet abuse. They used a policy-capturing approach, based on general deterrence theory, to test the relative degree of deterrence imposed by common components of Internet acceptable use policies (AUPs). They observed that AUP that defines acceptable Internet use, imposes potential sanctions, and implements monitoring mechanisms was an important deterrent of Internet abuse. de Lara et al. (2006) found significant influence of perceived organisational control (POC) on cyberloafing among a sample of 147 non-teaching staff at a Spanish public university. Henle and Blanchard (2008) also reported similar result in a survey among MBA students who worked part-time and had access to the Internet. They specifically found that organizational sanctions such as verbal or written warning, discipline, and taking away Internet/email privileges significantly reduced cyberloafing activity at the workplace and recommended that employers create an electronic use policy prohibiting such behaviour and impose sanctions on those who breach the policy. Such policy enforcement could create a sense of fear and justice in employees (de Lara, 2006), which could help minimize workplace Internet abuse.

Another consistent work/organizational factor that has received much interest in the literature of cyberdeviance is the role of organizational justice. Basing on either social exchange theory or inequity theory, researchers assumed that cyberdeviance is a response to unfair treatment employees at the workplace. For instance, basing on the assumption that cyberloafing is evidently characterized as a deviant behaviour more

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particularly on the production factor, Lim (2005) studied employees' motivation to cyber-loaf with the help of theoretical frameworks provided by social exchange theory, organisational justice and neutralization. These theories helped Lim to develop and eventually create a theoretical model explaining the employee's negative behaviour. The model, mediated by neutralization techniques, revealed cyberloafing to be a response to assumed unfair treatment from the organisation. Her finding was based on a survey carried out through an Internet-based questionnaire and small discussion groups among 188 Singaporean working adults.

Arguing that inequity theory provides a basis to explain cyberdeviance, de Lara (2009), in his study on 147 non-teaching staff of a public university where Internet policy to combat improper use of Internet abuse has been increasingly rigid, found that unfavourable procedural justice creates normative conflict in employees that prompted them to engage in Internet abuse at work. Similar findings were also reported in de Lara's (2007) earlier study on the effect of organizational justice on cyberloafing. He concluded that, "Faced with injustice, the social exchange theory suggests that individuals reciprocate targeting the source of injustice. Under that reasoning, cyberloafing consistently targets the unjust procedural system in which Internet plays such a crucial role" (p. 468).

The other stream of research works on cyberdeviance that can be identified from the literature concerned with investigating the outcomes of such phenomenon. However, studies in this stream are limited, which suggest that opportunities for future research are abound. The literatures further indicate that at least two possible work outcomes of Internet misuse can be identified. Not only cyberdeviant could result in negative consequences, it may also bring desirable and functional worm outcomes. For instance, some scholars proposed that cyberdeviance could bring

positive effects because the use of Internet at work allows employees to cope with boredom at work (Gouveia, 2012; Vitak et al., 2011). Some scholars argued that the use of the Internet for a short period of time gives the employees to re-charge themselves to increase their creativity and hence better job performance and productivity (Anandarajan & Simmers, 2005; Vitak et al., 2011). Anandarajan dan Simmers (2005) went further by considering that the Internet could be seen as an "office toy" for the employees to decrease work stress and enhance creativity particularly when the Internet is used in brief periods of time (Vitak et al., 2011).

Due to the presumed negativity as reflected in its definition, cyberdeviance is postulated to have adverse consequences. Many employers are said to be increasingly concerned about computer misuse at the workplace (Lim, Teo, & Loo, 2002; Mastrangelo et al., 2003) as it can cost the organization. Drolet (2000) asserted that organizations are now increasingly combating emails that are harassing in nature and e-mail viruses which cause financial loses to the company and reduced productivity as result of the misuse of technology and browsing of infected sites. Sharma and Gupta (2003/2004) also asserted that Internet abuse at the workplace can have negative impact on productivity. They argued that due to high demanding jobs, many employees do their personal/home activities at work such as paying bills, shopping online, banking online etc. As a result, employees may focus less in their work. They further argued that since the Internet is blurring the work and home realms, Internet abuse is unavoidable and recommended that employers take several measures to reduce it and increase productivity.

The adverse impact of Internet misuse was also observed by Baruch (2005) who investigated the impact of bullying on the net through emails amongst users at the UK subsidiary of a large USA-based Multi-National Corporation (in the Fortune

500 list), who were the company's office-based workforce, including managers, professional, and support staff. He found that such phenomenon had adverse impacts on employee absenteeism, intent to leave, and job performance. Ince and Gull (2011) also found empirical evidence that cyberslacking reduced work inefficiency for the sample of academicians in one university in Turkey. Blanchard and Henle (2008) reported the adverse ramifications of cyberloafing on various work outcomes as indicated by various scholars. These include lost wages through decreased productivity, bandwidth clogging and degradation of system performance, putting the organization at risk due to illegal online activities such as downloading music or other unauthorized materials, amongst others. Employees who access pornographic websites while at work, gamble and shop online are also likely to be terminated (Case & Young, 2002; Greenfield & Davis, 2002).

In sum, as can be seen from the limited literatures that there is no general consensus as what the consequences of cyberdeviance are. While some perceive that cyberdeviance at work could benefit employees in terms of enhancing their productivity and creativity as the Internet allows them to re-charge themselves from boredom and routine tasks, other view it as dysfunctional to the organization as a whole especially in the long term. Regardless of the perceptions that people have of the ramifications of cyberdeviance at work, the present study presumes that cyberdeviance is harmful if gone unchecked, and hence the term "cyberdeviance" used in the present study reflects such negativity.

The next section deals with conceptualisation of one of the main independent variables of the present study i.e. HR practices. But prior to present a working definition of HR practices, it is equally important to understand what HRM is and how it is developed and conceptualized.

2.3.3 Human Resource Management (HRM)

Among the many company functions that have experienced monumental changes over the last few decades is the Human Resource Management (HRM). In the early 1980s when the term human resource management started to emerge in the popular literature, much has been largely dedicated to explaining how HRM can play a more strategic role in organizations as before this time, it had been perceived as a unit that is more concerned about maintenance of activities of managing personnel with less concern whether these activities were actually designed to help accomplish organizational goals (Armstrong, 1991; Guest, 1990, 1997; Miller, 1987). Located within strategic perspective, HRM has been getting an increasing interest as one of the significant measures on how organizations can capitalize on their human resources in accomplishing (Kamoche, 1996; Lado & Wilson, 1994; Mueller, 1996; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994). Implicit in this understanding is that people or specifically employees at the workplace are seen as an important asset that needs to be developed and maintained and no longer a cost that can be easily disposed of. The idea that people are now considered an asset is at the heart to the new movement that took place in early 1980s, which saw rhetorical changes in the way organizations see and treat their people. It was Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Quinn, and Walton (1984) who originally advanced the notion that people should be thought of as assets and not variable costs, which underlined the current thinking and philosophy of HRM.

But what is human resource management? The term "human resource management" comes into existence more or less in the 1980s when business organizations in the USA particularly were taken aback by the fierce competition posed especially by Japanese companies that were able to penetrate the US market.

The so-called successful Japanese companies in wooing American consumers to buy their products had led scholars to develop an interest in finding out how they were able to capture the American market. As a result of their scientific inquiries, many scholars believed that the way the Japanese run their business was considerably able to explain the Japanese success story. Japanese business culture that emphasizes long-term employment, enterprise union, and quality circles, to name a few, was found to be the distinct characteristics of Japanese firms.

The result of the empirical observation has led some scholars to develop new approaches to understanding what HRM is all about (e.g., Gill, 1999; Guest, 1990; Hendry & Pettigrew, 1990; Keenoy, 1990). The new approach to managing people assumes that people should no longer be considered "resources" rather as "assets" that should be valued as they could help organisations achieve competitive advantage. The new approach to HRM is the "soft" HRM model, which can be distinguished from the "hard" HR model. The latter model is argued to be the dominating perspective in which people are considered as one of the factors of production, whose expenses can be cut when the need for it arises (Gill, 1999), before the development of the soft model. The soft model of HRM is based on human relations school that emphasizes the "human" aspect of managing. Legge (1995, as cited in Gill 1999) referred to the soft model of HRM as "developmental humanism" while the hard model as "utilitarian instrumentalism." In essence, the differences between the two models are illustrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Differences between Soft and Hard Approaches to Human Resource Management

	Hard	Soft
Focus	People as "resources" and are largely a factor of production	People as "assets"
Integration with business strategy	Crucial importance of the close integration of human resource policies, systems and activities with business strategy	Importance of integrating HR policies with business objectives but of equal importance is treating employees as valued assets and a source of competitive advantage through their commitment, adaptability and high quality skill and performance.
Role of people	Viewed as passive, to be provided and deployed as numbers and skills at the right price, rather than the source of creative energy	Employees are proactive rather than passive inputs into productive processes, capable of development, worthy of trust and collaboration which is achieved through Participation
Business orientation	Quantitative, calculative and business-strategic aspects of managing the "headcount"	Employee commitment is sought with the expectation that effectiveness will follow as second-order consequences

Source: Gill (1999)

As Table 2.1 indicates there appears to be marked differences between the two approaches especially with regards to how people are perceived and how they are treated toward the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives in consistence with the business strategies outlined. In essence, while the hard model focuses on the quantitative aspect of HRM in doing business, the soft model emphasizes the qualitative aspect of HRM in which people are treated as "human beings" who are able to help organizations achieve sustained competitive advantage through the deployment of the untapped reserves of human resourcefulness by

increasing employee commitment, participation and involvement (Gill, 1999). As the soft model is concerned more about gaining employee compliance through recognition of the qualitative characteristics of people, it is also called the commitment model of HRM. In the words of Armstrong (2009, p. 8):

> "The soft approach to HRM stresses the need to gain the commitment (the 'hearts and minds') of employees through involvement, communication, leadership and other methods of developing a high-commitment, high-trust organization. Attention is also drawn to the key role of organizational culture."

Regardless of whether HRM is conceptualized as being soft or hard, many scholars tend to be in agreement that "human resource management" is a new rhetorical terminology to replace the old term of "personnel management." But regardless the rhetorical change in the terminology, conceptualizing HRM is not a simple task. The literature indicates the different ways human resource management (HRM) has been defined, suggesting a lack of unified theoretical understanding of what constitutes HRM and how it should be conceptualised. For instance, Beer et al. (1984) defined human resource management as involving all management decisions and action that affect the nature of the relationship between the organization and its employees – its human resources. Lado and Wilson (1994) are more specific in their definition and referred a human resource system as a set of distinct but interrelated activities, functions, and processes that are directed at attracting, developing, and maintaining (or disposing of) a firms human resources.

Similarly, Storey (1995) described HRM as an approach to people management that considers employees as valuable assets and impacts the organisation. He further contended that HRM involves several interrelated activities

comprising of acquiring, developing, managing, motivating and gaining commitment from the organisation's employees. Various other researchers (e.g., Schuler & MacMillan, 1984; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Wright & Snell, 1991) unanimously agree that HR practices can be defined as managing the pool of human resources and making sure that the resources are utilized for the fulfilment of organisational goals. Finally, according to Ahmed (1999), HRM is a strategic approach to acquiring, developing, managing, motivating and gaining the commitment of the employees; the organisation's key resources. But regardless of how HRM is defined, scholars seem to be in consensus in their understanding of HRM as a system that involves interrelated set of activities which are implemented toward accomplishing organizational goals and objectives. It is this understanding that guides the present research.

2.3.3.1 Strategic role of HRM

One of the most important implications in the way HRM is conceptualised in contrast to personnel management is the role that it is now accorded to in organisations. No longer seen in the periphery, HRM now takes on a strategic role in organizations in that managers should be concerned about how people management is affected and being affected by the overall strategic plan of the organization. In accomplishing the organizational goals and objectives, consideration is given on how human resources can facilitate toward the end. Indeed, scholars tend to agree the strategic focus that HRM should be accorded to in organizations. Legge (1995) in particular argued that human resource policies should be integrated with strategic business planning. For instance, organizations that wish to employ a differentiation strategy in anticipation of the fierce competition in the global market could no longer afford to be concerned

mainly on developing new products through the use of new innovative and technological capabilities, but rather should also be concerned with capitalizing their human resources toward that end. This means that investment in developing talents and skills of the human resources in the organization is required. Furthermore, a new approach in managing people in which autonomy, trust, flexibility, openness, and transparency are put in place to ensure that employees are actively committed and engaged toward meeting the organizational goals and objectives. In other words, HR system that values employees as an important asset in the organization should be in place so that they could produce high quality performance as intended (Jackson & Schuler, 1995). In other words, the business strategy should now include its people management as part of the overall business plan. Hence when the organization for instance wishes to expand its business it should also consider how such its human resource can facilitate toward such expansion. This means that organizations should consider how they should plan, maintain, assess and compensate their human resources toward meeting the desired goals and objectives. The strategic consideration of human resource management in the overall business strategy is important as it purportedly contributes to organizational effectiveness (Frederickson, 1986; Guest, 1990, 1997).

Huselid (1995) in his model shows HR practices as high performance work practices (HPWPs) these practices including incentive compensation, training, employee participation, selectivity, and flexible work arrangement. Researchers like Becker and Huselid (1998), and Delery and Shaw (2001) asserted that these practices increase employee's knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) that empower them for organizational benefit in that employees will tend to be more motivated and

consequently be more satisfied in their job, perform better, and less likely to leave the organization (Becker, Huselid, Pickus, & Spratt, 1997).

2.3.3.2 HR practices

As the above definitions have pointed out, HRM is generally a system of managing people in an organization that entails interrelated activities beginning from before an employee is even hired until he/she has discontinued employment. Even after the discontinuation of employment, the organization has a moral and social obligation toward its employees. For instance, in cases where the organization has to displace a number of employees due to organizational restructuring exercise, it has an obligation to pay severance pay and find those displaced alternative employment, and in some countries such as Malaysia such obligation becomes a legal one in which employers have to mandatorily comply with the legal provision. In this context, HRM in essence involved several distinct but interrelated activities, and these activities that need to be managed as a system in order for organization to accomplish their goals and objectives (Wright & Kehoe, 2008). These interrelated activities are referred to by Dyer and Reeves (1995) as HR practice bundles.

Indeed, according to some authors, HR practice bundles tend to yield sustainable performance outcomes than are individual practices. For example, Dyer and Reeves (1995) suggested that performance is likely to be maximized when several reinforcing practices—such as rigorous selection mechanisms and monetary and non-monetary rewards—increase employee motivation and competencies. In a similar vein, Delery and Shaw (2001) maintained that even though certain individual HRM practices are viewed as superior to others, a single superior HRM practice without

other supporting practices in the system is inadequate to drive sustainable performance outcomes. They further argued that individual "best practices" must be part of a larger, universally superior HRM system to support sustainable success.

Wright and Kehoe (2008) reported three categories of HR practices can be identified from the literature. The first category of HR practices is intended to improve the knowledge, skills and abilities of employees. Activities that serve this function include recruitment, training, selection, socialization, and any other HR practice meant to enhance the workplace competencies of the employees so that the execution of the business process is not unduly interrupted. The second category of HR practices is meant to provide opportunities to employees to participate in substantive decision-making regarding work and organizational outcomes. They include such practices as quality circles, suggestion systems, granting discretion and authority on the job, information sharing about the service or production process, and opportunities to communicate with employees and managers in other workgroups (Pfeffer, 1998; Youndt, Snell, Dean, & Lepak, 1996).

The third set of HR practices is meant to motivate employee behaviour whether the behaviour is task-related which is formally sanctioned or contextual-related which is informally sanctioned by the organization. While the former refers to job behaviour employees have to exhibit, the latter refers to behaviours that are discretionary in nature, which is also referred to as organizational citizenship behaviour. This set of HR practices is also meant to discourage employees from engaging negative or counterproductive behaviour at the workplace such as theft, sabotage, absenteeism and the like. HR practices that have motivational function include incentive pay plans, performance bonuses, and performance management system. In a similar vein, some scholars also noted that incentive compensation,

performance appraisal, and internal promotion policies are thought to offer incentives to aid motivation (Delery & Shaw, 2001; Huselid, 1995). Furthermore, employment security, flexible work schedules, procedures for airing grievances, and high overall compensation can also increase motivation by increasing employee commitment (Pfeffer, 1998; Youndt et al., 1996), and reduce absenteeism (Pfeifer, 2010) and turnover (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Alnaqbi, 2011; Pizam & Thornburg, 2000; van Jaarsveld, & Yanadori, 2011). Since the present study is about investigating cyberdeviance and how HR practices play a role in contributing to the social phenomenon at the workplace, the third category of HR practices that are meant to elicit positive behaviour and discourage negative behaviour is chosen.

Next is the conceptualisation of leadership. In the next sections, readers will be given a snapshot review of what is leadership is all about, and some theories of leadership. As leadership in the present study is located within the contemporary leadership theory, a special focus is given to discussing transactional/transformational leadership theory.

2.3.4 Leadership

The topic of leadership has always attracted interests by both academic scholars and practitioners alike. The literature points out that the conceptualization of leadership has evolved and developed in various stages, reflecting the changes that took place within the society and the contemporary thought and discourse at that time. This is evident with the trajectory of theoretical models and propositions developed offered over the years, starting with the Great Man theory of leadership that postulates that a leader is someone with distinct characteristics until more recent theories of leadership

such as the Multifactor Theory. Today, as the society demands that business organizations be more responsible and accountable toward their stakeholders in which they are expected to be more transparent in their actions and decisions, many organizations are responding partly by re-visiting the way their leaders should be developed and nurtured. As employees are also becoming more educated and as the world is becoming more borderless with the advent of Internet and other information communication technologies, they demand that leaders change the way they lead and manage the human resources in organizations. While using a carrot-and-stick approach may still work, but a different approach to managing people in which they are respected as human beings and simply as a tool to achieve organizational goals is imperative.

Whilst in general scholars and practitioners seem to agree that leaders should use a different approach to managing people, debates are still abound of what constitutes effective leadership. Further, there seems to be a lack of consensus of what leadership is. This is attested by the various definitions of leadership available in the literature as proposed by organisational and psychological researchers (Van Seters & Field, 1990), which reflects the complexity of the construct itself. For instance, Yukl (2006) defines leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (p. 8). In a similar vein, Northouse (2007) defines leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. These definitions highlight several important components of leadership. According to Daft (2002), leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes. He identifies six main

components of leadership: influence, change, intention, shared purpose, followers, and personal responsibility and integrity.

As scholars are interested in understanding what leadership is all about, various theories and perspectives have been developed toward that end. As one shall see in the next section, the leadership theories seem to evolve in disparate stages and within each stage scholars have come up with several theoretical frameworks or paradigms that are distinct from each other. Even though there are many theories of leadership, the next section presents selected theories of leadership to illustrate the theoretical development in this area of research.

2.3.4.1 Selected theories of leadership

The trajectory of leadership theories is a very long one; one can trace the roots from the writings of the history's great philosophers such as Plato who began to explore the question of "What qualities distinguish an individual as a leader?" (Henman, 2012). The earliest understanding on the qualities of leadership gave rise to the Great Man theory, which argues that leaders are people who are predominantly male, military man, and Western, who are highly influential due to their ability to use personal characteristics such as charisma, intelligence, wisdom or political skill to gain power and make decisive historical impact (Daft, 2002). Napoleon Bonaparte is said to a leader that typifies a "great man." Despite the limited value of this theory in explaining what makes a leader as it is historically located, it nonetheless paved way to more works on the determination of the personal characteristics that a leader should have to distinguish him/her from non-leaders. This early understanding of leadership prompted pertinent questions on what characteristics of a leader that makes him/her

distinctively different from the rest. Contemporary works on traits theory, with the help of new methods, measurement, and statistical analyses, identify a number of personal traits or characteristics which are mainly based on Big Five Personality Traits. Traits like extroversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional intelligence have been found to be statistically related to leadership effectiveness (e.g., Butler & Chinowsky, 2006; Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2011; Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). Jago (1982) provided some leadership traits that have been considered by past scholars, as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2
Leadership Traits

Traits factors	Traits
Physical and constitutional factors	Activity, energy; appearance, grooming; height; weight
Skill and ability	Administrative ability; intelligence; judgement; knowledge; technical competence; verbal fluency
Personal characteristics	Achievement driven; adaptability; adjustment, normality; aggressiveness; alertness; antiauthoritarianism; dominance; emotional balance, control; enthusiasm; extraversion; independence, nonconformity; initiative; insightfulness; integrity; objectivity; originality; persistence; responsibility; self-confidence; sense of humour; tolerance of stress
Social characteristics	Cooperativeness; interpersonal skills, sensitivity; popularity, prestige; sociability; socioeconomic position; talkativeness; tact

Source: Jago (1982)

Whilst traits theory has been influential in helping us understand leadership, it has received a number of criticisms. According to Daft (2002), one of the criticisms levelled against this theory is that traits do not generalize across situations. In

addition, there are no universal traits that have been found that could predict leadership in all situations. In his review of leadership theoretical perspectives over the years, Jago (1982) argued strongly against traits theory and succinctly maintained that:

> "If leadership is indeed governed by the traits ..., the selection of people most likely to be successful in positions of leadership-including political officials, industrial managers, PTA presidents - could be made in a relatively straightforward and mechanical manner. Replacing subjective methods and educated guesswork, a "leadership test" could be constructed to assess and weigh the various traits known to be associated with leadership. Administration of such a test to all candidates for a particular position would provide a quantitative estimate of their relative leadership potential and a basis for selecting the most promising individual" (pp. 317-318).

He further went to say that traits theories are largely untenable as the research evidence is not conclusive due to methodological limitations (for more reading, please refer to Jago, 1982).

Due to these limitations, researchers then began to look beyond leader traits and ventured into proposing how leader behaviours can predict effectiveness. In other words, the scholars were prompted to examine the role of behaviours of leaders as a distinguishing concept that differentiates a leader from non-leaders. In the late 1940s, researchers began to investigate leadership in terms of how a leader interacts with the followers, in which leadership "was viewed as an observable process or activity rather than an inherent, often unobservable, personal characteristics or trait" (Jago, 1982, p.

319). In other words, the behaviourist perspective seeks to examine leadership by looking closely at what a leader does that makes him/her distinct from non-leaders. Toward this search, researchers carefully studied behaviour of successful leaders, determined behavioural taxonomy, and identified broad leadership styles. As a result, several leadership styles/behaviours have been proposed. But generally speaking, leadership style can be categorised into three broad styles: democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). Later on, more research works were carried out and a number of leadership styles emerged from the findings. For instance, the Ohio and Michigan State studies on leadership style indicated that a leader either has a task orientation or people orientation when they lead.

Blake and Mouton's (1964) 9x9 managerial grid further refined the earlier works of their colleagues by arguing that leaders are not necessarily task-oriented *or* people-oriented. A leader can possess both orientations with varying degrees. For example, a leader can be high in both task orientation and people orientation, or he/she can be low in both orientations, or be high in one and low in another. With these varying degrees of each orientation, Blake and Mouton proposed 81 different possible leadership styles, as shown in Figure 2.2.

According to Johns and Moser (2001), the focus on behavioural approaches to leadership is more reasonable and practical way to study leadership as leadership style or behaviour represents a description of the way a leader relates and interacts with subordinates as opposed to a description of his traits. Furthermore, Jago (1982) wrote that "Unlike relatively stable traits and characteristics, behaviour patterns can be presumably changed through instruction and practice. Conceptualizing leadership in terms of the behaviour patterns of the leader suggests that effective leadership is an acquired skill and can therefore be taught" (p. 320).

		Low		High
High	1,9 Management Attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to comfortable friendly org.			9,9 Management Work accomplishment is from committed people; Interdependence through a common stake in org. leads to trust & respect
		5,5 Management Adequate organization is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at satisfactory level		
Low	1,1 Management Exertion of minimum effort to get work done is appropriate to sustain org. membership			9,1 Management Efficiency of operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree

Concern for People

Low   High

Concern for Production

Figure 2.2
Managerial grid of Blake and Mouton (1964)
Source: Blake and Mouton (1964)

But like traits theory, the behavioural model of leadership has also several weaknesses. According to Jago (1982), similar like trait theorists, behaviourists assumed the universality of leadership behaviour/style in that there is one best way to lead. It was such a sweeping statement made that limits the tenability, applicability and validity of the behavioural approaches leadership. After reviewing the evidence

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that no single leadership style was able to explain overwhelmingly the variance in organizational outcomes such as job performance or job satisfaction, several scholars (e.g., Locke & Schweiger, 1978, as cited in Jago, 1982) came to a conclusion that leadership may be contingent upon a number of contextual or situational variables such as follower motivation, task attributes and organizational characteristics, to name a few.

Due to the disappointing research evidence on the limited validity of both trait and behavioural theories, scholars now tended to conclude that the effectiveness of leadership is determined by the situation leaders are in. This thinking gave rise to situational theories of leadership. But now instead of identifying what traits a leader should possess or what kind of behaviour a leader should demonstrate, scholars had to identify "the exact conditions under which different leadership traits or leadership behaviours would be effective" (Jago, 1982, p. 322). Those who belonged to this theoretical perspective include Fiedler and his associates who develop a "Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness" in which they proposed that employee or group productivity depends on a "match" or "fit" between personality trait, measured by Fieldler's *Least Preferred Co-worker* scale, and the favourableness of the leadership situation (Jago, 1982).

Other theory that falls within the situational perspective is path-goal theory by House and his associates. According to path-goal theory, whether or not a leader should be people-oriented or task-oriented depends on the characteristics of the subordinates and characteristics of the environment within which they function. In essence, as the name suggests, path-goal theory asserts that the leader has a role in clarifying the *paths* or *routes* followers need to take to achieve their work and personal attainment. When subordinates feel that the leader is capable in assisting

them meet these objectives, they will be more motivated and hence more productive at work. Figure 2.3 shows the diagram of path-goal theory as postulated by House (1971).
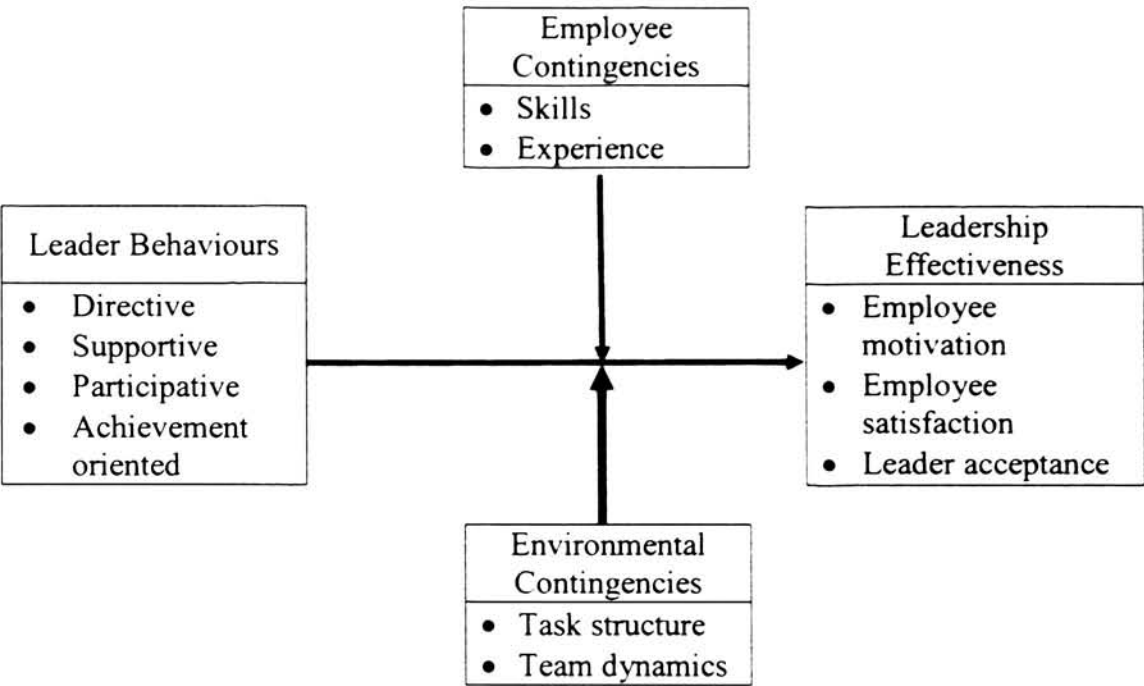
Figure 2.3
Path-goal leadership theory of House (1971)
Source: House (1971)

In their paper that charts the trajectory of leadership theories, Van Seters and Field (1990) noted that transformational leadership theory is one that is most promising phase in the evolutionary development of leadership theories due to its "radical" assumption about how leaders should portray themselves to achieve the desired results. Rather than relying on the extrinsic motivation to produce commitment and compliance from employees, leaders are proposed to tap into their intrinsic motivation. According to Bass (1985), leaders are also supposed to be proactive and not reactive, radical and not conservative, more innovative and creative

and more open to new ideas. But it was Burns (1978) who first introduced the concepts of transformational leadership and contrasted it with transactional leadership. The need for leaders to become transformational, who uplifts employee morale, motivation and moral, and less transactional, who caters to the followers' immediate interests, is driven by the changes in the marketplace in which emphasis is put on quality, service, cost-effectiveness and quantity of output (Bass, 1999).

In sum, as discussed above, the topic of leadership has gone hand in hand through decades with various theories that have been divided into different categories in light of historical approaches concentrating either on traits, behaviours, situational contingencies or transformational leadership. These theories have been analysed and described in various studies (Gibson & Marcoulides, 1995; Johns & Moser, 2001; Van Seters, & Field, 1990; Yukl, 1989, 1999). Although these authors have used different classifications, all of them have grouped different leadership theories within a common theme that is good leadership has bearing on organizational effectiveness and performance. Despite the various leadership theories that are available, the present study focuses on multifactor leadership theory (MLT), which talks of a leader having both transformational, transactional and laissez-faire qualities (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011), in explaining cyberdeviance. The main reason for choosing this type of leadership style is that this is the contemporary theory of leadership that argues on the importance of visionary leadership in organization and how it may be a factor in shaping how employees respond to it. Indeed, many studies have confirmed empirically the association between transformational leadership style and organizational effectiveness (Ozaralli, 2003; Tipu, Ryan, & Fantazy, 2012; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2004). Secondly, this theory builds into leadership different styles a leader could demonstrate while at work. In particular, Hargis et al.

(2011) noted that multifactor theory (MLT) recognizes that leaders display at least three types of styles i.e. transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire in their interaction with their followers.

2.3.4.2 Multifactor leadership theory (MLT)

Multifactor leadership theory developed by Bass (1985) asserted that leaders demonstrate several types of behaviours/styles when interacting with their subordinates. According to Bass, not only leaders display transactional behaviours, but they also engage in transformational and laissez-faire behaviours (Hargis et al., 2011). The theory also postulates that good leaders are those who are able to display the appropriate behaviours as the situation and condition see fit (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Despite the different styles of leadership, Bass has given more attention and focus to transformational leadership behaviour/style because transformational leaders are leaders who show extraordinary leadership behaviour that is necessary for organisations to achieve their competitive advantage through the deployment and management of resources in the organisation. In other words, for Bass, transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style.

As mentioned earlier, it was Burns (1978) who introduced the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership. He differentiated transformational and transactional leadership in terms of what leaders and followers offer one another. For him, transformational leaders offer a purpose that goes is long term and focuses on higher order intrinsic needs of their followers. These leaders are described as those who use motivation to guide their subordinates to perform to the best of their ability

and to raise their levels of confidence through constant support. On the other hand, transactional leaders offer something employees want in exchange what the leaders want. In other words, transactional leaders exchange resources with their employees. For instance, transactional leaders offer reward the employees need in return for the latter's energy and time devoted to the accomplishment of the job. Viewed in this way, transactional leaders use a carrot-and-stick approach to obtain employee commitment and compliance. Burns also highlighted that it is more common to find leaders who are transactional than those who are transformational. Another important point that Burns made is that leaders who are transactional could not possess qualities of leaders who are transformational and vice versa. In other words, for Burns, transformational and transactional leaderships are at the opposite ends of a single continuum.

Bass (1985) and his associates (Bass & Avolio, 1995) later developed and refined further the conceptualization of transformational and transactional leadership proposed by Burn's seminal work. For one, they contended that transformational and transactional leaderships are separate and distinct concepts, which means that, in opposition of Burn's proposition, transformational and transactional leadership does not represent opposite ends of a single continuum; rather the best leader is one who is both transformational and transactional. Later, they also expanded Burns's factors of leadership to include a third factor laissez faire leadership. The transformational leadership developed had undergone series of modifications and revisions, reflected in the development of the instrument used to measure the concepts.

Multifactor leadership theory also specifically discusses the role of transactional and transformational leadership in enhancing organizational effectiveness. Bass (1985) contended that transformational leadership augments or

builds upon transactional leadership to help achieve desired organizational outcomes. This "augmentation effect", as Bass called it, refers to the degree to which "transformational leadership styles build on the transactional base in contributing to the extra effort and performance of followers" (p. 5). This effect in essence postulates that leaders use both transformational and transactional styles to enhance workplace outcomes.

Multifactor leadership theory (MLT) has generally received empirical support (e.g., Howell & Avolio, 1993; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) in that leaders need to demonstrate both types of leadership styles in order to be effective in accomplishing organizational goals and that transformational leadership adds incremental value to transactional leadership behaviours.

a.   Transactional leadership style

Bass (1985, 1990, 1998) referred to transactional leadership as an exchange relationship between leader and follower. Transactional leadership theory is grounded in the social learning and social exchange theories (Deluga, 1990) because leadership does not necessarily reside in the person or situation but in the social interaction between the leader and the follower (Van Seters & Fields, 1990).

Bass (1985), and Bass and Avolio (1995) proposed that transactional leaders resort to ways of leading that is by using contingent rewards and managing by exception. They argued that contingent reward is the reward that the leader will bestow on the subordinate once the latter has achieved goals that were agreed to. Contingent reward is therefore the exchange of rewards for meeting agreed-on

objectives. When a transactional leader makes and fulfils his promises in recognizing the subordinate's work performance, increasing pay, and/or providing opportunities for advancement for employees who perform well, the transactional leader is able to get things done. By providing contingent rewards, a transactional leader might inspire a reasonable degree of involvement, loyalty, commitment and performance from his/her subordinates.

In addition, transactional leaders depend on active management by exception which takes place in instances when the leader checks up on followers ensuring mistakes are not carried out but leaves the status quo unattended (Bass & Avolio, 1995). When leaders actively manage by exception, they actively monitor the work performance of their followers or subordinated, observe whether work deviations have been committed and take necessary corrective measures to prevent mistakes from happening. In sum, when leaders actively manage by exception, the main role of the leaders is to make sure that things are on the right track so that there is no room for error. Leaders who demonstrate this behaviour are proactive in their approach to management.

Instead of actively intervening the work processes, leaders may also engage passively. In passive management by exception, the leader generally intervenes only when mistakes are made or when performance standards are not met as expected. While the leaders are also concerned about making sure that things are moving in the correct direction, they will intervene only after the problems have occurred. When this happens, the leaders may use punishment to put things back on track. In this context, the leaders are being reactive rather than proactive.

Whilst transactional leadership could result in employee compliance in expending time, energy and effort toward the accomplishment of job performance, it

is insufficient in today's world mired by intense competition in which creativity and innovation are key for organizational success and for the development of competitive advantage (Johns & Moser, 2001). Organizations need leaders who are able to provide the necessary vision and direction to transform the workplace toward meeting the organizational goals and objectives. Hence, transformational leaders are needed.

Furthermore, Dunham and Klafehn (1990) pointed out the disadvantage of transactional leadership is in its lack of vision for the future. In particular, Garman, Davis-Lenane, and Corrigan (2003) noted that as both active and passive management by exception focuses on taking corrective actions rather than providing positive feedback, such approach may be demoralising to employees. This assertion is argued against by Stordeur, D'hoore, and Vandenberghe (2001) who stated that while the advantages of transactional leadership are few, transactional leaders are still able to offer timely solutions for staff needs especially under dire conditions. On the other hand, it can be counter argued that active management by exchange may also prompt stressors (Stordeur et al., 2001).

b.   Transformational leadership style

There is a wide difference in the way researchers conceptualize transformational leadership. For instance, Bennis's (1959) notion of the transformational leader is someone who possesses the ability to touch the souls of their followers. This notion has been modified according to the interpretation of researchers. It has been modified by authors such as Burns (1978), who was the pioneer to propose that transformational leadership represents the transcendence of self-interest by the leader and followers. According to Burns, transformational leaders guarantee that their

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followers recognize the importance of sharing organisational goals and values and they search for ways to encourage their followers to learn how to achieve the goals. He stated that transformational leaders encourage their followers to work to the best of their ability and to put the organisation's interests over their personal ones and at the same time, they exert effort on behalf of the organisation to satisfy the followers' higher order needs. On the other hand, Yukl (1989) described transformational leadership as a process of bringing about crucial changes in the members' attitudes and assumptions and obtaining their commitment for the purpose of fulfilling the organisation's mission and objectives. In light of the type of contract, Ismail et al. (2009) stated that transformational leadership concept is based on a relational contract rather than an economic one, where it takes the form of social exchange (subordinates are obliged to their leaders and are willing to contribute beyond the requirements of formal employment contracts).

Bass et al. (Bass, 1985, 1997; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995, 1999) have identified five factors which represent the behavioural components of transformational leadership. These five factors are sometimes referred to as the five I's of transformational leadership:

1. Idealized influence (attributes) occurs when followers identify with and emulate those leaders who are trusted and seen as having an attainable mission and vision.

2. Idealized influence (behaviour) refers to leader behaviours that result in followers identifying with leaders and wanting to emulate them.

3. Inspirational motivation is closely related to idealized influence. It implies that leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Leaders

manifesting inspirational motivation articulate high expectations to subordinates (Bass, 1985). They communicate important issues very simply and use various symbols to focus their efforts. They also demonstrate self-determination and commitment to attaining objectives and present an optimistic and achievable view of the future.

4. Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders encourage their followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. A transformational leader provides intellectual stimulation to employees by encouraging them to try out new approaches for solving problems (Bass, 1985). They challenge the status quo and encourage employees to explore new ways of achieving organisational goals and objectives. Subordinates under such leadership are not hesitant to offer their ideas, become critical in their problem solving and tend to have enhanced thought processes.

5. Individualized consideration occurs when leaders relate to followers on a one-to-one basis in order to elevate goals and develop skills. Leaders who display individual consideration treat each employee as an individual and are attentive to the unique needs, capabilities and concerns of each individual (Bass, 1985). They also consider the individual's developmental and growth needs. Managers who demonstrate individualized consideration often coach, mentor, and counsel their subordinates.

Research studies have repeatedly shown that transformational leadership is positively connected to organizational effectiveness (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al.,

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1996; Walumbwa et al., 2004). The relationship between transformational leadership and personal outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and performance is well established (Bass, 1998; Bushra, Usman, & Naveed, 2011; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Fuller et al. 1996; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Manning, 2002; Yang & Islam, 2012; Zahari & Shugari, 2012). Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) reported a significant impact of transformational leadership on followers' commitment and unit-level financial performance. In addition, Dvir, Eden, Avolio, and Shamir (2002) showed that transformational leaders had a direct impact on followers' empowerment, morality, and motivation. Using multilevel structural equations modelling, Hoffman et al. (2011) found that transformational leadership influenced significantly work group effectiveness.

According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders instil an inspiration within their followers to put the organisation's interests above theirs. Consequently, this type of leaders manages to have in-depth insight and appreciation of each and every member's contribution. Furthermore, transformational leaders motivate followers to make use of their critical thinking to find novel ways to go about and complete their tasks. This form of challenge provided to the followers leads to their motivation to be involved in their work resulting in their increase in the level of satisfaction and commitment to the organisation. Providing their followers with respect and confidence creates a high level of trust and loyalty in them so much so that they become inclined to identify with their leaders and with the organisation. In turn, this trust and loyalty will lead to followers trusting and identifying with their leader and committing to the organisation even under dire circumstances.

In sum, generally, transformational leadership is found to be associated with desired organisational outcomes such as the willingness of followers to expend extra

effort (Bass, 1985; Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). A willingness to expend extra effort indicates some degree of commitment. Contingent reward behaviours that represent transactional leadership have been found to be reasonably associated with performance and work attitudes of followers although at a lower level than transformational leadership behaviours (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1995).

c.   **Laissez-faire leadership**

Another leadership behaviour espoused by multifactor leadership theory is the idea that leaders are absent from leading. When leaders demonstrate this behaviour, they are said to be displaying laissez-faire leadership. Laissez-faire leaders are leaders who display non-leadership behaviour because they avoid making decisions, hesitate in taking action, and are not around when needed (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, and Hetland (2007) hypothesized that laissez-faire leadership is not a form of zero-type leadership but a type of destructive leadership. In their survey of 2,273 Norwegian employees, they observed that laissez-faire leadership was positively correlated with role conflict, role ambiguity, and conflicts with co-workers. Due to the systematic relationships showed between laissez-faire leadership behaviour and the workplace stressors, they concluded that such leadership behaviour is a destructive leadership behaviour. Their result supports other findings that laissez-faire leadership influences negative workplace outcomes such as burnout among nurses (Kanste, Kyngas, & Nikkila, 2007) and workplace bullying (Hoel, Glaso, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010), to name a few.

d.   Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is the instrument developed by Bass and his associates to measure the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership. Originally, the MLQ developed by Bass (1985) included five dimensions that make up transformational leadership. They were charisma (idealized influence), intellectual stimulation, individualized attention, contingent reward, and management-by-exception. He associated the former three factors with transformational leadership while the latter two with transactional leadership. Later, Bass and his colleagues carried out a revision of the instrument and consequently added another factor namely inspirational motivation which they related it to transformational leadership. This additional factor is based on the four I's of transformational leadership as proposed by Bass and Avolio (1995) and Avolio, Waldman, and Yammarino (1991). Moreover, a single measure of an ineffective form of leadership known as laissez-faire was also added in the present form of MLQ as part of what is called 'full-range leadership' in consistence with the multifactor leadership theory.

In general, studies have found broad empirical support for the MLQ instrument's psychometric properties. For instance, Tejeda, Scandura, and Pillai (2001) analysed the factor structure of MLQ. They found evidence of construct and predictive validity of the instrument. Furthermore, the internal consistent reliabilities of the instrument examined across four different samples of employees in various organizations in the United States exceed the threshold value of .70, as suggested by Nunnally (1978). In another study, Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) investigated the validity of MLQ and its factor structure across 2279 male and 1089

female business samples. Generally, they found support for the construct validity of the MLQ instrument across the two homogenous groups.

2.3.5 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the workplace issues that have received considerable interest and attention amongst scholars and practitioners alike. Job satisfaction is a form of workplace attitude (Robbins & Judge 2010; Ilies & Judge, 2004; Saari & Judge, 2004). According to Saari and Judge (2004), Locke's definition of job satisfaction that has been widely cited by other scholars. Locke (1976) referred to job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. This definition, according to Sirca, Babnik, and Breznik (2012), job satisfaction can be considered as an individual's affection to his/her job or work. The importance of job satisfaction especially in the field of industrial/organizational psychology is because it is thought to be able to affect job performance. Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001) noted that the study on job satisfaction took on greater prominence since the Hawthorne's study in which employee affect and feelings were taken into consideration. In his thesis, Hill (1988) described that the Hawthorne study later gave rise to the human relations movement that rests on the principle that job satisfaction is an important consideration in boosting job performance. Despite the initial understanding that employee feelings should now be considered, no consensus seemed to be reached as to whether or not satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) increases performance, or performance increases satisfaction.

The heightened interest in job satisfaction among researchers and scholars alike is because it is purported to affect organizational outcomes such as turnover,

absenteeism, organizational commitment, employee engagement, and job performance, to name a few. In fact, a large body of research works can be identified from the literature on the influence of job satisfaction on both positive and negative work outcomes (e.g., Carraher & Buckley, 2008; Darratt, Amyx, & Bennett, 2010; Fried, Shirom, Gilboa, & Cooper, 2008; Hausknecht, Hiller, & Vance, 2008; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Judge et al., 2001; Kaplan, Ogut, Kaplan, & Aksay, 2012; Kidwell & Valentine, 2009; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006; Scott & Taylor, 1985; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Wang & Yi, 2011).

One of the earliest studies done on job satisfaction was by Hoppcock's study (1935, as cited in Hill, 1988) in which he thought that there were variables outside of the workers that affect their level of satisfaction, and believed that group membership would likely to do so. He found that those belonged to the same occupational group had higher degree of variations in job satisfaction than across different occupational groups. His research led to the initial understanding of the individual differences in job satisfaction.

Hill (1988) further noted about the debates in 1930's on how one should conceptualize and hence measure job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was, all this time, perceived as a global construct; now, scholars were arguing that individuals can be satisfied in different facets and aspects of their job. In fact, the development of Likert and Thurstone's scales paved way for researchers to examine different facets of job satisfaction that began actively from 1950's onwards. In tandem with the burgeoning studies on job satisfaction, various valid and reliable measures have been developed to help researchers assess job satisfaction of employees. Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), and Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) are some of the measures that have been widely used. But despite these measures that

consider various facets of job satisfaction, some researchers even until today still use a single global construct of job satisfaction. In this context, Brayfield and Rother's (1951, as cited in Judge & Klinger, 2007) is the most widely used. Regardless of whether researchers use a single measure or faceted measure of job satisfaction, there is little difference in the result (Judge & Hulin, 1993).

In the Job Descriptive Index, job satisfaction is measured by five main facets: pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision, and the work itself. Others, such as Locke (1976, as cited in Judge & Klinger, 2007), add a few other facets like recognition, working conditions, and company and management. Still others (e.g., Traynor & Wade, 1993), who developed Measure of Job Satisfaction (MJS) add a few more such as personal satisfaction, satisfaction with workload, and satisfaction with prospects. It is also common for researchers to separate different facets of job satisfaction into intrinsic and extrinsic factors in which for instance pay is considered extrinsic while recognition is intrinsic (Judge & Klinger, 2007).

In addition to the debates about what job satisfaction is – whether it is a single global construct or whether it is a multifaceted construct – scholars have also debated about what makes people satisfied. In fact, the interest on job satisfaction started with the Scientific Management by Taylor even though "job satisfaction" as a proper concept was less salient. One of the principles of Scientific Management is that productivity can be enhanced if employees are remunerated based on how much is produced. Implicit in this argument is that when employees are sufficiently rewarded they will be satisfied and motivated to produce more. The Hawthorne's study, which gave rise to the human relations movement, on the other hand, found that group dynamics are important in motivating employees to work hard. These earlier studies suggest different aspects of the work environment work to satisfy employees at work.

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Indeed, a myriad of theoretical perspectives have been developed on job satisfaction can be identified from vast number of studies.

2.3.5.1 Selected theories of job satisfaction

Literature has identified several distinct theoretical perspectives of job satisfaction. In general, two main strands of theories of job satisfaction can be recognised: the content theory, and the process theory. Whilst the content theories essentially attempt to answer "what" makes people satisfied, the process theories answer "why" and "how" people are satisfied in addition to answering the "what" question. In this sense, the process theories can be said to be have been developed to address the limitations of the content theories that are claimed to be simplistic.

The key argument made by the need theories is that when human needs are met, they will be satisfied and motivated to achieve their goals. One of the need theories is the famous Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. Maslow argues that human needs can be grouped into five. They are physiological needs (the basic needs of any individual such as air, water, and food), safety needs (need for security and shelter), social needs (need for friendship and acquaintances), growth needs (need for recognition), and self-actualization needs (need to realize one's potential). Of these five needs, the first three needs are called the lower while the remaining two the higher order needs. Maslow further proposed that the higher order needs will not be triggered unless and until the lower order needs are met. In other words, whether or not an individual realizes his/her full potential (i.e. self-actualization) is contingent upon him/her meeting the earlier four needs, in their order. Figure 2.4 illustrates Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Besides Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, McClelland (1961) also developed his own set of theoretical perspectives of what kinds of needs an individual should meet and fulfil to make them satisfied and motivated. The theory is called theory of needs. He proposed three different needs i.e. need for affiliation (*nAff*), need for power (*nPow*), and need for achievement (*nAch*). Need for affiliation refers to the desire to be socially accepted by others and to be around other people while need for power refers to the desire to control over others. Finally, need for achievement refers to the desire of getting ahead and being successful.
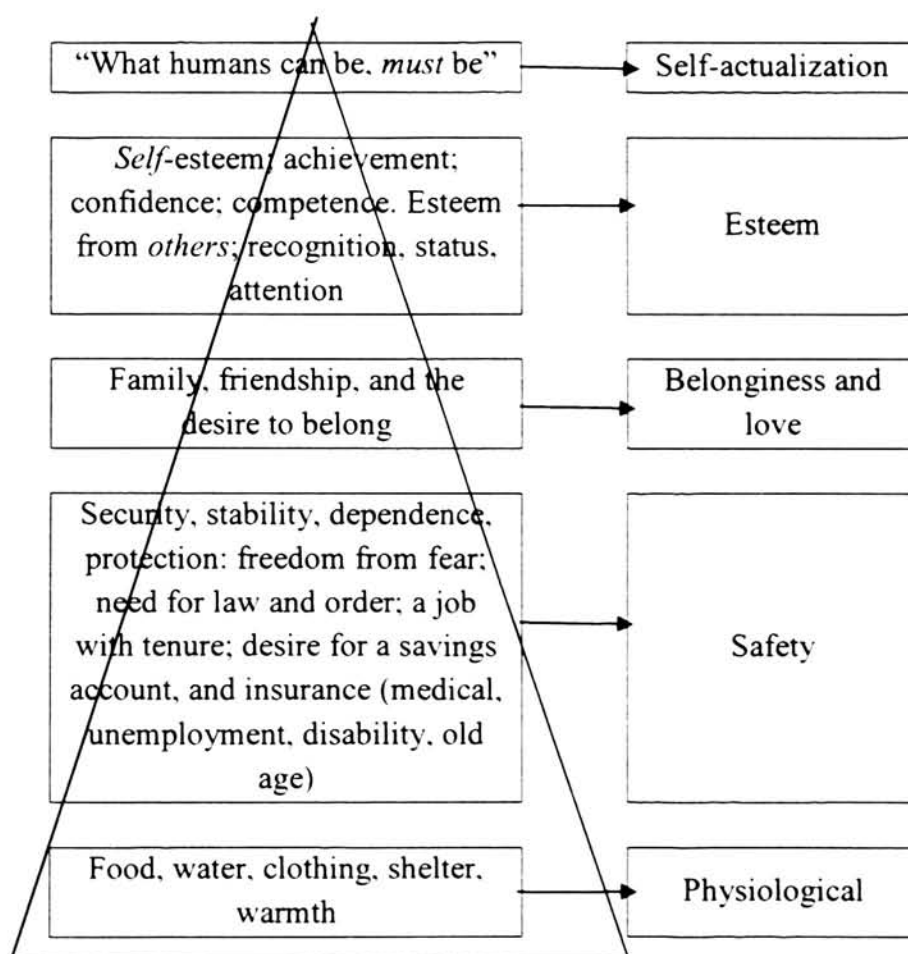
Figure 2.4
Maslow's hierarchy of needs
Source: Datta (2010)

In addition to these theories, Herzberg's (1966) two factor theory belong to this category. But unlike his colleagues, Herzberg proposed that higher order needs such as growth and recognition will make individuals satisfied and called these needs "motivators" but lower order needs will not make people satisfied; rather, they make them comfortable and happy. Lower level needs such as salary and supervision are called "hygiene" factors. For this reason, Herzberg's theory is also known as two-factor theory. Figure 2.5 illustrates the two factors that affect differentially satisfaction of individuals, as reported by Herzberg.

Dissatisfaction and demotivation	Not dissatisfied but not motivated	Positive satisfaction and motivation

Hygiene factors	Motivational factors
• Company policies • Quality of supervision • Relationship with others • Personal life • Rate of pay • Job security • Working conditions	• Achievement • Career advancement • Personal growth • Job interest • Recognition • Responsibility

Figure 2.5
Herzberg's two-factor theory
Source: Edmond and Perez (2013)

As mentioned earlier, process theory was developed to explain how individuals are motivated at work. Some of the process theories that fall under this category are equity theory and expectancy theory. Equity theory, developed by Adams (1963), argues that people desire for fair treatment at work. This means that

they seek to maintain equity between what they contribute (i.e. input in terms of skill, knowledge, energy, effort etc.) to the job and the organization and what they receive out of it (i.e. output in terms of productivity) against what other people's input and output. Satisfaction occurs when there what the individual brings in and receives is comparable to what other people bring in and receive. In essence, this theory holds that individuals make a conscious comparison with other people in their work environment that could shape their attitude toward work.
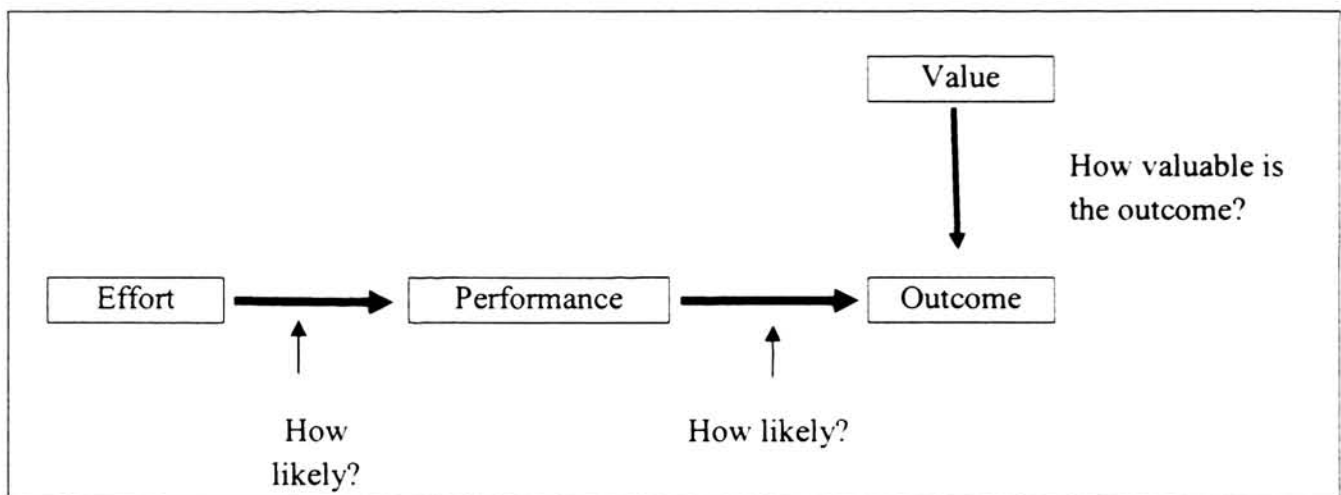
Figure 2.6
Expectancy theory of Vroom
Source: Allan (2013)

Developed by Vroom (1964), expectancy theory, on the other hand, proposes that individuals form expectations that their effort will lead to good performance, which will be rewarded. But whether or not individuals will be satisfied with the reward depends on the value of the reward itself. If the reward id believed to have little or no value, then satisfaction will not materialize. In other words, the desirability of the reward is what makes people satisfied and motivated to engage in a specific behaviour. This theory underscores the role of cognitive or mental process in

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determining an individual's choice of behaviour. Figure 2.6 illustrates the key elements of expectancy theory i.e. effort, performance, and outcome, and how they are interrelated.

One of the important practical implications of this theory is for the organization to reward good performance as a form of motivation to employees. But equally important is for the organization to recognise the value of the reward to the individual for it to make a significant effect on both effort and performance.

2.4   HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

A hypothesis, according to Sekaran (2003), is "a logically conjectured relationship between two or more variables expressed in the form of testable statement" (p. 103). In the present study, the conjectured relationships tested are the theoretical link between HR practices, leadership style, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance. Here, the present study conjectures how HR practices and leadership style could influence job satisfaction, which subsequently lead to cyberdeviance, and whether a specific direction of the conjectured relationships could be ascertained. To do so, the underpinning theory of social exchange and previous research works will be heavily employed. The following sections present theoretical arguments why and how HR practices and leadership style, respectively, could influence cyberdeviance.

2.4.1   HR Practices and Work-related Outcomes

There is a general consensus amongst scholars that a good HR system is important as it affects organisational performance in that it can determine intended work-related

outcomes and can shape employee attitudes and behaviour (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Wood & de Menezes, 1998). Hence, many studies have been conducted to validate such assertion. A particular interest identified in the literature is the interest of researchers in investigating the purported impact of HR practices on employee performance. The results generally indicate positive evidence on the link. In other words, studies have generally confirmed that firms conducting human resource management practices ultimately achieve superior outcomes in the shape of better organisational performance (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Fey & Bjorkman, 2000; Huselid, 1995; Hoque, 1999). For instance, Patterson, West, Lawthom, and Nickell (1997) who studied the impact of people management practices on business performance revealed that HR practices, particularly selection and training, impact performance as such practices provide employees with suitable skills to enable to accomplish their job. Their study spanned upon a 10-year period over 100 small and medium-sized manufacturing enterprises in the UK. In a much earlier study, Ichniowski, Shaw, and Prennushi (1997) revealed that complementary HR practice system impacts the productivity of steel workers. They concluded that the adoption of a coherent system of new work practices, including work teams, flexible job assignments, employment security, training in multiple jobs, and extensive reliance on incentive pay, produces substantially higher levels of productivity than do more 'traditional' approaches involving narrow job definitions, strict work rules, and hourly pay with close supervision.

In a later study, Khera (2010) looked at the effect of specific HR practices (i.e. recruitment & selection, motivation, reward system, training & development, career planning, employee participation, compensation management, and benefits & services) upon employee performance in India's commercial banks through the

involvement of 184 respondents hailing from three commercial banks from different sectors (foreigner, private and public). The results showed that a significant relationship exists between employee productivity and human resource practices such as selection, employee benefits, compensation, training and staffing practices. They concluded that the use of strategy-based HR policies and practices allows banks to create a more competent and committed workforce, which in turn provides a source of sustainable competitive advantage.

Several researchers have also revealed a significant contribution of HR practices and policies on other behavioural outcomes such as job satisfaction (Absar, Azim, Balasundaram, & Akhter, 2010; Gould-Williams, 2003; Goyal & Shrivastava, 2012; Hunjra, Chani, Aslam, Azam, & Rehman, 2010; Javed, Rafiq, Ahmed, & Khan, 2012; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Poon, 2004; Širca et al., 2012), organisational commitment (Gould-Williams, 2003; Iles, Mabey, & Robertson, 1990; McElroy 2001; Meyer & Herscovich, 2001), and organisational citizenship behaviour (Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2003). For instance, Tessema and Soeters (2006) revealed that selection, training and compensation are among the most significant HR factors that impact employee performance among civil servants in Eritrea, Africa. In a different study, Edgar and Geare (2005) in their survey among 626 employees from 40 organizations in New Zealand found empirical support that HR practices were associated with various employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational fairness. Gould-Williams (2003) studied the effect of bundle of HR practices on behavioural outcomes (e.g., workplace trust, job satisfaction, commitment, effort and perceived organizational performance). Using data of 191 workers in UK local government employees, they indicated that HR

practices positively affected job satisfaction, which subsequently found to be positively related to effort, intention to remain, and organizational performance.

One of the work outcomes that have received scholarly interest is organizational citizenship behaviour or OCB, in short. Organ (1988) defined OCB as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). Studies that have looked into the impact of HR practices on OCB generally found positive evidence of the link. For instance, Gould-Williams (2003) found that the implementation of HRM practices that are desired by the employees will lead to their feeling of loyalty to the organisation and in turn will result in positive change in discretionary efforts. His study was conducted among 191 government employees in the UK. Similar finding was also reported by Wright et al. (2003). In their study among 5,635 respondents working in 50 business units of a large food service corporation with operations in the US and Canada, they observed that employees exerted discretionary effort in cases where proper performance management system is set up and is reinforced by compensation system linked with the performance management system. Their finding also suggested that when employees are managed with progressive HR practices, they tend to be more committed to their organisation, which leads them to exhibit proper role behaviour and to not engage in dysfunctional behaviour.

Another work outcome that has received considerable attention by scholars and researchers alike is organisational commitment. In general, various studies have also indicated that HR practices significantly impact commitment. For example, Rayton (2006) discovered that human resource strategies and practices impact employees' commitment to their organisations and satisfaction. The current studies

that discovered the link between HR practices and organizational commitment are consistent with earlier studies that revealed similar result. Among these studies, Ogilvie's (1986) study revealed that HR management practices, considered as actual, tangible practices, lead to employee commitment. Wimalasiri (1995) also reported similar findings when he revealed that specific practices like performance evaluation, promotion policies, and compensation and benefits have significant influence on organisational commitment.

The preceding paragraphs have shown the positive influence of HR practices on various facets of work-related outcomes such as employee performance, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, and employee engagement. In contrast, researchers have also investigated to what extent HR practices are able to reduce dysfunctional or negative work outcomes to further add to the existing evidence on the role of HR practices in shaping employee attitude and behaviour and in achieving organisational effectiveness. Whilst studies of this sort are important to lend further credence to the assertion that HR practices determine organisational performance (mostly seen in the positive light), they are however few and far between, even more so studies that looked into the consequence of HR practices on new work phenomenon such as cyberdeviance.

2.4.1.1 HR practices and cyberdeviance

As indicated earlier in section 2.3.3.2, the literature identifies three categories of HR practices (Wright & Kehoe, 2008). While the first category of HR practices is meant to improve the knowledge, skills and abilities of employees, the second category is intended to provide opportunities to employees to participate in substantive decision-

making regarding work and organizational outcomes. But it is the third category that is relevant to this study as the practices such as compensation, performance appraisal, international promotion policies, and employment security, among others, have motivational function (Delery & Shaw, 2001; Huselid, 1995) to make employees committed in their work (Pfeffer, 1998; Yound et al., 1996). Since the present study is about investigating cyberdeviance and how HR practices play a role in contributing to the social phenomenon at the workplace, the third category of HR practices that are meant to elicit positive behaviour and discourage negative behaviour is chosen. While HR practices, as a general construct, are postulated to link with cyberdeviance, it is also possible to conjecture the influence of specific type of practices (i.e. performance appraisal, compensation, employment security, and career development) on cyberdeviance.

Although the literature regarding the effect of HR practices on cyberdeviance is almost non-existent, it is possible to postulate the link by invoking studies on the impact of HR practices upon deviant workplace behaviour even despite the limited number. One study worth mentioning is the one conducted by Arthur (2011), who found empirical evidence of the relationship between HR system (measured in terms of internal labour market and team autonomy) and organizational level of interpersonal deviance. His study involved 300 U.S. work establishments. His study expanded the scope of strategic HR research over the current focus on firm-level financial and operational performance to encompass HR system choices impact upon interpersonal deviance outcomes. In particular, he investigated to what extent HR systems, characterized by their intensive use of internal labour markets and team autonomy, are linked with lower instances of interpersonal deviance behaviours. Internal labour market of an organization was defined as encompassing long-term

employment, internal development and promotion. He found empirical support that organizations that practised internal labour market system tended to have lower interpersonal deviance. This is because HR practices that value long-term employment, internal development, and promotion tend to develop employees whose values are congruent with the organization's culture and norms, and who are hence less likely to engage in deviant behaviour.

On the Malaysian front, Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim (2011) investigated the link of HR practices with workplace deviant behaviour amongst 372 manufacturing employees in the northern region of Malaysia. Based on factor analysis, four distinct dimensions of HR practices were produced i.e. job description, employment security, internal career opportunities, and result-oriented appraisal. Using regression analysis, they found that almost all HR practices were significantly and negatively linked with deviant work behaviour but appraisal. Invoking social exchange theory, they argued that when employees perceive poor treatment from the organization, they tend to reciprocate negatively i.e. by being deviant.

In addition to above the above two studies, researchers have also considered investigating the impact of HR practices on specific deviant behaviour of employees such as absenteeism and turnover. The evidence generally seems to indicate that HR practices can help organizations reduce employee absenteeism and turnover. For instance, Allen, Shore, and Griffeth (2003) investigated the impact of HR practices of participation in decision making, fairness of rewards, and growth opportunities on turnover intention and turnover, through the mediating links of perceived organisational support, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The study involved two samples of 215 department store salespeople and 197 insurance agents in the US. The use of mediators in the study was based on the previous findings that

the relatively small degree of effects of HR practices on turnover suggests that the HR practices might be "somewhat dismal determinants of turnover" (p. 102). Using social exchange theory as their underlying paradigm, they found that HR practices perceived to be supportive could reduce turnover intention and turnover because such practices signal that the organization recognizes and values the employee's contributions. Such feeling then creates feelings of obligation to support organizational goals, which means that the employee is expected to be committed and motivated at work and to not leave the organisation.

Similar finding was also reported by Pizam and Thornburg (2000), who conducted a pilot study among 62 hotel managers in Central Florida. They found that the work environment such as adequacy of training and level of compensation were more important in contributing to absenteeism and voluntary turnover than employees' personal characteristics. Altarawnrh and Al-Kilani (2010) in their study on 250 hotel employees in Jordan revealed that job analysis contributed significantly to turnover intention but *not* other HR practices such as promotion, selection, pay and appraisal. Alnaqbi (2011) examined the influence of HR practices on employee retention in the United Arab Emirates. Specifically he found that performance appraisal perceived to unfair is likely to enhance quit intention amongst 154 employees in public organisations.

In a qualitative study conducted to investigate the role of HRM in tackling labour turnover in a hotel industry in Singapore and Australia, Cheng and Brown (1998) found that both countries placed a great emphasis on recruitment, selection, induction, socialization, and training and development practices as mechanisms for addressing turnover problem. The findings suggest that hoteliers in these countries seem to be focusing on a long-term approach in dealing with the problem.

The later studies mentioned above seem to resonate earlier research works that reported similar results. For instance, a study across steel mills in the US by Arthur (1994) revealed that human resource systems characterized by higher levels of employee involvement in managerial decisions, formal participation programmes, training in group problem solving, and socialising activities led to higher productivity, lower scrap rates, and lower employee turnover than steel mills that had systems of HR meant to control the employees.

While studies on HR practices in general on deviant behaviour are limited, more so studies on specific type of HR practice. Nonetheless, despite this limitation, it is possible to postulate the link for specific type of HR practice. According to Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim (2011), because performance appraisal is often perceived as not being fairly implemented due to human bias and subjectivity, it leads to employees feeling unfairly treated, which subsequently make them engage in deviant behaviour. When raters are perceived to rate and assess the employees unfairly, procedural justice is said to occur. Procedural justice reflects how fairly organizational procedures are designed (de Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007) or how fair the processes are perceived to be used in determining outcome allocation (Lim, 2002). Researchers have generally found that procedural justice is linked with negative work outcomes (e.g., de Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999) such as cyberdeviance (de Lara, 2007, 2009; Lim, 2005).

Werbel abd Balkin (2010), using rational choice theory, proposed that "performance driven HR practices may have some unintended negative consequences on an organization as employees find ways to take performance shortcuts that in long term can undermine organizational effectiveness through employee misconduct" (p.

324), and further argued that in this modern day context when the span of control of an organization tends to be wider due to mergers, acquisitions, and the like, employee misconduct tends to occur because supervisors have difficulty monitoring performance. Furthermore, the wide geographical locations among business units may also entail supervisors' bias in appraising performance, which could trigger employee misconduct.

One of the most consistent themes related to compensation system is fairness. Using equity theory, previous studies have found that deviant activities such as theft were attributed to perceived distributive injustice in organisation (e.g., Greenberg, 1990). Employees engage in acts that are inconsistent with the norms and expectations of the organisation to get even or vent their anger for not being compensated fairly (Niehoff & Paul, 2000).

There appears to be a growing body of literature that suggests that perceptions of job insecurity may have detrimental consequences for employee attitudes (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997; Ito & Brotheridge, 2005; Negrin & Tzafrir, 2004; Rosenblatt, Talmud, & Ruvio, 1999; Sverke, Hellgren, & Naswall, 2002). Whilst to date no studies have looked at the effect of job security on cyberdeviance, previous studies have revealed that perceived job insecurity has been consistently found to lead to a withdrawal response as manifested in, for example, higher levels of turnover intention (Davy et al., 1997; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Sverke, Hellgren, & Naswall, 2002). In fact, an empirical investigation conducted by Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles, and König (2010) on 320 part-time MBAs attending graduate schools in the Southwest and West Coast of the United States found that job insecurity was significantly associated with deviant behaviour, such as less effort on

the job, working more slowly, taking longer breaks than permitted, and coming in later than allowed.

Whilst to date no one study has looked into the effect of career advancement on cyberdeviance, previous studies found that career advancement is associated with reduced turnover intention (e.g., Jawahar & Hemmasi, 2006; Ito & Brotheridge, 2005; Schnake, Williams, & Fredenberger, 2007; Shahzad, Hussain, Bashir, & Chishti, 2011; Zhao & Zhou, 2008). For instance, Weng and Elroy (2012) used survey data collected from a sample of 396 managers in the People's Republic of China, and found that career growth is negatively related to turnover intentions. In a study to examine the relationship between career stakes, defined as the degree of commitment to one's current job as a long-term employment trajectory, Huiras and McMorris (2000) analysed data from the Youth Development Study (YDS) in 1000 adolescents in St. Paul, Minnesota, USA. Hypothesising that people whose current jobs match their long-term career goals have made a social investment with their employers, they found that career stakes inhibit deviant behaviour.

Based on the previous studies shown above, it appears that when an organization is perceived as not meeting its expected obligation because it fails to implement good HR practices (such as fail to carry out objective and fair assessment of job performance, compensate accordingly the effort and contribution of employees, provide employment security, and develop its employees), it leads to employees engaging in negative behaviour at work. According to Gouldner (1960), this may lead to the employees to reciprocate negatively. According to equity theory, when employees perceive that they are not fairly treated, they will respond in various forms, and engaging in negative behaviour is one of them. In the context of the present study, engaging in cyberdeviance may be seen as a form of response in kind. As concluded

by de Lara (2007) in his study where he observed a negative effect of organizational justice on cyberloafing, "Faced with injustice, the social exchange theory suggests that individuals reciprocate targeting the source of injustice. Under that reasoning, cyberloafing consistently targets the unjust procedural system in which Internet plays such a crucial role" (p. 468). In this day and age where the Internet is widely used to accomplish job performance, it may also be used by the employees as an accessible tool to get back at the organization for failing to meet its obligation. Using the metaphor of ledger, Lim (2002) argued that employees rationalize their engagement in cyberdeviance because they perceive that they have been short-changed in some way in the relationship and cyberdeviance is a form of penalty for taking back something they have accumulated in terms of the services rendered over the years. In other words, in this situation, the employees will be likely respond and reciprocate negatively by engaging in behaviours that are not sanctioned by the organisation as a way to get even.

The significance of a system of HR practices in enhancing organisational performance and organisational effectiveness and reducing negative work outcomes is by creating conditions where employees become highly involved in the organisation and work hard to accomplish the organisation's goals (Arthur, 1994; Wood & de Menezes, 1998). The implementation of good HR practices indicates that employees are the most important asset in the organisation particularly in today's era of competitiveness where management cannot afford to forego potential employees. When an organization implements desirable HR practices (i.e. selection, training, career planning, compensation, performance appraisal, job definition, and employee participation), employees will reciprocate the obligation by being committed to their work. Employees who feel obligated to reciprocate the "good deeds" of the

organisation are less likely to exhibit behaviours that will jeopardise the relationship. In this context, it is unlikely that the employees will reciprocate by engaging in deviant behaviours at work since employees who do so may be perceived as being ungrateful, which may invite reprimand from the employer. According to Blau (1964, p. 94), "only social exchange tends to engender feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust." Since it is in the best interest of the employees to reciprocate in kind, engaging in cyberdeviant activities at work is less likely to happen. Contrastingly, according to this theory, even if the employees engage in cyberdeviance, they may do so to punish the organisation/employer for not fulfilling its obligations (Blau, 1964; Rousseau, 1989) in providing favourable treatment or work environment expected (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; de Lara, 2007, 2009; de Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Lim, 2005; Shamsudin, 2004).

Indeed, according to stimulus-response theory, work environment that is not conducive acts as a stimuli that triggers individuals to cognitively assess the situation and respond accordingly (Homans, 1961). Psychological climate theory also asserts that individuals interpret and assess the work climate around them whether it is good or bad (James, Hater, Gent, & Bruni, 1978; Koys & DeCotiis, 1991; Schneider, 1975). The perception that follows the assessment affects their behavioural response (Lee & Wu, 2011).

Based on the limited evidence, it can be speculated that HR practices in the organisation can have some bearing on cyberdeviance at work. However, such speculation has received very limited empirical attention in previous works and consequently our theoretical understanding on the effect of these variables on cyberdeviance is restricted. But as cyberdeviance is a form of deviant workplace

behaviour, it is possible to conjecture the influence of HR practices, and hence specific HR practices of compensation, performance appraisal, career development, and employment security, on cyberdeviance by invoking the past evidence on HR practices and deviant workplace behaviour in general, and social exchange theory. Hence, the main hypothesis and sub-hypotheses are offered:

H1: When HR practices are perceived favourably by employees, they are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance while at work.

H1a: Employees who perceive performance appraisal practice in their organization favourably are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance.

H1b: Employees who perceive compensation practices favourably are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance.

H1c: Employees who perceive employment security practice favourably are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance.

H1d: Employees who perceive career advancement practice favourably are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance.

2.4.2   Leadership Style and Cyberdeviance

Apart from HR system, leadership is another factor in organizations that is also purported to shape employee responses at work behaviour (e.g., Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Bass, 1998; Fuller et al., 1996; Lian & Tui, 2012; Löwe et al., 1996; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006; Robbins & Judge, 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2004). Leadership theories, such as traits theory or situational leadership theory, propose that constructive leadership determines organizational effectiveness.

Empirical evidence abounds that provide support for such theoretical proposition. Indeed, there is overwhelming research evidence that transformational/transactional leadership style has an important bearing on positive employee work outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour (e.g., Abdulla, Ramdane, & Kamel, 2011; Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010; Awamleh & Al-Dmour, 2005; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Bass, 1998; Darwish & Nusairat, 2008; Lian & Tui, 2012; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Randeree & Chaudry, 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2004; Yousef, 2000). Some meta-analytic reviews (Fuller et al., 1996; Lowe et al., 1996) provide further support. For instance, empirical evidence on the impact of leadership style on positive employee's outcomes is provided by Shahzad, Rehman, and Abbas's (2010) study. They investigated the effects of HR practices and leadership styles on organisational commitment and citizenship behaviours among faculty members in Pakistan. The results revealed that both human resource practices and leadership styles positively predicted organisational commitment. They further argued that transformational and transactional leadership styles may help to develop trust, loyalty, and commitment among the employees. These leadership styles may also help to boost up the employees and provide an environment where all the employees may exhibit extra role behaviours.

While studies on the positive influence of leadership style on work outcomes are abound, scholars have also begun their attention to investigating the role of leaders in reducing negative or deviant work behaviours, as reflected in the steady increase of such work (e.g., Brown & Treviño, 2006; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). But as one will notice later, to date, studies that examined the impact of leadership style, in particular transformational/transactional leadership style, on

cyberdeviance are non-existent. The closest study that attempted to look into the effect of leadership on cyberdeviance was by de Lara and his associates (2006). Even then, they did not study leadership style per se but rather physical leadership proximity, which was found to have a negative effect on cyberloafing. Hence, in in order to hypothesize how and why transformational/transactional leaders are able to discourage employees from engaging in cyberdeviant activities while at work, previous works on the effect of leadership style on deviant workplace behaviours will be drawn.

One of the few studies that looked into the effect of charismatic leadership on deviant behaviour in general was the study by Brown and Treviño (2003). They surveyed 469 employees who worked at the healthcare environment. Charismatic leadership was measured using the 12-item that reflected charismatic leadership in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Using regression analysis, their results indicated that charismatic leadership was associated with lower levels of organizational and interpersonal deviance. Using social exchange theory, they argued that followers of a charismatic leader engage in fewer acts of organizational and interpersonal deviance because they identify with such leader that represents positive, inspirational, and moral values. Furthermore, because the followers internalize those values, they have little motivation to harm them. In addition, because charismatic leaders inspire them to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the team and organization, their engagement in deviant behaviours is not consistent with those moral values internalized. In another study, Brown and Treviño (2006) found similar result in that socialized charismatic leadership was found to reduce deviance in work groups.

Participative leadership style was also considered in the study of deviant behaviour at work. Mulki et al. (2006) in particular examined the effect of participative leadership in organizational deviance through the mediation of emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment using a sample of employees that provide healthcare and social benefits to a large metropolitan county in the USA. They defined participative leaders as those who share problem solving with followers by consulting them before making a decision. Such leaders are perceived to be "supportive and open because they consult subordinates about problems and potential actions, encouraging ideas for solutions" (p. 1224). Their results supported the hypothesis that participative leadership could reduce organizational deviance by reducing emotional exhaustion, which in turn decreases job satisfaction, commitment and deviance at work. However, Hoel et al. (2010) did not find empirical support for the influence of participative leadership on workplace bullying among 5288 employees drawn from 70 organizations across the UK. Their study was part of a nationwide survey of the prevalence of bullying in Great Britain.

In addition to functional leadership style, the effect of dysfunctional or negative leadership (i.e. abusive or destructive leadership) on deviant behaviour has also been considered (e.g., Lian et al., 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009; Thau et al., 2009), which is a form of destructive leadership (Hoel et al., 2010). Abusive leadership is defined as subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact (Tepper, 2000). In a similar vein, Ashforth (1997) described abusive leaders as those who callously and arbitrarily use their power and authority to mistreat employees. Some of the behaviours abusive leaders demonstrate include constantly ridicule subordinates before others, withhold

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important information, use damaging language, threaten, and intimidate others (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002).

In a cross-sectional study conducted by Tepper et al. (2009) with employees from three organizations in the USA to examine the relationships between abusive supervision and subordinates' workplace deviance using power/dependence theory, they found that abusive supervision was more strongly associated with subordinates' organization deviance. Similar result was also reported by a survey carried out by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) among 427 individuals called for a jury duty by a county circuit court in the Southeastern United States. They revealed that abusive supervision was positively related to employee deviance. Moreover, the relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance is stronger for employees with stronger negative reciprocity beliefs.

Hoel et al. (2010) also reported similar finding in that they found empirical support for the role of autocratic leadership, defined as leaders who are directive and willing to apply force to achieve organizational goals, in influencing workplace bullying. According to them, autocratic leadership is one form of abusive leadership because such leaders exhibit behaviours that can be intimidating, threatening, and incomprehensible, which can render the work environment stressful. Thau et al. (2009) also found empirical evidence that individuals who are abused by their supervisor are more likely to engage in workplace deviance than those who are not abused, and that this relationship is heightened when employees perceive that the management is using authoritarian style, which is "rigid, dogmatic, and rule-bound, is generally associated with predictable managerial behaviours" (p. 80).

While it is within expectation that abusive leaders tend to produce negative attitudinal and behavioural responses from employees, such leaders are an exception

rather than a rule. In the words of Mitchell and Ambrose (2007), abusive leadership has a low base rate in organisations, suggesting that it is not common for leaders to resort to such style in many circumstances due to the negative effects it could bring. Hence, the assumption made by previous research works that leaders demonstrate negative character at work by being abusive despite the recognition that abusive leadership is not common is somewhat flawed as those appointed as leaders in the organisation generally understand what their roles and duties are toward the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives and in so doing will at least know how to get their subordinates perform their job (Daft, 2002). Indeed, much leadership training and development is geared toward developing leaders with good leadership qualities and competencies (Hargis et al., 2011), as it is generally thought that good leaders could elicit good behaviours and performance of their employees and hence overall organisational effectiveness (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2011; Lowe et al., 1996; Ozaralli, 2003; Tipu et al., 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2004; Yang & Islam, 2012).

As mentioned earlier, empirical evidence on the influence of leadership style on cyberdeviance is non-existent. The closest study on the effect of leadership on cyberdeviance was carried out by de Lara et al. (2006). They investigated the effect of three coercive variables including physical leadership proximity, fear of formal punishment, and perceived organisational control on cyberloafing. They used data consisting of 178 non-teaching staff in Spanish public universities. The results of the study conclude that leader physical proximity (LPP) is a significant and positive associated antecedent of perceived organisational control (POC) which reduces cyberloafing. de Lara et al. further argued that perceptions of LPP may increase the cyberloafer's psychological sense of leadership presence and thus appear to be particularly influential against cyberloafing.

In a different study, Strader, Simpson, and Clayton (2009) investigated whether being a supervisor makes a difference in their perception toward employees using computer resources for personal activities. A survey was distributed to approximately 100 people in three graduate classes in business administration and public administration. Fourteen personal activities that can be carried out on the Internet were asked. They found that individuals who have supervisory role tended to be less receptive of the employees using the Internet for personal activities while at work. They explained that the supervisors hold such negative perception because they view consequences from a group level rather than an individual level. By aggregating such activities at the group level, the cost and time spent on these activities is perceived as much larger.

As the above discussion on the current state of the art of the literatures, one notices that no studies have been carried out to examine the effect of transformational/transactional leadership style on cyberdeviance. But to theoretically hypothesize how and why such leadership style affects cyberdeviance, social exchange theory is invoked. In addition, theoretical arguments can be made by using the abusive supervision literatures above. The literatures above seem to indicate that leaders have the potential to shape employee behaviours and attitudes (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2011; Lowe et al., 1996; Ozaralli, 2003; Tipu et al., 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2004; Yang & Islam, 2012), because they are individuals who are in the closest proximity with employees at work (de Lara et al., 2006; Ladebo, 2008), and as because they form a significant part of one's job and, thus contribute to making a job a pleasant or unpleasant experience (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Furthermore, according to Kreitner, Kinicki, and Buelens (2002), leaders are considered as agents of the organisation, who are responsible for providing information on organisational goals

and values, implementing policies, scheduling work, setting performance standards, and performing appraisals. Therefore, the quality of the relationship between the leader and the followers can be an important source that motivates the latter to perform well and develop positive work attitudes (Ladebo, 2008).

Furthermore, as leaders are the individuals the employees have to interact with constantly at work, the employees look up to them for support and guidance. According to social exchange theory, employees expect that their leaders to give fair and favourable treatment to them as a form of their social and moral obligation at work (Thau et al., 2009). Indeed, Mayer, Thau, Workman, Dijke, & Cremer (2012) showed that leader mistreatment, measured as abusive supervision, was associated with employee deviant behaviour. They explained that this is because leaders who are perceived as mistreating the employees make them experience hostility at work. They further contended that when employees are mistreated, it serves as a signal that they are not thought of as competent, valued, and respected, which invokes strong negative reaction in the form of deviant behaviour.

Within the context of social exchange theory, leaders are expected to be fair in their dealings with employees (Mayer et al., 2012). But leaders are also expected to play a developmental role so that employees could develop and grow in their career (e.g., Avolio et al., 1995, 1999; Bass, 1985, 1998; Ismail et al., 2009), as part of their higher-order needs. In this situation, transactional leaders are seen to be fair when they can offer something in return in exchange for what has been produced by the employees. For instance, transactional leaders offer reward the employees need in return for the latter's energy and time devoted to the accomplishment of the job. Alternatively, transactional leaders use punishment to correct improper behaviour and performance. Because transactional leaders tend to be more task-oriented, they lead

by providing constant feedback to the employees on their performance achievement (Bass & Avolio, 1995). As transactional leaders are more concerned with day-to-day tasks, they tend to be short-term in their focus (Dunham & Klafehn, 1990). But according to the needs theory by Maslow, individuals also seek higher-order needs and leaders are expected to help the employees to achieve these needs. To do this, leaders are expected to have transformational qualities and competencies. Transformational leaders are those who are considered as "inspiring leaders". They are a source of inspiration for employees as they facilitate the employees to broaden their interest in work and to demonstrate innovativeness and creativity toward the accomplishment of their job performance. Transformational leaders also treat each employee as an individual and are attentive to the unique needs, capabilities and concerns of each individual (Bass, 1985). They also consider the individual's developmental and growth needs. Managers who demonstrate individualized consideration often coach, mentor, and counsel their subordinates. As transformational leaders go beyond the accomplishment of daily tasks and performance of the employees, they are future-oriented leaders in that not only they are concerned with transforming the way the organisation runs its course in the future but they are also equally concerned in transforming the employees so that they could possess appropriate skills and capabilities to meet the future requirements. As asserted by the needs theory, as employees are concerned with both lower and higher order needs, leaders are expected to be able to exhibit both leadership styles. Indeed, as argued by Bass and his associates (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 1995), the best leader is one who is both transformational and transactional.

Contrastingly, it can also be argued that when leaders are not able to demonstrate well their leadership capabilities (i.e. being transformational and

transformational), they will invoke negative reactions from the employees. Social exchange theory posits that when employees perceive that their leader are supportive of their work and are concerned about their welfare and future well-being, they tend to reciprocate by demonstrating positive and functional behaviours, and have less tendency to engage in deviant behaviour at work (Chullen, Dunford, Angermeier, Boss, & Boss, 2010). From the perspective of organizational support theory, good leadership is a form of support an organization provides to the employees toward the accomplishment of organizational performance (Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2009). When the employees perceive that such support is provided by the organization, they will respond by demonstrating good behaviour. On the other hand, the employees are likely to respond to their leaders who are seen to be abusive or unsupportive in a negative manner when (e.g., Lian et al., 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009; Thau et al., 2009), as espoused by the negative reciprocity principle (Gouldner, 1960). In a recent meta-analytic study that looked at more than 200 studies on the effects of destructive leadership, defined as "a process in which over a longer period of time the activities, experiences and/or relationships of an individual or the members of a group are repeatedly influenced by their supervisor in a way that is perceived as hostile and/or obstructive" (p. 141), on work outcomes, Schyns and Schilling (2013) confirmed their expectation that the highest correlation arises between destructive leadership and attitudes towards the leader. They also found that the next highest correlation was between destructive leadership and counterproductive work behaviour. One possible negative reaction the employees can resort to is increasing frequency of spending time unnecessarily on the Internet for non-work related purposes. By doing so, the Internet can be seen as a tool in which the employees use to get back at their leaders for their unfavourable behaviour.

According to Bennett and Robinson (2000), if employees feel that their leaders are frustrating them by not demonstrating expected leadership behaviour, they are likely to take out their frustration in surreptitious ways, by harming the organization via sabotage. Hence, the following hypothesis is offered:

H2: When employees perceive favourably their leadership style, they are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance at work.

> *H2a: Employees who perceive leaders to exhibit transformational style are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance.*

> *H2b: Employees who perceive leaders to exhibit transactional style are less likely to engage in cyberdeviance.*

2.4.3   The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction in HR-Cyberdeviance Link

It has been said that HRM is composed of the policies, practices, and systems that influence employees' behaviour, attitude, and performance (Guest, 1997, 2001; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2009). However, many scholars believe that the HRM practices and policies do not directly shape employee attitudes and behaviour; rather there exists a generative mechanism that explains how those practices are able to influence them (e.g., Huselid & Becker, 2011; Jiang, Lepak, Hu, & Baer, 2012). Within the HR literatures, the integration of mediation or moderation is possibly employed to help explain further how and why HR practices lead to cyberdeviance at work.

The present study considers job satisfaction as a possible mediating mechanism in enhancing our theoretical understanding the effects of HR practices on

cyberdeviance. The present study argues that it is possible to theoretically conjecture the link because separate and distinct studies have shown that HR practices have generally been found to positively affect job satisfaction (e.g., Absar et al., 2010; Edgar & Geare, 2005; Gould-Williams, 2003; Goyal & Shrivastava, 2012; Hunjra et al., 2010; Javed et al., 2012; Mumtaz, Khan, Aslam, & Ahmad, 2012; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Poon, 2004; Širca et al., 2012), and job satisfaction has also been shown to be associated with specific deviant behaviour outcomes such as absenteeism (e.g., Hausknecht et al., 2008; Scott & Taylor, 1985), turnover (Singh & Loncar, 2010; Wang & Yi, 2011), theft (Greenberg, 1990; Greengerd & Scott, 1996; Kulas, McInnerney, DeMuth, & Jadwinski, 2007), and even general deviant workplace behaviour (e.g., Darratt et al., 2010; Judge et al., 2006; Kidwell & Valentine, 2009; Mount et al., 2006). For instance, a study conducted by Mount et al. (2006) on 141 employees in customer service positions in 10 fast food stores of a large national chain in the USA found the indirect relationships of personality to CPBs through the mediating effects of job satisfaction. The results indicated that job satisfaction had a direct relationship to both individual counterproductive work behaviour (CPB-I) and organizational counterproductive work behaviour (CPB-O). In addition, job satisfaction was found to partially mediate the relationship between agreeableness and both CPB-O and CPB-I. Similar finding was also reported by Judge et al. (2006) in which job satisfaction was found to mediate between interpersonal justice and workplace deviance. In short, by integrating these two distinct streams of research, it is possible to theorize a link between HR practices and cyberdeviance, mediated by job satisfaction.

Arguing that previous works tended to neglect the mediating processes especially when the evidence seems to indicate a weak relationship between HR

practices and firm performance, Gardner, Moyhihan, Park, and Wright (2001) examined the role of job satisfaction and organizational commitment as potential mediators that link between HR practices and employee absenteeism and turnover. Using a sample of 174 independent work groups in one of the largest food service distributors in the USA, they generally found empirical support that work attitudes of satisfaction and commitment mediated the effect of HR practices on employee absenteeism and turnover. HR practices were categorised based on whether they were skill enhancing practices (e.g., training, career development, and educational opportunities), motivation enhancing practices (e.g., pay raises and promotion opportunities), and empowerment enhancing practices (e.g., complaint process, participation in decision making, and communication). But they found that skill practices increased turnover. They argued that "If the firm does not compensate employees in accordance with their increased value in the market, outside firms will lure (poach) them away with offers of a market based wage" (p. 35).

As indicated earlier, many have shown that employees are likely to develop positive affect and attitude when they perceive that the organization they work in implement HR practices that are perceived to be favourable (e.g., Edgar & Geare, 2005; Gould-Williams, 2003; Poon, 2004; Širca et al., 2012). Consistent with psychological climate theory (James et al., 1978; Koys & DeCotiis, 1991; Schneider, 1975), good HR practise set a conducive work conditions and environment that make the employees feel satisfied and motivated toward the accomplishment of their job performance (Lee & Wu, 2011). Several scholars (e.g., James & James, 1989; James et al., 1978; Koys & DeCotiis, 1991; Schneider, 1975) noted that employees develop a general perception of their work environment based on their cognitive interpretation and assessment of whether the psychological climate is good or bad. As noted by Lee

and Wu (2011), the good or bad experience with the organization consequently results in the employees being satisfied and proud with it. In fact, studies have shown that when HR practices perceived to be favourable by employee it would create sense of fairness and justice which make employee more satisfied with their jobs (e.g., Absar et al., 2010; Gould-Williams, 2003; Edgar & Geare, 2005; Poon, 2004), which subsequently determines their behavioural responses at work.

Social exchange theory proposes that when employees are satisfied that the organization has met its expected obligation by providing a conducive work environment or climate, there is no reason for them to jeopardise and harm this relationship by engaging in negative behaviours such as cyberdeviance. This is consistent with the principle of norms of reciprocity that spells out that when one person treats another well, the reciprocity norm obliges the return of favourable treatment (Gouldner, 1960). So, when the employees return the favourable treatment with something that is not in kind, they are seen as being ungrateful (Blau, 1964), as "only social exchange tends to engender feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust" (p. 94). Alternatively, when the employees feel dissatisfied because the organization is not able to meet its social obligation in providing a work environment that is conducive, they can retaliate by demonstrating negative behaviour such as spending their work time on the Internet on matter that are not related to work. Cyberdeviance in this case can be seen as a response toward the organization for reneging its obligation and psychological contract (Rousseau, 2004). According to Farrell (1983), dissatisfied individuals at work have theoretically four possible behavioural responses: exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, and Mainous (1988) defined the concepts as follows (p. 601):

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"Exit refers to leaving an organization by quitting, transferring, searching for a different job or thinking about quitting. Voice describes actively and constructively trying to improve conditions through discussing problems with a supervisor or co-workers, taking action to solve problems, suggesting solutions, seeking help from an outside agency like a union, or whistle-blowing. Loyalty means passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve—giving public and private support to the organization, waiting and hoping for improvement, or practicing good citizenship. Neglect refers to passively allowing conditions to deteriorate through reduced interest or effort, chronic lateness or absences, using company time for personal business, or increased error rate."

Thus, according to the above conceptual definition, cyberdeviance is a form of neglect as dissatisfied employees respond to the unfavourable work conditions by misusing the Internet to engage in non-work related purposes during the company's time. Drawing from organizational support theory, good leaders can be a form of support the organization provides. When the employees perceive that the organizational support is available, they will be satisfied and hence perform well. Indeed, perceived organizational support has been found to be associated with increased job satisfaction (Harris, Harris, & Harvey, 2008; Ladebo, 2008; Miao, 2011), and hence less cyberdeviant at work.

Hence, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H3: Employees who perceive HR practices as being favourable are more satisfied with their job, and hence are less likely to engage in cyberdeviant activities while at work

2.4.4 The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction in Leadership Style-Cyberdeviance Link

Like HR-job satisfaction-cyberdeviance link, we can also postulate a similar theoretical relationship between leadership-job satisfaction-cyberdeviance by invoking social exchange theory and previous works. Furthermore, it also possible to conjecture the leadership-satisfaction-cyberdeviance link since separate and disparate studies can be identified from the literature on leadership-job satisfaction relationship, and on job satisfaction-cyberdeviance link. For instance, studies have shown that effective leadership style is able to enhance employee satisfaction with their job (e.g., Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Bass, 1998; Lian & Tui, 2012; Randeree & Chaudry, 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2004). In their study to examine the effect of leadership style on work outcomes amongst managers in the UAE construction industry, Randeree and Chaudry (2012) observed that company leadership strongly influenced job satisfaction, where people-centred or participative leadership style determines job satisfaction. In a different study by Al-Ababneh and Lockwood (2010) to examine the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction of employees amongst 220 respondents (110 line employees and 110 managers) in Jordanian resort hotels, they revealed that the most prevalent style used by managers was democratic, which had influence on the subordinate job satisfaction.

In a different study by Awamleh and Dmour (2005) amongst 155 employees in Jordanian banking sector, they observed that transformational leadership had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction. They maintained that qualities of a transformational leader (charisma and inspiration, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation) will enable the leader to elicit positive reactions from employees. They also revealed that when employees tended to be satisfied with their job when the leader clearly spells out performance targets and expectations thereby making patent performance-reward linkages.

Since to date no study has yet to consider the leadership-job satisfaction-cyberdeviance link simultaneously in a single study, the present study intends to fill this gap to enhance further understanding on why people engage in cyberdeviance at work.

As we indicated earlier, leadership behaviours are considered important in being able to elicit positive work outcomes among subordinates (Barling et al., 1996; Berson, Shamair, Avolio, & Popper, 2001; Bryman, 1992; Emery & Barker, 2007; Howell & Frost, 1989; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Tsai, Chen, & Cheng, 2009; Zacharatos, Barling, & Kelloway, 2000). Researchers argue that transactional and transformational leaders are able to elicit job satisfaction among employees because they fulfil their lower and higher order needs, respectively (e.g., Hargis et al., 2011; Hoffman et al., 2011). Theoretically speaking, transactional leaders are able to fulfil the lower order of the employees. Contingent reward is one of the lower order needs that drive people (Maslow, 1943). Transactional leaders offer reward the employees need in return for the latter's energy and time devoted to the accomplishment of the job. To enable the employees to perform their task and be contingently rewarded, transactional leaders lead by

providing constant feedback to the employees on their performance achievement (Bass & Avolio, 1995). On the other hand, transformational leaders are theorised to be able to meet the employees' higher order needs because they heighten the employees' self-awareness, instil a sense of purpose and mission, and influence them to transcend their personal needs for the sake of the long-term benefit of the organisation (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Hoffman et al., 2011). Needs theory posits that met needs will elicit satisfaction in individuals; individuals tend to be satisfied when their needs are met.

Leaders who exhibit transformational and transactional qualities are said to be supportive of their employees in meeting the employees' personal needs (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Chullen et al., 2010). In fact, one of the four dimensions of transformational leadership, which is individual consideration, describes the leader as providing support and encouragement by giving personal attention to and successfully advising followers. Indeed, perceived organizational support has been found to be associated with increased job satisfaction (Harris et al., 2008; Ladebo, 2008; Miao, 2011). Drawing from social exchange theory, employees who are satisfied with their leaders for having met their expected obligation of providing the necessary support at work toward the accomplishment of personal goals and objectives are less likely to reciprocate in a negative manner because such negative response will harm and jeopardise the relationship. From the perspective of organizational support theory, good leaders can be a form of support the organization provides. When the employees perceive that the organizational support is available, they will be satisfied and hence perform well. Indeed, perceived organizational support has been found to be associated with increased job satisfaction (Harris et al., 2008; Ladebo, 2008; Miao, 2011), and hence less cyberdeviant at work. Studies mentioned in the earlier section

indicated the influence of job satisfaction on workplace deviance (e.g., Darratt et al., 2010; Judge et al., 2006; Kidwell & Valentine, 2009; Mount et al., 2006).

Hence, the following hypothesis is developed:

H4: Employees who perceive their leaders as exhibiting favourable leadership style are more satisfied with their job, and hence are less likely to engage in cyberdeviant activities while at work

2.5   PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL

Based on the above discussion on the research hypotheses in particular, the relationships between HR practices, leadership style, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance can be diagrammed as shown in Figure 2.7.
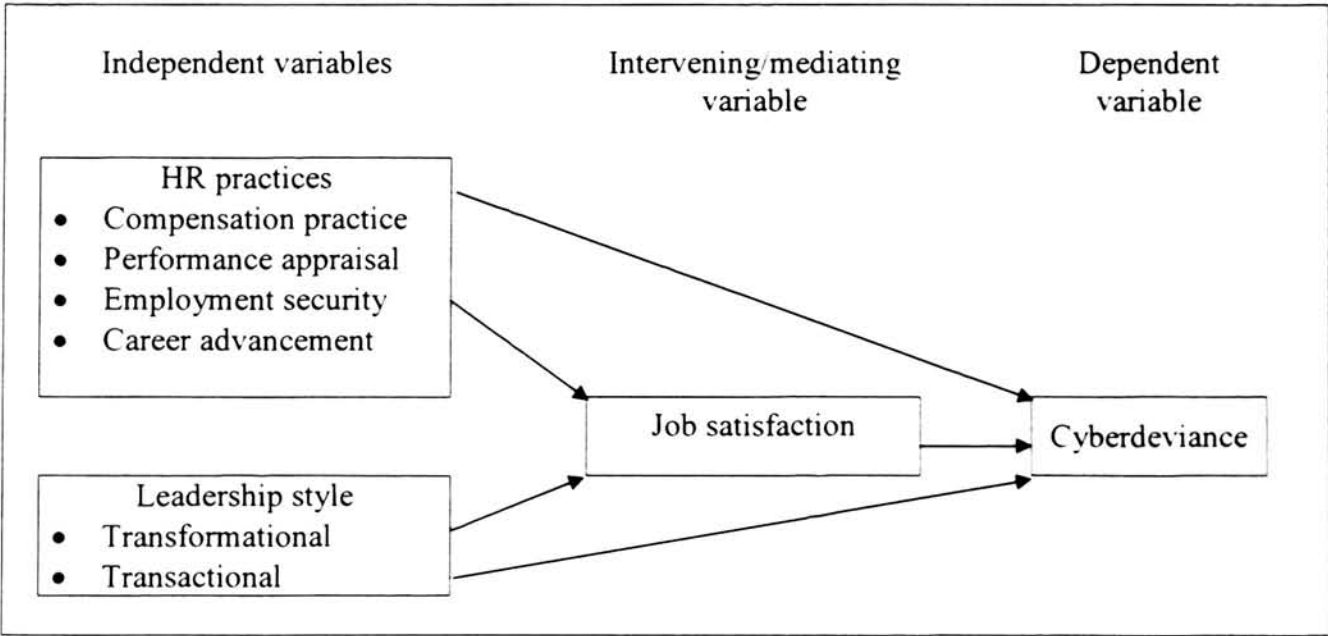
Figure 2.7
Research framework

Based on the above diagram, it is proposed that HR practices and leadership could directly influence or indirectly influence cyberdeviance through job satisfaction. In the proposed direct link, it is conjectured that when employees perceive favourably the implementation of HR practices and the leadership style at work, they will be less likely to engage in cyberdeviance. It is also hypothesized that the favourable perceptions of employees of these organisational practices (HR and leadership) will make the employees satisfied, which will translate into reduced likelihood that they will engage in cyberdeviant activities while at work.

The above diagram of research framework can be understood from social exchange theoretical perspective (Blau, 1964). To reiterate, this theory expounds that the social relationship between an employer and employees is based on exchanges that are reciprocated in kind. In this context of employment relationship, employees perform their job duties in return for some expected combination of economic and relational rewards from their employers (Lim, 2002). When employees perceive that their employers have not lived up to their end of the bargain, employees will be motivated to reinstate the "equilibrium" in some way. In order to balance the employment relationship employees are expected to reciprocate negatively (Gouldner, 1960). Upon the ideas offered by social exchange, as well existing workplace deviance research, the relationship in this research suggests that when employees perceive that they have been unjustly treated by their employers in terms of poor HR practices and leadership, they will become dissatisfied with their job and hence motivated to respond in a dysfunctional way by engaging in cyberdeviant activities while at work.

2.6   Summary

This chapter has presented and discussed existing literatures on the study of cyberdeviance in particular. Appendix A summarizes the main studies in cyberdeviance. It began by explaining the important concepts used in the present study i.e. cyberdeviance, HR practices, leadership, and job satisfaction. Despite the limited number of studies that directly link HR practices, leadership style, and job satisfaction to cyberdeviance, this chapter has theoretically conjectured the effects of HR practices and leadership style by invoking literatures on general deviant workplace behaviour and social exchange theory. The use of literatures on general deviant behaviour is appropriate as cyberdeviance is a form of production deviance, which is exhibited to target the organization as the perpetrator. In the context of social exchange, cyberdeviance is committed by employees while at work because the organization is perceived to fail in meeting its expected obligation in providing the necessary support in terms of HR practices and leadership, which invoke the feeling of dissatisfaction. When the employees are not satisfied with their work, they tend to respond in a negative way, and cyberdeviance is one possible behavioural responses available to them.

In the following chapter, a detailed discussion on how the present study attempted to test these hypotheses is offered. Pertinent methodological issues such as sampling, data collection, measurement, and data analysis will also be discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a review of the relevant literatures and an exposition of how the research hypotheses are formulated has been presented. Specifically, there are four major hypotheses the present study intends to examine, and six sub-hypotheses. In this chapter, a description of the research method employed for the study is offered. It explains in detail how the study was practically carried out in terms of sample selection, data collection, and instrumentation, toward addressing the research questions and meeting the research objectives outlined in the first chapter. This chapter is organized as follows: firstly, it begins with a discussion on the research design used. This is then followed by sample size, the method of data collection and the procedure, then the measurement of variable under the study, the questionnaire development, data analysis and finally the summary of the chapter. But first, an epistemological position of the current study is elaborated.

3.2 PHILOSOPHICAL POSITION OF THE STUDY

According to Trigg (1985, as cited in Blaikie, 1993), empirical social science must start from a properly articulated philosophical base for it to be successful. Two most important concepts in the philosophy of science are ontology and epistemology. While ontology asks questions such as "What is reality and what is it form and

nature?" epistemology asks questions about the nature of the relationship between the knower and what can be known. Epistemology is therefore theory of knowledge (what is knowledge and how one can justify knowledge and what criteria such knowledge must satisfy in order to be called knowledge and not simply beliefs [which are deemed to be unscientific]?) (Blaikie, 1993). Such ontological and epistemological questions do not produce simple, straightforward answers; rather, various schools of thoughts have been established to defend their philosophical paradigm in relation to social science research.

While there are many research/philosophical paradigms can be identified, two opposing views can be identified: positivism and interpretivism. Each paradigm is associated with its own ontological and epistemological views. In positivism, only those in the social world that can be observed are considered real (ontology) and hence knowledge is obtained by applying sensory experience (Blaikie, 1993). "For the positivist, science is an attempt to gain predictive and explanatory knowledge of the external world" (Keat & Urry, 1975, p. 4, as cited in Blaikie, 1993, p. 95). Because knowledge is obtained through sensory experience, the positivists therefore insist that social phenomenon can be understood by applying methods of natural science such as experimentation, survey, field studies etc. In essence, positivistic philosophy lies in the belief that the world is already out there waiting to be explored and researched.

On the other hand, interpretivism is entirely the opposite of positivism. Ontologically speaking, interpretivists believe that "social reality is a product of processes by which social actors together negotiate the meanings for actions and situations; it is a complex of socially constructed meanings" (Blaikie, 1993, p. 96). Epistemologically therefore knowledge is obtained through engagement with everyday concepts and meanings. Blaikie put this succinctly, "The social researcher

enters the everyday social world in order to grasp the socially constructed meanings,
and then reconstructs these meanings in social scientific language (p. 96). In sum,
interpretivists do not believe that the world is already out there waiting to be
discovered; rather its discovery is a product of negotiations between social actors. As
this philosophical paradigm is founded on meanings social actors give to the social
reality, in-depth interviews or ethnography that allows the researcher to understand
the constructions of social meanings are some of the ways knowledge is obtained.

Table 3.1 summarizes key differences between these two philosophical
paradigms.

Table 3.1
Key Differences between Positivism and Interpretivism

Metatheoretical assumptions about	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology	Person (researcher) and reality are separate.	Person (researcher) and reality are inseparable (life-world).
Epistemology	Objective reality exists beyond the human mind.	Knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted through a person is lived experience.
Research object	Research object has inherent qualities that exists independently of the researcher.	Research object is interpreted in light of meaning structure of person is (researcher is) lived experience.
Method	Statistics, content analysis.	Hermeneutics, phenomenology, etc.

Source: Weber (2004)

Based on the above explanation, quantitative approach to doing a research in
social science is consistent with positivist tradition while qualitative methodology is

commonly associated with interpretivism. Hence, the present study is understandably located within positivism.

3.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information (Blumberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2008; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2009). It is a framework or blueprint that plans the action for the research project. In the words of Sekaran (2003), a research design details out how a study is to be carried out and it involves a number of methodological issues. According to Sekaran, these issues pertain to (a) purpose of study; (b) types of investigation; (c) extent of researcher interference; (d) study setting; (e) time horizon; and (f) unit of analysis. The discussion of each issue is offered next.

Sekaran (2003) notes that a study can be conducted for the purpose of exploring a phenomenon, hence, exploratory research, or for describing a phenomenon, hence descriptive research, or for testing some hypotheses, hence explanatory research. While an exploratory study is carried out to better comprehend the nature of the problem because limited knowledge in the area exists, a descriptive research intends to ascertain and describe the characteristics of the phenomenon under study by, for example, calculating the frequencies or percentages. Finally, an explanatory research intends to uncover the nature of relationships in the social world. The present study is an explanatory research as it attempts to test hypotheses in order to confirm or refute relationships between and among variables of interest. In this context, the present study specifically intends to look into how HR practices and

leadership are linked with cyberdeviance through the mediating effect of job satisfaction, and whether such theoretical linkages hold true. In other words, as hypotheses testing were involved, the present study employed a deductive approach in that the hypotheses were tested to validate and re-confirm the applicability of certain theories.

Type of investigation pertains to whether a study should be causal or correlational in nature to meet the research objectives set. If a researcher wishes to delineate the *cause* of why a social phenomenon occurs, then the study is called causal. On the other hand, if the researcher is only interested in discovering associations, then the study is called correlational. Because the present study does not attempt to specifically establish cause-and-effect relationship, but rather intends to examine how HR practices and leadership are associated with job satisfaction and consequently cyberdeviance, the present study is therefore correlational in nature.

Closely linked with the type of investigation is the extent of interference of a researcher with the normal flow of events. As the present study is correlational in nature, the researcher's interference with the natural flow of events is limited to the distribution of questionnaires without any conscious attempt to manipulate or modify the work systems etc. In other words, because questionnaires are used to represent the researcher as a method to gather and collect data, the present study involves an unobtrusive measure.

The next issue deals with whether the research setting is contrived or otherwise. As the present study was conducted in a natural work environment where work proceeds normally, the research setting is a noncontrived one. A contrived setting is where a study is normally conducted in a lab-like environment that allows the researcher to manipulate the environment to establish a cause-and-effect

relationship. In the present study, a survey was carried out in selected universities across Amman, Jordan. As participants were only asked to complete the survey, this mode of data collection did not any way disrupt the way they worked. In fact, they were asked to complete the survey when they were free to do so.

Because the present study intends to get a cross-sectional description of the issues at hand and not concerned with changes that take place across time and place, data were collected once during the whole period of the research work. The data were collected once the final questionnaires were available after taking into account the modifications that had to be incorporated for the final study. In this context, the study was cross-sectional as opposed to being longitudinal in which data are collected more than once throughout the study period (Sekaran, 2003).

In the present study, an individual level of analysis was used to analyse the data. By definition, unit of analysis refers to the type of unit a researcher uses when measuring the variables (Neuman, 1997). It is used to explain the units themselves. It refers to what is being analysed in the study. The individual data was considered as the unit of analysis because the data were collected from each participant who participated in the survey. Each individual data were then summed as an aggregate so that individual responses could not be directly identified. Such measure to protect the individual identity was taken to meet the ethical requirements and standards when conducting social surveys and to ensure that the participants were at ease that their responses would remain confidential and hence encouraged them to respond honestly to the survey questions (Crow & Wiles, 2008; Whelan, 2007). More on this is offered the related section. In sum, the unit of analysis employed was individual as the researcher is interested in understanding individual perception of the phenomenon under study.

To achieve the research objectives outlined earlier, the main research design of the present study is survey because this design is consistent with the claim that surveys are conducted to quantify certain factual information (Zikmund et al., 2009). Furthermore, this design enables the researcher to reach a greater number of companies that are geographically dispersed (Babbie, 2002; Sekaran, 2003) at relatively low costs (Zikmund et al., 2009). Surveys are useful in describing the characteristics of a large population. No other method of observation can provide this general capability. For the purpose of this study, a survey was conducted to find out the relationships between the HR practices, leadership style, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance using questionnaires. The survey design was appropriate in the present study because it attempts to describe the phenomenon of cyberdeviance by soliciting general opinions and perspectives of the participants who come from various higher educational institutions in Jordan.

Next, a discussion on population of the study and how the elements in the population were selected as sample of the study is presented.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Population is defined by Cooper and Schindler (2008) as those people, events, or records that contain the desired information and can answer the measurement questions. In this study, the population was all administrative staff employees who work at universities in Amman, Jordan. This group of employees was considered because they play a significant role in providing support to both the academics and management alike toward the accomplishment of the university's goals and objectives. Furthermore, unlike faculty members whose job tends to be more varied,

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administrative staff employees such as administrators, clerks, and secretaries tend to have more routine and structured jobs (Shamsudin, 1993). Studies indicate that such jobs tend to be less interesting (e.g., Shamsudin, 1993), and because administrative employees are likely to work using computers, access to the Internet and hence probability of engaging in cyberdeviance is likely (de Lara, 2007, 2009). The participation of administrative employees as a research sample was also evident in previous studies by de Lara (2007, 2009), and de Lara and Verano-Tacoronte (2007).

The present study also excluded top level managers because this study examines their leadership style. Furthermore, because top level managers are the ones who normally develop policies on human resources to be translated into practices, it is therefore not deemed appropriate to get their opinions on the practices being implemented, as they would be biased in their views.

Table 3.2
Governates of Jordan and Number of Universities

No.	Governate	No. of universities
1.	Ajloun	1
2.	Amman	10
3.	Aqaba	2
4.	Balqa	2
5.	Irbid	4
6.	Jerash	2
7.	Kerak	1
8.	Ma'an	2
9.	Madaba	1
10.	Mafraq	1
11.	Tafilah	1
12.	Zarqa	2
Total number of universities		**29**

Source: Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (2010)

Universities in the capital city of Amman were chosen for several reasons. Firstly, Jordan aims to become the education hub in the Middle Eastern region (Akour & Shannak, 2012), and towards this objective the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan has invested heavily in the establishment of its higher education sector and this can be witnessed with the growing number of institutions of higher learning such as universities (Kanaan, Al-Salamat, & Hanania, 2010). Out of the 12 governates in Jordan, the Governate of Amman has the biggest number of universities as shown in Table 3.2. For this reason, the present study focussed on the Amman Governate.

Table 3.3

Number of Administrative Staff Employees in Universities in Amman in Academic Year 2010/2011

No.	Universities	Ownership	No. of admin employees
1.	The University of Jordan	Public	3035
2.	German Jordanian University	Private	158
3.	Amman Arab Uni. for Graduate Studies	Private	78
4.	Middle East Uni. for Graduate Studies	Private	123
5.	Applied Science Uni. (Private)	Private	606
6.	Al-Isra Private University	Private	437
7.	University of Petra	Private	312
8.	Princess Sumaya Uni. for Technology	Public	137
9.	Al-Zaytoonah Private University	Private	517
	TOTAL		**5403**

Source: Annual Statistical Report on Higher Education in Jordan (2011)

As shown in Table 3.2, there are 10 universities in Amman, Jordan. Out of 10 universities, only two are public or government-funded universities while the remaining are private universities. Because the universities located in Amman vary in size in which public universities tend to be bigger in terms of number of employees, students, and land area, to name a few, while private universities tend to be smaller as they have to find their own funding resources, therefore the number of administrative

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staff employees is also different from public and private universities. Even though there are 10 universities in Amman, one of them was considered in a pilot study (see later section). So Table 3.3 shows the difference in the number of administrative staff at the nine universities only located across Amman (Annual Statistical Report on Higher Education in Jordan, 2011), which were used to identify the population size.

3.4.1 Sample and Sample Size

Sampling is the process whereby some elements from the population are selected to represent the whole population (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). According to Sekaran (2003), a sample is a subset of a population comprising of a selection of members of the particular population. This is in agreement with Trochim and Donnelly (2006), who defines a sample as a group of people that have been selected to be in the study. Some writers (e.g. Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2009) noted that sampling is used for practical reasons. When the population is too big and scattered, it is practical to sample so as to save money, time and effort. Furthermore, errors could be avoided especially when one has to deal with a huge population size.

One pertinent issue in sampling is how big a sample size should be considered so that researchers can have some degree of confidence in generalizing the findings to the population and hence interpreting the results. But according to Pallant (2007), there is little consensus amongst scholars about the appropriate sample size but they generally tend to agree that a bigger sample is better as a smaller sample tends to result in unreliable correlation coefficients and results in statistical insignificance (Zikmund et al., 2009). Roscoe (1975) maintained that, as a general rule of thumb, sample size between 30 and 500 could be considered effective depending on the type

of sampling design and research question investigated; but in multivariate inquiries, the sample size should be several times larger, preferably 10 times, than the variables of the study, so as to achieve statistical significance.

One of the popular methods for determining sample size is Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sampling table (Bartlett, Kortlik, & Higgins, 2001), which assumes an alpha of .05 and a degree of accuracy of .05. In the present study, the population size is 5,403. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), for a population size of 5,403, the sample size should be around 361. The Krejcie and Morgan's sample size determination was also compared to a more recent method such as GPower.

According to Prajapati, Dunne, and Armstrong (2010), GPower 3 is capable of computing five different types of power analyses. One of them is a priori power analysis. This is the most relevant to sample size estimation, as it involves determining the sample size required for any specified power, alpha level, and effect size. According to Cohen (1992), the statistical power is important to determine the probability that rejecting a false null hypotheses (H_0), which involves engaging in Type II error. He further argued that to avoid from making a Type II error, statistical power is conventionally set at 0.80 or 80%. In other words, there is a 20% chance of accepting the null hypothesis in error, i.e. beta is 0.20 or 20% (Prajapati et al., 2010). Cohen (1992) further noted that "A materially smaller value would result incur too great risk of a Type II error. A materially larger value would result in a demand for N that is likely to exceed the investigator's resources" (p. 156). With regards to a, or alpha, Cohen (1992) recommended a value of 0.05 to help researchers from committing a risk of mistakenly rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0). In a similar vein, Bartlett et al. (2001) noted that in general, an alpha level of .05 is acceptable for most research.

Another element in GPower that needs to be considered is the effect size. Effect size is defined as the degree to which the H_0 is believed to be false (Cohen, 1992). To test this, H_0 is normally set against an alternate hypothesis (H_1). Cohen further noted that the "the degree to which H_0 is false is indexed by the discrepancy between H_0 and H_1" (p. 156). As each statistical test has its own index, Cohen developed a scale to give meaning to any given ES index. He proposed as conventions small, medium, and large values. For test of significance of a sample r, the ES values are set as .10, .30, and .50 to indicate small, medium, and large values. In this study, the value was set at .10. The number of predictors set was 6 since there are four HR practices and two types of leadership styles. Based on these input parameters, the sample size calculated was 215.

Besides GPower calculation, the Cochran's formula was also applied to determine the sample size. According to Bartlett et al. (2001), Cochran's formula is also frequently used in addition to Krejcie and Morgan's, but is different because the latter assumes an alpha of .05 and a degree of accuracy of .05. In Cochran's formula, the researcher determines the alpha value and the degree of accuracy, depending on the purpose of the research.

The Cochran's formula is shown as follows:

$$n_0 = \frac{(t)^2 * (s)^2}{(d)^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2 * (1.25)^2}{(6*.03)^2}$$

Where,

t = value for selected alpha level of .025 in each tail = 1.96 (the alpha level of .05 indicates the level of risk the researcher is willing to take that true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error)

s = estimate of standard deviation in the population = 1.167 (estimate of variance deviation for 5 point scale calculated by using 5 [inclusive range of scale] divided by 4 [number of standard deviations that include almost all (approximately 98%) of the possible values in the range])

d = acceptable margin of error for mean being estimated = .18 (number of points on primary scale * acceptable margin of error; points on primary scale = 6; acceptable margin of error = .03 [error researcher is willing to except]).

By identifying the relevant parameters of alpha value (set at .05, as this is the generally acceptable value in social science research), margin of error of 3%, which is acceptable for continuous data, variance of scales variables (set as 1.25 [5 point on the scale divided by 4 standard deviations that could capture 98% of all respondents]), the sample size determined was 185. Since this sample size did not exceed 5% of the population (5,403*.05 = 270), the correction formula was not applied (for a brief introduction on Cochran's formula, refer to Bartlett et al. [2001]).

Based on GPower calculation and Cochran's formula, the sample size determined using Krejcie and Morgan's formula was appropriate as it was not smaller than the GPower's or Cochran's.

3.4.2 Sampling Technique or Design

When sampling from a population, one issue that needs to be considered is the sampling design (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Generally speaking, there are two types of sampling design: probability sampling and nonprobability sampling. Probability sampling is based on the process of random selection, which means that each element

in the population has an equal chance of being selected as a subject in the sample, while nonprobability sampling denotes the notion that the sample selection is based on a random process (Singleton & Straits, 2005). In other words, the selection process of probability sampling reduces the likelihood that the selection is made based on chance alone. But the same cannot be true for nonprobability sampling design as the selection made may be based on chance. The allowance of chance in the selection process introduces investigator bias, and this may invalidate the generalizability of the findings. The use of nonprobability sampling design also does not permit the application of "mathematical probability theory for estimating sample accuracy" (Singleton & Straits, 2005, p. 146). This means that data collected using nonprobability sampling design are not suitable to be analysed using parametric testing such as regression analysis (Sekaran, 2003). Due to the many limitations of nonprobability sampling, probability sampling was therefore selected.

For each sampling design, there are different types of sampling techniques. In nonprobability sampling, sample can selected using convenience, purposive, and quota sampling techniques, while simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, and systematic sampling are techniques in probability sampling. Simple random sampling involves choosing a sample of individuals from a larger set of population where each individual has an equal chance of being selected. Systematic sampling involves selection of a sample from an ordered sampling frame where each individual has an equal probability of getting selected. In this method, the selection of the individuals is made by progressing through the list of individuals in the sampling frame. The top of the list is again referred to once the list has ended. Stratified random sampling is a technique where members of the population are divided into homogenous subgroups based on certain categories under study. Lastly,

cluster sampling involves a researcher dividing the total population into groups (clusters), which are then selected using a simple random technique.

In probability sampling design, regardless of the technique chosen, according to Gay and Diehl (1992), the steps used in sampling are essentially the same: (1) identify the population; (2) determine the required sample size; and (3) select the sample.

For the purpose of this study cluster sampling was employed. According to Zikmund et al. (2009), the primary objective of this sampling technique is to sample economically and at the same time to retain the characteristics of the sample where the clusters are randomly selected. One of the main characteristics of a cluster is the homogeneity of the subjects across the clusters, which allows the clusters selected to represent all the clusters within the population. Subjects in the clusters may share similar characteristics with each other such as background, attitudes and behaviour (Gay & Diehl, 1992). In the present study, the clusters considered were universities in Amman, Jordan as administrative employees across the governates are similar to each other in terms of backgrounds, jobs performed, etc. Hence, the cluster sampling was an appropriate sampling technique to be used to achieve the research objectives. Furthermore, the cluster sampling is also appropriate when it is either impossible or impractical to obtain and compile an exhaustive list of the elements that make up the target population, but in usual cases, the elements of the populations are already grouped into subpopulations and the list of these sub-populations already exist and can be created (Babbie, 2002). In the context of the present study, because of the difficulty of obtaining and compiling the list of all administrative employees at universities in Amman, Jordan, and because administrative staff employees are

already grouped based on the universities they work, then the cluster sampling was deemed to be appropriate.

According to Gay and Diehl (1992), a cluster sampling technique involves six steps:

1. Define the population. Here the population is all administrative staff employees at universities in Amman, Jordan. The population size as indicated in Table 4.2 is 5,403.

2. Define the sample size. Here the sample size of 361 was determined based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) formula.

3. Define a logical cluster. The logical cluster in the present study was the universities located in the Governate of Amman, Jordan. There are 10 universities in Amman, Jordan, hence, 10 clusters.

4. An average number of population elements per cluster were estimated by dividing the population size of 5,403 administrative employees in universities by the number of clusters (i.e. 9 universities). This results in 600 administrative employees (elements per cluster).

5. The number of cluster was determined by dividing the determined sample size (i.e. 361) by the estimated size of a cluster (i.e. 600), which resulted in 0.6 ~ 1 cluster or university.

6. This means that one university needs to be randomly selected. To choose one out of 9 universities, a simple random sampling without replacement was used. Each university's name was written on different pieces of paper, and one university was picked. As a result of this procedure, Al-Zaytoonah University was selected. As the number of administrative employees in this university was more than the desired sample size of 361 (i.e. 517 in Table 3.3), no other

university was considered, and ideally data were supposed to be collected from each administrative employee at this university. But as we shall see later, this procedure could not be closely followed due to accessibility issue.

3.5   DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Data collection methods are an integral part of a research design. There are several data collection methods, each with its own advantages and disadvantages (Sekaran, 2003). Data can be collected in many ways, such as interviews, telephone and much more. In this study the data collection method used was personally administered questionnaire. This data collection method is the best suited method for this research which helps to establish rapport with the participants while introducing the survey, provide clarifications sought by the participants on the spot, and collect the questionnaires immediately after they were completed. In that sense, such method would ensure a 100% response rate (Sekaran, 2003).

Prior to the collection of the data at the Al-Zaytoonah University, which was the targeted cluster, an appointment was made with the President of the university to seek approval to conduct the research. In this meeting, the researcher informed why the study was carried out, who should participate, how data would be collected etc. After considering the request, the President of the university agreed to give access to the researcher. However, he explicitly wrote to the researcher that access was granted to a few units/departments only at the university. Since there was possibility that the number of administrative employees in these designated departments might not be sufficient to meet the sample size, the researcher had to select another university to fill the quota.

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Again, the same procedure of selecting additional university as mentioned earlier in step six was followed with exclusion of Al-Zaytoonah University. The selected university this time around was Applied Science University. The same procedure of asking access was followed and the researcher was granted access to conduct the research there. Even with the permission letter issued by the university management not all departments were willing to cooperate. The main reason was that the semester had just started (this was in early February 2011) and everyone was busy with the new intake and hence were not ready to entertain surveys at that time. Other units refused to cooperate justifying that the deviant questions were sensitive.

Once the researcher was able to get some idea which departments were willing to participate and the number of administrative employees potentially able to take part in the survey, the number was still below the desired sample size. Hence, another university had to be selected. University of Petra was approached later after being selected randomly. Similar situation was faced after formal access was granted: not all departments were willing to participate. Then, another university had to be selected randomly, resulting in University of Jordan. Again, some departments refused to take part.

Once the researcher had information which departments were willing to take part and had some rough idea on the number of administrative employees who were potentially able to complete the survey, it was decided that the selection of additional universities was not necessary. Hence, four universities were willing to take part in the present study. Because the cluster sampling technique was not able to be strictly followed (i.e. all administrative employees in a university should become the sampled participants), the results of the present study should be cautiously interpreted by taking this limitation into account. Nonetheless, the researcher believes that such

limitation did not pose a great threat to the validity of the findings as the participants involved in the present study were homogeneous (i.e. they were assumed to have similar job and duties in administration) even though they came from various universities in Amman.

After being able to identify which departments in the university were willing or given permission to participate, the data collection soon started. The researcher began distributing the survey questions to participants who fit the definition of the population. The survey questions were distributed personally by the researcher. When distributing them, the researcher clarified what the research was all about and the participants were persuaded to answer all questions as honestly as possible. To give them time to complete the questionnaire, the researcher returned after two to three days to collect the questionnaire personally from each participant. In some instanced, more time was given as required by the participants.

Whilst personal distribution of questionnaires should theoretically yield 100% response rate (Bartlett et al., 2001), it did not materialize as some participants simply refused to participate. This further reduced the desired sample size. Hence, recommendation by Salkind (1997) was followed to oversample. He suggested to increase the sample by at least 40% to account for lost mail and uncooperative subjects. Baruch and Holton (2008) also found that within social science studies, the survey response rate levels are within the value suggested by Salkind. Although oversampling can add costs to the research project, Fink (1995) maintained that it is often necessary. Following the recommendation by Salkind, the researcher decided to distribute 500 survey questions (361 x .40 = 505, which was then rounded up to 500). Out of 500 questionnaires distributed, only 284 responses were returned, raising the issue of nonresponse bias.

Nonresponse bias is one of the concerns in survey research because non-responders may potentially invalidate and bias research findings (Hill, Roberts, Ewings, & Gunnell, 1997). Nonresponse bias is likely to be a problem because people who agree to participate in a survey may tend to be different from those who do not and such problem may also arise in self-administered questionnaire (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Such issue was dealt with by comparing early responders and late responders, a technique that is commonly used (e.g., Brooks, 2006[Etter & Perneger, 1997; Menachemi, Hikmet, Stutzman, & Brooks, 2006). In the present study, comparison between these two groups was made between participants from Al-Zaytoonah University, who were approached first, and those from University of Jordan, who were approached last, on demographic characteristics. The comparison was made on the demographic profile of the participants because according to Armstrong and Overton (1977), non-respondents are assumed to have similar characteristics to late respondents. Result of such comparison is presented in the following chapter.

The whole episode of data collection took five months to complete, beginning in early February 2011 and ended early June 2011.

The next section discusses the instrumentation used to measure the main variables of HR practices, leadership style, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance.

3.6 MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

Measurement is an integral part of any research as without which no data can be collected (Sekaran, 2003). Without data, research questions will not be able to be answered and research objectives not met. One central issue with regards to

measurement in social research is what instrument to be used and to what extent the instrument has good psychometric properties (i.e. both reliable and valid). While recognizing that developing own instrument to get the required data is a long and rigorous process, the present study decided that the use of established and existing measures is the most practical given the time and financial constraints faced. Indeed, the use of established measures is a common practice amongst social researchers. However, in choosing the appropriate instrument to collect the relevant data to test the hypotheses, reliability and validity issues were not compromised. The following explains what instrument was employed to collect data of the main variables and why those instruments were chosen.

3.6.2   Cyberdeviance

In the present study, the term cyberdeviance was operationalized as voluntary acts of employees using their companies' Internet access for non-work related purposes during working hours (Lim, 2002). Scholars generally conceptualize cyberdeviance as a form of workplace production deviance (Lim, 2002; Lim & Teo, 2005). This is because these cyber activities (e.g. browsing and emailing) which are conducted at the workplace during work time constitute an unproductive use of time and detract employees from completing their work demands (Lim & Chen, 2012).

The measure used in the present study was the scale developed by Lim and Teo (2005) which contains two categories. Browsing activity refers to using company's Internet access to browse non-work related websites while at work, and e-mailing activities refer to sending, receiving and checking non-work related e-mails while at work. These two categories have 11 items. Participants were asked to read

the possible activities that people could carry out when using the Internet at work as listed. They were then asked to indicate as honestly as possible whether they knew any of their workmates who had frequently engaged in activities such as using the Internet to surf non-job related websites and sending non-work related emails, on a five-point scale, ranging from '1' "Never" to '5' "Constantly" during working hours. Table 4.3 shows the 11 items of cyberdeviance. Data on this scale were considered a continuous type data, as descriptive statistics of means and standard deviations were calculated in their study (Lim & Teo, 2005). The items are shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
Items of Cyberdeviance

Browsing activities	
1.	Sports related websites
2.	General news websites
3.	Entertainment related websites
4.	Download non-work related information
5.	Non-job related websites
6.	Shopping online
7.	Looking for employment
8.	Adult-oriented (sexually explicit) websites
Emailing activities	
9.	Checking non-work related e-mail
10.	Sending non-work related e-mail
11.	Receiving non-work related email

Source: Lim and Teo (2005)

The use of this instrument was deemed to be appropriate as it was reported to have psychometric properties of .85 for the browsing activities and .90 for the e-mailing activities (Lim, 2002; Lim & Teo, 2005). Furthermore the instrument developed by Lim and Teo have been used by de-Lara and his colleagues in the context of Spanish public university (de Lara, 2007, 2008; de Lara, Verano-Tacoronte, & Ding, 2006; de Lara, Olivares-Mesa, 2010). For example de-Lara et al.

(2006) used this instrument to examine the relationship between cyberdeviance perceived organizational control, fear of formal punishment and physical leadership proximity by employees in a Spanish public university. They found that the instrument had a good reliability coefficient of .847. Similar reliability coefficient of .847 was also found in a different study that looked into the mediating effect of intimidation on the linkage between interactional justice and cyberdeviance. In another study that examined the moderating role of work anomia on the relationship between organizational justice and cyberdeviance, de Lara (2007) reported the instrument's reliability of .862.

3.6.3 HR Practices

HR practices refer to a set of approach to acquiring, developing, managing, motivating and gaining the commitment of an organization's key resources, i.e. its employees (Ahmed, 1999). In the present study, four specific HR practices were considered i.e. performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, and employment security. These specific and distinct dimensions were particularly chosen because they were deemed to be relevant in explaining deviant behaviour in general (e.g., Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans, & van Vuuren, 1991; Jawahar & Hemmasi, 2006; Poon, 2004; Schnake, Williams, & Fredenberger, 2007; Zhao & Zhou, 2008). For example, literatures on general deviant behaviour suggest that poor compensation is one of the contributors to employee engagement in deviant behaviour at work (Everton, Jolton, & Mastrangelo, 2007; Greenberg, 1990, 1997; Muafi, 2011). Besides, items of compensation and performance appraisal reflect financial aspects of the HR practices

(Shahzad, Bashir, & Ramay, 2008; Shahzad, Rehman, & Abbas, 2010), which are relevant in the context of a developing country like Jordan, as the rate of wages in Jordan is lower than that in other Middle Eastern countries such as Saudi Arabia and UAE. Hence, it is expected that these dimensional practices would play a major role in influencing employee's behaviours and attitudes. Literatures also indicate that employment insecurity could trigger deviant workplace behaviour because fear of job loss creates feelings of uncertainty and dissatisfaction (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002; Sverke, Hellgren, & Naswall, 2002).

All items were measured based on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from '1' "strongly disagree" to '5' "strongly agree". Participants were asked to indicate the level of agreement (or disagreement) for each statement pertaining to all dimensions. The following explain the four dimensions of HR practices.

3.6.2.1 Performance appraisal

Performance appraisal refers to a formalized process of monitoring employees and is intended to be a management tool to improve the performance and productivity of workers' (Brown & Heywood, 2005). A total of six items were used to measure performance appraisal, as shown in Table 3.5.

Some examples of the items asked are, "This university provides a great deal of effort in measuring employee performance." and "This university uses flexible performance standards." The items were adapted from Snell and Dean (1992), which have been widely used in other studies that looked at the influence of performance appraisal on employee work-related outcomes (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003; Chi, Huang, & Lin, 2009; Hsu, Lin, Lawler, & Se-Hwa, 2007). The instrument has been

reported to have an internal consistency of 0.77 (Snell & Dean, 1992). Some modifications to the items were made to ensure that participants could relate the items well with their workplace. For example, the original word "organization" was replaced by "university."

Table 3.5
Items of Performance Appraisal

Items	
1.	This university provides a great deal of effort in measuring employee performance
2.	This university uses flexible performance standards.
3.	Employees in this university greatly participate in goal-setting and appraisal.
4.	Our managers/supervisors regularly discuss with employees their individual performance.
5.	This university places a great deal of emphasis on an employee's personal future development in discussing his/her performance.
6.	Pay rise, promotions, training and development, and other rewards are very closely linked to performance appraisal.

Source: Snell and Dean (1992)

3.6.2.2 Compensation practice

Compensation refers to any financial and tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship (Bloom, Milkovich, & Mitra, 2003). Three items were used to measure compensation practices, as shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
Items of Compensation Practice

Items	
1.	This university provides higher pay rates when compared to other organizations within the same industry.
2.	Compared to past years, this year's pay level in this university is generally higher.
3.	This university very closely links pay with individual performance.

Source: Snell and Dean (1992)

Some examples of the items asked were, "This university provides higher pay rates when compared to other organizations within the same industry," and "This university very closely links pay with individual performance." The items were adopted from Snell and Dean, (1992), which have been widely used in other studies that looked at the influence of performance appraisal on employee work-related outcomes (Collins, Smith, & Stevens, 2001). The instrument has been reported to have an internal consistency range from .67 to .83 (Snell & Dean, 1992). Some modifications to the items were made to ensure that participants could relate the items well with their workplace. For example, the original word "organization" was replaced by "university."

3.6.2.3 Career advancement

Career advancement refers to the degree to which employees perceive that their organizations have provided them with clear career paths (Mohd, Nasurdin, & Guat, 2008). A total of three items were asked to measure career advancement. Some examples of the items asked were, "Individuals in this job have clear career path within this university," and "Individuals in this job have very little future within this university." The items were adopted from Delery and Doty (1996), which have been widely used in other studies that looked at the influence of career advancement on employee work-related outcomes (Collins & Smith, 2006; Gong & Chang, 2008). The instrument has been reported to have an internal consistency of 0.86 (Delery & Doty, 1996). Some modifications to the items were made to ensure that participants could relate the items well with their workplace. For example, the original word

"organization" was replaced by "university." The items asked in the present study to operationalize career advancement are shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7
Items of Career Advancement

Items
1. Individuals in this job have clear career path within this university.
2. Individuals in this job have very little future within this university (reverse coded).
3. Employees in this job who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.

Source: Delery and Doty (1996)

3.6.2.4 Employment security

Employment security refers to as the degree to which an employee could expect to stay in his or her job over an extended period of time (Delery & Doty, 1996). A total of four items were used to measure employment security. Some examples of the items asked were, "Employees in this job can expect to stay in this university for as long as they wish," and "It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this job." The items were adopted from (Delery & Doty, 1996), which have been widely used in other studies that looked at the influence of performance appraisal on employee work-related outcomes (Collins & Clark, 2003; Ding & Akhtar, 2001; Gong & Chang, 2008). The instrument has been reported to have an internal consistency of .74 (Collins & Clark, 2003). Some modifications to the items were made to ensure that participants could relate the items well with their workplace. For example, the original word "organization" was replaced by "university." The items asked in the present study to operationalize employment security are shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8

Items of Employment Security

Items	
1.	Employees in this job can expect to stay in this university for as long as they wish.
2.	It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this job.
3.	Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job.
4.	If this university were facing economic problems, employees in this job would be the last to get cut (reverse coded).

Source: Delery and Doty (1996)

3.6.3 Leadership Style

Leadership style in this study refers to transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational leadership is defined as leaders who lead their followers to perform beyond what is expected of them (Burns, 1978; Yulk, 2009). They convince their followers to sacrifice and put aside their own self-interests and appeal to their moral values for a common cause. On the other hand, transactional leadership is defined as leaders who rely on contingency rewards to motivate their followers towards a common cause. If their followers make mistakes or cause any problems or deviate from the set standards, the leaders either wait for the problems to occur to take correction action. The leaders also depend on an extensive monitoring performance system to reward or punish their followers (Bass, 1985, 1990, 1998; Kirkbride, 2006).

In the present study, the instrument used to measure leadership style was Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) or commonly known as MLQ 5X, which was originally developed by Avolio and Bass (1991). The instrument developed by Avolio and Bass (1991) has been used extensively by many researchers (e.g., Barbuto, 2005; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Ismail et al., 2009; Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001), and it best describes the characteristics of transformational and

transactional leadership styles. The instrument has 15 items, measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from '1' "strongly disagree" to '5' "strongly agree", as shown in Table 3.9.

Items 1-10 as shown in Table 3.9 measured transformational leadership, while items 11-15 measured transactional leadership. Ismail et al. (2009) reported the internal consistency of the scale at .950 for transformational leadership style, and .844 for transactional leadership style. Participants were asked to describe possible behaviours a leader in an organization or company might display, in which the term "leader" referred to their immediate supervisor. They were to indicate the level of agreement (or disagreement) on items whether their supervisor "Instils pride in me," "Listens to my concerns," and "Encourages me to perform."

Table 3.9
Items of Leadership Style

Items
My supervisor…
1. Instils pride in me.
2. Spends time teaching and coaching.
3. Considers moral and ethical consequences.
4. Views me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations.
5. Listens to my concerns.
6. Encourages me to perform.
7. Increases my motivation.
8. Encourages me to think more creatively.
9. Sets challenging standards.
10. Gets me to rethink never-questioned ideas.
11. Makes clear expectations.
12. Will take action before problems become chronic.
13. Tells us standards to carry out work.
14. Works out agreements with me.
15. Monitors my performance and keeps track of mistake.

Source: Avolio and Bass (1991)

transactional leadership styles. The instrument has 15 items, measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from '1' "strongly disagree" to '5' "strongly agree", as shown in Table 3.9.

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11. Makes clear expectations.
12. Will take action before problems become chronic.
13. Tells us standards to carry out work.
14. Works out agreements with me.
15. Monitors my performance and keeps track of mistake.

Source: Avolio and Bass (1991)

3.6.4   Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to affective feelings toward the more specific job or work role (Kooij, Jansen, Dikkers, & De Lange, 2010). Other authors refer to job satisfaction as a pleasing or positive emotional state resulting from the evaluation of a person's job (Haque & Taher, 2008). Job satisfaction is also defined as an individual's general attitude regarding his or her job (Robbins & Judge, 2010).

Table 3.10
Items of Job Satisfaction

Items
1.   The time available to get through my work.
2.   The amount of time spent on administration.
3.   My workload.
4.   Overall staffing levels.
5.   The amount of time available to finish everything that I have to do.
6.   What I have accomplished when I go home at the end of the day.
7.   The hours I work.
8.   Payment for the hours I work.
9.   My salary/pay scale.
10.   The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this university.
11.   The amount of pay I receive.
12.   My prospects for promotion.
13.   My prospects for continued employment.
14.   The amount of job security I have.
15.   The possibilities for a career in my field.
16.   How secure things look for me in the future of this organization.

Source: Traynor and Wade (1993), Wade (1993)

In the present study, the instrument used to measure job satisfaction was Measure of Job Satisfaction (MJS), which was originally devised by Price Waterhouse (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen, 2003). This instrument has been used extensively by many researchers (Adams & Bond, 2000; Barrett &

Yates, 2002; Caers et al., 2008; Traynor & Wade, 1993; Van Saane et al., 2003). Traynor and Wade (1993) reported the Cronbach's alpha of the scale at .95. The items to measure job satisfaction are shown in Table 3.10 where participants were asked to think about their current job and indicate their degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction on a five-point scale, ranging from '1' "Very dissatisfied" to '5' "Very satisfied" on items such as "My workload," "The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this university," and "The hours I work."

3.6.5   Demographic Variables

In addition to the above items, several questions regarding the participant's personal information were also solicited such as age, gender, level of academic qualification, length of service in the present department, job title, monthly income, supervisor's gender, and length of time working with current supervisor. In addition, the present study also asked questions related to the use of computer at work, as cyberdeviant activities require that individuals have access to computers. Participants were asked whether their job requires them to work with a computer, whether it is possible for them to carry out their current duties and responsibilities if they no longer have a computer, and how many hours they spend using a computer at work. These items were adopted from Shamsudin (1993).

Except for age, estimated monthly income, time spent using a computer at work, and length of time working with the current supervisor, measured in an open-ended manner while other demographic questions were categorically measured. In sum, Table 3.11 shows the list items asked in the present study and their sources. All in all, 71 items were asked.

Table 3.11

List of Items of Main Variables and Reported Reliabilities of Instruments

Variables	Items	Source
Cyberdeviance		
• Browsing activities	1. Sports related websites. 2. General news websites. 3. Entertainment related websites. 4. Download non-work related information. 5. Non-job related websites. 6. Shopping online. 7. Looking for employment. 8. Adult-oriented (sexually explicit) websites.	Lim and Teo (2005) a = .850
• Emailing activities	1. Checking non-work related e-mail. 2. Sending non-work related e-mail. 3. Receiving non-work related email.	Lim and Teo (2005) a = .90
HR Practices		
• Performance appraisal	1. This university provides a great deal of effort in measuring employee performance. 2. This university uses flexible performance standards. 3. Employees in this university greatly participate in goal-setting and appraisal. 4. Our managers/supervisors regularly discuss with employees their individual performance. 5. This university places a great deal of emphasis on an employee's personal future development in discussing his/her performance. 6. Pay rise, promotions, training and development, and other rewards are very closely linked to performance appraisal.	Snell and Dean (1992) a =.810
• Compensation practice	1. This university provides higher pay rates when compared to other organizations within the same industry. 2. Compared to past years, this year's pay level in this university is generally higher 3. This university very closely links pay with individual performance.	Snell and Dean (1992) a = .631

• Career advancement	1.	Individuals in this job have clear career path within this university.	Delery and Doty (1996) a = .64
	2.	Individuals in this job have very little future within this university (reverse coded).	
	3.	Employees in this job who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	
• Employment security	1.	Employees in this job can expect to stay in this university for as long as they wish.	Delery and Doty (1996) a = .66
	2.	It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this job.	
	3.	Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job.	
	4.	If this university were facing economic problems. employees in this job would be the last to get cut (reverse coded).	

Leadership Style

• Transformational leadership	My supervisor…		Avolio and Bass (1991) a = .950
	1.	Instils pride in me.	
	2.	Spends time teaching and coaching.	
	3.	Considers moral and ethical consequences.	
	4.	Views me as having different needs. abilities. and aspirations.	
	5.	Listens to my concerns.	
	6.	Encourages me to perform.	
	7.	Increases my motivation.	
	8.	Encourages me to think more creatively.	
	9.	Sets challenging standards.	
	10.	Gets me to rethink never-questioned ideas.	
• Transactional leadership	11.	Makes clear expectations.	Avolio and Bass (1991) a = .844
	12.	Will take action before problems become chronic.	
	13.	Tells us standards to carry out work.	
	14.	Works out agreements with me.	
	15.	Monitors my performance and keeps track of mistake.	
Job Satisfaction	1.	The time available to get through my work.	Traynor and Wade (1993)
	2.	The amount of time spent on administration.	
	3.	My workload.	

	4. Overall staffing levels.	Wade
	5. The amount of time available to finish everything that I have to do.	(1993) $a = .95$
	6. What I have accomplished when I go home at the end of the day.	
	7. The hours I work.	
	8. Payment for the hours I work.	
	9. My salary/pay scale.	
	10. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this university.	
	11. The amount of pay I receive.	
	12. My prospects for promotion.	
	13. My prospects for continued employment.	
	14. The amount of job security I have.	
	15. The possibilities for a career in my field.	
	16. How secure things look for me in the future of this organization.	
Personal/demographic and other questions	1. Gender	
	2. Age	
	3. Marital status	
	4. Ethnic origin	
	5. Highest level of education	
	6. Length of employment with current university	
	7. Gender of supervisor	
	8. Length of experience with supervisor	
	9. Job title	
	10. Monthly salary (estimated)	
	11. Job requires use of computer	
	12. Technically possible if computer not used	
	13. Time spent on computer at work	

Later, all items were assembled to develop the questionnaire to collect the data for the present study. The next section describes the questionnaire design.

3.7   QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT AND DESIGN

As mentioned earlier, the present study used 71 items to develop the questionnaire for the use of data collection. The items were neatly arranged in different sections of the questionnaire. Specifically, there were five main sections: Section A asked participants about the four distinct HR practices; Section B was about leadership style, Section D was about job satisfaction, Section D cyberdeviance, and finally Section E asked the participants about their personal information.

In addition to the items, an introduction letter was also attached. Sobal (1984) strongly maintained the importance of survey introductions in social research. Sobal reported the many purposes of survey introductions which include establishing the legitimacy of the interviewer, eliciting cooperation of the potential respondent, and enhancing rapport with the respondents. In other words, survey instructions are important as they indicate that the respondents consent to participate in the study. Due to the significance of the survey instruction, the researcher incorporated it as part of the questionnaire design. Some of the types of information disclosed in the instruction were the introduction of the researcher, purpose of the study, selection of the participants, voluntary participation, confidentiality and anonymity, survey length, provision of envelope, future data use, and contact number of the researcher. These items were included in keeping with the recommendation made by Sobal, based on his empirical findings on the role of survey instructions in social research. Because the present study involves a sensitive topic, so as not to lead the participants to answer in a certain manner, they were told that the survey sought to get information on various issues at work amongst employees in universities in Jordan that could affect their attitudes, perceptions and behaviours. The general instruction of the purpose of the

study was also apt after the researcher received feedback on the questionnaire as a whole.

One of the issues in social research is anonymity and confidentiality of participants. Scott (2005) defined anonymity as "the degree to which the identity of a message source is unknown and unspecified; thus, the less knowledge one has about the source and the harder it is to specify who the source is among possible options, the more anonymity exists" (p. 243).In their paper, Crow and Wiles (2008) maintain that protecting the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants is a matter of ethics that need to be observed for the legitimacy. Whelan (2007) found empirical evidence that subjects' responses to the survey questions were determined by whether their responses could be made confidential. Hence, to encourage them to participate in the study, they were assured that their personal identity would be concealed. Furthermore, the study was for educational purposes only, implying that the responses given would not be revealed to the university management. The participants were also informed that participation in the survey was voluntary; they could withdraw at any time should they feel they need to do so. As the length of the questionnaire determines the response rate (Heberlein & Baumgartner, 1978; Yammarino, Skinner, & Childers, 1991; Yu & Cooper, 1983), the participants were told that the questionnaire would take within 20 minutes of their time. They were also provided with an envelope, which is to be used to return the completed questionnaire. They were also provided with the researcher's contact numbers should they be interested to know more about the study and the result of the survey.

Once the formatting and the layout of the questionnaire were complete, it was printed on both sides of an A4-sized paper. The use of an A4-sized paper was to facilitate better reading since a booklet-type of questionnaire would reduce the size of

the writing. The sample of the questionnaire (both in English and Arabic versions) can be seen in the appendix.

3.7.1 Translation of Questionnaire

Because the Arabic language is the lingua franca of Jordanian people, the questionnaire was prepared in Arabic. As the original items were developed in the English language, they had to be translated into Arabic first before they were administered to the participants. To ensure that the Arabic texts were equivalent to the original text, assistance from a certified academic expert translator office was obtained. Once the translated version was obtained from the certified translator, it was then given to a number of academics who were proficient in both the English and Arabic languages to re-translate the Arabic version into the English version. Back-to-back translation was employed study because this method can ensure equivalent translation, and obtain high validity and reliability rate (Brislin, 1970). The back translation into the English from the Arabic language showed no significant deviations from the original version of the English language, and hence the researcher was convinced that the validity and reliability of the translated version were ascertained.

Once the process finished, the questionnaire was ready to be tested. But before the questionnaire was finally used to the targeted participants, it was initially pre-tested to clarify the items asked etc. In doing so, a pilot study was implemented.

3.7.2   Pre-testing the Questionnaire

Even though the instruments used to measure HR practices, leadership styles, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance have been previously validated, according to Sekaran, (2003), it is important that the content to be re-validated especially if the instruments have been used in different environments, different contexts, on different sets of respondents and characteristics.. Furthermore, according to Neuman (1997), and Trochim and Donnelly (2006), pre-testing the questionnaire is important to improve it. In line with the recommendations, a pilot study to pre-test the questionnaire was conducted.

A pilot study is like a small-scale project to obtain data from respondents who have similar characteristics to the target respondents of the study (Zikmund et al., 2009). In a similar vein, Arain, Campbell, Cooper, and Lancaster (2010) provided a brief definition of a pilot study as a small study for helping to design a further confirmatory study by testing study procedures, validity of tools, estimation of the recruitment rate, and estimation of parameters such as the variance of the outcome variable to calculate sample size etc. Similarly, Zikmund et al. (2009) maintain that a pilot study is important because it provides some insight to the researcher whether his/her actual larger study will face practical difficulties and for him/her to address those issues prior to the actual implementation of the actual study. In other words, pilot studies are important because they refine survey questions and reduce flaws in the study (Zikmund et al., 2009).

van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) maintain that pilot-study participants should be as similar as possible to the target population to ensure that the validity of the feedback. In keeping with the recommendation, thirty administrative employees

working in one of the universities Amman were approached as pilot-study participants. This university was later not included in the final sampling frame due to contamination possibility. According to van Teijlingen and Hundley, contamination is one of the main concerns for researchers in deciding whether or not to include the pilot-study participants in the final study. This is because these participants have already been exposed to an intervention and, therefore, may respond differently from those who have not previously experienced it. As possibility of contamination bias might creep in particularly that the present study dealt with a sensitive topic like cyberdeviance, hence it was decided that the pilot-study participants (and hence the university where they belonged) were excluded from the final sampling frame. The participation of 30 respondents was deemed an appropriate number since normally the size of the pilot study ranges from 25-100 subjects (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

In carrying out the pilot study, van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) recommended several important steps to ensure that the pilot study achieves its objectives, as follows:

- administer the questionnaire to pilot subjects in exactly the same way as it will be administered in the main study

- ask the subjects for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions

- record the time taken to complete the questionnaire and decide whether it is reasonable

- discard all unnecessary, difficult or ambiguous questions

- assess whether each question gives an adequate range of responses

- establish that replies can be interpreted in terms of the information that is required

- check that all questions are answered

- re-word or re-scale any questions that are not answered as expected
- shorten, revise and, if possible, pilot again.

In keeping with the recommendations above, the researcher carried out a pilot study so that it mirrored the actual study. The pilot study was carried out in The World Islamic Science & Education University, a private university located in Amman. In terms of data collection, the participants were personally approached to participate and when they agreed to take part, they were asked to complete the survey, give their comments and feedback to the items asked especially if the questions were deemed to be ambiguous and difficult to understand, and to give comment on the general layout of the questionnaire, to name a few. They were also asked about the time taken to complete the survey and whether the length of the survey was reasonable.

Based on the personal requests made to the participants, some pointed out grammatical mistakes in the Arabic version, which were later addressed in the final questionnaire. Some commented that the introductory letter should not mention specifically about cyberdeviance because the questionnaire asked a variety of issues. But in general, there were no substantial comments on the items asked that merit a second pilot study. The final questionnaire incorporated all the comments and feedback provided.

Not only the pilot test was employed to check for clarity of the questions, it was also carried out to examine the reliability of the instruments used. A threshold of at least .70 was used to suggest an acceptable level of reliability, as recommended by Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2009), Nunnally (1978), and Zikmund et al. (2009). Table 3.12 shows the Cronbach's alpha values of the variables used in pilot

study. As shown, the alpha values ranged from .658 to .907. These values were higher than the threshold value of .70, indicating that the instruments used to measure the main variables were reliable. Based on these raw estimates, the actual study was later implemented.

Table 3.12

Result of Cronbach's Alphas of the Main Variables in Pilot Study (n=30)

Variables	Number of Items	Alpha
Performance appraisal	6	.797
Compensation practice	3	.658
Career advancement	3	.776
Employment security	4	.821
Leadership style	15	.907
Job satisfaction	16	.890
Cyberdeviance	11	.807

3.8 DATA ANALYSES

Data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 18.0. The analysis of data began by cleaning the data to check for irregularities such as outliers and missing values. These had to be conducted first as they could threaten the validity of the result. Once these irregularities were examined, the psychometric properties of the instruments used were examined. In particular, factor analyses and reliability analyses were conducted. First, factor analyses on all the main variables were run. Essentially speaking, factor analysis was performed to identify the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair et al., 2009). Once this was completed, the next analysis involved checking the reliability of each component produced by the factor analysis. To examine whether the variables in each component

had internal consistency, a reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha was employed. Generally speaking, a threshold of .70 was sought for to indicate an acceptable level of reliability.

Next, descriptive statistics were run to check on the statistical dispersion of the data. Then, the researcher intercorrelated the main variables and produced an intercorrelation matrix. This was followed by multiple regression analyses to seek the influence of the predictor variables on the dependent variable of cyberdeviance. Finally, hierarchical regression analyses were performed to examine the mediation of job satisfaction on the link between the independent and dependent variables.

While a detailed exposition on each of the statistical analyses mentioned above is presented in the following chapter, the next section briefly describes them.

3.8.1 Validity Test Using Factor Analysis

Assessing the instrument for its validity is important in any research work so that results are not invalid. Validity refers to the congruence or "goodness of fit" between an operational definition and the concept it purports to measure (Singleton & Straits, 2005). In other words, the question raised by validity is whether the researcher measures exactly what he/she is supposed to measure. So, the next question that needs to be asked is, how to assess validity? There are many ways to assess validation of the instrument used. There are three main types of validity assessment: subjective validation, criterion-related validation, and construct validation (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Subjective validation is of two types i.e. face validity and content validity. In essence, these two types of validity refers to the use of personal judgment whether the instrument used, on the face of it, measures the concept it is intended to measure (face

validity) or whether the instrument has adequately measured all facts of a concept (content validity) (Singleton & Straits, 2005). On the other hand, criterion-related validity "applies to measuring instruments that have been developed for some practical purpose other than testing hypotheses or advancing scientific knowledge" (Singleton & Straits, 2005, p. 99).

This study employed construct validation to assess the validity of the instruments used. While construct validity also aims to answer the question of whether the instrument used measures the construct/concept it is intended to measure, its assessment is based on accumulation of research evidence and not mere appearance (Singleton & Straits, 2005). In essence, construct validity refers to what extent a consistent pattern of relationships can be produced from a measurement, which is meant to capture the meaning of the concept so that it can be used for theoretical explanation and development (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Consistent with the objective of construct validation assessment, factor analysis was used toward this purpose.

Factor analysis refers to a set of techniques whose purpose is to explain the underlying structure of a matrix (Hair et al., 2009; Pallant, 2007). The main objective of this type of analysis is to divide the factors into more manageable group of factors (Sekaran, 2003). Factor analysis can be utilized to assess the validity of a measurement instrument as it measures the variations in the values of several variables to generate artificial factors (Babbie & Mouton, 2002). These can be correlated to the real dimensions of the instrument. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) are the main two approaches of factor analysis.

EFA type is performed when the researcher is uncertain about the numbers of factors that exist in a set of variables. The second type, CFA, is performed when the researcher has theoretical expectations about the number of factors and which variables related to which factors. For examining the construct validity, CFA is more appropriate because it tests how well the researcher's "theory" about the factor structure fits the actual observations (Zikmund et al., 2009). Since the main aim for conducting factor analysis in the present study was to obtain a summary of the variables' structure in the study and to validate the underlying dimensions of the variables, therefore, exploratory factor analysis was chosen. A second reason for using this analysis was to establish goodness of fit for the scales used since they were all adopted from other research works (Hair et al., 2009).

3.8.2   Reliability

Reliability refers to achieving consistent results using the same technique (Hammersley, 1987). It also indicates Thus reliability measures the agreement of two efforts that measure the same trait through similar methods (Hammersley, 1987). According to Denscombe (2003), a reliable measurement instrument is used to assess the degree of consistency between measurements of variables. It is also used to describe the extent to which a variable or set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure (Hair et al., 2009). As noted by Singleton and Straits (2005), reliability also refers to the extent to which the measure does not contain random error (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Because random error cannot be observed directly, the degree of consistency has to be observed (Singleton & Straits, 2005). On this score,

there are many types of reliability assessment such as test-retest reliability, split half and internal consistency reliability.

Test-retest reliability is the most simple reliability assessment as it involves testing the same measure to the same persons on two separate occasions, but in split-half method a scale or index is tested on a sample of cases in which items are split into halves so that two subtests conducted on each half can be correlated to obtain an estimate of reliability (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Internal consistency assessment, on the other hand, allows the researcher to examine the relationship of all items simultaneously so that homogeneity can be checked of the items to measure a similar concept via statistical procedures (Singleton & Straits, 2005). In this study, the reliability of the measure was assessment by examining the internal consistency of items in that particular measure. This assessment is superior to split-half method because the researcher does not have to split the items arbitrarily (Singleton & Straits, 2005).

The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient measures the internal consistency of a measurement instrument by measuring the underlying constructs (Tabachnick, Fidell, & Osterlind, 2001). The range of alpha values is between 1 (perfect internal consistency) and 0 (no internal consistency) whereby values above .80 are regarded as being good, those between .60 and .80 are regarded as acceptable, and those below .60 are regarded as poor (Sekaran, 2003).

3.8.3   Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics describe the phenomena of interest by making use of bar charts and measures of central tendency to summarize the data (Sekaran, 2003). Descriptive

statistics allow the researcher to better understand the data by visualizing patterns. Descriptive statistics allow the researcher to understand the dispersion of the data such as the maximum, minimum, standard deviations, and variance, which can be obtained for interval-scaled variables (Sekaran, 2003).

3.8.4   Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis is used when the researcher desires to describe the strength and direction of the linkage between two variables which are usually continuous in nature. A positive correlation shows that as one variable increases, so does the other, while a negative one shows that as one variable increases, the other decreases (Pallant, 2007). The purpose of determining a correlation coefficient is to ascertain whether a relationship between two or more variables exists and if so, to establish the magnitude and direction thereof (Behr, 1988).

Table 3.13
Description of the Strength of the Correlation Coefficient (r)

r coefficient	Interpretation
Less than 0.20	Indifferent, almost negligible
0.20 – 0.40	Definite but slight relationship
0.40 – 0.70	Moderate relationship
0.70 – 0.90	Strong relationship
0.90 – 1.00	Very strong relationship

Source: Adapted from Behr (1988)

In this study Pearson correlation was used to test the relationship between the variables. Pearson correlation coefficient, *r*, symbolize the estimated strength of linear

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association and its direction between interval and ratio variables, based on sampling data and varies over a range of +1 to -1. The prefix (+, -) indicates the direction of the relationship, and the absolute value signifies the strength (the closer the value is to 1, the stronger the relationship; while 0= no relationship) (Cooper &Schindler, 2008). Table 3.13 shows the description of the strength of the correlation coefficient (r).

3.8.5   Regression Analysis

Regression analysis used usually to test the hypothesis and look into the relationship between the variables. Four assumptions namely normally, linearity of the relationship, independence of error term and homoscedasticity were analysed (Coakes, Steed, & Dzidic, 2006; Hair et al., 2009). Normality is assured by looking at the histograms of scores on each variable (Pallant, 2007). Linearity is obtained when, looking at a scatterplot of scores, a rough straight line is produced as opposed to a curve one (Pallant, 2007). Homoscedasticity is the similarity of the variability of scores in variable X with variable Y, so that when the scatterplot is looked at, it shows a fairly even cigar shaper figure along its length (Pallant, 2007).

Assumptions based on normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were verified through residual scatterplots, histogram, and normal probability plot (P-P plot) of the regression standardized residuals (Coakes et al., 2006; Hair et al., 2009), while independence of error was assessed by Durbin-Watson statistics. The value of Durbin-Watson should be between 1.50 and 2.50 to indicate independence of observation, independence of error term and homoscedasticity were analysed (Coakes et al., 2006).

In addition to the above four assumptions, outliers and multicollinearity were also examined. Outliers were examined through case-wise diagnostics and those identified as such, were excluded from the further analysis (Hair et al., 2009). As multiple regression analysis happens to be very sensitive to outliers, therefore this process should initially be done for all variables used in the analysis.

The purpose of performing a multiple regression analysis was to determine the predictive power of the independent variables (in this case HR practices and leadership style) toward the dependent variable (i.e. cyberdeviance). Furthermore, multiple regressions enable the researcher to identify which of the dimensions under the independent variables has more predictive power as compared to the other dimensions. Multiple regressions were also conducted because of its ability to do simultaneous assessment of the independent variables.

3.8.6 Hierarchical Regression Analysis

In order to examine the role of job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationship between HR practices, leadership style, and cyberdeviance, hierarchical multiple regression was run study. Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure was employed toward this end. A more detailed explanation is offered in the next chapter of this test.

Based on the descriptions of the data analyses employed, Table 3.14 summarizes the main statistical tests used to answer the research questions and hence meet the research objectives.

Table 3.14

Main Data Analyses Used

No.	Research Questions	Analysis
1	What is the level of cyberdeviance exhibited by employees of different levels in organization?	Frequency
2	Do HR practices have any significant influence on cyberdeviance?	Multiple regression
3	Does leadership style have any significant influence on cyberdeviance?	Multiple regression
4	Does job satisfaction mediate the link between HR practices and cyberdeviance?	Multiple regression
5	Does job satisfaction mediate the link between leadership style and cyberdeviance?	Hierarchical regression

3.9   SUMMARY

The chapter has described in detail how the study was practically conducted to answer the research questions and meet the research objectives. In particular, discussions on related methodological issues such as population, research sample, data collection procedures, measurement of variables, and data analyses have been presented. In the next chapter, findings of the study obtained from the data analyses are presented.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSES AND FINDINGS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study is to model the relationship between the different practices of human resource management, leadership style, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance. In the last chapter, a discussion on how the present study was practically carried out was offered. In addition, the last chapter talked about the main data analysis used to analyse the data collected. In this chapter, the findings of the study are presented. Toward this end, this chapter is organized as follows: It starts with response rate then description of the participants of the study. Next, results of factor analysis and reliability analysis of the main variables are offered. Then, descriptive statistics of the main variables and intercorrelations of the variables are presented. Then, more importantly, the results of the hypotheses testing are offered. This chapter ends with a summary of the main results.

4.2   RESPONSE RATE

To recap, the present study was conducted among administrative staff in four Jordanian universities particularly those located in Amman, Jordan. A total number of 500 questionnaires were personally distributed to the participants. Out of 500 of the questionnaires distributed, only 337 were returned, yielding a response rate of 67.4 per

cent. However, 53 questionnaires had to be discarded because the participants did not complete most sections in the questionnaire, following the recommendation of (Sekaran, 2003). Finally, 284 usable questionnaires remained, which yielded a valid response rate of 56.8 percent. Table 4.1 shows the summary of the overall response rate for this study.

Table 4.1
Summary of Response Rates

University	Distributed	Return	Usable	Unusable	Response rate
Al-Zaytoonah University	105	72	56	16	53%
Applied Science University	65	30	23	7	35%
Petra University	80	52	43	9	54%
Jordan University	250	183	162	21	65%
Total	**500**	**337**	**284**	**53**	**56.8%**

As mentioned in the previous chapter, as only 284 participants responded validly to the self-administered questionnaires, this raises the issue of nonresponse bias. To test for nonresponse bias, comparison between early and late responders was made, in keeping with the recommendation by Armstrong and Overton (1977). In this study, early responders mean those who were approached first at Al-Zaytoonah University while late responders were the administrative employees at University of Jordan, which was the last university from which data were collected.

To examine the differences between two groups, chi-square test was run on gender, nationality, gender of supervisor, and whether computer is used at work. Result found no significant difference between the groups on these groups, as shown in Table

4.2. Because age, length of work experience, length of experience with supervisor, and salary were measured on ratio scale, t-test was performed. Result is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.2

Result of Nonresponse Bias for Categorical Data

Variables	χ^2	df	Sig.
Gender	.763	1	.382
Marital status	1.519	2	.468
Nationality	1.417	1	.234
Education	1.633	3	.652
Supervisor	1.620	1	.203
Job title	48.058	42	.241
Computer use	.059	1	.808
Without computer	4.039	2	.133

Table 4.3

Result of Nonresponse Bias for Continuous Data

Variables	t	df	Sig.
Age	2.183	211	.030
Work experience	0.363	216	.717
Experience with supervisor	-0.984	215	.326
Salary	0.314	190	.754
Average computer use	-2.076	98.349	.041

By looking at both Table 4.2 and Table 4.3, generally speaking the two groups appeared not to differ significantly on most of the demographic characteristics. Hence, we can conclude that nonresponse bias was not a big threat in this study. Full analyses were later run on 284 cases.

4.3 PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS

Table 4.4 depicts the profile of the participants of the present study, who were selected among administrators of the four universities in Amman, Jordan. The demographic profile characteristics include gender, marital status, nationality, education, and gender of supervisor. Questions related to the use of Internet at work were also asked and the results are reported here.

Results indicated that male participants represented a slightly higher percentage of the total sample (51.8%) when compared to female respondents (48.2%). The participants were either mainly married (54.0%) or single (44.5%), while a small percentage were divorced. As expected, the majority of the administrators sampled were Arab (98.5%). Very few of them were of non-Arab nationality, possibly of Turk and Turkish descent, who can speak the Arabic language fluently.

With regards to education, the participants were generally highly educated where more than half of the participants possessed a bachelor's degree (56.7%). Others either had a diploma (23.8%), a master's degree (11.3%), or other qualifications (8.2%). Like in other Arab countries that are male dominated, the sampled administrative employees were mainly supervised by male (70.3%). The participants indicated that they had been under the current supervision for an average of two years. With regards to age, the participants were relatively young; they were on average around 32 years old. They also had been working in the organization for five years, on average. On average, the participants indicated that they earned Jordanian Dinar (JD) of 450 per month.

Table 4.4

Profile of Participants of Study

Items	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Gender:		
- Male	143	51.8
- Female	140	48.2
Marital status		
- Single	125	44.5
- Married	154	54.0
- Divorced	4	1.5
Nationality		
- Arab	279	98.5
- Non-Arab	4	1.5
Level of education		
- Diploma	67	23.8
- Bachelor's degree	160	56.7
- Master's	32	11.3
- Others	23	8.2
Gender of supervisor		
- Male	196	70.3
- Female	84	29.7
Does your job require a computer?		
- Yes	271	95.6
- No	13	4.4
Job can be done without computer?		
- Yes	49	17.3
- Technically possible	50	17.6
- No	185	65.1
Age (years)	Mean = 32.74 (SD = 8.75)	
Length of work experience in the organization (years)	Mean = 5.9 (SD = 2.58)	
Length of work experience with supervisor (years)	Mean = 2.62 (SD = 3.11)	
Average use of computer per day (hours)	Mean = 5.6 (SD = 2.16)	
Salary per month (Jordanian Dinar [JD])	Mean = 450 (SD = 2.11)	

Because the present study was concerned about investigating cyberdeviance at work, it was necessary to ask the participants about the use of computer at work to set the context of the study. When asked whether their job required them to use the computer, the majority of the participants affirmed to the questions (95.6%). They were also asked whether they would be able to have their job done without the use of the computer. More than half of them (65.1%) responded negatively, suggesting that the use of computer is becoming a necessity to facilitate with the completion of the job but which also opens to possibility of abuse at work. Even though a small percentage of participants (4.4%) indicated that they do not use computer at work, this does not suggest that they do not have access to it at work. On average, computer use at work stood 5.6 hours per day, indicating that the participants used 70% of their work time on the computer during the eight-hour job.

4.4   DATA PREPARATION AND SCREENING

Before the data analysis was conducted, it is important to take into consideration the accuracy of the data entered into the data file so that the findings would be accurate (Tabachnick, Fidell, & Osterlind, 2001). This section will discuss the necessary data screening procedures prior to data analysis which are the detection of missing data and outliers, as these invalid values may threaten the validity of the researcher's findings and therefore must be identified and dealt with (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). In particular, outliers need to be addressed because factor analysis is sensitive to them

(Coakes, Steed, & Ong, 2010). Validity and reliability of the research construct and other assumptions were then tested to check the goodness of measure and the data.

4.4.1 Detection of Missing Data

Hair et al. (2009) defined missing data as information not available for a case about whom other information is available. As a rule of thumb, variables containing missing data on 5% or fewer cases were handled using mean substitution in which the missing data was replaced by with the average of the data from the cases where complete data is available (Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, 2006). According to Tabachnick et al. (2001), the mean substitution imputation procedure can be profitably employed when missing values are proportionately small. In the case of present study, the missing value analysis indicated that the missing values were mostly less than 5%.

4.4.2 Detection of Outliers

Outlier is a value that lies outside the normal range of the data. Specifically, outliers, as defined by Hair et al. (2009), are an observation with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations. To check for the multivariate outliers in the dataset, Mahalanobis distance was calculated upon the recommendation of Meyers et al. (2006) by using linear regression analysis. To do so, the explore option on SPSS was applied in which all variables were entered into the program. According to Meyers et al., the values that register above 16.266 should be eliminated.

As a result of this procedure, a total number of 11 cases (3%) were identified as outliers, as these showed Mahalanobis distance values that were bigger than the critical value of 16.266 at the p value of .0001 (with 3 degrees of freedom), and hence eliminated and not considered for further analysis.

In addition to the Mahalanobis distance, box-and-whisker plot were observed as they are particularly useful for spotting outliers (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2009). The boxplot, or box-and-whisker plot, is a technique used frequently in exploratory data analysis; a boxplot reduces the detail and provides a different visual image of the distribution's location and outliers (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The box-plot indicated normal distribution of data as most of the observations were somewhat evenly split at the median. The procedure was then repeated on the remaining cases to make sure that no more outliers existed. Once the extreme outliers were found to be non-existent, the procedure was stopped to proceed with the next data analysis i.e. determining to what extent the measures used had goodness values.

4.5   GOODNESS OF MEASURE

What is goodness of measure? Why is it necessary to ensure that the measures are good? Many scholars and researchers are in consensus that an instrument is considered to be a "good" instrument when it is both valid and reliable. A valid instrument is an instrument that measures what it is purported to measure, while reliability is generally referred to what extent the instrument is stable across time (Sekaran, 2003). In order to establish the validity and reliability of the measures used in any empirical investigation, normal tests

used were factor analysis and reliability analysis in which Cronbach's alpha coefficients were employed. The following section explains what these tests were and how they were performed to test the goodness of measures of the present study.

4.5.1   Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is an interdependence technique which primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair et al., 2009). In a similar vein, Dess, Lumpkin, and Covin (1998) noted that factor analysis enables researchers to produce descriptive summaries of data matrices to aid in detecting meaningful patterns among the set of variables.

According to Hair et al. (2009), a number of assumptions must be met before factor analysis can be run. The first assumption is related to the sample size. According to Coakes et al. (2010), a sample of 100 cases is acceptable but a sample size of more than 200 cases is preferable to run factor analysis. In a similar vein, Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001) recommended that factor analysis should not do with less than 100 cases. In this study, the overall sample size of 273 met the recommendations of the scholars. However, separate factor analysis for all items measured on an interval scale was run because the sample size of 273 did not meet the minimum acceptable ratio between the variables to be analysed and the sample size which is 1:5 (Coakes et al., 2010), or the ratio of 1:10 by Meyers et al. (2006), or the ratio of 1:20 by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and William (1998).

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The second assumption of factor analysis concerns about the type of data used. Hair et al. (2009) highlighted that the data for factor analysis should be a metric measurement. In this study, all the variables for factor analysis were measured on a metric scale; hence, factor analysis was valid. The third assumption is with regard to the factorability of the correlation matrix. To make sure that the valid observations are factorable, the correlation matrix should produce adequate substantial correlations. Two common tests are generally employed to ascertain factorability of the correlation matrix namely Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA), and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) (Hair et al., 2009). To ensure factorability, the following values have to be met, as recommended by Hair et al. (2009), and Kaiser (1970): (1) the KMO MSA value should exceed .50 in which a higher value approaching 1.00 suggests a higher degree of sampling adequacy; and (2) the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) must be significant to indicate that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. With regards to the KMO value, the following guideline was used to interpret the KMO values: KMO value in the .90s is marvellous; .80s are meritorious; .70s are middling; .60s are mediocre; .50s are acceptable but miserable; and below .50 is unacceptable and should be excluded (Hair et al., 2009).

Once the factorability and suitability of the data for the analysis based on the KMO Measures of Sampling Adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) values, the next step was to determine how many factors would be extracted. To extract the factors, principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was performed on all the constructs under study to support the convergent validity (Meyers et al., 2006). The use of PCA was apt as it is the most frequently used factor extraction method

(Cooper & Schindler, 2003), and varimax rotation method is known to give a clear separation of factors (Hair et al., 2009). To run this analysis, first, the result of rotated component matrix produced by the SPSS was checked to see how many dimensions were extracted using the rotation chosen. The number of factors extracted was primarily based on the scree plot and the percentage of variance explained criteria. The scree plot is a diagrammatical depiction of the number of factors extracted and the components' eigenvalues.

Once the number of factors had been identified, the researcher then checked the communality values of each item of the particular measure. According to Meyer et al. (2006), items that have values less than .50 should be deleted, as a lower value indicates that the variable does not fit well with the factor solution. Then, the analysis was run again without the deleted item(s). The same procedure was again repeated until the data met the recommended threshold value. Then, the Rotated Component Matrix table of SPSS was examined to check the number of factors/dimensions extracted. Then, the loadings in each dimension were checked to determine which items fell under which dimension. To do so, the researcher relied on the recommendation by Igbaria, Iivari, and Maragahh (1995), a given item should load .50 or more on a specific factor and have a cross loading no higher than .35 on other factors. If the cross loading is higher than .35, the item would be deleted. In the final step, each dimension or component or factor that had been identified was labelled in order to give meanings to the factors.

In the present study, factor analysis was conducted on the main variables i.e. performance appraisal, compensation practice, employment security, career advancement, leadership style, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance. The following

sections present the results, beginning with the specific HR practices, followed by leadership style, job satisfaction, and finally cyberdeviance.

4.5.1.1 Performance appraisal

One of the main independent variables in the present study that was examined is performance appraisal. As mentioned earlier, the instrument used to measure this variable consisted of six items, as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Factor Analysis Result of Performance Appraisal

Items	Component
1. This university provides a great deal of effort in measuring employee performance	.858
2. This university uses flexible performance standards.	.844
3. Employees in this university greatly participate in goal-setting and appraisal.	.896
4. Our managers/supervisors regularly discuss with employees their individual performance.	.862
5. This university places a great deal of emphasis on an employee's personal future development in discussing his/her performance.	.879
6. Pay rise, promotions, training and development, and other rewards are very closely linked to performance appraisal.	.824
Eigenvalues	4.447
Percentage of Variance Explained	74.114
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.924
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square	1204.462
df	15
Sig.	.0005

Prior to performing principal component analysis the sustainability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Correlation matrix revealed that most of the item coefficients were .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) that measured the sampling adequacy yielded a value of .924, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p < .001$ (Chi-square = 1204.462; df = 15; Sig. = .0005), indicating the factorability of the dataset.

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation achieved more than .5 communalities and yielded a single factor solution, with eigenvalues more than 1. The variance explained was 74.114%. The single factor solution confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct as theoretically envisioned. Hence, the label "performance appraisal" was retained to reflect the factor solution found.

4.5.1.2 Compensation practice

As indicated in Table 4.6, to assess the underlying structure of compensation practice, three items were submitted to principal component method and varimax rotation analysis. Prior to performing principal component analysis the sustainability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Correlation matrix revealed that most of the item coefficients were .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) that measured the sampling adequacy yielded a value of .737, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p < .001$ (Chi-square = 380.819; df = 3; Sig. = .0005), indicating the factorability of the dataset.

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation achieved more than .5 communalities and yielded a single factor solution, with eigenvalues more than 1. The variance explained was 78.492%. The single factor solution confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct as theoretically envisioned. Hence, the label "compensation practice" was retained to reflect the factor solution found.

Table 4.6

Factor Analysis Result of Compensation Practice

Items	Component
1. This university provides higher pay rates when compared to other organizations within the same industry.	.893
2. Compared to past years, this year's pay level in this university is generally higher.	.879
3. This university very closely links pay with individual performance.	.886
Eigenvalues	2.355
Percentage of Variance Explained	78.492
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.737
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square	380.819
df	3
Sig.	.0005

4.5.1.3 Career advancement

Three items were used to measure career advancement, one of which was reverse coded first before submitting them to principal component method and varimax rotation analysis in order to assess the underlying structure of career advancement.

Prior to performing principal component analysis the sustainability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Correlation matrix revealed that most of the item

coefficients were .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) that measured the
sampling adequacy yielded a value of .697, which exceeded the recommended value of .6
(Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at
$p < .001$ (Chi-square = 268.876; df = 3; Sig. = .0005), indicating the factorability of the
dataset.

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation achieved more than .5
communalities and yielded a single factor solution, with eigenvalues more than 1. The
variance explained was 71.916%. The single factor solution confirmed the
unidimensionality of the construct as theoretically envisioned. Hence, the label "career
advancement" was retained to reflect the factor solution found. The result is shown in
Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Factor Analysis Result of Career Advancement

Items	Component
1. Individuals in this job have clear career path within this university.	**.812**
2. Individuals in this job have very little future within this university.*	**.852**
3. Employees in this job who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	**.879**
Eigenvalues	2.157
Percentage of Variance Explained	71.916
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.697
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square	268.876
df	3
Sig.	.0005

* Reverse-coded item

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4.5.1.4 Employment security

As shown in Table 4.8, four items were submitted to principal component method and varimax rotation analysis to assess the underlying structure of employment security.

Prior to performing principal component analysis the sustainability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Correlation matrix revealed that most of the item coefficients were .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) that measured the sampling adequacy yielded a value of .815, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p < .001$ (Chi-square = 617.166; df = 6; Sig. = .0005), indicating the factorability of the dataset.

Table 4.8

Factor Analysis Result of Employment Security

Items	Component
1. Employees in this job can expect to stay in this university for as long as they wish.	**.834**
2. It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this job.	**.891**
3. Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job.	**.899**
4. If this university were facing economic problems, employees in this job would be the last to get cut.	**.828**
Eigenvalues	2.984
Percentage of Variance Explained	74.599
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.815
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square	617.166
df	6
Sig.	.0005

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation achieved more than .5 communalities and yielded a single factor solution, with eigenvalues more than 1. The

variance explained was 74.599%. The single factor solution confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct as theoretically envisioned. Hence, the label "employment security" was retained to reflect the factor solution found.

4.5.1.5 Leadership style

As shown in Table 4.9, 15 items were submitted to principal component method and varimax rotation analysis to assess the underlying structure of leadership style. Prior to performing principal component analysis the sustainability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Correlation matrix revealed that most of the item coefficients were .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) that measured the sampling adequacy yielded a value of .973, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p < 0.001$ (Chi-square = 4431.784; df = 105; Sig. = .0005), indicating the factorability of the dataset.

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation achieved more than .5 communalities and yielded a single factor solution, with eigenvalues more than 1. The variance explained was 73.378%. In general, the analysis found general support for the model but with minor expectations. Instead of loading on two distinct dimensions as originally theorized (Bass & Avolio, 1995). According to Hair et al. (1998), in deciding what label to be given, researchers should consider the factor variables that have higher loadings as they are more important and have greater influence on the label selected to represent the factor. But based on the result shown in Table 4.9, the loadings on the factor variables were somewhat of equal importance as the loadings were more or less similar.

Hence, it was decided that this factor would be designated as "supportive leadership style."

The label was appropriate as the leaders were perceived by the participants as exercising both the transformational and transactional leadership styles at work. This is consistent with the findings reported by Sabri (2007) in her study to map leadership style of 120 Jordanian managers. She found that Jordanian managers use both transactional and transformational behaviours when dealing with subordinates at work. The unidimensionality of the construct suggests that administrative employees perceived that their leaders not only allow them the opportunity to accomplish the work in a manner that encourages them to be creative but also are available to give feedback on their progress and tell them when they went wrong. As argued by some scholars, supportive leaders are those who are perceived by the employees as giving emotional support, trust and feedback about their work (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Muller, Maclean, & Biggs, 2009).

As argued by Avolio and Bass (1991), leaders who exhibit transformational and transactional qualities are said to be supportive of their employees in meeting the employees' personal needs.The label of supportive leadership is also in line with the definition by House (1981, as cited in Rafferty & Griffin, 2006) who conceptualized supportive leaders as those who provide emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal support to followers. Indeed, in a study by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) that sought to profile leadership style of managers in the Arab Gulf States, they found that leaders who exhibit charisma and consideration are seen as successful leaders while autocratic leadership hinders and inhibit leadership success.

As the extraction of a single factor indicated that the construct was unidimensional, it did not provide support for the original theoretical supposition. While it could be possible that in a culture where strong leadership is a significant social structure and identity of members of the community such as in Jordan, more studies are needed to confirm the validity of this result. The responses for all 15 items were then summed to form an index of supportive leadership style.

Table 4.9

Factor Analysis Result of Leadership Style

Items	Component
1. Instils pride in me.	**.870**
2. Spends time teaching and coaching.	**.853**
3. Considers moral and ethical consequences.	**.726**
4. Views me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations.	**.847**
5. Listens to my concerns.	**.867**
6. Encourages me to perform.	**.896**
7. Increases my motivation.	**.893**
8. Encourages me to think more creatively.	**.893**
9. Sets challenging standards.	**.827**
10. Gets me to rethink never-questioned ideas.	**.826**
11. Makes clear expectations.	**.857**
12. Will take action before problems become chronic.	**.873**
13. Tells us standards to carry out work.	**.879**
14. Works out agreements with me.	**.862**
15. Monitors my performance and keeps track of mistake.	**.865**
Eigenvalues	11.007
Percentage of Variance Explained	73.378
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.973
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square	4431.784
df	105
Sig.	.0005

4.5.1.6 Job satisfaction

In addition to the two main independent variables above, the present study examined job satisfaction as the mediating variable. As mentioned earlier, the instrument used to measure this variable consisted of 16 items. These items were submitted to principal component method and varimax rotation analysis to assess the underlying structure of job satisfaction. The result of the factor analysis is shown in Table 4.10.

Prior to performing principal component analysis the sustainability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Correlation matrix revealed that most of the item coefficients were .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) that measured the sampling adequacy yielded a value of .957, which exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at $p < .001$ (Chi-square = 3411.521; df = 120; Sig. = .0005), indicating the factorability of the dataset.

Before proceeding with the rotation matrix, the communality values of each item were checked. Only values of .5 and above were considered for the subsequent analysis. As a result, no items were deleted. After being subjected to varimax rotation, the construct yielded two factors which explained 67.792% of the total variance, with eigenvalues more than 1. But due the cross loadings in the rotated component matrix, following the recommendation of Igbaria et al. (1995) seven items (i.e. SW2, SW3, SW4, Spro2, Spro3, Spro4, and Spro5) were dropped from the scale. The factor loadings of the rotated component matrix for this scale were recorded at being between .701 and .853.

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After the exclusion of seven items, the total number of nine items was loaded on to two components which represented two dimensions of job satisfaction. Similar principle in labelling the component was used, following the recommendation by Hair et al. (1998). The two components were later as "Satisfaction with pay," and "Satisfaction with workload," reflecting the majority of the items that fell on to each component, respectively, and the loadings of the factor variables of each component. The extraction of the two dimensions/components was not in line with the original measure of job satisfaction used, suggesting that the participants might consider these two components they were mostly concerned with in their current job, hence providing meaningful factors.

Table 4.10

Factor Analysis Result of Job Satisfaction

Items	Components	
	1	2
Factor two: Satisfaction with pay		
1. My salary/pay scale.	**.853**	.263
2. My prospects for promotion.	**.798**	.364
3. Payment for the hours I work.	**.770**	.295
4. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this university.	**.813**	.274
5. The amount of pay I receive.	**.838**	.325
Factor one: Satisfaction with workload		
1. What I have accomplished when I go home at the end of the day.	.351	**.701**
2. The time available to get through my work.	.204	**.815**
3. The amount of time available to finish everything that I have to do.	.260	**.786**
4. The hours I work.	.334	**.761**
Eigenvalue	5.935	4.897
Percentage of Variance Explained = 67.699	37.094	30.605
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.957	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square	3411.521	
df	120	
Sig.	.0005	

4.5.1.7 Cyberdeviance

The main dependent variable in the present study that was examined is cyberdeviance. As mentioned earlier, the instrument used to measure this variable consisted of 11 items. To assess the underlying structure of the cyberdeviance construct, all items were subjected to principal component analysis. But prior to performing this analysis, the sustainability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Correlation matrix revealed that most of the item coefficients were .3 and above. Two statistical tests to assess the factorability of the data were also run through Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) to determine the "measure of sampling adequacy" value which was at .919, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970,1974) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant at p < 0.001 (Chi-square = 1453.00; df = 36; Sig. = .0005), suggesting the factorability of the dataset.

Before proceeding with the subsequent analysis, the communality values of each item were checked. Only values of .5 and above were considered for the subsequent analysis, resulting in two items being deleted from the original scale (i.e. CD1, CD2). After the deletion of these items, the analysis was run again on the remaining items. Results indicated that the rest of the nine items had communality values above .50, which were acceptable as they had met the requirement of the minimum recommended communality values of .50 (Meyer, Gamst, & Guarino, 2006).

After being subjected to varimax rotation, the construct yielded two factors which explained 70.427 percent of the total variance, with eigenvalues more than 1. Seven items were loaded on the first component and two items only were loaded on the second

component, as shown in Table 4.11. While in general the model received good support, some minor expectations were produced. The results indicated that the components produced were different from the original measures particularly in terms of the observed variables that fall within each component.

Table 4.11

Factor Analysis Result of Cyberdeviance before Deletion

Items	Components	
	1	**2**
Factor one: Public cyberdeviance		
1. Browsing entertainment related websites	**.807**	..250
2. Downloading non-work related information	**.808**	.241
3. Looking for employment	**.809**	.068
4. Sending non-work related e-mail	**.818**	.184
5. Receiving non-work related email	**.842**	.143
6. Browsing non-job related websites	**.858**	.077
7. Checking non-work related e-mail	**.802**	.149
Factor two: Private cyberdeviance		
1. Shopping online	.356	**.698**
2. Adult-oriented (sexually explicit) websites	.003	**.896**
Eigenvalues	4.841	1.498
Percentage of Variance Explained = 70.427	53.787	16.641
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.919
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square		1453.00
df		36
Sig.		.0005

Because the second component contained only two items, concerns were raised about its validity. Some scholars (e.g., Babbie, 1990, 2012; Rubin & Babbie, 2008) argued that factors that have only one or two observed variables are not desirable, based on Thurstone's rule. A reliability analysis was run to determine the internal consistency of the measure and it was found that the component was not reliable as the coefficient

alpha was .527 (refer to the interpretation of the alpha value in the following section). Hence, after considering together the statistical test run and the recommendation made, it was decided that the second component was dropped from further analysis. As a result of the deletion of the second component, the first component was labelled simply as "cyberdeviance."

The result indicated that generally administrative staff at universities in Jordan engaged in cyberdeviant activities such as by browsing entertainment websites, downloading non-work related information, and sending non-work related emails.

Next, each component found of the constructs was considered as a separate variable, and the components were subject to a reliability analysis before computing them to represent the latent variable. The following explain what the analysis was all about and the result.

4.5.2 Reliability Analysis

Reliability is defined as the stability and consistency of the instrument used and it is one of the indicators of goodness of measure (Sekaran, 2003). In the present study, internal consistency was used to test the degree of inter-correlation among items (Sekaran, 2003). Internal consistency can be measured by a number of ways but the most common way is the Cronbach's alpha coefficients that provide an indication of the average correlation among all items that make up the scale (Pallant, 2007; Zikmund & Babin, 2012). Coefficient alpha ranges in value from 0 to 1, in which 0 means no consistency and 1

means complete consistency (i.e. all items yielded corresponding values) (Hair et al., 2009; Pallant, 2007; Zikmund et al., 2009). As the coefficient alphas can take a diverse range of values, Zikmund et al. (2009) recommended the following threshold to interpret the values. They suggested that scales with a coefficient alpha between .80 and .95 are considered to have very good reliability, those that have values between .60 and .70 have fair reliability, and values below .60 as showing poor reliability. Nunnally (1978) stated that in exploratory studies the alpha value of .6 is generally considered sufficient and acceptable, even though a value of Cronbach's alpha .70 is generally considered good.

Table 4.12

Reliability Coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) of Main Variables

No.	Variables	No. of final items	Cronbach's alpha
1.	Performance appraisal	6	.930
2.	Compensation practice	3	.863
3.	Career advancement	3	.804
4.	Employment security	4	.886
5.	Supportive leadership style	15	.974
6.	Satisfaction with pay	5	.930
7.	Satisfaction with workload	4	.859
8.	Cyberdeviance	7	.928

As shown in Table 4.12, in general, the variables for this study were found to have an acceptable reliability with a coefficient of more than .7, in which the alpha coefficients ranged from .804 (career advancement) to .974 (supportive leadership style), which suggest the specified indicators were sufficient for use for further analysis (Hair et al., 2009; Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2009).

4.6 RESTATEMENT OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the results of the factor analyses above, the earlier research hypotheses were re-formulated, as follows:

H1: Performance appraisal has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.

H2: Compensation practice has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.

H3: Career advancement has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.

H4: Employment security has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.

H5: Leadership has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.

H6: The relationship between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H7: The relationship between compensation practice and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H8: The relationship between career advancement and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H9: The relationship between employment security and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H10: The relationship between leadership and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H11: The relationship between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H12: The relationship between compensation practice and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H13: The relationship career advancement and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H14: The relationship between employment security and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H15: The relationship between leadership and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

4.7   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The general statistical depiction of the variables used in this study was generated by using descriptive analysis in the SPSS program. Statistical values of means, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum were calculated for the eight main variables: five independent variables, two mediating variables, and two dependent variables. The results of these statistical values are shown in Table 4.13. As mentioned in Chapter 3, all the variables were measured on a five-point scale.

The standard deviation describes the spread or variability of the sample distribution values from the mean, and is perhaps the most valuable index of dispersion (Hair et al., 2009; Zikmund et al., 2009). If the estimated standard deviation is large, the responses in a sample distribution of numbers do not fall very close to the mean of the distribution. If the estimated standard deviation is small, the distribution values are close to mean (Hair et al., 2009). In other words, if the estimated standard deviation is smaller

than 1, it means the respondents were very consistent in their opinions, while if the estimated standard deviation is larger than 3, it means the respondents had a lot of variability in their opinions (Hair et al., 2009).

Table 4.13

Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum, and Maximum of Main Variables (n = 273)

Variables	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Performance appraisal [a]	3.105	1.030	1.00	5.00
Compensation practice [a]	3.140	1.050	1.00	5.00
Career advancement [a]	3.049	.983	1.00	5.00
Employment security [a]	2.903	.966	1.00	5.00
Supportive leadership style [a]	2.897	1.017	1.00	5.00
Satisfaction with pay [b]	3.115	1.013	1.00	5.00
Satisfaction with workload [b]	2.672	.933	1.00	5.00
Cyberdeviance [c]	3.150	1.156	1.00	5.00

Note.

[a] 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neutral, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree;

[b] 1 = very satisfied, 2 = satisfied, 3 = neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4 = dissatisfied, 5 = very dissatisfied;

[c] 1 = never, 2 = a few times/month, 3 = a few times/week, 4 = once a day, 5 = constantly

As shown in Table 4.13, in general, the mean values for all variables were between 2.672 and 3.150, with standard deviations ranging from .933 to 1.156. The results suggest that the participants were generally consistent in their opinions with regards to the questions asked on the different HR practices, leadership, their attitude toward their job (i.e. job satisfaction), and cyberdeviance, as the standard deviations of all the variables were not larger than 3, as recommended by Hair et al. (2009).

With regards to the mean values, the results in Table 4.13 indicate that the participants appeared to have moderately favourable perception on performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment security, and

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supportive leadership style. The participants also seemed to be moderately satisfied with their pay and workload. With regards to cyberdeviance, the participants reported that such occurrence was not frequently committed by employees at work.

4.8   INTERCORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES

The next analysis performed was correlation analysis. Correlation analysis is run to describe the strength and direction of the linkage between two continuous variables (Sekaran, 2003). The direction of the relationship can either be positive or negative. A positive correlation shows that as one variable increases, so does the other, while a negative one shows that as one variable increases, the other decreases (Pallant, 2007). In the present study Pearson correlation was used to test the relationship between the main variables. Pearson correlation coefficient, r, symbolizes the estimated strength of a linear association and its direction. The correlation coefficient can range from +1 to -1 whereby the prefix (+, -) indicates the direction of the relationship (positive or negative), while the number represents the strength of the relationship (the closer to 1, the stronger the relationship; 0 = no relationship) (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Table 4.14
Cohen's Guideline of Correlation Strength

r	Strength of relationship
$r = \pm .10$ to $\pm .29$	Low
$r = \pm -.30$ to $\pm .49$	Moderate
$r = \pm .50$ to ± 1	High

In interpreting the strength of the relationship based on the *r* coefficient. Cohen's (1988) recommendation was used. According to Cohen. if the *r* score is between .35 and .50, the correlation between the two variables is considered a medium correlation. If the *r* score is above .50, the correlation between the two variables can be said to be a strong one. Table 4.14 summarizes Cohen's recommendation. One-tailed test was used in the correlation analysis since the direction of the relationship was hypothesized (Sekaran. 2003).

Table 4.15

Intercorrelations of Main Variables

	PA	CP	ES	CA	SLS	SWL	SWP	CD
PA	1							
CP	.850**	1						
ES	.715**	.752**	1					
CA	.841**	.796**	.746**	1				
SLS	.879**	.799**	.739**	.843**	1			
SWL	.649**	.610**	.620**	.645**	.717**	1		
SWP	.770**	.736**	.673**	.718**	.757**	.647**	1	
CD	-.767**	-.677**	-.621**	-.735**	-.791**	-.694**	-.723**	1

Note.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

PA = Performance appraisal; CP = Compensation practice; ES = Employment security; CA = Career advancement; SLS = Supportive leadership style; SWL = Satisfaction with workload; SWP = Satisfaction with pay; CD = Cyberdeviance

Table 4.15 shows the intercorrelations of the eight main variables of the present study. As shown, the main variables were significantly correlated with each other at the significance level of .01, as expected. Based on the recommendation of Cohen (1988), it

appears that the intercorrelations of the main variables are high as the r coefficient recorded a value of more than .5.

In particular, all HRP practices of performance appraisal, compensation practice, employment security, and career advancement, dimensions of job satisfaction, and leadership style were found to correlate negatively and significantly with cyberdeviance. To illustrate, performance appraisal had a negative and significant correlation with cyberdeviance (r = -.767, p < .01), suggesting that favourable perception of performance appraisal is highly likely to reduce employee's tendency to engage in cyberdeviant activities. Similarly, compensation practice, employment security and career advancement also showed high and negative associations with cyberdeviance, suggesting that when employees perceive these practices to be favourably implemented, they are highly unlikely to engage in deviant activities such as browsing the Internet for non-work related reasons.

Supportive leadership style was also found to show a strong and negative relationship with cyberdeviance (r = -.791, p < .01). Employees are highly likely to respond negatively by engaging in cyberdeviance when they perceive their leaders as being not to be able to show the direction of the organization, not able to stimulate interests and motivation, and not able to provide rewards and punishment when it is due, for instance.

In addition, the results also suggested that job satisfaction plays a significant role in influencing cyberdeviance. As shown in Table 4.15, employees who are not satisfied with their pay and their workload will have a strong tendency to engage in cyberdeviance (r = -.694, p < .01; r = -.723, p < .01, respectively). The result of the present study

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appeared to corroborate the survey by Salary.com in 2012 on the reasons why people waste time at work by misusing the Internet. The survey found that 35% of those surveyed indicated that they waste time at work because the job they do is not challenging and it involves long hours (Gouveia, 2012). The survey also observed that low pay is associated with cyberdeviant activities while at work.

4.9   MULTIPLE REGRESSION ASSUMPTIONS

Next, a multiple regression analysis was run to examine the main effects of performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment security, leadership, satisfaction with workload, and satisfaction with pay on cyberdeviance. To examine the mediating effect of satisfaction with workload and satisfaction with pay on the relationship between the five independent variables and cyberdeviance, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were run. In testing the hypotheses developed for this study, the choice of the level of significance was set at $p < .05$ and $p < .01$, common in general management studies (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Hair et al., 2009).

According to Hair et al. (2009), a number of assumptions should be met before regression analysis is run; otherwise, the validity of the findings would be threatened. These assumptions pertain to linearity, constant variance of error term (homoscedasticity vs. heteroscedasticity), normality, and independence of error terms. In addition to these assumptions, multicollinearity was also examined. These assumptions apply to the independent variables, dependent variable, and to the relationships as a whole (Hair et al., 2009).

4.9.1   Normality

Regression assumes that variables have normal distributions, which means that non-normal distributed variables are highly skewed, either to the left or to the right. These variables are called kurtotic variables (Osborne & Waters, 2002), and they can distort relationships and significance tests. Normality of distribution of data can be examined by a number of ways: visual inspection of data plots, skewness, kurtosis, and P-P plots, while Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests provide inferential statistics on normality (Osborne & Waters, 2002).

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run to test normality. However, the result of the test showed that all the main variables were significant (result not shown), which means none of the variables were normally distributed. However, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), in large sample size, the visual shape of distribution is more important in normality test rather than the significance level of skewness. For this reason, in the present study, skewness and kurtosis were employed to assess normality of the data. Skewness values reflect the symmetry of the distribution score and a skewed variable means that the score is not at the centre of the distribution. On the other hand, kurtosis gives information about the "peakness" of the distribution which can be either too peaked (with short and thick tail) or too flat (with long and thin tail (Tabachnick et al., 2001). Hair et al. (2009) mentioned that a positively skewed distribution has relatively few small values and tails off to the right, and negatively skewed distribution has relatively few small values and tails off to the left. Distribution is considered to be normal when the value of skewness and kurtosis is at zero. Kurtosis that have values of below zero will

indicate a relative flat distribution known as "platykurtic" and the kurtosis values above zero indicate a peak distribution or "leptokurtic" (Hair et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2006; Tabachnick et al., 2001). Even though seldom will perfect normality assumption be achieved, Hair et al. (2009) recommended the rejection of the normality assumption at absolute values of ±3.29 at $p < .001$ significance level, ±2.58 at .01 significance level, and ±1.96 at $p < .05$ significance level.

To assess the normality of the variables, the above suggestions were applied and noticeably none of the variables fell outside the ±3.29 at $p < 0.001$ probability range level. This was expected as the usable sample size is 273. Table 4.16 is a summary of the kurtosis and skewness values of all the variables. Field (2009) suggested that if the sample size is more than 200, it would be sufficient just to inspect the value of the skewness and kurtosis, and virtually observe the shape of the distribution. By considering these pieces of information, the data for these study variables were found to be normally distributed, hence meeting the first multiple regression requirement.

Table 4.16
Statistic Values of Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Performance appraisal	.184	-1.207
Compensation practice	.076	-.922
Career advancement	.204	-1.036
Employment security	.373	-.562
Supportive leadership style	.178	-1.020
Satisfaction with pay	.040	-.886
Satisfaction with workload	.463	-.739
Cyberdeviance	-.156	-1.327

4.9.2 Linearity

Linearity requires that the relationship between independent and dependent variables is linear. According to Hair et al. (2009), if the analysis of residual does not exhibit any nonlinear pattern to the residuals, it is ensured that the overall equation is linear and can be examined through residual plots. In a similar vein, Osborne and Waters (2002) recommended that the preferable method of detection is examination of residual plots (plots of the standardized residuals as a function of standardized predicted values.

Based on the recommended examination, no nonlinear pattern to the residuals was observed, thus ensuring that the overall equation was linear. Specifically, the result of linearity test for the relationship between the independent variables (HR practices and leadership) and the dependent variable (cyberdeviance) through scatter plot diagrams showed no evidence of nonlinear pattern to the residuals.

4.9.3 Constant Variance of Error Term

The residual plots used to investigate linearity were also used to examine homoscedasticity or homogeneity of variance. This was done by plotting the studentized residuals against the predicted dependent values and comparing them to the null plot, as recommended by Hair et al. (2009). If the examination of residual shows increasing or decreasing residuals, the assumption of homoscedasticity is met.

4.9.4 Independence of Error Term

The assumption of independence implies that the samples are independent from one another. To assess this assumption, Durbin-Watson was used to test the independence of error terms (Norusis, 1995). According to Norusis, if the Durbin-Watson value is between 1.5 and 2.5, the assumption of independence of the error terms is not violated, which is the general rule of thumb employed to examine this assumption (Norusis, 1995). In the present study, the value of Durbin-Watson was 1.75, indicating that this assumption was not violated.

4.9.5 Collinearity/Multicollinearity

The issue of (multi)collinearity is important when interpreting the regression equation. Ideally, collinearity exists when the independent variables are highly correlated with the dependent variable little correlations amongst themselves (Hair et al., 2009). The most obvious and simplest method of assessing multicollinearity is the examination of correlation matrix for the independent variables (Allison, 1999; Meyer et al., 2006). According to Hair et al. (2009), the presence of high correlations (generally .95 or higher) is the first indication of substantial collinearity.

As shown in the correlation matrix in Table 4.16, the r coefficients shown among the independent variables did not show values above .95, suggesting the absence of collinearity. However, as these values do not ensure a lack of collinearity, as it may be due to the combined effect of two or more other independent variables, further statistical

tests were run to check for multicollinearity. According to Hair et al. (2009), this was done by measuring the degree to which each independent variable is explained by the set of other independent variables.

Table 4.17

Tolerance Value and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) Test for Independent Variables

Independent variables	Collinearity statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Performance appraisal (PA)	.150	6.646
Compensation practice (CP)	.224	4.459
Career advancement (CA)	.220	4.549
Employment security (ES)	.349	2.867
Supportive leadership style (SLS)	.162	6.159
Satisfaction with pay (SWP)	.342	2.925
Satisfaction with workload (SWW)	.450	2.224

Variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance statistics are the two common statistical methods that can be used to assess collinearity/multicollinearity. It is generally believed that any variance inflation factor (VIF) value that exceeds 10 and tolerance value below than .10 indicates a potential problem of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2009; Myers, 1990). The results in Table 4.17 showed that VIF ranged below 10 and tolerance value was less than 1. These results reinforce that there is no threat of multicollinearity.

4.10   MULTIPLE REGRESSION FINDINGS

This section onwards reports the findings of the multiple regression analysis after the assumptions were examined. Even though the correlation matrix shown in Table 4.15

indicates significant relationship between HR practices and leadership, and cyberdeviance, it could not tell us to what extent the former are able to explain the variance in the latter collectively. Furthermore, the correlation matrix is also unable to indicate which one of the predictor variables is more prominent in influencing cyberdeviance. Hence, a multiple regression analysis with an enter method was apt toward these purposes (Sekaran, 2003).

In the multiple regression analysis, the dependent variable of cyberdeviance was regressed against the independent variables. As shown in Table 4.18, the regression model was found to be fit ($F = 96.931$; Sig. = .0005). The R^2 indicates the coefficient of determination of the predictor variables on the dependent variable. As indicated from the table, R^2 showed a value of .645, which means that 64.5% of the variance in cyberdeviance could be explained significantly and collectively by the predictor variables. However, to be more valid, adjusted R^2 is used that takes care of differences in sample sizes. Hence, collectively, the independent variables were found to be able to explain 63.8% the variance in cyberdeviance, which means that the model fit is valid across different sample sizes and can be validly generalized to the study population.

Even though the predictor variables were able to explain significantly the variance in cyberdeviance, Table 4.18 also shows us that not all predictor variables were significant in determining cyberdeviant behaviour. Only performance appraisal and supportive leadership appeared to be significant predictors at .01 level or below, while the rest of the predictor variables were not significant.

As indicated earlier, multiple regression analysis can also determine which one among the predictor variables that has the most influence on cyberdeviance. To assess

this, standardized beta values are used. The strongest predictor is known by looking at the absolute biggest beta value (Hair et al., 2009). As shown in Table 4.18, supportive leadership style showed the biggest beta value of -.446, which was significant at .001 level. This means that leadership style plays the most important role in predicting cyberdeviance in that the more favourable the leadership style is perceived to be exercised by leaders, the less likely employees tend to engage in deviant activities at cyberspace. The next strongest predictor as shown in the table is performance appraisal (ß = -.275).

Table 4.18
Multiple Regression Analysis: Independent Predictor Variables and Cyberdeviance

Independent variables	Standardized beta	t	Sig.
Performance appraisal	-.275	-2.475	.003
Compensation practice	.046	1.092	.544
Career advancement	-.151	-1.793	.050
Employment security	-.017	.859	.774
Supportive leadership style	-.446	-3.417	.001
F value			96.931
R^2			.645
Adjusted R^2			.638
Sig.			.0005

Note.
Dependent variable = Cyberdeviance (CD)

Based on Table 4.18, it can be said that out of five hypotheses (H1-H5), only H1 and H5 received empirical support. This means that the hypotheses that performance appraisal is negatively related to cyberdeviance and that leadership has a negative association with cyberdeviance, are supported.

The following sections present the results of the testing on the remaining 10 research hypotheses i.e. H6-H15. These hypotheses are pertaining to the testing of mediating roles of satisfaction with workload and satisfaction with pay on the link between specific practices of HR and leadership, and cyberdeviance. To test the mediation effect, hierarchical regression analysis was employed. Before the results are presented, a discussion on what hierarchical regression is offered.

4.11   HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Hierarchical regression analysis is a statistical test conducted to improve standard regression estimates by adding a second-stage "prior" regression to an ordinary model (Witte, Greenland, Haile, & Bird. 1994). In the present study, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to understand the mediating effects of job satisfaction (i.e. satisfaction with pay, and satisfaction with workload) on the relationship between HR practices, leadership style, and cyberdeviance. Three models of hierarchal regression analysis were developed, in accordance with the recommendation of Baron and Kenney (1986).

According to Baron and Kenny, three steps have to be met toward the purpose: (1) there should be a significant relationship between the independent variables, namely, performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment security, and supportive leadership style, and the dependent variable of cyberdeviance (b) there should be a significant relationship between the independent variables, namely, performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment

security, and supportive leadership style, and the mediating/intervening variable of satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with workload; and (3) there should be a significant relationship between the intervening variables and the dependent variable. According to Baron and Kenny, mediation effect can be either full or partial. Full mediation is said to occur when the significant relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is reduced and is not significant after the mediating variable enters the equation. On the other hand, the mediation is said to be partial when the significant relationship is reduced but still significant. Table 4.19 indicates the recommendation of Baron and Kenny in a tabular form.

Table 4.19

Baron and Kenny's Approach to Testing Mediation

Steps	Result	Interpretation
Equation 1:	ß1 must be significant	IV must influence DV significantly
Equation 2:	ß2 must be significant	IV must influence IVV significantly
Equation 3:	ß3 must be significant	IVV must influence DV significantly
Equation 4:	If ß4 insignificant, Y fully mediates	
	If ß4 significant, Y partially mediates	

Note.

IV = independent variable; IVV = intervening variable; DV = dependent variable

To assess the first three steps, three models were produced. The first model (Model 1) involved checking the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The second model (Model 2) involved the influence of the mediating variable on the dependent variable. The third model (Model 3) was to check the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable with the inclusion of the mediating relationship. Finally, comparison was made between Model 1 and Model 3 to see whether

there were any changes in the ß values and the significance level after the mediating variable was included in Model 3.

In the following sections, the results of the testing of the mediation effects of satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with workload are presented.

4.11.1 Mediating Effects of Satisfaction with Pay on HR Practices, Leadership, and Cyberdeviance

H6:   The relationship between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H7: The relationship between compensation practice and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H8: The relationship between career advancement and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H9: The relationship between employment security and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

H10: The relationship between leadership and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.

In order to examine the mediating influence of satisfaction with pay, we run a hierarchical regression following the steps suggested by Baron and Kenney (1986), as indicated earlier, in which all dimensions of HR practices and supportive leadership style were entered as the independent variables and cyberdeviance as the dependent variable. As portrayed in Table 4.18. Model 1 of the regression showed that the independent

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variables of performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment security, and leadership collectively and significantly contributed to cyberdeviance (R^2 = .645, F = 96.931, p < .01). But Model 1 showed that only performance appraisal and leadership are negatively related to cyberdeviance. In particular, this result indicated that the independent variables significantly explain 64.5% of the total variance in cyberdeviance.

Then, in the second model (Model 2), the predictor variables of specific HR practices and leadership were regressed against satisfaction with pay. The model was also found to be significant (R^2 = .676, F = 92.331, p < .01). The model showed that all the independent variables except career advancement were positively associated with satisfaction with pay. In particular, the independent variables were found to explain significantly 66.8% satisfaction with pay. Table 4.20 shows the result.

Table 4.20

Model 2: Independent Predictor Variables and Satisfaction with Pay

Independent variables	Standardized beta
Performance appraisal	.294**
Compensation practice	.167*
Career advancement	.044
Employment security	.138*
Supportive leadership style	.227**
F value	
R^2	
Adjusted R^2	
Sig.	

Note.

Dependent variable = Satisfaction with pay

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

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Next, in the third model (Model 3), all the independent variables of performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment security, supportive leadership style, and satisfaction with pay were entered into the regression equation as the independent variables, and cyberdeviance as the dependent variable. The model was also found to be significant ($R^2 = .676$, F = 92.331, p < .01). Table 4.21 shows the result.

Table 4.21

Model 3: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis (HR → Satisfaction with Pay → Cyberdeviance)

Without mediator (Model 1)		With mediator (Model 3)	
Independent variables	Std. beta	Independent variables	Std. beta
Performance appraisal	-.275**	Performance appraisal	-.203*
Compensation practice	.046	Compensation practice	.087
Career advancement	-.151	Career advancement	-.140
Employment security	-.017	Employment security	.017
Supportive leadership style	-.446**	Supportive leadership style	-.390**
		Satisfaction with pay	-.245**
F	96.931	F	101.045
R^2	.645	R^2	.654
Adj. R^2	.638	Adj. R^2	.648
Sig.	.0005	Sig.	.0005

Note.

Dependent variable: Cyberdeviance

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

As shown in Table 4.21, comparison between Model 1 and Model 3 can be made. In Model 3, satisfaction of pay was found to be significant, which indicates that the mediation condition was met. To assess whether the mediating effect of satisfaction with pay was full or partial, the beta values of the independent variables in Model 1 were specifically compared with those in Model 3. By comparing the two models, changes in the beta values can be discerned. Table 4.21 shows that the strength of the relationship

between performance appraisal and leadership with cyberdeviance did decrease after the inclusion of satisfaction with pay, but the relationships still remained significant. This indicates that satisfaction with pay only partially mediated the link between performance appraisal and leadership with cyberdeviance. This means that H6 and H10 were found to receive empirical support. No empirical support was observed for H7, H8, and H9.

4.11.2 Mediating Effects of Satisfaction with Workload on HR Practices, Leadership, and Cyberdeviance

H11: The relationship between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H12: The relationship between compensation practice and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H13: The relationship between career advancement and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H14: The relationship between employment security and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

H15: The relationship between leadership and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.

In order to examine the mediating influence of satisfaction with pay, we run a hierarchical regression following the steps suggested by Baron and Kenney (1986), as indicated earlier, in which all dimensions of HR practices and supportive leadership style

were entered as the independent variables and cyberdeviance as the dependent variable. As portrayed in Table 4.18, Model 1 of the regression showed that the independent variables of performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment security, and leadership significantly contributed to cyberdeviance (R^2 = .645, F = 96.931, p < .01). But Model 1 showed that only performance appraisal and leadership are negatively related to cyberdeviance. In particular, this result indicated that the independent variables significantly explain 64.5% of the total variance in cyberdeviance. Then, in the second model (Model 2), the predictor variables of specific HR practices and leadership were regressed against satisfaction with workload. The model was also found to be significant (R^2 = .533, F = 60.919, p < .01). But the model showed only employment security and leadership were positively associated with satisfaction with workload. In particular, the independent variables were found to explain significantly 52.4% satisfaction with workload. Table 4.22 shows the result.

Table 4.22

Model 2: Independent Predictor Variables and Satisfaction with Workload

Independent variables	Standardized beta
Performance appraisal	.006
Compensation practice	-.003
Career advancement	.060
Employment security	.182**
Supportive leadership style	.529**
F value	
R^2	
Adjusted R^2	
Sig.	

Note.

Dependent variable = Satisfaction with workload

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

Next, in the third model (Model 3), all the independent variables of performance appraisal, compensation practice, career advancement, employment security, supportive leadership style, and satisfaction with workload were entered into the regression equation as the independent variables, and cyberdeviance as the dependent variable. The model was also found to be significant (R^2 = .676, F = 92.331, p < .01). Table 4.23 shows the result.

Table 4.23

Model 3: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis (HR → Satisfaction with Workload → Cyberdeviance)

Without mediator (Model 1)		With mediator (Model 3)	
Independent variables	**Std. beta**	**Independent variables**	**Std. beta**
Performance appraisal	-.275**	Performance appraisal	-.274**
Compensation practice	.046	Compensation practice	.045
Career advancement	-.151	Career advancement	-.136
Employment security	-.017	Employment security	.028
Supportive leadership style	-.446**	Supportive leadership style	-.314**
		Satisfaction with workload	-.249**
F	96.931	F	95.572
R^2	.645	R^2	.683
Adj. R^2	.638	Adj. R^2	.676
Sig.	.0005	Sig.	.0005

Note.

Dependent variable: Cyberdeviance

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

As shown in Table 4.23, comparison between Model 1 and Model 3 can be made. In Model 3, satisfaction of workload was found to be significant. To assess whether the mediating effect of satisfaction with workload was full or partial, the beta values of the independent variables in Model 1 were specifically compared with those in Model 3. By comparing the two models, changes in the beta values can be discerned. Table 4.23

shows that the strength of the relationship between leadership with cyberdeviance did decrease after the inclusion of satisfaction with workload, but the relationship still remained significant. This indicates that satisfaction with workload only partially mediated the link between leadership with cyberdeviance. This means H15 was found to receive empirical support.

Even though the beta value of performance appraisal in Model 3 was significant, the second step of the mediation procedure was not met since in Model 2, performance appraisal showed no significant effect on satisfaction with workload. Because of this, mediation could not be said to have occurred. This means that H11 was not supported. No empirical support was also observed for H12, H13, and H14.

4.13   SUMMARY

Table 4.24 shows the overall result of the hypotheses testing. As shown, out of 15 research hypotheses, only five hypotheses (i.e. H1, H5, H6, H10, and H15) received empirical support, while the remaining 10 hypotheses failed to receive any empirical support (i.e. H2, H3, H4, H7, H8, H9, H11, H12, H13, and H14).

Specifically, the present study revealed that performance appraisal is the only HR practice found to influence cyberdeviance at work. The results indicated a significant and negative link, suggesting that the less favourable the performance appraisal practice is, the higher the tendency for employees to engage in cyberdeviant activities while at work. It was also observed that satisfaction with pay partially mediates the link between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance.

Table 4.24

Summary of Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses		Result
H1:	Performance appraisal has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.	Supported
H2:	Compensation practice has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.	Rejected
H3:	Career advancement has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.	Rejected
H4:	Employment security has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.	Rejected
H5:	Leadership has a negative relationship with cyberdeviance.	Supported
H6:	The relationship between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.	Supported
H7:	The relationship between compensation practice and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.	Rejected
H8:	The relationship between career advancement and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.	Rejected
H9:	The relationship between employment security and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.	Rejected
H10:	The relationship between leadership and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with pay.	Supported
H11:	The relationship between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.	Supported
H12:	The relationship between compensation practice and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.	Rejected
H13:	The relationship career advancement and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.	Rejected
H14:	The relationship between employment security and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.	Rejected
H15:	The relationship between leadership and cyberdeviance is mediated by satisfaction with workload.	Supported

The present study also found that supportive style of leadership significantly and negatively influences cyberdeviance. That is, as leaders are perceived to be more supportive, they will discourage employees from exhibiting cyberdeviance at work. It

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was further revealed that the influence of leadership on cyberdeviance is possible through the partial mediator of satisfaction with pay and workload.

In the following chapter, discussion of the findings presented here is offered. Specifically, the findings are discussed in relation the underpinning theory of social exchange in particular and previous research.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1   INTRODUCTION

In the last chapter, findings of the present study have been presented based on the data collected amongst administrative staff members at universities in the Governate of Amman. Specifically, the previous chapter has described the background of the participants. It has also presented the descriptive results of the main variables, the intercorrelations between the variables, and most importantly the results of the hypotheses testing. In this chapter, the findings are discussed in detail by relating them to the underpinning theory of social exchange and previous works.

This chapter is organized as follows: First, it starts by recapitulating what the present study aims to achieve. Then, it discusses the findings of each research hypothesis that was subject to statistical testing. Next, this chapter proceeds by highlighting the implications of the findings revealed to practice and future research. In addition, limitations of study are outlined. Finally, this chapter ends with some concluding remarks about the present study.

5.2   RECAPITULATION OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND AIMS

Literature indicates some theoretical gaps still exist with regards to understanding cyberdeviance at the workplace. In particular, to what extent factors in an organisation such as HR practices and leadership may be able to influence cyberdeviant acts at

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work is yet to be confirmed and validated as evidence pointing to such influence is still far and few between. Furthermore, the present study proposes that job satisfaction may be the mechanism in which the organizational factors can explain cyberdeviance, which is argued to be a form of production deviance. Based on the gaps identified, the present study seeks to address a number of research questions (and hence objectives).

To recap, the present study's first research objective is to identify the level of cyberdeviance engaged by employees while at work. It also aims to examine the role of HR practices and leadership style in influencing cyberdeviance at the workplace, and to investigate the mediation of job satisfaction in the HR-cyberdeviance, and leadership-cyberdeviance links. To assist us in understanding how the theoretical linkages are proposed between the predictor variables of HR practices, leadership style, job satisfaction, and cyberdeviance, social exchange theory is invoked. In this context, the present study also aims to validate the use of this theory in explaining the social phenomenon of cyberdeviance as it is engaged at work by employees.

To achieve the research objectives, the present study employed a survey design to collect data from administrative employees from four universities located at the Governate of Amman. The universities (and hence the participants) were selected via cluster sampling. Questionnaires were used as the main data collection technique. Starting from early February until end of June, the data were personally collected.

A number of statistical techniques were performed to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics and frequency analysis were run to profile the participants and to describe the "character" of the main variables. Then, factor and reliability analyses were run to test the goodness of measures before correlation analysis was conducted to examine the inter-correlations of the main variables. Finally, multiple regression

and hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test 15 research hypotheses, formulated earlier.

Results indicated that out of 15 research hypotheses, five hypotheses (i.e. H1, H5, H6, H10, and H15) received empirical support, while the remaining ten research hypotheses failed to receive any (i.e. H2, H3, H4, H7, H8, H9, H11, H12, H13, and H14). Specifically, the present study found that only performance appraisal and supportive leadership have negative and significant influence on cyberdeviance. In addition, the present study also revealed that satisfaction with pay and workload partially mediate leadership-cyberdeviance link while performance appraisal-cyberdeviance link was found to be partially mediated by satisfaction with pay.

The next section discusses the results in greater detail by answering the research questions and addressing the research objectives set earlier.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.3.1 Level of Cyberdeviance

The first research question the present study seeks to address is "What is the level of cyberdeviance exhibited by administrative employees in organization?" To answer this question, frequency analysis on different types of cyberdeviance was run. To recap, based on factor analysis, seven deviant activities on the cyberspace were identified namely: (1) browsing entertainment-related websites; (2) downloading non-work related information; (3) looking for employment; (4) sending non-work related e-mail; (5) receiving non-work related email; (6) browsing non-job related websites; and (7) checking non-work related email.

Table 5.1

Percentages of Participants Engaging in Different Cyberdeviant Activities at Work (n = 273)

Frequency of occurrence	CD3	CD4	CD7	CD5	CDc2	CDc3	CDc1
Constantly	16.5	12.1	13.2	14.7	9.5	22.7	17.9
Once a day	22.0	17.8	19.8	19.4	26.7	21.2	20.1
A few times a week	15.0	23.1	12.8	23.4	22.7	16.9	26.0
A few times a month	17.2	20.9	16.1	20.1	24.9	23.4	24.9
Never	29.3	26.4	38.1	22.3	16.1	15.8	11.0

Note. CD3 = Browsing entertainment-related website; CD4 = Downloading non-work related information; CD7 = Looking for employment; CD5 = Browsing non-job related websites; CDc2= Sending non-work related email; CDc3 = Receiving non-work related email; CDc1 = Checking non-work related email.

As shown in Table 5.1, with regards to the frequency of occurrence of specific types of cyberdeviant activity at work, it seems that 22.7% of the participants waste their time on the Internet on a constant basis receiving non-work related email, which was closely followed by 17.9% of them checking non-work related email. While the percentage of participants who waste their time on the Internet on various cyberdeviant activities on a constant basis is less than 30%, it nonetheless shows that organizations should be wary that these activities take place and could harm the well-being of the organization in the long run, if remain unchecked, more so when employees spend longer hours on the Internet for non-work related purposes regardless of how frequent they are on the net. However, as the participants indicated that they spend an average of 5.6 hours per day at work on the computer (with a standard deviation of 2.16), and that many reported they could not complete their job without the use of a computer, it is possible to speculate that they could spend their time on the computer both for work-related and non-work-related purposes. In other words, since the Internet is an indispensable tool for employees to accomplish much

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of their job (Anandarajan & Simmers, 2005; Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Henle & Blanchard, 2008; Weatherbee, 2010), and due the accessibility, availability and connectivity (Ugrin & Pearson, 2008; Urbaczewski & Jessup, 2002) of it at the workplace, the use of it for personal activities at work is a possible unlikely consequence. However, since the present study did not ask them directly to what extent they rely on the Internet to accomplish their work, such speculation remains suspect, and the findings should be interpreted by taking this limitation into consideration. It is suggested that studies on cyberdeviance should not discount such questions in the future.

Another observation that can be discerned from the findings of the present study is that the kind of cyberdeviant activity committed by employees is minor in nature (Weatherbee, 2010) in which employees reported to engage in browsing and emailing activities such as browsing entertainment related website or sending and checking non-work related e-mails. All these types of activities have been considered to be wasting of time at work as they allow employees to procrastinate (Lavoie & Pychyl, 2001). In the words of Martin, Brock, Buckley, and Ketchen (2010), engaging in deviant activities on the cyberspace such as checking non-work related e-mails and browsing entertainment websites while at work is a form of time banditry, defined as the propensity of employees to engage in non-work related activities during work time.

Whilst employees can certainly choose to engage in more serious form of cyberdeviance, that is, any behaviours that can be potentially abusive and illegal (Case & Young, 2002) such as cyberaggression (Weatherbee, 2010), and online gambling or surfing adult oriented web sites (Blanchard & Henle, 2008), the participants of the present study tended to engage in less serious or minor forms of

cyberdeviance such as sending emails that are non-work related, consistent with the observation of previous studies. For instance, Blanchard and Henle (2008) found that 90% of the employees surveyed perceived that what other employees were doing were minor cases of cyberslacking (e.g., checking emails) but not serious forms (e.g., visiting pornographic websites). They considered checking, receiving and sending personal email at work as well as surfing mainstream web sites including news, financial, auction, stock and sports sites, and shopping online as the "typical" cyberloafing at work, and called these forms of behaviours as minor cyberloafing. Earlier, similar result was revealed by Lim and Teo (2005) who observed that 88% of their respondents saying that cyberslacking was acceptable when they perceived that other employees were engaging in a similar behaviour. Indeed, Lim and Teo (2005) reported that employees justified their cyberloafing practices because "everybody else does it," suggesting that such behaviour could become organizationally acceptable and hence may not invoke strong condemnation. Whilst it could be possible that minor forms of cyberdeviance may be becoming acceptable because many employees are engaging in it, to what extent managers in the organization see such behaviours are typical needs to be investigated.

The finding of the present study also revealed the perceived absence of engagement of cyberdeviant activities of browsing adult-oriented websites and doing online shopping, inconsistent with the theoretical typology developed by Lim (2002). The lack of empirical validation of the original measure of Lim may suggest the operation of cultural sensitivity of the measure. In the Arab Middle East countries where Islam tends to permeate every social fabric, matters related to sexuality are considered taboo for public discussion and even more so admission. Hence, admitting that engagement in watching pornographic items online may be avoided for fear of

social repercussion (Nobles & Sciarra, 2000). With regards to online shopping, such activity may not yet catch up amongst the employees in countries like Jordan. This is confirmed by several studies (e.g., AlGhamdi, Drew, & AlFaraj, 2011; Al Sukkar & Hasan, 2005; Samar, 2009) that indicated the slow acceptance of online transactions such as banking amongst people in the Middle East countries due to several factors like social and infrastructure issues that see low penetration of Internet in the region. Based on a survey by Real Opinions, a market research company based in Dubai, Flanagan (2011) reported that lack of trust with online payment deters 43% of Web users to do online purchases in the Middle East.

5.3.2 Influence of HR Practices on Cyberdeviance

The second objective of the present study pertains to investigating the role of HR practices in influencing cyberdeviance. Four variables were used to describe HR practices in the universities. Those practices are performance appraisal, employment security, career advancement, and compensation practices. The present study seeks to examine these practices because little is known whether HR practices play a role in shaping employees' deviant responses at work.

Consistent with the four practices of HR, four research hypotheses were formulated. The present study hypothesized that each specific practice of HRM would reduce cyberdeviance amongst employees who perceive the practices favourably. However, contrary to expectation, only performance appraisal was found to negatively influence cyberdeviance, which is not parallel with previous studies such as by Arthur (2011), who found a range of different HR practices affecting deviant workplace behaviour. But the finding supports the negative relationship between

performance appraisal and employee negative behaviour such as intention to quit and employee turnover (Poon, 2004). The result also supports other studies that found a negative influence of performance appraisal on deviant work behaviour in general such as study by Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim (2011). Alnaqbi (2011) also found similar result in his study to examine the influence of HR practices on employee retention in the United Arab Emirates. Specifically he reported that performance appraisal perceived to unfair is likely to enhance quit intention amongst 154 employees in public organisations. The result also appears to confirm the proposition made by Werbel and Balkin (2010) that inappropriate application of performance appraisal system is likely to elicit negative behavioural response.

According to Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim (2011), appraisal system is one is one of the most contentious HR practices as it commonly being charged with issues of unfairness due to inherent human subjectivity and discretion. When raters are perceived to rate and assess the employees unfairly, procedural justice is said to occur. Procedural justice reflects how fairly organizational procedures are designed (de Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007) or how fair the processes are perceived to be used in determining outcome allocation (Lim, 2002). Researchers have generally found that procedural justice is linked with negative work outcomes (e.g., Alnaqbi, 2011; de Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999) such as cyberloafing (de Lara, 2007, 2009; Lim, 2005). Thus, employees engage in cyberdeviant activities as a form of response to the unfair treatment they receive from the organisation. This also could explain the negative relationship found between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance at work.

In a study by Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007) on 74 organizations (38 private and 36 public organisations) in Jordan to explore the attitudes of human resource

managers toward performance appraisal system, they found that performance appraisal is administered to employees for various purposes such as promotion, retention/termination, lay-offs, identifying individual training needs, transfers, and assignments. Because of the significant ramifications performance appraisal has on employment consequences, employees' acceptance is crucial for the effectiveness of the performance appraisal system (Al-Zawahreh & Khasawneh, 2013). Al-Zawahreh and Khasawneh (2013) examined employees' perception of the effectiveness of performance appraisal among 278 non-managerial employees from 13 financial organizations in Jordan. They found that the employees perceived favourably the performance appraisal system implemented because it was seen to be valuable, useful, and objective. Indeed, Afiouni, Karam, and El-Hajj (2013) indicated in their study to examine the HR practices in the Arab Middle East that Jordan is considered to be one of the countries in the Middle East that tends to recognize the strategic value of performance appraisal in assisting organizations achieve their goals and objectives. Hence, in this context, the implementation of the performance appraisal system is done in consideration of how it can facilitate job performance of employees and hence the organization. Indeed, studies found that performance appraisal system perceived to be fair leads to favourable attitudinal and behavioural response (e.g., Alnaqbi, 2011; Abu Elanain, 2010; Suliman, 2007).

According to social exchange theory, an organization that fails to carry out objective and fair assessment of job performance is perceived by employees as being a failure to fulfil its expected obligation in an exchange relationship. As argued by to Gouldner (1960), this may lead to the employees to reciprocate negatively. In the context of the present study, engaging in cyberdeviance may be seen as a form of response in kind. As the participants in this study appeared to have favourable attitude

toward the performance appraisal system implemented in their respective universities, there is no reason for them to demonstrate negative behavioural response such as engaging in cyberdeviance, consistent with social exchange perspective. It can be said that the sampled universities are perceived to have been able to fulfil their said obligation of providing fair, objective, and effective performance appraisal system. Only when the system is perceived unfavourably that cyberdeviance is likely to be committed. The unfavourable performance system also reflects poor treatment by the organization that invokes negative behavioural response such as cyberdeviance (Arthur, 1994; Wood & de Menezes, 1998). Indeed, according to stimulus-response theory, work environment that is not conducive acts as a stimuli that triggers individuals to cognitively assess the situation and respond accordingly (Homans, 1961).

In this day and age where the Internet is widely used to accomplish job performance, it may also be used by the employees as an accessible tool to get back at the organization for failing to meet its obligation. When the employees feel that they are unfairly appraised, they may feel that they are at the losing end because good performance evaluation may mean a better chance for them to get promoted in their career or to be better compensated (e.g., Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2009). Seen in this perspective, cyberdeviance may be an important vehicle for the employees to compensate for their future losses as a result of procedural injustice. Using the metaphor of ledger, Lim (2002) argued that employees rationalize their engagement in cyberdeviance because they perceive that they have been shortchanged in some way in the relationship and cyberdeviance is a form of penalty for taking back something they have accumulated in terms of the services rendered over the years.

In Jordan, since employees tend to perceive performance appraisal as an important tool for employee promotion, career advancement, salary raise etc. (Al-Zawahreh & Khasawneh, 2013), fair assessment of their job performance is important, as it reflects honour, and self-respect, which are some of the values deemed dominant and importance in the society (Sidani & Thornberry, 2009). Unfair assessment means the employees are not seen as trustworthy and this defies their self-respect and honour as individuals. Indeed, in the Arab culture, justice is of paramount importance, as enshrined in the Islamic religion (Sidani & Thornberry, 2009). When injustice is perceived to have occurred, they are likely to challenge it by engaging in negative behaviour, amongst other things. A study by Galin and Avraham (2008) to compare aggression tendency between Arab and Israeli workers found that Israeli Arabs tend to display indirect aggression at work, defined as displays of aggression designed to cause harm through largely unnoticeable means such as spreading rumours or gossiping. In fact, cyberdeviance may be considered as a form of indirect aggression as it is committed indirectly to harm the organization. Such explanation is probable given that Arab people in general tend to place high value in quality of their work, as observed by a study conducted by Zogby (2002) involving 3,800 Arab adults from eight countries including Jordan to understand their values, political concerns, mood and outlook, self-definition, and view of the world. Despite the probable explanations offered for the findings, future research should look into this link for further validation and corroboration, by considering the relevant generative mechanisms that could explain the link further such as the justice or deterrent motive.

While it was initially conjectured that other types of HR practices such as compensation, career advancement, and employment security would influence cyberdeviance, no significant result was obtained. These HR practices appeared do

not have any significant effect on whether or not employees engage in cyberdeviance or not, contrary to expectation. While the result found is not in line with much of the previous works related to general deviant behaviour such as absenteeism and turnover (e.g., Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Arthur, 1994; Cheng & Brown, 1998; Pizam & Thornburg, 2000), it is parallel with that reported by Altarawneh and Al-Kilani (2010) in their study on 250 hotel employees in Jordan whereby HR practices such as promotion, selection, and pay were not found to contribute significantly to turnover intention.

The result suggests that even though employees do not feel they are unfavourably treated by the management in terms of unfavourable HR practices, they will not necessarily engage in cyberdeviance as a form of response to such working condition. In Jordan where unemployment among the population is amongst the highest in the Middle East countries, hovering around 13% in 2011 (Roudi, 2011), putting up with unfavourable treatment by the management may be a better alternative than risking unemployment that may result from engaging in cyberdeviance (e.g., Case & Young, 2002; Greenfield & Davis, 2002). Furthermore, because in many Middle East countries (Jordan is considered one of the countries in the Middle East by World Bank [2004]) employment with the private sector is less preferred to working in the public sector as the latter is widely perceived to be more secure (Miles, 2002), such explanation may be probable. Because the participants were mainly from the private sector organizations, engaging in negative behaviour such as cyberdeviance may not necessarily be the "correct" form of behavioural response even when the working condition is perceived to be unfavourable. Indeed, as observed by Zogby (2002), job security is one of the main concerns expressed by Arab participants in his study. Furthermore, according to Robertson et al. (2001, as cited in Smith, Achoui, &

Harb, 2007). Arab people tend to believe that work is good in itself and that it bestows dignity on the individual.

The findings however beg an interesting question. Why does only performance appraisal influence cyberdeviance and not the other HR practices of compensation, career advancement, and job security? It can perhaps be argued that performance appraisal is the key to the other HR practices under study. That is, as favourable appraisal determines salary level, career growth, and even job retention (i.e. employment security), fair and objective assessments are perceived to be important characteristics, as discussed earlier, without which may result in employees' engagement in cyberdeviance while at work, as a form of negative reciprocity for the unfair treatment received. Again, while this may be a probable explanation, more studies need to confirm the speculation.

5.3.3 Influence of Leadership Style on Cyberdeviance

The present study sought also to investigate the relationship between leadership style and cyberdeviance. Even though to date no study has looked into the influence of supportive leadership on cyberdeviant activities at work by employees, we hypothesized that leaders who are supportive of their employees toward the accomplishment of the job performance are likely to influence their subordinates to demonstrate less cyberdeviant activities while at work. Regression result appears to corroborate the overwhelming research evidence that leadership style has an important bearing on employee work outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour (e.g., Bass, 1998; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Bushra, Usman, & Naveed,

2011; Floyd, 2010; Lian & Tui, 2012; Manning, 2002; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2004; Zahari & Shugari, 2012), including some meta-analytic reviews (Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Within the general literature of deviant workplace behaviour, the finding also appears to confirm previous research works that found the significant influence of abusive supervision or leadership on employee deviant behaviour while at work (e.g., Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu & Hua, 2009; Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009). In a cross-sectional study conducted by Tepper et al. (2009) with employees from three organizations in the USA to examine the relationships between abusive supervision and subordinates' workplace deviance using power/dependence theory found that abusive supervision was more strongly associated with subordinates' organization deviance. Similar result was also reported by a survey carried out by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) among 427 individuals called for a jury duty by a county circuit court in the Southeastern United States. They revealed that abusive supervision was positively related to employee deviance. Moreover, the relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance is stronger for employees with stronger negative reciprocity beliefs.

Since to date no studies have been carried out to examine the effect of supportive leadership style on cyberdeviance, arguments can be made by using the abusive supervision literatures above. Leaders are individuals who are in the closest proximity with employees at work; hence, they are able to shape their employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses through their own behaviour as the employees learn from them what can and cannot be done, and what is and is not expected, as espoused by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). When employees perceive that their leader are supportive of their work and are concerned about their welfare, they

tend to reciprocate by demonstrating positive and functional behaviours at work, and have less tendency to engage in deviant behaviour at work (Chullen, Dunford, Angermeier, Boss, & Boss, 2010). On the other hand, leaders who are seen to be abusive or unsupportive, employees tend to respond to such treatment in a negative manner (e.g., Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009; Thau et al., 2009). Hence, they are likely to engage in dysfunctional behaviour at work such as increasing frequency of spending time unnecessarily on the Internet for non-work related purposes. By doing so, the Internet can be seen as a tool in which the employees use to get back at their leaders for their unfavourable behaviour.

According to Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001), since leadership in the Arab world tends to be associated with tribalism, employees are likely to see their leaders as protectors, caregivers, and fathers. Hence, in the context of work, employees tend to look upon leaders for support and guidance toward the accomplishment of their job performance. In other words, leaders are expected to show paternalistic qualities when dealing with their subordinates (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001; Taleghani, Salmani, & Taatian, 2010). Because leaders are expected to show concern about the task should be performed (Sabri, 2010), and they play a major role in influencing the quality of the working lives of their subordinates (Abdulla, Ramdane, & Kamel, 2011), inability to perform is likely to trigger behavioural response. In the words of Sidani and Thornberry (2009, p. 46):

> "In a culture where honour is linked to status, employees may feel that management interest in them is part of honouring them. When they feel less respect from their superiors, they will shut themselves out... they like a strong manager who would release any potential ambiguities in their environment. ...
>
> In a team environment, a strong formal leader might have the authority needed

to elicit cooperation from group members. In addition, employee dependence on the work group can be enhanced by making the group leader the one primarily responsible for providing feedback to group members on their performance."

"Shutting themselves out" in the above context can mean a form of neglect, as proposed by Farrell (1983), who extended Hirshman's (1970) work on the types of employee responses to poor stimulus in the environment. According to Farrell, neglect is a passive or moderately passive response such as when an employee exhibits reduced interest or effort, increased lateness or absenteeism, increased errors, or uses company time for personal business. It is in the context of neglect that cyberdeviance can be located.

While studies that look into the effect of ineffective leadership on behavioural outcomes in the Arab Middle East are almost non-existent, but events that are currently taking place in Egypt (where the democratically elected president was ousted) seem to indicate that employees are likely to respond negatively to leaders who are seen as ineffective, and cyberdeviance may be a likely resort engaged by employees. While the explanation seems to be probable, future studies may wish to examine the effect of ineffective leadership style especially in the Arab world, considering that leadership is an important social structure in that context.

5.3.4 Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction on HRP-Cyberdeviance and Leadership-Cyberdeviance Linkages

The main contribution of the present study pertains to the results of the hierarchical regression analyses, which examined the joint relationships among HR practices, leadership style, job satisfaction and cyberdeviance. An important finding here is that the dimensions of job satisfaction not only have a direct relationship to cyberdeviance behaviour, but they also mediate the relationship between relevant HR practices, leadership, and cyberdeviance. Specifically, satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with workload were found to partially mediate the relationship between leadership and cyberdeviance. Additionally, satisfaction with pay was found to partially mediate the relationship between performance appraisal and cyberdeviance. In general, the results are consistent with previous works that revealed the mediating role of job satisfaction as significant mechanisms in explaining work-related outcomes such as turnover (Poon, 2004), organisational commitment (Cheung, Cheung, Chan, & Wong, 2009), and organisational citizenship behaviour (Ilies, Smithey, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009), to name a few.

The result that effective performance appraisal was found to be significantly linked with satisfaction is parallel with previous studies (e.g., Abu Elanain, 2010; Ndambakuwa & Jacob, 2006; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2000). For instance, in a study to examine the effect of performance criteria used in evaluating job performance on job satisfaction of 155 retails 155 retail salespeople, Pettijohn, Pettijohn, and Taylor (2000) found that when the salespeople perceived greater inappropriateness of the evaluation criteria, they tended to be less satisfied with their job. Similar finding was also reported by Behery and Patton (2008) in their study to

investigate the influence of fit between performance appraisal and organizational culture on work outcomes. They revealed that when the performance appraisal is perceived to reflect work related values of the organizational culture, it significantly influences employee satisfaction.

Similarly, our finding that leadership style enhances job satisfaction is consistent with many of the previous studies conducted both in the Western or Arab contexts (e.g., Abdulla, Ramdane, & Kamel, 2011; Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010; Awamleh & Al-Dmour, 2005; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Bass, 1998; Darwish & Nusairat, 2008; Lian & Tui, 2012; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Randeree & Chaudry, 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2004; Yousef, 2000), suggesting that there seems to be universal acceptance that employees value leaders who are effective in their work (i.e. supportive).

Next, we also managed to demonstrate the negative influence of job satisfaction on cyberdeviance, which confirms the literatures that indicate that employees tend to engage in negative behavioural responses or negative deviance at work when they are satisfied with their job (e.g., Darratt, Amyx, & Bennett, 2010; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006; Kidwell & Valentine, 2009; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). Even though studies in the Arab Middle East in particular are almost non-existent on examining the role of job satisfaction on workplace deviance behaviour and more so on cyberdeviance, previous researchers that examined the influence of job satisfaction on turnover indicated a negative link. For instance, Abu Elanain (2010) confirmed general assertion that job satisfaction will result in turnover intention amongst 50 employees working in five large organizations operating in Dubai. Similar findings are reported elsewhere (e.g., Aldhuwaihi, Shee, & Stanton, 2012; Shaw, Duffy, Abdulla, & Singh, 2000; Zeffane, Ibrahim, & Al Mehairi, 2008).

Zeffane, Ibrahim, and Al Mehairi (2008) in particular revealed that female employees' job satisfaction with their supervisor's competence in making decision and satisfaction with recognition tended to influence their attendance while male employees' degree of satisfaction with general working conditions was likely to affect their attendance. With regards to conduct and discipline, satisfaction with leadership style was the significant determinant for female employees while satisfaction with recognition and job autonomy was important predictor for male employees working in a utility company in the United Arab Emirates.

Implicit in social exchange theory is the role of satisfaction individuals have on the exchange relationship. This theory argues that such exchange/transactional relationship is developed and maintained when both parties to the transaction are satisfied with the contribution each offers to the relationship. When both parties assess that the contribution each other makes is equivalent in terms of cost and benefit, then they reciprocate in kind (Blau, 1964). In the context of employment relations, when the organization is perceived to be fulfilling its contract or obligation to the employees, they will feel satisfied with their job because the obligation to provide conducive work environment, such as by providing career advancement opportunities, sets a favourable condition that allows the employees to perform their job well. Hence, when employees feel satisfied with their job, they are less likely to reciprocate badly and negatively towards the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Alternatively, when the employees feel that the organization fails to provide a conducive work environment, their dissatisfaction will lead them to reciprocate badly toward the organization. One of the ways employees may respond negatively is by engaging in cyberdeviant activity. This argument is also likely to explain how performance appraisal and leadership affect cyberdeviance through job satisfaction. In

this context, fair performance appraisal, and supportive leadership reflect good treatment by the organization to its employees. Researchers have noted that favourable treatment employees receive elicits positive and reduces negative work outcomes (e.g., Henle & Blanchard, 2008; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Indeed, within the context of the Middle East, it is unassuming to suggest that similar situation can be speculated to take place, as has been indicated earlier (refer to sections 5.3.2. and 5.3.3).

Poon (2004) revealed that when performance ratings were used to manipulate affective reasons such as personal liking or for the purpose of punishing employees, they experienced reduced job satisfaction, which in turn influenced withdrawal behaviour of intending to quit from the organisation. According to Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim (2011), appraisal system is one is one of the most problematic HR practices as it is replete with human subjectivity and discretion, despite attempts to minimize such biases. As a result, employees may perceive to be unfairly assessed and when this happens they may retaliate by engaging deviant behaviour at work (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). When the appraisal process is seen as being unfair, the distribution of reward such as promotion will also be seen as unfair (De Cremer, 2005; Koonmee, 2011). As indicated by Niehoff and Paul (2000) in particular in the context of deviant behaviour literature, "To be ... treated without respect of dignity, brings expressions of dissatisfaction either through words or action ...Whilst the explanation for the relationship between HR practices and deviant behaviour is likely, more research is needed to validate it. Furthermore, considering the emotional process such as anger or frustration into the equation may help understand the whole relationship better and hence extend the existing literature on cyberdeviance. In the Arab Middle East culture, dignity and respect are paramount

values held dear by societal members (Sidani & Thornberry, 2009), which could result in violence. Honour killing is a phenomenon that often occurs in such society when the family's dignity and honour are tarnished (Maher, 2013). Even though this is perhaps an extreme case of deviant behaviour occurs in a society, it nonetheless describes that damage to one's dignity can have possible negative consequences.

The present study also found the mediating role of both dimensions of job satisfaction (satisfaction with pay and workload) on the linkage between supportive leadership style and cyberdeviance. As mentioned earlier, leaders who demonstrated supportive leadership by showing the employees about what needs to be done, motivating them on how to perform, listens to their concern, spends time coaching and teaching, informs them about their mistakes etc. will make their employees motivated and satisfied with their job, and consequently reduce their tendency to engage in negative behaviours that are not organizationally sanctioned such as wasting time on the Internet while at work. In other words, because employees tend to be satisfied with their job, they tend to focus more on their work in exchange for the support they receive from their leaders and such work focus is manifested in the form of reduced cyberdeviant activity at work. In fact, the results showed that of all the predictor variables, supportive leadership style was found to have the strongest influence on cyberdeviance, indicating that leaders have a significant role to play in reducing the occurrence of cyberdeviance amongst employees while at work. This has an important implication to practice especially in terms of what roles leaders should play in producing positive attitudinal and behavioural responses of employees, and how leaders should be developed and trained to being supportive in managing and leading their subordinates at work.

The effects of HR practices and supportive leadership style on cyberdeviance through the generative mechanism of job satisfaction have provided empirical support for the applicability of social exchange theory in explaining the social phenomenon of cyberdeviance at work. In particular, the use of job satisfaction as the mechanism in which the effects of HR practices and supportive leadership style is significant because it indicates the dynamics of employee-employer relationship in that it signifies the cognitive evaluations that parties to the relationship constantly make in deciding the kinds of reciprocal behaviour and expectations that have to be displayed (Blau, 1964). It is when favourable assessment of the contribution and efforts made by both parties that satisfaction takes place. When this happens, reciprocity is maintained through the manifestation of appropriate expectations and behaviours. In the theoretical context of the present study, employees who are satisfied with their job because the organization has provided them with good work environment in which they are able to grow and develop and in which they can rely on their leaders for support tend to reciprocate the contribution made by the organization by not wasting their time browsing the Internet for non-work related purposes. Browsing the Internet for non-work related purposes, in other words, run contrary to the spirit of positive reciprocity.

The mediating link of job satisfaction between HR practices and leadership and cyberdeviance also seems to address the concern voiced by Allen, Shore, and Griffeth (2003), who argued that the effect of HR practices on work outcomes such as turnover is rather dismal, which can be better understood by incorporating the mediating processes especially, which tend to be neglected in many past studies (Gardner, Moyhihan, Park, & Wright, 2001).

5.4   IMPLICATIONS TO THEORY AND PRACTICE

As mentioned in the first chapter, the findings of the present study are able to contribute to theory and practice.

5.4.1   Theoretical Implications

Theoretically speaking, the present study has managed to contribute to the growing literature on cyberdeviance especially within the context of Arab Middle East, where studies on such workplace phenomenon is almost non-existent. In particular, it has provided empirical support for the influence of HR practices, namely performance appraisal, and leadership on cyberdeviance. Specifically, both performance appraisal and leadership were able to explain a considerable amount of variance (more than 60%) of cyberdeviance, with leadership style emerges as the strongest predictor, suggesting the more important role leaders play in shaping behavioural responses at work.

But more importantly, the present study has been able to shed some light into the attitudinal mechanism of job satisfaction in facilitating our understanding why performance appraisal and leadership are likely to reduce cyberdeviance. Through the application of social exchange theory, cyberdeviance can be interpreted as a negative response of employees to the unfulfilled obligation by organizations addition, as expected in an employee-employer relationship.

5.4.2 Practical Implications

The findings of the present study have a number of important implications to practice. In particular, it offers recommendations to managers and business practitioners on the need to consider appropriate measures and ways to reduce cyberdeviant activities at work by employees given that access and connectivity to the Internet at work are likely to be improved in the future (Ugrin & Pearson, 2008). The recommendations offered here, however, should be understood from social exchange perspective in that employees' behavioural and attitudinal responses and reactions are shaped by the stimuli in the environment they are in. For managers and practitioners to desire appropriate responses from employees, they are to consider seriously the work environment so that the employees could feel that their contribution toward the accomplishment of job performance is reciprocated accordingly. It is the perceived reciprocity that the employees take cue from the environment.

Based on the findings, the present study recommends that managers and business practitioners re-visit their current practices of implementing performance appraisal system in their organizations. In particular, HR managers need to understand that unfair and subjective performance ratings could elicit undesirable responses from the employees. Hence, implementing an objective and fair assessment of employee performance within the organization are crucial to produce the desired behavioural and attitudinal work responses. Also, HR managers should also consider allowing employees to participate in goal-setting and appraisal system, consistent with the finding that democratic leadership and participative/consultative leadership styles are the most prevalent style in many Arab organizations (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Yousef, 2000). In studying the current

implementation of performance appraisal of both private and public organizations in Jordan, Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007) recommended that the existing performance appraisal be improved to serve the diverse functions to address performance problems, identify training needs, link appraisal with promotion and pay raise.

Secondly, as the present study has shown that leadership also plays an important role in influencing cyberdeviant activities by employees while at work, this is another area managers need to address and improve on. Because leaders are the people who are close in proximity to the employees (de Lara, Verano-Tacoronte, & Ding, 2006), they are effective in shaping appropriate employee responses at work. As the present findings indicated that leaders who are able to develop their employees' talent through coaching and mentoring, clearly set the direction for them, and are concerned about their welfare and how they could accomplish their job, training and developing leaders to have appropriate leadership skills is paramount so that the employees feel that they are being recognized for their talent and empowered to do their job. When the employees feel that their leaders are concerned about their well-being, they are more likely to reciprocate accordingly. Hence, leadership training and development should look into elements on how to modify leaders' behaviours so that they could be able to elicit appropriate employee responses at work. In short, as leaders are the most significant predictor of cyberdeviance shown by the present study, they need to be trained on how to be supportive of their employees toward the accomplishment of their job performance. Indeed, in the Arab Middle East context, leaders are seen as an important figure employees look up to for guidance and support (Sidani & Thornberry, 2009), hence training on how to develop such quality traits is paramount.

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5.5   SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As the Internet is a revolutionary tool that has transformed people's lives considerably, its novelty offers unlimited research possibilities. Although literatures on Internet use, abuse, and misuse are growing, more research work is certainly needed to help understand various social phenomena and repercussions brought about by the advent of this technology, with cyberdeviance being one of them.

In the attempt to explain the social phenomenon of cyberdeviance at work, the present study has developed a parsimonious model in which the roles of HR practices, leadership style, and job satisfaction were considered. In the course of achieving parsimony, reflected in the model fit shown by the regression analysis, other variables that could have played a role in explaining cyberdeviance were left out. Whilst disregarding other variables was intentional in consistence with the theoretical perspective employed, understanding why people engage in cyberdeviant activities while at work could also be enhanced by considering other relevant factors. Indeed, as shown by the regression analysis, the remaining 35.5% of the variance explained in cyberdeviance was not accounted by HR practices and supportive leadership style, indicating additional factors are at play. Whilst the present study has taken into account the organizational characteristics, future researchers could consider investigating the role of job characteristics. Descriptive surveys, as mentioned in earlier chapters, indicated that people reported to engage in wasting time browsing the Internet and updating their status onto their social media because their job was not interesting, which made them bored at work. Indeed, the present study has also shown that when employees are satisfied with their workload, they tend to engage less in cyberdeviance. Future research works, hence, could be carried out to examine to what

extent employee workload plays a significant factor in influencing cyberdeviance. Furthermore, psychological processes at work such as boredom will be an interesting avenue to explore as previous surveys have indicated that cyberdeviance may be attributed to feeling of boredom due to uninteresting job (Gouveia, 2012). If indeed boredom is an important psychological process, this will add to the complexity of understanding cyberdeviance.

Although the results of our model provide a useful, parsimonious framework for other researchers to build on, ours is underspecified. For example perceptual variables that could moderate some of the relationships were not included in this study. One area of research that appears to be relevant to understanding cyberdeviance behaviour is organizational justice, that is, employees' perception of unfairness at work (e.g., Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Henle, Kohut, & Booth, 2009). Whilst scholars (e.g., de Lara, 2006, 2007, 2009; Lim & Teo, 2006) have considered the role of organizational justice in Internet misuse research, to what extent it enhances or diminishes employees' tendency to engage in deviant activities on the cyberspace at work is yet to be validated as scholars have observed that perceived unfairness may result in employee retaliatory behaviour (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) by invoking social exchange theory.

Other cognitive and emotive processes that may help explain why employees waste their time at work by misusing the Internet for non-work related purposes could also be considered in future works as they are yet to receive much attention in the literature. According to some scholars, employees engage in deviant behaviour either to "even the score" (Greenberg, 1997), to "retaliate" (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1998), to "get revenge" (Bies & Tripp, 1998; Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997; Tripp & Bies, 1997), or to "vent anger and frustration" (Dollard,

Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939; Fox & Spector, 1999; Spector, 1978, 1997). For instance, a study conducted by Mulki, Jaramillio, and Locander (2006) found that employees' emotional exhaustion led to higher job dissatisfaction and lower organizational commitment which prompted them to engage in deviant behaviours. In the context of cyberdeviance, the role of emotion such as anger and frustration in prompting employees to engage in cyberdeviance at work is a potential research avenue to be explored especially in cases where cyberaggression is concerned. Other generative mechanisms such as organizational commitment or employee engagement could also be explored in helping us understand how they enhance or reduce the tendency of engaging in cyberdeviant activities by employees while at work.

While knowing why employees waste time at work through the misuse of Internet is useful especially for managers and practitioners address the issue and for scholars to develop theoretical framework to explain the phenomenon, it is also equally important for both scholars and practitioners alike to know the consequences such deviant activity at work entails to the organization. As argued by Robinson and Bennett (1995) in their work on deviant behaviour at work and other scholars on cyberdeviance (e.g., de Lara, 2006, 2007, 2009; Lim, 2002, 2005; Weatherbee, 2010; Ugrin & Pearson, 2008), deviations from organizational norms could harm the well-being of the organization. Hence, studies should be carried out to assess such claim by investigating the effects of cyberdeviance in particular and deviant behaviour in general in organizational outcomes such as productivity, loss of times at work, etc. Only by measuring the consequences of such deviant activities one will be able to know the extent of damage and harm they bring to the organization. In other words, holistic measures to handle and manage cyberdeviant activities could be implemented effectively.

Another plausible avenue of research is the role of cultural differences in understanding cyberdeviance. Even though it is suggested that cyberdeviance is a behavioural response employees engaged in when confronted with poor work environment, will employees in a cultural context that is dissimilar to the Arab culture demonstrate different or similar levels of cyberdeviance. As argued in the present study, minor forms of cyberdeviance seem to be "appropriate" for Arab employees as such behaviour is indirect and discreet, which is reflective of their need not to be shake the authority (Galin & Avraham, 2008) as demanded by collectivist society. But employees from an individualist society will exhibit serious forms of cyberdeviance as a response to poor treatment received?

5.6   LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

No one research works are flawless. Because researchers are not able to control wholly extraneous factors when they do their research, they threaten the validity of the results. For example, researchers could not control the environment that shapes the responses of participants, nor could they have any say in, for example, when and where the research could be conducted especially when getting access to the research setting is a contentious issue that needs to be constantly negotiated. In this context, the present study also has several limitations and it cautions readers to interpret the findings by taking them into consideration.

The first limitation pertains to the issue of generalizability. Even though the participants in the study were selected randomly using cluster sampling, many did not participate either for voluntary reasons or because access to them was not formally granted by the university management. Hence, data collected might not necessarily be

able to represent the population of the study and hence the findings might not be able to be generalized across the larger population of administrative staff employees in other universities and other organisations in Jordan as well. Despite this limitation, however, the participants who took part in the survey mirrored quite closely with the characteristics of the general population in their demographic make-up, as shown in the previous chapter. It was also assumed that due to the nature of work they do, it was safe to assume that significant differences in their job characteristics. Nonetheless, replication attempts should be conducted in future works using diverse samples across various organisations so that larger generalizability of the results could be achieved.

Secondly, the present study was cross-sectional and correlational in nature in that it attempted to describe the social phenomenon of cyberdeviance across some sections of the society without attempting to observe any perceptual, attitudinal, and behavioural changes that could be brought about as a result of Internet use at the workplace. Due to the nature of the present study, causality is problematic. It cannot be ascertained that the HR practices and leadership style that *actually* caused employees to engage in cyberdeviant activities because they were dissatisfied or because the employees were in the first place *dissatisfied* with their job and the system and the practices that were being implemented further aggravated their situation at work. Whilst causality might not be able to be truly inferred, it is also possible that HR practices and the style of leaders affect cyberdeviance through job satisfaction as the generative mechanism because of time-order sequence (Sekaran, 2003) and because the present study assumed that people generally are good citizens (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999). As a result, their behaviour is determined not so much by their psychological disposition but rather more by the environment they are in.

Whilst this line of reasoning could be valid, future research should consider experimental or longitudinal approach to studying cyberdeviance so that causal inferences could be made. In particular, observing the perceptual, attitudinal, and behavioural changes and responses brought about by the use of Internet at work could enhance and enrich the existing literature and to validate further the arguments that the Internet could shape employee responses while at work.

Some of the research hypotheses that failed to receive empirical support could be attributed to the measures used. Like any studies on deviant behaviour, asking individuals about their own cyberdeviant activity while at work is akin to asking them about how much they earn exactly in a month. Deviant behaviour is a sensitive topic to handle and social desirability bias, defined by Crowne and Marlowe (1964) as "the need for social approval and acceptance and the belief that it can be attained by means of culturally acceptable and appropriate behaviours" (p. 109) or simply put "the tendency on the part of the individuals to present themselves in a favourable light, regardless of their true feelings about an issue or topic" (Podsakoff, McKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 881), which is one of the common method biases that are inherent in behavioural research (Podsakoff et al., 2003), is one of the major threats that could invalidate the results and hence the conclusion drawn from the findings. This is because many people wish not to be seen in a good light (Babbie, 2002) they might not respond to the questions asked honestly and not acknowledge openly their deviant activity, if indeed that was the case. Even when they were asked about their co-workers' engagement in cyberdeviance while at work, many might not reveal the truth for fear of backlash and retaliation from their colleagues as they would want to be socially accepted. Whilst such scenario was a possibility, the present study had taken steps to ensure that such repercussion could be avoided by convincing the

participants that their identities were not able to be identified neither by the university management nor by their own colleagues as their responses would be aggregated and they could complete the questionnaires at the comfort of their home. Nonetheless, to avoid social desirability bias from threatening the validity of the results, future researchers should include assessment from multiple sources including peers, subordinates, and superiors.

But despite the limitations highlighted, the present study has contributed to the understanding of cyberdeviance at work. In particular, it has managed to enhance the existing literature by providing empirical support on the role of HR practices and leadership style in affecting cyberdeviance. It further attested the role of job satisfaction as a significant mechanism in which the links between HR practices and cyberdeviance, and between leadership and cyberdeviance could be observed and understood.

5.7   CONCLUDING REMARKS

The present study has sought to offer theoretical explanation to the increasingly important social phenomenon at the workplace i.e. cyberdeviance. Viewed as a form of production deviance, defined by Robinson and Bennett (1995) as behaviours that violate the formally prescribed norms delineating the quality and quantity of work to be accomplished, the understanding of cyberdeviance was located and approached within social exchange theory. This theory asserts that the relationship between two parties is based on exchanges that form the basis for the maintenance of a good relationship between an employer and an employee as these exchanges signify trust and fairness. When one party is perceived as contributing well to the relationship, the

other party will reciprocate by doing the same. In the present study, it is argued that an employer or an organization is perceived to be contributing to the employment relationship by providing good and conducive work environment in the form of favourable HR practices and supportive leadership. These valuable contributions make the employee feel satisfied, which lead him or her to reciprocate in kind by not demonstrating cyberdeviant behaviour while at work. In other words, in exchange for the good treatment the employee receives from the employer, he or she will return the good exchanges in kind by displaying the appropriate behaviour. An example of manifestation of appropriate behaviour is not wasting time at work by misusing the Internet i.e. engaging in cyberdeviance.

The results found general empirical support for the theory in that HR practice, namely, performance appraisal, and supportive leadership tend to reduce the likelihood of employee committing cyberdeviant behaviour while at work. But of these two factors, supportive leadership tends to play a bigger role in influencing whether or not employees will engage in cyberdeviance at work, as reflected in the higher beta value and higher coefficient. This suggests that cyberdeviance is displayed more as a response to the way they are perceived to be treated personally and professionally by their leaders at work than to the system of HR in place. This implies that leaders should be more concerned about how they treat their subordinates at work as they are the closest people to them who are looked upon for support and guidance toward the accomplishment of the job and personal achievements and ambitions at work. But collectively, favourable treatment the employees receive in the form of good HR practices and supportive leadership tend to make them satisfied in their job and this leads to the decrease in cyberdeviant activity. The reduced cyberdeviant behaviour while at work can be interpreted as a form of exchange that the employees

give to their employer or organisation in return for the good and favourable treatment they receive. In this context, not engaging in cyberdeviance is a return in kind for the perceived favourable exchanges.

The main contribution of the present study is thus the use of social exchange theory in explaining cyberdeviance in which job satisfaction is examined as a possible psychological process or generative mechanism in which the links between HR practices and leadership style can be better understood. Indeed, such theoretical linkages have never been examined before and the empirical validation of these linkages enriches the growing literatures on cyberdeviance, especially within the context of Arab Middle East. The findings of the present study also offer some practical insight into the need for organizations to re-visit their HR practices and leadership style as these have significant bearing on how employee form attitudinal and hence behavioural responses at work.

To conclude, the Internet technology without doubt poses an interesting episode in the lives of human being. As much as it offers limitless opportunities and benefits for mankind, it also poses remarkable challenges especially in the world of employment. The biggest challenge for organizations is how to capitalize on the advantages of the Internet without becoming the prey of the "dark side" that it brings. From the theoretical point of view, the Internet will invite many researchers to embark on scholarly activities toward developing a better understanding of this phenomenon called "cyberdeviance."

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APPENDIX A

SUMMARY OF MAJOR WORKS ON CYBERDEVIANCE

SUMMARY OF MAJOR WORKS ON CYBERDEVIANCE

Author	Objective	Setting	Sample	Dependent variable	Independent / other variables	Method	Result
Blanchard and Henle (2008)	Examined the effects of norms and external locus of control on cyberloafing	Southeastern university in USA	222 employed MBA students	Cyberloafing	Norms and external locus of control	Survey	Employees' perceptions of their coworkers' and supervisor's norms were positively related to minor cyberloafing, but not related to serious cyberloafing. Belief in chance was positively related to both minor and serious cyberloafing. A belief in powerful others was not related to minor or serious cyberloafing.
Case and Young (2001)	Examined the effect of organizational monitoring on Internet misuse	USA	Three northeastern US manufacturing companies	Internet misuse	Organizational monitoring	A multi-case study (survey and interviews)	Internet e-management monitoring not as formal as indicated in industry surveys. Enforcement has been limited to using informal reprimands to maintain a stable company labor force and in light of the newness of Internet behavioral problems.
Chak and Leung (2004)	Examined the influence of personality variables, online experiences, demographics on Internet addiction and Internet use	USA	722 Internet users	Internet addiction and Internet use	Shyness, locus of control, online experiences, and demographics	Online and offline survey	The higher the tendency of one being addicted to the Internet, the shyer the person is, the less faith the person has, the firmer belief the person holds in the irresistible power of others, and the higher trust the person places on chance in determining his or her own course of life, the higher the Internet use. full-time students are more likely to be addicted to the Internet, as they are considered high-risk for problems because of free and unlimited access and flexible time schedules.
Chen, Chen, and Yang (2008)	Examined the effects of personality and Internet addiction on Internet abuse	Taiwan	351 employees in Southern Science Park	Internet abuse	Locus of control, self-esteem	Survey	Personality factors such as locus of control and self-esteem significantly influence employees' internet addictions; and internet addiction significantly impacts employees' Internet abuse at the workplace.

Study	Objective	Country	Sample	Dependent variable	Independent variables	Method	Findings
de Lara (2006)	Examined the relationship between interactional justice, fear of formal punishment, and workplace internet deviance (or cyberloafing)	Spain	147 non-teaching staff at a Spanish public university	Cyberloafing	Interactional justice, and fear of formal punishment	Intranet email survey	Interactional justice is an antecedent of fear of formal punishment that fully mediates the relationship between interactional justice and cyberloafing
de Lara (2007)	Examined the moderating role of organizational anomia on organizational justice and cyberloafing	Spain	270 teachers of a Spanish university	Cyberloafing	Organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional), organizational anomia	Intranet email survey	Anomia acts as a moderator of the OJ-cyberloafing link because the perceptions of three types of organizational justice among employees with low, as compared to high anomia, have a stronger negative relationship with cyberloafing.
de Lara (2009)	Explored the influence of procedural justice, and normative conflict on cyberloafing	Spain	147 non-teaching stuff participant in Spanish public university	Cyberloafing	Procedural justice and normative conflict	Intranet email survey	Procedural justice is an antecedent of the normative conflict that fully mediates the link between procedural justice and cyberloafing.
de Lara, Verano-Tacoronte and Ding (2006)	Examined the relationship between coercive control strategies cyberloafing	Spain	147 non-teaching stuff participant in Spanish public university	Cyberloafing	Perceived organizational control , fear of formal punishment, and physical leadership proximity	Intranet email survey	Leaders physical proximity is a significant positively associated antecedent of perceived organizational control and fear of formal punishment. Moreover, perceived organizational support decreases cyberloafing, while fear of formal punishment increases it.
Galletta and Polak (2003)	Examined the influence of attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and Internet addiction on Internet abuse.	USA	571 Internet users via an on-line survey	Internet abuse	Attitudes; subjective norms; perceived behavioral control	Survey	Most of the antecedents in two of the three Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) categories (Attitudes and Subjective Norms), were significant, and none of the antecedents in the third TPB category (Perceived Behavioral Control) showed signification. Internet addiction, self-justification, job satisfaction, peer culture, and supervisor culture were significant predictors of Internet abuse.

Author (year)	Country	Sample	Purpose	Dependent variable	Independent variables	Method	Findings
Henle and Blanchard (2008)	USA	194 employed MBA students at a southeastern university	Examined the antecedents of cyberloafing	Cyberloafing	Workplace stressors, perceived organizational sanctions	Survey	When employees perceived more role ambiguity or role conflict they were more likely to respond with cyberloafing. Conversely, they were less likely to cyberloaf in response to role overload. However, employees were more likely to cyberloaf in response to these stressors when they perceived that organizational sanctions for cyberloafing were unlikely.
Lim (2002)	Singapore	188 working adults via electronic questionnaire and focus group interviews	Examined the effect of organizational justice on cyberloafing	Cyberloafing	Organizational justice (procedural justice, interactional justice, distributive justice)	Survey	Organizational justice was found to increase cyberloafing.
Lim and Teo (2005)	Singapore	226 working adults	Examined the perceived prevalence and seriousness of various cyberloafing activities	Cyberloafing		Internet survey	Cyberloafing activities that are perceived to be more serious tend to be less prevalent. The Internet has made the boundary between work and non-work (home) less distinct, facilitating the intrusion of work into home and personal activities into the work domain
Lim and Teo (2009)	Singapore	192 Singaporean employees in banking and financial service industry	Examined cyber incivility impacts on work outcomes	Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, quit intention, and workplace deviance	Cyber incivility	Survey	Cyber incivility was negatively related to employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Employees who experienced cyber incivility were also more likely to quit their jobs or engaged in deviant behavior against their organization. Thus, cyber incivility has negative consequences on both individuals and organizations.
Ugrin and Pearson (2008)	USA	87 employees at 12 companies in various industries	Examined the influence of Internet acceptable use policies (AUPs) on Internet abuse	Internet abuse	Acceptable use policy, degree of punishment, awareness of others receiving punishment, and detection system	Survey with scenarios	Severe sanctions are relatively effective ways to deter Internet abuse at work.
Ugrin, Pearson, and Odom	USA, Asia and India	239 individuals	Examined patterns of cyberslacking	Profile of cyberslackers		Online survey	Young executives are the most likely to cyber-slack and pressure of their jobs increases

Author (year)	Purpose	Country	Sample	Focus	Variables	Method	Findings
(2007)	and impact of demographic and work related factors in predicting cyberslacking.						cyberslacking as a form of stress reliever. Young executive's high degree of autonomy also appears to perpetuate their propensity to cyber-slack.
Vitak, Crouse, and LaRose (2011)	Tested the relationship between cyberslacking and demographic and work-specific predictors	USA	2134 adults living in the continental United States	Cyberslacking	Demographic information, job dissatisfaction, external control, Internet job utility, routinized use of Internet, and job characteristics	Survey	Results indicate that being younger, male, and a racial minority positively predict cyberslacking variety and frequency, as do routinized Internet use at work and higher perceived Internet utility

APPENDIX B: Survey Questionnaire

(English & Arabic Version)

1 February 2012

Dear Sir/ Madam,

I am a doctoral student of Universiti Utara Malaysia and in fulfilment of the doctoral degree, I am required to conduct a research that would contribute to the development of theoretical knowledge and practice. Toward this end, I am conducting a survey on various issues at work amongst employees in universities in Jordan that could affect their attitudes, perceptions and behaviours.

To help me achieve my objective, you have been randomly selected to participate in this survey. Even though your participation is essential for me, you are welcome at any time to withdraw from this survey. Your voluntary participation, however, is highly appreciated and all your responses will be made confidential and your identity will remain anonymous. Furthermore, the result of the study will be used for educational purposes only.

I expect that the attached survey will take about 20 minutes to fill up. Please answer all the questions according to the directions provided in each section. Your honest and sincere answer is highly appreciated.

Once all questions are answered, kindly put the questionnaire into the provided envelop so that I could pick it up from you personally. Should you have any questions about the survey, please do not hesitate to contact me at alsho3ibe@gmail.com, or call me at the following number: +962796555222

I would like to thank you in advance for assisting me in completing the survey.

Yours sincerely,

Ahmad Said Ibrahim al-Shuaibi
PhD Student

SECTION A:

Listed below are statements that might describe the current practices of an organization or a company. With respect to your own view of the practices currently being implemented in your organization, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the appropriate number below.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Performance appraisal					
1	This university provides a great deal of effort in measuring employee performance	1	2	3	4	5
2	This university uses flexible performance standards.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Employees in this university greatly participate in goal-setting and appraisal.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Our managers/supervisors regularly discuss with employees their individual performance.	1	2	3	4	5
5	This university places a great deal of emphasis on an employee's personal future development in discussing his/her performance.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Pay rise, promotions, training and development, and other rewards are very closely linked to performance appraisal.	1	2	3	4	5
	Compensation practices					
7	This university provides higher pay rates when compared to other organizations within the same industry.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Compared to past years, this year's pay level in this university is generally higher.	1	2	3	4	5
9	This university very closely links pay with individual performance.	1	2	3	4	5
	Employment security					
10	Employees in this job can expect to stay in this university for as long as they wish.	1	2	3	4	5
11	It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
13	If this university were facing economic problems, employees in this job would be the last to get cut.	1	2	3	4	5
	Career advancement					
14	Individuals in this job have clear career path within this university.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Individuals in this job have very little future within this university.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Employees in this job who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B:

Listed below describe possible behaviors a leader in an organization or company might display. A leader here refers to your immediate supervisor. With respect to your own reflection about your immediate supervisor, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the appropriate number below.

	My immediate supervisor...	Strongly agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Instils pride in me.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Spends time teaching and coaching.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Considers moral and ethical consequences.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Views me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Listens to my concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Encourages me to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Increases my motivation.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Encourages me to think more creatively.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Sets challenging standards.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Gets me to rethink never-questioned ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Makes clear expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Will take action before problems become chronic.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Tells us standards to carry out work.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Works out agreements with me.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Monitors my performance and keeps track of mistake.	1	2	3	4	5

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe how people feel about their job. Witl respect to your own feelings about your job, please indicate the degree of your satisfaction or dissatisfaction witl each statement by circling one of the five alternatives below.

		Very satisfied	Satisfied	Neither dissatisfied or nor satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
1	The time available to get through my work.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The amount of time spent on administration.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My workload.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Overall staffing levels.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The amount of time available to finish everything that I have to do.	1	2	3	4	5
6	What I have accomplished when I go home at the end of the day.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The hours I work.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Payment for the hours I work.	1	2	3	4	5
9	My salary/pay scale.	1	2	3	4	5
10	The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this university.	1	2	3	4	5
11	The amount of pay I receive.	1	2	3	4	5
12	My prospects for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
13	My prospects for continued employment.	1	2	3	4	5
14	The amount of job security I have.	1	2	3	4	5
15	The possibilities for a career in my field.	1	2	3	4	5
16	How secure things look for me in the future of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D:

Listed below are possible activities that people could carry out when using the Internet at work. Please indicate as honestly and as objectively as you can whether you know any of your workmates who have frequently done the following behaviour while at work.

		Never	A few times/month	A few times/week	Once a day	Constantly
1	Sports related websites	1	2	3	4	5
2	General news websites	1	2	3	4	5
3	Entertainment related websites	1	2	3	4	5
4	Download non-work related information	1	2	3	4	5
5	Non-job related websites	1	2	3	4	5
6	Shopping online	1	2	3	4	5
7	Looking for employment	1	2	3	4	5
8	Adult-oriented (sexually explicit) websites	1	2	3	4	5
9	Checking non-work related e-mail	1	2	3	4	5
10	Sending non-work related e-mail	1	2	3	4	5
11	Receiving non-work related email	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E:

The following are questions pertaining to your own self. Please answer as honestly and objectively as you can on the space provided or by ticking ☑ where appropriate.

1.   I am   ❑ male ❑ female

2.   I am _____ old

3.   I am   ❑ single❑ married   ❑ divorced   ❑ widowed

4.   I am   ❑ Arab ❑ non-Arab

5.   My highest level of education:
❑ Diploma   ❑ Bachelor's degree
❑ Master's degree   ❑Others, please indicate _____

6.   I have been working with this university for _____ years

7.   My supervisor is   ❑ male ❑ female

8.   I have been working with my current supervisor for _____ years

9.   I am working as a (indicate your job title) _____

10.   I receive a monthly salary of approximately JD _____

11. Does your job require you to work with a computer? ❑ Yes ❑ No

12. As it stands now, is it possible to do your job without using a computer? That is, could you carry out your current duties and responsibilities if you no longer had a computer? Please check one of the following alternatives.
❑Yes, it could be done
❑Technically possible, but would not have the time to accomplish all currently being done
❑No, parts of my job require personal use of computer

13. In your current job, on average, how many hours do you spend using internet at work?
_____ hours

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION
AND HAVE A NICE DAY

فبراير 15, 2012

السيد/ السيده

أنا طالب دكتوراه من جامعه اوتارا الماليزية و استكمالا لدرجة الدكتوراه، فإنني مطالب لإجراء البحوث التي من شأنها أن تساهم في تطوير المعارف النظرية والممارسة. ولتحقيق هذه الغاية، انا في صدد إجراء دراسة استقصائية حول قضية استخدام أجهزة الكمبيوتر في العمل بين الموظفين في الجامعات في الأردن.

لمساعدتي في تحقيق هدفي، كنت قد قمت في اختيار عشوائي للمشاركين في هذا المسح. ان مشاركتكم ضرورية بالنسبة لي، مشاركتكم هي تطوعية ولكم حرية الانسحاب من هذا المسح في اي وقت. ، مع ذلك فان مشاركتكم محل تقدير كبير، وستكون كل الردود سرية والهوية الخاصة بك سوف تبقى مجهولة. بالاضافه الى انه سيتم إستخدم نتيجة هذه الدراسة للأغراض التعليمية فقط.

من المتوقع أن تستغرق الدراسة المرفقة حوالي 20 دقيقة لاستكمال الاجابه عن جميع الاسئلة المرفقة . الرجاء الإجابة عن جميع الأسئلة وفقا للتوجيهات المقدمة في كل قسم. اجابتك بشكل صادق و امين محل تقدير.

بعد الانتهاء من الاجابه عن جميع الاسئلة الرجاء التكرم بوضع الاستبيان في الظروف المخصصه كي أتمكن من تسلمها منك شخصيا. وفي حالة وجود اي استفسار عن الاسبيان، لا تترددوا في الارسال على البريد الالكتروني ، التالي: alsho3ibe@gmail.com ,أو الاتصال على الرقم 962796555222+

وفي النهايه أود أن أشكركم مقدما على مساعدتي في استكمال الاستقصاء.

تفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام,

أحمد سعيد ابراهيم الشعيبي

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القسم الأول

المذكور ادناه عبارات تصف الممارسات الحاليه في هذه الجامعة التي تعمل لديها. مع الاحترام لنظرتك الشخصيه من هذه الممارسات, الرجاء أفصح عن درجة اتفاقك او اختلافك مع كل عبارة من العبارات التالية أدناه.

غير موافق بشده	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشده	
					تقييم الأداء
5	4	3	2	1	1. الجامعة تعطي اهمية بالغة لمدى الجهد المبذول في قياس الأداء
5	4	3	2	1	2. هذه الجامعه تستعمل معايير اداء مرنه
5	4	3	2	1	3. الموظفين في هذه الجامعة يشاركون بشكل كبير في وضع الاهداف والتقيم
5	4	3	2	1	4. درائنا و المشرفين المباشرين يتناقشون مع الموظفين بانتظام أداءهم الشخصي و بشكل منفرد
5	4	3	2	1	5. هذه الجامعة تهتم بشكل كبير بالتأكيد على تطوير مستقبل الموظف من خلال مناقشة اداؤه
5	4	3	2	1	6. زيادة الرواتب,الترقيات, التدريب, التطوير, والمكافأت الاخرى مرتبطه بشكل كبير بتقييم الأداء.
					ممارسات التعويضات
5	4	3	2	1	7. هذه الجماعة تقدم معدل أجور أعلى مقارنه مع الجامعات الاخرى في نفس القطاع
5	4	3	2	1	8. مقارنه بالسنوات الماضيه, مستوى الاجر هذه السنه يعتبر أعلى عموما
5	4	3	2	1	9. مستوى الاجور يرتبط بشكل كبير بمستوى الأداء في هذه الجامعة
					الأمان الوظيفي
5	4	3	2	1	10. الموظفين في هذه الجامعة يستطيعون البقاء كما يرغبون
5	4	3	2	1	11. الصعب جدا فصل الموظف في هذا العمل
5	4	3	2	1	12. الأمان الوظيفي مضمون للموظفين في هذه الجامعة
5	4	3	2	1	13. في حالة حدوث مشاكل اقتصاديه لهذه الجامعة, الموظفين هم اخر من يتم ترويحهم

الترقية الوظيفيه

5	4	3	2	1	14. الموظفين في هذه الجامعة لديهم مسار عمل واضح
5	4	3	2	1	15. الموظفين في هذا العمل لديهم مستقبل ضئيل مع هذه الجامعة
5	4	3	2	1	16. الموظفين الذين يطمحون في الحصول على ترقيه لديهم اكثر من منصب محتمل للحصول على الترقية

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القسم الثاني

المذكور ادناه عبارات تصف تصرفات المدراء في هذه الجامعة, المدير في هذه الدراسة يعني المسؤول المباشر , مع الاحترام لظرتك الشخصية لمسؤولك المباشر , الرجاء أفصح عن درجة اتفاقك او اختلافك مع كل عبارة من العبارات التالية أدناه من خلال وضع علامة على الرقم المناسب .

غير موافق بشده	غير موافق	محايد	موافق	موافق بشده	**مسؤولي المباشر**
5	4	3	2	1	1. يغرس في نفسي الفخر
5	4	3	2	1	2. يمضي وقتا كافيا في التدريب و التعليم
5	4	3	2	1	3. لدي اعتبارات اخلاقية ومعنوية
5	4	3	2	1	4. يظهرني كشخص لديه احتياجات وتطلعات وقدرات مختلفة
5	4	3	2	1	5. يستمع لأهتماماتي
5	4	3	2	1	6. يحفزني على الاداء
5	4	3	2	1	7. يزيد من دوافعي
5	4	3	2	1	8. يشجعني على التفكير بشكل أكثر ابداعا
5	4	3	2	1	9. يضع معايير للتحدي
5	4	3	2	1	10. يجعلني افكر في اشياء لم اكن لافكر فيها من قبل
5	4	3	2	1	11. يقدم توقعات واضحة
5	4	3	2	1	12. يأخذ اجراءات للمشاكل قبل أن تصبح مزمنه
5	4	3	2	1	13. يعطينا معايير واضحة للقيام بالعمل
5	4	3	2	1	14. يعمل بالتوافق معي
5	4	3	2	1	15. يراقب أداءي و يصحح أخطائي

العبارات التالية هي عبارة عن ارقام لعبارات تصف شعور الموظفين ازاء عملهم, مع التقدير ارأيك الشخصي من عملك الرجاء
انكر مدى درجة ارتياحك او عدم ارتياحك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

غير راضي تماما	غير راضي	محايد	راضي	جدا راضي	
5	4	3	2	1	1. الوقت المتاح لدي لانهاء عملي
5	4	3	2	1	2. مقدار الوقت المبذول في الادارة
5	4	3	2	1	3. ضغوطات العمل
5	4	3	2	1	4. جميع مستويات التوظيف
5	4	3	2	1	5. مدة الوقت المتاح لانهاء الامور التي احتاج لعمله
5	4	3	2	1	6. ما الذي حققته في نهاية اليوم
5	4	3	2	1	7. الساعات التي اعملها
5	4	3	2	1	8. الدفعات للساعات التي اعملها
5	4	3	2	1	9. مستوى الراتب او الدخل الشهري
5	4	3	2	1	10. لاي مدى يدفع اجري لما ساهمت به في هذه الجامعة
5	4	3	2	1	11. الاجر الشهري الذي احصل عليه
5	4	3	2	1	12. امكانيه ترقيتي
5	4	3	2	1	13. امكانيه مواصلتي العمل
5	4	3	2	1	14. مقدار الامان الوظيفي الذي املكه
5	4	3	2	1	15. امكانية الحصول على وظيفة في مجال عملي
5	4	3	2	1	16. هل سيكون مستقبلي امن في هذه الجامعه

القسم الخامس

القائمة التالية هي عبارة عن نشاطات من الممكن ان يقوم بها الافراد عندما يستخدمون الانترنت في مكان العمل, الرجاء اذكر بمصداقية و شفافية اذا صادفت احد من الموظفين يقوم بالتصرفات التالية خلال العمل:

مطلقا	بضع مرات في الشهر	بضع مرات في الاسبوع	مرة كل يوم	بشكل مستمر	
5	4	3	2	1	1. مواقع الكترونية تتعلق بالرياضه
5	4	3	2	1	2. مواقع الكترونية عامة
5	4	3	2	1	3. مواقع الكترونية للتسلية
5	4	3	2	1	4. تحميل معلومات غير متعلة في نطاق العمل
5	4	3	2	1	5. مواقع الكترونية خارج نطاق العمل
5	4	3	2	1	6. التسوق عبر الانترنت
5	4	3	2	1	7. البحث عن وظايف
5	4	3	2	1	8. مواقع الكترونية اباحية
5	4	3	2	1	9. تصفح البريد الالكتروني التي لا يتعلق بالعمل
5	4	3	2	1	10. ارسال رسائل بريدية لا تتعلق بالعمل
5	4	3	2	1	11. استقبال رسائل لا تتعلق بالعمل

القسم السادس

الاسئلة التالية تتعلق فيك شخصيا. الرجاء الاجابة بشفافية و مصداقية من خلال ملئ الفراغ ☑ حول المكان المناسب. او وضع

14. أنا □ ذكر □ انثى

15. عمري _____ سنة

16. الحالة الاجتماعية □ اعزب □ متزوج □ مطلق □ ارمل/ارمله

17. انا □ عربي □ غير عربي

18. اعلى مستوى تعليم حصلت عليه
☐ دبلوم   ☐ بكالوريوس
☐ ماجستير   ☐ اخرى الرجاء اذكر _____

19. اعمل لدى هذه الجامعة منذ _____ سنة

20. مشرفي   ☐ ذكر   ☐ انثى

21. عملت مع مشرفي الحالي مدة _____ سنة

22. طبيعة عملي هي (الرجاء اذكر المسمى الوظيفي) _____

23. اتقاضى شهريا مرتبا يقارب ال _____ دينار

24. هل طبيعة عملك تتطلب منك استخدام الكمبيوتر؟   ☐ نعم   ☐ لا

25. هل من الممكن ان تقوم بعملك من دون استخدام جهاز الكمبيوتر؟ هذا يعني انك تستطيع القيام بواجباتك في لم يكن لديك كمبيوتر؟ الرجاء مراجعة البدائل التالية
☐ نعم, استطيع ان انجزه
☐ تقنيا ممكن, ولكن لن يكون بالامكان اتمام ما تم انهاؤه
☐ لا, اجزاء من عملي تتطلب استخدام شخصي للكمبيوتر

26. في وظيفتك الحالية, بشكل متوسط, كم ساعة تقضي يوميا في استخدام الانترنت في العمل؟
_____ ساعة

شكرا جزيلا لتعاونكم
اتمنى لكم يوما سعيدا

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APPENDIX C

HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION OUTPUT

Hierarchical Regression (Satisfaction with Pay as Mediator)

Model 1

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.809[a]	.654	.648	.68608

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	237.815	5	47.563	101.045	.000[a]
	Residual	125.680	267	.471		
	Total	363.495	272			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.020	.144		41.668	.000
	perfappraisnew	-.309	.102	-.275	-3.023	.003
	compenspracnew	.050	.083	.046	.608	.544
	employsecunew	-.021	.072	-.017	-.287	.774
	careeradvancmnew	-.177	.090	-.151	-1.970	.050
	leadership	-.506	.096	-.446	-5.279	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

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Model 2

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.803[a]	.645	.638	.60952

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	180.055	5	36.011	96.931	.000[a]
	Residual	99.194	267	.372		
	Total	279.248	272			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

b. Dependent Variable: Satis_pay

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.503	.128		3.917	.000
	perfappraisnew	.289	.091	.294	3.185	.002
	compenspracnew	.161	.073	.167	2.187	.030
	employsecunew	.145	.064	.138	2.275	.024
	careeradvancmnew	.045	.080	.044	.562	.575
	leadership	.226	.085	.227	2.648	.009

a. Dependent Variable: Satis_pay

Model 3

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Satis_pay, employsecunew, careeradvancmnew, compenspracnew, leadership, perfappraisnew	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.822[a]	.676	.668	.66580

a. Predictors: (Constant), Satis_pay, employsecunew, careeradvancmnew, compenspracnew, leadership, perfappraisnew

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	245.579	6	40.930	92.331	.000[a]
	Residual	117.916	266	.443		
	Total	363.495	272			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Satis_pay, employsecunew, careeradvancmnew, compenspracnew, leadership, perfappraisnew

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

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Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.160	.144		42.730	.000
	perfappraisnew	-.228	.101	-.203	-2.257	.025
	compenspracnew	.095	.081	.087	1.176	.241
	employsecunew	.020	.070	.017	.284	.776
	careeradvancmnew	-.165	.087	-.140	-1.885	.061
	leadership	-.443	.094	-.390	-4.700	.000
	Satis_pay	-.280	.067	-.245	-4.185	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

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Hierarchical Regression (Satisfaction with Workload as Mediator)

Model 1

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.809[a]	.654	.648	.68608

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	237.815	5	47.563	101.045	.000[a]
	Residual	125.680	267	.471		
	Total	363.495	272			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

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Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.020	.144		41.668	.000
	perfappraisnew	-.309	.102	-.275	-3.023	.003
	compenspracnew	.050	.083	.046	.608	.544
	employsecunew	-.021	.072	-.017	-.287	.774
	careeradvancmnew	-.177	.090	-.151	-1.970	.050
	leadership	-.506	.096	-.446	-5.279	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

Model 2

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Satis_workload

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.730[a]	.533	.524	.64398

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	126.317	5	25.263	60.919	.000[a]
	Residual	110.727	267	.415		
	Total	237.044	272			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, employsecunew, compenspracnew, careeradvancmnew, perfappraisnew

b. Dependent Variable: Satis_workload

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.574	.136		4.229	.000
	perfappraisnew	.005	.096	.006	.054	.957
	compenspracnew	-.002	.078	-.003	-.032	.974
	employsecunew	.176	.067	.182	2.618	.009
	careeradvancmnew	.057	.085	.060	.674	.501
	leadership	.486	.090	.529	5.392	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Satis_workload

Model 3

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Satis_workload, compenspracnew, employsecunew, careeradvancmnew, leadership, perfappraisnew	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.827[a]	.683	.676	.65805

a. Predictors: (Constant), Satis_workload, compenspracnew, employsecunew, careeradvancmnew, leadership, perfappraisnew

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	248.310	6	41.385	95.572	.000[a]
	Residual	115.185	266	.433		
	Total	363.495	272			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Satis_workload, compenspracnew, employsecunew, careeradvancmnew, leadership, perfappraisnew

b. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.196	.143		43.291	.000
	perfappraisnew	-.307	.098	-.274	-3.136	.002
	compenspracnew	.049	.079	.045	.624	.533
	employsecunew	.034	.069	.028	.484	.629
	careeradvancmnew	-.160	.087	-.136	-1.849	.066
	leadership	-.357	.097	-.314	-3.684	.000
	Satis_workload	-.308	.063	-.249	-4.923	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Cyberdeviance