ORGANISATIONAL FORMAL CONTROLS, GROUP NORMS AND WORKPLACE DEVIANCE: THE MODERATING ROLE OF SELF-REGULATORY EFFICACY

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ORGANISATIONAL FORMAL CONTROLS, GROUP NORMS AND WORKPLACE DEVIANCE: THE MODERATING ROLE OF SELF-REGULATORY EFFICACY

By

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ABSTRACT

Drawing upon self-efficacy theory, organisational control theory, and social learning theory, this study examined the role of self-regulatory efficacy in buffering the effects of organizational formal control and perceived workgroup norms on deviant workplace behaviour. A total of 265 academics from universities located in the northwest geopolitical zone of Nigeria participated in the study. Results supported the hypothesized direct effects of organizational formal control and perceived workgroup norms on deviant workplace behaviour. In addition, self-regulatory efficacy moderated these relationships. Specifically, there was a stronger negative relationship between perceived behavioural control and interpersonal deviance for individuals with high as opposed to low levels of self-regulatory efficacy. Similar result regarding the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived behavioural control and organisational deviance was found. Furthermore, the findings indicated a weaker positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and interpersonal deviance for individuals with high as opposed to low levels of self-regulatory efficacy. Similarly, results indicated that the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and organisational deviance was less positive for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy as opposed to low levels of self-regulatory efficacy. Finally, the relationship between perceived injunctive norms and organisational deviance was weaker for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it was for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. In general, these findings supported the view that self-regulatory efficacy can override predispositions of individuals to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Theoretical, methodological and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: workplace deviance, formal controls, workgroup norms, self-regulatory efficacy, Nigerian universities

ABSTRAK

Berbekalkan teori keberkesanan kendiri, teori kawalan organisasi, dan teori pembelajaran sosial, kajian ini mengkaji peranan keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri dalam menampan kesan kawalan formal organisasi dan norma kumpulan kerja tertanggap terhadap tingkah laku devian di tempat kerja. Seramai 265 ahli akademik dari universiti yang terletak di zon geopolitik barat laut Nigeria mengambil bahagian dalam kajian ini. Keputusan menyokong hipotesis mengenai kesan langsung kawalan formal organisasi dan norma kumpulan kerja tertanggap terhadap tingkah laku devian di tempat kerja. Keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri turut menyederhana hubungan ini. Secara khusus, terdapat hubungan negatif yang kuat antara kawalan tingkah laku tertanggap dan devian antarperorangan bagi individu yang mempunyai tahap keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang tinggi berbanding dengan individu yang mempunyai tahap keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang rendah. Hasil yang sama mengenai kesan penyederhana keberkesanan kawal selia terhadap hubungan antara kawalan tingkah laku tertanggap dan devian organisasi dijumpai. Tambahan pula, hasil kajian menunjukkan hubungan positif yang lemah antara norma deskriptif tertanggap dan devian antarperorangan bagi individu yang mempunyai tahap keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang tinggi berbanding dengan individu yang mempunyai tahap keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang rendah. Keputusan juga menunjukkan bahawa hubungan antara norma deskriptif tertanggap dan devian organisasi adalah kurang positif bagi individu yang mempunyai tahap keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang tinggi berbanding dengan individu yang mempunyai tahap keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang rendah. Akhir sekali, hubungan antara norma injunksi tertanggap dan devian organisasi adalah lemah bagi individu yang mempunyai tahap keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang tinggi berbanding dengan individu yang mempunyai tahat keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri yang rendah. Secara umum, penemuan ini menyokong pandangan bahawa keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri boleh mengatasi kecenderungan individu untuk melibatkan diri dalam tingkah laku devian di tempat kerja. Implikasi teori, metodologi dan praktikal dibincangkan.

Kata kunci: devian di tempat kerja, kawalan formal, norma kumpulan kerja, keberkesanan kawal selia kendiri, universiti Nigeria

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‘In the Name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful’

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ASUU	Academic Staff Union of Universities
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CLEEN	Centre for Law Enforcement Education
CMV	Common Method Variance
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behaviour
EFCC	Economic and Financial Crimes Commission
f2	Effect Size
GoF	Goodness-of-Fit
ICPC	Independent Corrupt Practices Commission
IDB	Interpersonal Deviance
MBA	Master of Business Administration
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OCT	Organizational Control Theory
ODB	Organizational Deviance
OYAGSB	Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business
PAF	Principal Axis Factoring
PBC	Perceived Behaviour Control
PBUH	Peace Be Upon Him
PCO	Perceived Outcome Control
PDN	Perceived Descriptive Norms
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy

PIN	Perceived Injunctive Norms
PLS	Partial Least Squares
Q2	Construct Crossvalidated Redundancy
R2	R-squared values
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SET	Self Efficacy Theory
SMEs	Subject Matter Experts
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRE	Self Regulatory Efficacy
SWT	*Subhanahu Wa Ta'ala*
USA	United States of America
VIF	Variance Inflated Factor
WDB	Workplace Deviant Behaviour
ρc	Composite Reliability

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of Study

Deviant workplace behaviours (DWB) has been defined as a "voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and in so threatens the well-being of an organisation, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). These behaviours may include coming in to work late or leaving early without permission, intentionally failing to comply with instructions, lying or deceit and theft in the workplace, among others (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Greenberg, 1990; Grover, 1993). Researchers have conceptualized and labelled such behaviours in different ways such as counterproductive behaviour (Mangione & Quinn, 1975), bad behaviour in organizations (Griffin & Lopez, 2005), anti-citizenship behaviour (Gholipour, Saeidinejad, & Zehtabi, 2009; Kickul, Neuman, Parker, & Finkl, 2001), aggressive behaviour (Bettencourt, Talley, Benjamin, & Valentine, 2006), antisocial behaviour (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), retaliation in the workplace (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), cyberloafing (Lim, 2002) and dysfunctional behaviour (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998a), among others.

Deviant workplace behaviour is a prevalent and costly phenomenon for organizations (Robinson, 2008). Studies have shown that DWBs not only cost organizations substantial amount of money annually, but they have negative and psychological consequences for employees as well (Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). For

example, Hollinger and Adams (2010) reported that employee theft was attributed to about 45% of the United States retailers' inventory shortage in 2010. A recent study by the Conference Board of Canada also estimated that Canadian economy lost $16.6 billion in 2012 due to workplace absenteeism, which is one of the forms of deviant behaviour at work (Nguyen, 2013). Employee deviance was also found to be negatively related to both corporate profitability and customer satisfaction (Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007).

Regarding the negative consequences of DWBs to employees, research indicates that targets of interpersonal deviance (DWBI), such as harassing and bullying were found to report lower levels of organisational commitment (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Caza & Cortina, 2007; Kenny & Judd, 1984; Lim & Teo, 2009; Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012), lower levels of self-confidence (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Yıldız, 2007) increased absenteeism (Hirschi, 1969), quitting work or intention to quit (Agnew, 1992; Sutherland, 1947; Sykes & Matza, 1957), and increased on-the-job drug use/abuse, among others (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

Recently, in the Nigerian context, cases of deviant workplace behaviours, including bribery scandals in the workplace (Jimoh, 2012; Olufowobi, Chidozie, Adetayo, Adepegba, & Okpi, 2012), and impersonation at work (Agnew, 1985) have been reported in national and international media. According to a survey conducted by the Centre for Law Enforcement Education (CLEEN; 2012), there was an increase in demand for bribery and corruption among government in Nigeria. Additionally, the findings of the survey revealed that almost 1 out of every 4 respondents, representing nearly 24% affirmed that they were being asked to pay

bribe by government officials including police, court personnel, tax officials and anti corruption agencies before services could be rendered to them. In terms of trend, the demand for bribery and corruption among government officials also increased from 20% in 2011 to 24% in 2012 (Centre for Law Enforcement Education, 2012). Prior research has demonstrated that workplace deviant behaviour such as bribery and corruption may cause serious damage to an organisation's reputation. Hence, it may prevent the organisation from generating future profits (Argandoña, 2001).

Furthermore, to narrow it down to the Nigerian higher education institutions, workplace deviance such as sexual harassment, academic plagiarism, irregular attendance of classes by some lecturers, unauthorized award of marks based on purchase of handouts, and exchange of money for marks have also been frequently reported in the news (Adamu, 2012; Ademola, Simeon, & Kingsley, 2012). Specifically, using recorded data between 2008 and 2012 to determine the prevalence of sexual harassment in universities, Omonijo, Uche, Nwadiafor, and Rotimi (2013) reported that 14 members of staff were caught for indulging in sexual harassment with female students. Of this figure, 50% was recorded in the university surveyed during this period.

Similarly, a recent report in the mass media lends further support to the prevalence of deviant workplace behaviours in Nigerian universities. For example, Makinde (2013) reported that the Governing Council of Ekiti State University, Nigeria sacks six lecturers for offences, such as academic plagiarism, manipulation of examination scores, sexual harassment, and falsification of employment records. It was also reported that a professor and two other lecturers of the Federal University

of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Nigeria have had their appointments terminated for allegations of plagiarism (Adedeji, 2013).

Furthermore, in Nigeria, creating strong, efficient and effective public service organisations, including universities has been the main focus of Nigeria's Transformation Agenda (2011-2015). This agenda, which is drawn from the Nigeria's Vision 20: 2020 is aimed at transforming the Nigerian economy to meet the future needs of the Nigerian citizens (National Planning Commission, 2010). The Nigeria's Vision 20: 2020 emphasizes that public servants should carry out their official assignments with discipline, integrity, transparency and loyalty (National Planning Commission, 2010). The Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC) and the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) were also established in 2000 and 2003 respectively by the Federal Government in response to an increase in corrupt practices in Nigeria. In the absence of discipline, integrity and transparency, it would be difficult for Nigeria to achieve the goals of Transformation Agenda and Vision 20: 2020. Thus, given the significant costs of deviant behaviours at work, more studies are needed to understand the underlying causes of these behaviours (Alias, Rasdi, Ismail, & Abu-Samah, 2013; Arthur, 2011).

1.2 Statement of Problem

Several factors have been proposed as antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour. One of the major predictors of DWB is related to the organization. Organizational factors have been an important consideration in understanding the attitude and behaviour of employees in the workplace because they are able to shape the way

employees think, feel, and behave (Robbins & Judge, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2013). To date, some of the organizational factors that have been studied in relation to deviant behaviour at work include perceived organizational justice (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Near & Miceli, 2013; Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, & Jones, 2013), perceived organizational support (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2009; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), psychological contract breach (Bandura, 1982; Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010; Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2007; Tenenhaus, 2008; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007), and leadership styles, among others (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Shamsudin, Subramaniam, & Alshuaibi, 2012b).

In general, these studies found that unfavourable work environment as reflected by injustice in the workplace, lack of organisational support, breach of psychological contract and poor leadership, for example, play a significant role in influencing deviant workplace behaviours. Despite the aforementioned empirical studies on the role of organizational system and process in shaping employee behaviour at work, literatures indicate that very few studies have looked at the effects of organizational formal control on deviant workplace behaviours. Even if there are studies on control and workplace deviant behaviour, the studies were limited to examining specific types of workplace deviant behaviours such as employee absenteeism and theft at the workplace. But, in reality, employees engage in various types of deviant behaviour at work (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Hollinger & Clark, 1982). Considering specific types of workplace deviant behaviours will not allow better understanding of the variety of deviant behaviours employees engage in

at work. Additionally, organizational formal control is considered in the present study because it plays an important role in shaping employee behaviour (Flamholtz, Das, & Tsui, 1985; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Ouchi, 1979).

Furthermore, various researchers generally agreed that control systems such as performance appraisal, reward and disciplinary systems and special monitoring of employees in organizations, are more effective at controlling behaviour than in other organisational factors (Ahmad & Norhashim, 2008; de Lara, Tacoronte, & Ding, 2006; Hegarty & Sims, 1978; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). However, as mentioned earlier, only a limited empirical research has investigated the effects of organizational formal control on deviant workplace behaviours. Such neglect has been unfortunate because to a large extent, control systems, directly influence employee's decisions whether to engage in or stay out of deviant acts (Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Hence, control systems are crucial for the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives.

From theoretical perspectives, scholars have employed different theories to understand the underlying causes of deviant behaviours at work (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008). To date, some of the theories that have been used to understand the underlying causes of workplace deviance include social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985, 1991), equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965), affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), belongingness theory (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) and uncertainty management theory, among others (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos & Lind, 2002). Furthermore, other theories that had been used to study deviant behavior at work include deterrence

theory (Gibbs, 1968, 1975), general strain theory (Agnew, 1985, 1992), personality theory (Lee, Ashton, & de Vries, 2005a; Marcus & Schuler, 2004), social bonding theory (Hirschi, 1969), general theory of crime (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), and differential association theory (Sutherland, 1947), and neutralization theory (Sykes & Matza, 1957), among others. One possible reason for using different theories to understand the underlying causes of DWB is because of the complexity nature of human behaviour. As such, relying on one or few theoretical perspective to explain individual's attitude and behaviour is not sufficient enough.

In general, based on the aforementioned perspectives, extant empirical studies have been able to develop several models by taking into consideration different sets of individual, organisational, and situational factors to explain the underlying structures involved in deviant behaviours at work (Shamsudin, 2006). Furthermore, while these theories are useful to understand the underlying causes of deviant behaviours at work, there appears to be a paucity of studies applying control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992) to explain DWBs. Even if any, such studies report conflicting results (e.g., de Lara et al., 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2013a), suggesting possible operation of moderators that could weaken or strengthen the relationship. One explanation for why there is a paucity of studies applying control theory to understand the underlying causes of DWBs is that most of the studies (e.g., McCabe, Butterfield, & Treviño, 2006) that applied control theory were mainly conducted among non-employee sample, such as college students.

A further limitation of the few studies that they mainly focused on specific forms of deviant behaviours, such as, theft (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Parilla, Hollinger, & Clark, 1988), workplace substance use (Frone & Brown, 2010), and cyberloafing, among others (de Lara et al., 2006). Thus, the present study addresses this gap in the literature by examining a broad range of deviant behaviour at work rather than focusing on specific forms of deviant behaviours, such as cyberloafing and workplace substance use. Furthermore, focusing on narrow forms of DWBs provide incomplete view of deviant behaviours at work.

A review of the literature indicates that in addition to organisational formal control that is purported to influence an individual's decision to engage in deviant behaviour at work, this study also considers work group factors as predictors of DWBs. Work group is defined as a collection of interrelated and interdependent individuals who come together to achieve particular objectives (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Work groups play an important role in the socialization process of employees. Basically, employees learn the do's and don'ts of their group in order to be accepted. Human beings by nature seek to be accepted by others (McClelland, 1987; Packer, 2008). Additionally, people who have a strong need for affiliation enjoy being part of a group and tend to conform to the group's norms in order to be liked and accepted by other members of the group (Christensen, Rothgerber, Wood, & Matz, 2004; McClelland, 1987; Packer, 2008; Smith & Mackie, 2007; Smith, Hogg, Martin, & Terry, 2007). Hence, it is reasonable to expect that deviant behaviour could be shaped by the group norms.

Moreover, because of its theoretical importance, work group factors have suggested as an important predictor of employee behaviours at work. However, only a few work group variables have been examined to date, including perceived work-group culture (Gellatly, 1995; Iverson & Deery, 1997; Nicholson & Johns, 1985; Xie & Johns, 2000), perceived peer group monitoring (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Zhang, Chen, & Chen, 2008), perceived group identity (Chatzisarantis, Hagger, Wang, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2009; Rimal & Real, 2005), and perceived group cohesiveness (Ferguson & Barry, 2011; Karau & Williams, 1997; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Morrison, 2008; Shin & Park, 2011; Wellen & Neale, 2006). Perceived group norm is another important workgroup factor that has been studied by organizational researchers and practitioners alike because of its significance role in determining employee behaviour. A group norm is defined as established rules that determine acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in a group (Levi, 2011). Workgroup norms perform regulatory and survival functions; for these reasons alone they have strong influence on employee behaviour (Parks, 2004) .

Previous studies have generally revealed that a group norm is associated with organizational citizenship behaviour (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Moorman & Blakely, 1995), group performance (Gellatly, 1995; Janicik & Bartel, 2003; Ng & Van Dyne, 2005), and organisational performance (Cai & Yang, 2008; Langerak, 2001), among others. Although work group norms are theoretically important in understanding job performance, however little work has still been done on the role of work group norms in explaining deviant workplace behaviour, with some exceptions of the works of Dabney (1995) and Bamberger and Biron (2007). The present study

is significantly different from these two studies because the later mainly focused on specific forms of deviant behviour at work (i.e. drug diversion and employee absenteeism, respectively). Hence, further studies are needed to incorporate a broader form of workplace deviant behaviour construct (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). As argued by Parks (2004), as work group norms have bearing on employee positive behaviour, it is expected that they also have influence on employee negative behaviour. The present study addresses this gap by examining the influence of workgroup norms on deviant behaviour at work using broad measures of DWBs (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Relevant literatures also indicate that self-regulatory efficacy (SRE) is a well-established factor that exerts a significant influence on a variety of deviant behaviours at work. Self-regulatory efficacy is an important cognitive variable that plays a significant role in understanding human behavior because it is able to shape the way individuals feel, think, and behave. Specifically, research suggests that perceived self-regulatory efficacy is negatively related to deviant behaviours at work. For example, in the personality literature, Caprara, Regalia, and Bandura (2002) suggested that students with high self-regulatory efficacy were less likely to engage in antisocial behaviours (e.g., fighting, violent conduct, vandalism, and/or used weapons).

Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli and Regalia (2001) looked at transgressive behaviour, which include aggressiveness, theft, cheating, lying, and substance abuse as a function of cognitive traits and found self-regulatory efficacy to be an important predictor of transgressive behaviour. Research has also established

that individuals with higher levels of professionals' self-regulatory efficacy are less likely to be involved in information privacy, which include unauthorized use, transfer and acquisition of privacy information of others (Tucker et al., 2009a).

Drawing on principle underlying self efficacy (Bandura, 1978a, 1997), self-efficacy was proposed as a moderator because it is yet to be investigated and such consideration could increase our theoretical understanding and provide empirical evidence on how self-efficacy buffers the effect perceived formal controls and workgroup norms on DWBs. In particular, the relation between perceived formal controls and DWB would be stronger for employees having a low sense of self-regulatory efficacy than for high self-regulatory efficacy employees. Again, the relation between workgroup norms DWB would be stronger for employees having a high sense of self-regulatory efficacy than for low self-regulatory efficacy employees.

Meanwhile, from methodological perspective, a comprehensive review of the literature on workplace deviance indicates that workplace deviance has been assessed mainly using generic measures (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 2001; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). However, there has been a paucity of research on the use of situation-specific measures of deviant workplace behaviour. Situation-specific measures refer to the method for assessing workplace deviant behaviours, based on the job-relevant behaviours identified by the subject matter experts (SMEs) such as job incumbents or immediate supervisors, which would be used subsequently as the items in the workplace deviance scale (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). Hence, neglecting situation-specific in measuring deviant workplace behaviour represents a

major methodological gap in the literature. To fill this gap, the present study utilizes situation-specific measures to assess deviant behaviour at work.

Additionally, despite many studies that have investigated various factors that influence individuals to engage in workplace deviant behaviours, most of them were conducted mainly in Asia, United States of America (USA), Australia and Europe (Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Flaherty & Moss, 2007; Fox et al., 2001; Gill, Meyer, Lee, Shin, & Yoon, 2011; Marcus, Lee, & Ashton, 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Mueller & Tschan, 2011; Oh, Lee, Ashton, & de Vries, 2011; Rahim & Nasurdin, 2008; Shamsudin, 2003), paying less attention to the African continent, particularly in Nigeria. Hence, workplace deviant behaviour deserves further investigation in Nigeria because the findings of the previous studies may not be generalizable to the Nigerian context due to cultural and contextual differences.

1.3 Research Questions

On the basis of problems stated above, the present study seeks to address the following research questions:

1. To what extent does organisational formal control explain deviant workplace behaviour?
2. To what extent does perceived group norms explain deviant workplace behaviour?
3. Does self-regulatory efficacy moderate the relationship between organisational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour?

4. Does self-regulatory efficacy moderate the relationship between perceived group norms and deviant workplace behaviour?

1.4 Research Objectives

In line with the above research questions, the general objective of this study is to examine the effects of control mechanisms on deviant behaviour. Specifically, the objectives of the study are:

1. To examine the relationship between organisational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour.
2. To investigate the relationship between perceived group norms and deviant workplace behaviour.
3. To assess the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour.
4. To inquire the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived group norms and deviant workplace behaviour.

1.5 Scope of Research

This study focuses on examining the underlying causes of deviant workplace behaviour among teaching staff in Nigerian universities. The rationale for focusing on the Nigerian universities as the context of this study is as follows. Firstly, literatures indicate that deviant workplace behaviour, such as sexual harassment, academic plagiarism and absenteeism is prevalence and on the increase in the

Nigerian universities. For example, research suggests that the incidences of interpersonal deviance, described as sexual harassment among lecturers and students of Nigerian universities are on the increase, however, little effort was made by the university authorities to control such deviant acts (Houreld, 2007). In a more recent survey, it was found that nearly 51.3% of Nigerian female students reported to have been sexually harassed at universities (Geidam, Njoku, & Bako, 2011). With regard to data collection procedure, 600 questionnaires were administered to teaching staff of the Nigerian universities (see section 4.4 of chapter 4 for details). The data collection exercise lasted for about three months, beginning from March 14, 2013 to June 8, 2013. Since the focus of this study was to examine the effect of control systems on deviant workplace behaviour among the teaching staff in Nigeria's universities, individuals were the unit of analysis in the present study.

1.6 Significance of Study

This study makes contributions to the existing body of knowledge theoretically, methodologically and practically. From the theoretical perspective, the findings of offer empirical evidence on the influence of formal organisational control and work group norms on deviant workplace behaviour, thus enriching the existing literatures. Several studies have been carried out to investigate various predictors of workplace deviant behaviour (Chao, Cheung, & Wu, 2011; Demir, 2011; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Ferris et al., 2009; Jensen et al., 2010; Karau & Williams, 1997; Omar, Halim, Zainah, & Farhadi, 2011; Rahim & Nasurdin, 2008; Rashid, Saleem, & Rashid, 2012; Restubog et al., 2011; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Thau, Crossley, Bennett, &

Sczesny, 2007; Tucker et al., 2009b). Although extant empirical studies have investigated various factors determining deviant behaviour in the workplace, yet, most of these studies centred on such variables as organisational trust, job stress, psychological contract breach, perceived organizational politics, organizational support and organisational justice. This implies that other workgroup and organisational factors have been given less attention. Hence, this study fills the gap by incorporating other workgroup and organisational determinants of workplace deviant behaviour (i.e. organisational formal control and perceived group norms).

Furthermore, the present study also contributes to the existing body of knowledge by offering empirical support on the role of self-regulatory efficacy in mitigating workplace deviance. By incorporating self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator on the relationship between organisational formal control and workplace deviance, the this study will help management of Nigerian universities in identifying those teaching staff that are more likely to engage in deviant behaviour at work through integrity test.

The moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control and workplace deviance could be explained from three theoretical perspectives. These theoretical perspectives include organisational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992), Bandura's (1977b, 1978b) social learning theory, and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1978a, 1997). Organisational control theory suggests that employees are less likely to engage in deviant behaviour when they perceive that formal control instituted by their organization is effectively enforced theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski,

1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992). The Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b) and suggests that deviant behaviours are learnt from work environment through observation, imitation, and modelling. Thus, individuals observe their work-based referent others behaving in various ways, which provide them with examples of certain behaviours to observe and imitate. Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1978a, 1997) suggests deviant behaviour at work is determined by individual level of efficacy. According to self-efficacy theory individuals with low levels of self-regulatory efficacy are more likely to engage in deviant behaviours at work than those with high levels of self-regulatory efficacy. The findings of the present study also validate the organisational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992), Bandura's (1977b, 1978b) social learning theory, and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1978a, 1997) in several ways. Firstly, from social learning perspective, this study has confirms the positive and significant relationships between workgroup norms and deviant behaviours at work. Therefore, the current findings validated and extended social learning theory by demonstrating that DWB is determined by perception regarding the kind of behaviours that most others do in a social setting (i.e., perceived descriptive norms), and perception regarding the kind of behaviours that most others approve or disapprove in a social setting (i.e., perceived injunctive norms). That is employees observe their work-based referent others behaving in various ways. The work-based referent others provide examples of certain behaviours to observe and imitate. Secondly, the present study validates Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986) by portraying the buffering role of self-regulatory efficacy in the relationship between organisational formal control,

workgroup norms and broad categories of workplace deviance as previous studies have mainly focused on investigating the direct linkage between organisational formal control and workplace deviance as well as the direct relationship between perceived group norms and deviant behaviour at work.

1.7 Organization of Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organized as follows. Next, in chapter two, we shall review the important concepts in workplace deviance. In particular, the concepts of workplace deviance, formal organizational control, perceived group norms and self-regulatory efficacy are explored. Then, we shall review the previous works that relate the concepts toward the development of a model that explains the relationships. To link these relationships, organizational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992) self-efficacy theory, (Bandura, 1986) and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b) are used as basis. Hence, an elaboration of these theories is offered. Chapter three describes the proposed methods and techniques including the research paradigms, research framework, hypotheses development, research design, data collection procedures, sampling technique and techniques of data analysis, among others. Next, chapter 4 describes the analyses of data and findings of the study. In chapter five, the key findings of the study are summarized based on the research objectives. Additionally, in chapter five, the theoretical, methodological and practical implications of the findings are highlighted. Also in chapter five, recommendations and suggestions for future research are offered.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

Basically, the purpose of this chapter is to critically review the relevant literatures and theories related to the study's constructs, including organizational control theory self-efficacy theory and social learning theory. In particular, the chapter reviews important concepts of deviant workplace behaviour, formal organizational controls, perceived group norms and self-regulatory efficacy. Subsequently, empirical studies that explain the relationships between criterion, moderator and predictor variables were reviewed toward the development of the research model and hypotheses.

2.2 Definitions Workplace Deviant Behaviour

Although the deviant behaviour construct has gained a lot of momentum for several decades now, literatures indicate a lack of agreement regarding not only the terminology used, but also the definition offered of what is considered to be a similar construct (Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Shamsudin, 2006). For example, researchers have assigned different names to the deviant behaviour construct such as "organizational misbehaviour", "counterproductive work behaviour" "dysfunctional behaviour" and "non-complaint behaviour" among others. Each of these construct is defined as follows:

1. Organizational misbehaviour is defined as what employees usually do at work when they are not supposed to do, such as time wasting, theft, sex games, destructiveness and sabotage, among others (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999).
2. Counterproductive work behaviour is defined as behaviour in the workplace that is intentional and detrimental to an organization and its members, including such acts as theft, refusing to follow superior officer's instructions and doing work incorrectly (Fox et al., 2001; Mangione & Quinn, 1975).
3. Dysfunctional behaviour is defined by Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly and Collins (1998b) as "a motivated behaviour by an employee or group of employees that has negative consequences for an individual within the organization, a group of individuals within the organization, and/or the organization itself" (p. 67). This definition points out that dysfunctional behaviour is very similar to other workplace deviance constructs like counterproductive work behaviour in that it is intentional and harmful to individual(s) and/or the organization itself.
4. Non-complaint behaviour is defined as breaking rules or norms and behaviours that have negative implications to the organization such as being late for work, employee complaining about his organisation or co-workers and violating organisational rules, among others (Puffer, 1987).

Other related constructs of workplace deviant behaviour include antisocial behaviour (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989), employee theft (Greenberg, 1990; Hollinger & Clark, 1982), workplace sabotage

(Analoui, 1995; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006), organizational revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997), workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), workplace aggression (Baron & Kenny, 1996), worker resistance (Thompson & Ackroyd, 1995), cyberloafing (Lim, 2002), cyberdeviancy (Weatherbee, 2010), workplace mobbing and bad behaviour in organizations (Griffin & Lopez, 2005), among others. Although different terminologies are used, using different theoretical perspectives, organizational behaviour researchers apparently agree that such behaviour could bring harm to both individuals and organization (Shamsudin, Chauhan, & Kura). Hence, in the present study, Robinson and Bennett's (1995) definition of workplace deviant behaviours is recognized as the working definition of the construct DWB.

Scientific evidence suggests that deviant workplace behaviours are harmful and pose a serious threat to organizations and/or its members (Alias et al., 2013; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013; Jensen et al., 2010; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Omonijo et al., 2013). Specifically, research suggest deviant workplace behaviour is associated with a large variety of negative consequences, such as decreased organisational commitment (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Caza & Cortina, 2007; Kenny & Judd, 1984; Lim & Teo, 2009; Taylor et al., 2012), lower levels of self-confidence (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Yıldız, 2007) increased absenteeism (Hirschi, 1969), actual turnover or turnover intentions (Agnew, 1992; Sutherland, 1947; Sykes & Matza, 1957), and increased on-the-job drug use/abuse, among others (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

Evidence also suggests that targets of interpersonal deviance, such as sexual harassment and bullying have a higher tendency to report lower levels of productivity (Bowling & Gruys, 2010; Henle, Giacalone, & Jurkiewicz, 2005), lower levels of job satisfaction (Fischer & Fick, 1993; Martin & Hine, 2005; Thompson & Phua, 2005), and increased psychological distress, among others (Heatherton, 2011; Kramer, 1999; Mohammed, 2012). Because deviant workplace behaviour poses a serious threat to both individuals and organizations, researchers have developed various typology of such destructive behaviour. Hence, the typologies of deviant workplace behaviour are reviewed in the next section.

2.2.1 Typology of Deviant Workplace Behaviour

A comprehensive review of the literature on deviant behaviour indicates that some early studies have attempted to classify workplace deviance into various dimensions (e.g., Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Mangione & Quinn, 1975; Redeker, 1989; Wheeler, 1976). While early studies have attempted to classify workplace deviance into various dimensions, yet these studies fall short for two main reasons. First, most of these studies failed to integrate the list of deviant behaviours into a meaningful pattern (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Second, none of these early studies have empirically developed a comprehensive typology of workplace deviance.

In an attempt to address these short comings, several studies have been conducted to empirically develop a comprehensive typology of workplace deviance using different scientific approaches (Martin & Hine, 2005; Robinson & Bennett,

1995). For example, Hollinger and Clark (1982) described two dimensions of workplace deviance: property deviance and production deviance. The former dimension refers to acts related to acquiring or damaging the property of an organisation such as employee using stationeries belonging to his/her employer for personal use without permission or stealing the property of an organisation. Production deviance is essentially acts that violate the norms of an organization in terms of quantity and quality of work that has been carried out by an employee such as working slowly, coming to work late and leaving early.

In another study, Robinson and Bennett (1995) extended the work of Hollinger and Clark (1982) to develop an empirically derived typology of employee deviance using multidimensional scaling approach. Two samples were utilized in the study. In the first sample, 70 respondents from four different sources in Toledo, Ohio were included in the study: seven from a university office, 10 were technical staff in an industrial company, 38 from neighbourhood and the remaining 38 were students whom enrolled for the MBA programme. While in the second sample, 180 part-time evening students in Master of Business Administration (MBA) program at a Midwestern University were included in the study. The results of the study suggest that deviant workplace behaviours vary along two dimensions, namely, minor versus serious and interpersonal deviance (WDBI) versus organizational deviance (WDBO). Based on these two dimensions, Robinson and Bennett (1995) further argued that deviant workplace behaviour seems to fall into four distinct but related types of deviance: Production deviance is defined as behaviours that "violate the formally proscribed norms delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to

be accomplished" (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, pp. 333-334). Examples of production deviance includes but not limited to arriving late for work, leaving work early without prior permission, and on-the-job drug abuse or misuse to get high. Property deviance reflects "those instances where employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the work organization without authorization" (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, p. 333). Examples of property deviance include inflating of hours worked to get more pay, intentionally wasting organization's materials or supplies, and collecting bribe at work. Political deviance reflects "engagement in social interaction that puts other individuals at a personal or political disadvantage" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 566). Examples of political deviance include lying about co-workers, workplace gossip, favouritism, and spreading false rumours, among others. On the other hand, personal aggression reflects behaviours, such as sexual harassment at work, abusive supervision, and shouting in the workplace (see Figure 2.1).

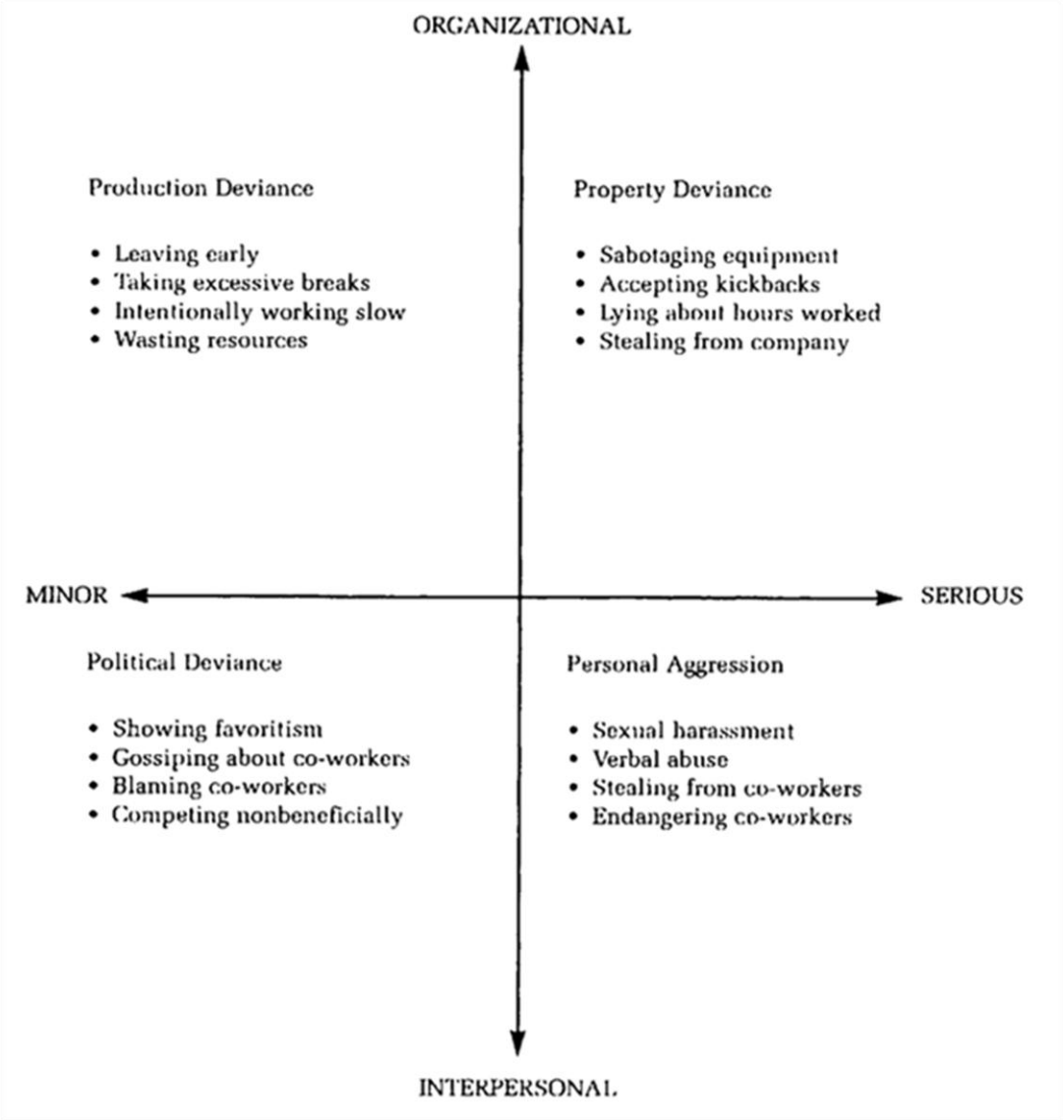

Figure 2.1
Robinson and Bennett's (1995) Typology of Deviant Workplace Behaviour

Later, Gruys and Sackett (2003) extended the work of Robinson and Bennett (1995) to develop a typology of counterproductive work behaviour using multidimensional scaling technique. Two samples were utilized for the study. In each sample, 343 college alumni of a Midwestern university in United States were

included in the survey. Principal component analysis was performed to determine the dimensionality of counterproductive work behaviour. The results of the principal components analysis yielded two dimensions of counterproductive work behaviour: interpersonal versus organizational dimension, and task relevance dimension. The interpersonal versus organizational dimension refers to the extent at which the behaviours are directed at an individual or at the organisation. This dimension reflects the interpersonal versus organizational dimension of workplace deviance proposed by the Robinson and Bennett (1995). The task relevance consists of two aspects of employee behaviour: positive and negative The first aspect includes all positive behaviours relevant to tasks that are carried out within the context of a job such as using time and resources appropriately. On the other hand, the second aspect of task relevance dimension encompasses all negative behaviours relevant to tasks that are performed within the context of a job such as theft and verbal actions toward others.

In another study, Martin and Hine (2005) conducted a survey to develop the dimensionality of workplace incivility using Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) analysis. Three hundred and sixty eight Australian adult employees from five samples participated in the study. The results of the principal axis factoring analysis using the self-ratings yielded four distinct categories of workplace incivility: hostility, privacy invasion, exclusionary behaviour, and gossiping. Hostility refers to an individual's predisposition to strike on others or feel anger toward others easily (Chaplin, 1982). Privacy invasion refers to the unwelcome tendency of an individual to get access to other people's privacy. Exclusionary behaviour, also known as

ostracism in organisational behaviour literature, is defined as the tendency of an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals (Twenge, Catanese, & Baumeister, 2003; Williams et al., 2002). On the other hand, gossiping is defined as an informal and sentimental talk by few members of an organization about other member of that organization in his absence (Kurland & Pelled, 2000).

In a more recent study, Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim (2012c) built on the work of Robinson and Bennett (1995) to develop the dimensionality of a wrongful behaviour. Three hundred and twenty four manufacturing employees in the northern part of Malaysia were included in the study. The principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation was performed on the data collected. From the results of the principal component factor analysis, three distinct, but related forms of wrongful behaviour were identified: irresponsible behaviour, non-productive behaviour, and loitering behaviour. The results further suggest that these dimensions of wrongful behaviour identified are all directed at the organization and reflects the organizational deviance proposed by Robinson and Bennett (1995).

In summary, following Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of workplace deviance, numerous studies about DWB conceptualizations and dimensionality were carried out in different organisational settings (e.g., Aquino et al., 2004; Aquino et al., 1999; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012a; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). However, results of these studies are in line with Robinson and Bennett's (1995) two dimensions of workplace deviance (i.e. interpersonal deviance

and organizational deviance). Besides, it is worth noting that specific types of deviant behaviours are not sufficient enough to predict employees' negative outcomes. This is because employees actually engage in a much wider range of voluntary behaviours that violate significant organizational norms. Therefore, this study adopts the typology of workplace deviance proposed by Robinson and Bennett (1995). Furthermore, their typology is broader and it is much suitable in the Nigerian context. Finally, their typology of workplace deviance has been most widely accepted within the organisational behaviour literature.

2.2.2 Measures of Workplace Deviance

Literature indicates that several studies have used various types of measures to assess workplace deviant behaviours in different organisational settings (2004; Holtz & Harold, 2010). These measures can be categorized under subjective measures, objective measures, and situation-specific measures of workplace deviance.

2.2.2.1 Subjective Measures of Workplace Deviance

Subjective measures of workplace deviance include rating and ranking of employee's deviant acts usually by employee himself (self-rating), his immediate supervisors or peer group. Subjective measures of workplace deviance tend to be either organizational or individual. Organizational data reflects data that is associated with deviant behaviour directed at the organization (e.g., a questionnaire item – "come in late to work without permission"). On the other hand, individual data refers to the data that is related to deviant behaviour directed at individuals (e.g., a

questionnaire item – "publicly embarrassed someone at work"). Subjective measures of workplace deviance is relatively different from the objective measure as the former is based on empirically validated measures, such as Bennett and Robinson, (2000) measures of DWB. On the other hand, the later is basically obtained from archival personnel records, such as Secret Files and Attendance Registers. In addition, in objective measure, data are obtained without the survey instrument. A large number of empirical studies have used subjective measures to assess workplace deviant behaviours in different contexts. Prior research (e.g., Ambrose, Schminke, & Mayer, 2013; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Bolton, Becker, & Barber, 2010; Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Penney & Spector, 2005) has successfully used subjective measure of employee deviance. For example, Penney and Spector (2005) applied both self- and peer rating systems to examine the moderating role of negative affectivity on the relationship between job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behaviour. Three hundred and seven working adults, who enrolled in an undergraduate evening programme at a large public university in the Southeastern United States, participated in the survey. The findings of the study revealed: (1) a significant negative relationship between workplace incivility and job satisfaction, (2) a significant positive relationship between interpersonal conflict and organizational constraints, (3) a significant positive relationship between interpersonal conflict and counterproductive work behaviour, and (4) a significant positive relationship between organizational constraints and counterproductive work behaviour. The study further revealed that negative affectivity moderated relationship between workplace incivility and counterproductive work behaviour.

Bowling and Eschleman (2010) in a study among 726 employees across a diverse set of occupations, including health and safety, education, administration, technology support and retailing found that the relationship between work stressors and counterproductive work behaviour is stronger among employees with low level of conscientiousness or high level of negative affectivity than those with high level of conscientiousness or low level of negative affectivity. Other studies that used subjective measures to assess workplace deviant behaviours in different contexts include a study by Ambrose, Schminke and Mayer (2013), Bolton et al. (2010) and O'Neill, Lewis and Carswell (2011).

From the findings reported, it can be concluded that there are many of the previous empirical studies (e.g., Ambrose et al., 2013; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Bolton et al., 2010; Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Penney & Spector, 2005) examined the influence of various individual and organisational factors on deviant workplace behaviour using subjective measures. This type of measure is considered in these studies conducted possibly due to lack of archival personnel records.

2.2.2.2 Objective Measures of Workplace Deviance

Objective measures of workplace deviance refer to the evaluation of employee's deviant acts using official records such as archival personnel records or attendance register book to determine the frequency of offenses committed by employee in the workplace. Such data tend to be organizational or individual. Organizational data reflects data that is associated with deviant behaviour directed at the organization (e.g., a copy of query letter to employee for using organisation's property without

permission). On the other hand, individual data refers to the data that is related to deviant behaviour directed at individuals (e.g., a copy of warning letter to employee for sexually harassing his/her colleague at work).

Objective measure has long been one of the measures used to assess deviant workplace behaviours in different organisational settings by DWBs researchers (Bordia et al., 2008; Detert et al., 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004). This is in part due to the fact that objective measures of deviant workplace behaviours have over other measures of DWBs. For example, because many deviant acts in the workplace are relatively private and personal behaviors that employees engage in with the intention of not getting caught, the only measures that has true picture of an employee's engagement in DWBs is the objective measures.

Regardless, objective measures of workplace deviance are not without their disadvantages. Firstly, objective measures have been usually capture quite narrow aspects of workplace deviance; hence, it provides incomplete view of DWBs (Bommer, Johnson, Rich, Podsakoff, & Kenzie, 1995; Dunlop & Lee, 2004). Secondly, organisations may be generally reluctance to make archival personnel records available to the researchers for privacy and confidentiality. Hence, such measures of DWBs are very difficult to obtain. Another concern with objective measures of workplace deviance is that such measures can easily be tempered with due to human nature.

Despite some of these disadvantages, some few empirical studies have been conducted to measure DWBs using objective measures. For example, Restubog and Tang (2008) matched the deviant data with psychological breach data to investigate

the relationship between psychological contract breach and workplace deviance among 300 public-sector employees from Philippines. The study measured workplace deviance by obtaining personnel employment records relating to the frequency of offenses committed by employees in their organization. The organization classified the personnel employment records into major and minor offenses. Examples of major offenses included negligence of duty that warranted suspension or termination of appointment such as using organizational property for personal purposes without permission. On the other hand, the minor offenses included deviant acts that warranted query or verbal warning. The finding of this study revealed a significant positive relationship between psychological contract breach and workplace deviance (i.e. both minor and major offenses).

In another study, Detert, Treviño, Burris, and Andiappan (2007) also included 265 restaurants employees in the United States to examine the influence of managerial oversight on counterproductivity. The study used objective measures of workplace deviance, which was based on company's records, including register receipts, records of orders placed, and prices from the suppliers. This study further operationalized workplace deviance as food loss in the restaurant. The findings revealed that managerial oversight, defined as the number of managers available to supervise a particular number of employees has significant negative relationship with workplace deviance (i.e., food loss).

2.2.2.3 Situation-Specific Measures of Workplace Deviance

Situation-specific measures of workplace deviance refer to the method for assessing workplace deviant behaviours, based on the job-relevant behaviours identified by the subject matter experts (SMEs) such as job incumbents or immediate supervisors, which would be used subsequently as the items in the workplace deviance scale (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). It is worth noting that this represents an important departure from the way in which workplace deviance is typically measured (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). This is because unlike the generic workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 2001; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), situation-specific measures are typically adapted based on the particular job or organization under investigation. Hence, this implies that workplace deviance is a situation-specific construct.

Additionally, inclusion of relevant items and the exclusion of irrelevant ones have several theoretical and methodological implications. Firstly, when irrelevant items are added to the questionnaire and the relevant ones are removed, the construct is contaminated and also deficient (Bowling & Gruys, 2010; Cook & Campbell, 1979). Secondly, when irrelevant items in the original workplace deviance scale are not removed, a researcher will not be able to really capture the degree to which workplace deviant behaviours occur in the context of the study.

In sum, despite the theoretical and methodological importance of situation-specific measure of workplace deviance, there is a paucity of empirical studies examining workplace deviant behaviours using this approach. To fill this gap, the

present study employs this methodological approach to validate the measures of workplace deviance in the Nigerian context.

2.2.3 Workplace Deviance Ratings

A comprehensive review of the literature on job workplace deviance indicates that there are at least four sources of DWB ratings: self-ratings, superior-ratings, peer-ratings and multiple-ratings (Berry et al., 2012; de Jonge & Peeters, 2009; Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007; Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2012; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006a; van Jaarsveld, Walker, & Skarlicki, 2010). Self-rating involves asking respondents directly to rate their attitude or behaviour through the use of questionnaire or interview (Barker, Pistrang, & Elliott, 2003). Peer-ratings refer to the assessment of ratees' attitudes and behaviours by their peers who might have been working closely together, interacting frequently, and have the opportunity to observe their tasks, attitudes and behaviours (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). Superior-ratings refer to the evaluation of employees' attitudes and behaviours by their immediate supervisors or superiors (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000). Multiple-ratings, also known as multiple other ratings, refer to the use of a variety of sources, including self, peers, subordinates, supervisors and even self to assess various tasks and behaviours (Stewart et al., 2009).

There exist some evidence studies with regard to incremental contribution of one source of ratings workplace deviance over other-reports of such behaviours (e.g., Berry et al., 2012; Conway & Huffcutt, 1997; Mann, Budworth, & Ismaila, 2012). Specifically, in a meta-analytic comparison of self-ratings and other-reports of

counterproductive work behavior (CWB), Berry et al. (2012) found that self-ratings of CWB generally accounted for highest variance over other-reports in explaining CWB. A study conducted by Mann et al. (2012) showed that individuals and peers who are similar in the extent to which they engage in deviant behaviour at work were in agreement with respect to ratings of counterproductive performance. Additionally, the study of Bennett and Robinson (2000) suggested the validity of self-reports of deviant behavior in the workplace.

While other ratings methods are acceptable by some researchers, in this study, the use of self-ratings of DWB is considered more appropriate for several reasons. Firstly, because many workplace deviant behaviours are relatively covert behaviours engaged by employees with the hope of not getting caught into the act, the focal employee (incumbent) is the only source that has a complete knowledge of such behaviours (Berry et al., 2012). Secondly, asking others (e.g., supervisor or co-worker) to report deviant behaviour of their co-workers at work might make them to feel at risk in uncovering such behaviour which could result in sanction, loss of job or even prosecution (Lee, 1993). Furthermore, according to Fox and Spector (1999):

> "Any methodology that could result in the identification of respondents who have committed counterproductive behaviours, and thus endanger their livelihoods or result in intensified surveillance or punitive measures as a result of the research, violates the most fundamental principles of doing ethical research in organizations" (p. 929).

Thirdly, multi-item self-reported measures of workplace deviant behaviour that have existed for years (e.g., Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox & Spector, 1999; Marcus, Schuler, Quell, & Hümpfner, 2002; Sommers, Schell, & Vodanovich, 2002) are much easier to administer to employees themselves than asking others, such as supervisors, co-workers or peers, to rate the deviant behaviour of employees at work. Thus, the use of anonymous self-report is considered the most appropriate to avoid ethical pitfalls that are associated with other methods of rating deviant behviour at work (Fox & Spector, 1999).

2.2.4 Antecedents of Workplace Deviance

Basically, the antecedents of workplace deviant behaviour can be classified into four categories: individual factors, organizational factors, group factors, and job factors (Chullen, Dunford, Angermeier, Boss, & Boss, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2010; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Salgado, 2002; Ṿardi, 2001; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Individual factors refers to a variety of factors including demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, marital status), personality characteristics, attitudes, values, and emotions that influence employees to engage in acts of deviance (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Organizational factors refers to the situational factors such as organizational justice, organizational trust, organizational culture, and organizational politics that influence individual to engage in deviant behaviour at work (Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012b; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Group factors refer to the factors that influence individuals to engage or refrain from deviant behaviour at work as a result of interactions with members of the group.

Some of the variables within group include group size, group cohesiveness, and group norms, among others. On the other hand, job factors are factors related to the job such as job security, job satisfaction, and job stress, among others. Some of the antecedents of workplace deviance that have been investigated by scholars are reviewed here.

2.2.4.1 Individual Factors

The individual factors include personality variables such as negative affectivity (Aquino et al., 1999; Kaplan, Luchman, Haynes, & Bradley, 2009; Penney & Spector, 2005), Big Five personality dimensions (Adebayo & Nwabuoku, 2008; Bettencourt et al., 2006; Bolton et al., 2010; Marcus et al., 2007; Spector, 2011; Sung & Choi, 2009), HEXACO model of personality structure (Ashton & Lee, 2007, 2008; Lee & Ashton, 2004; Lee et al., 2005a; Marcus et al., 2007), trait anger (Ilie, Penney, Ispas, & Iliescu, 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Restubog, Garcia, Wang, & Cheng, 2010), and demographic variables such as age (Berry et al., 2007; Gruys & Sackett, 2003) and gender (Cohen, Panter, & Turan, 2013; Fagbohungbe et al., 2012a).

In particular, Douglas and Martinko (2001) examined the effects individual differences on workplace aggression among 151 employees from two organizations located in the north-eastern United States. There results showed that individual differences (i.e., trait anger, attribution style, negative affectivity, attitudes toward revenge, self-control, and previous exposure to aggressive cultures) accounted for

significant proportions of incremental variance (62%) in predicting workplace aggression.

Lee, Ashton and de Vries Ashton and de Vries (2005a) conducted a study among university students who had some employment experience from three different countries, namely, Australia, Canada, and the Netherlands to examine the relationship between Honesty-Humility (i.e., additional dimension to the Big five-factor model of personality) and workplace delinquency and employee integrity. The results showed that Honesty-Humility (defined as the tendency to be fair and genuine in dealing with others) accounted for significant proportions of incremental variance beyond the Big five-factor model of personality in predicting workplace delinquency and employee integrity. Relatedly, research suggests that individuals with low levels of Honesty-Humility have a higher tendency to engage in DWBs than those with high levels of Honesty-Humility (Ashton & Lee, 2007). In a sample of 264 Korean employees, Lee, Ashton and Shin (2005b) found significant incremental validities for Honesty-Humility over Big Five in predicting workplace anti-social behaviour. Recently, Marcus, Ashton and Lee (2013) indicated that integrity accounted for practically significant proportions of incremental variance beyond Big Five dimensions across all integrity tests in predicting counterproductive work behaviour.

Despite the aforementioned empirical studies on the role of individual factors in explaining the likelihood of employees to engage in deviant behaviour at work, literatures indicate that less attention has been paid to the effects of other individual factors, especially self-regulatory efficacy. Even if any such studies are limited to examining specific types of deviant behaviours, such as, delinquent behaviour

among adolescents (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino, & Pastorelli, 2003), and violent conduct (Caprara, Regalia, & Bandura, 2002). Thus, to fill this empirical gap, the present study examines the interaction effects of self-regulatory efficacy on deviant workplace behaviour.

2.2.4.2 Organizational Factors

Several studies have examined the relationship between certain elements of organizational factors and deviant workplace behaviour. To date, among the organizational factors that have been studied in relation to deviant workplace behaviour are: perceived organizational injustice (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Bechtoldt, Welk, Zapf, & Hartig, 2007; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; El Akremi et al., 2010), organizational trust (Demir, 2011; Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013; Miner & Reed, 2010; Rahim & Nasurdin, 2008; Thau et al., 2007), job stress (Fox et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005), organizational culture (Balthazard, Cooke, & Potter, 2006; Boye & Jones, 1997; Van-Fleet & Griffin, 2006), perceived organizational support (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004) and organizational politics (Bodla & Danish, 2011; Byrne, 2005; Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Davis & Gardner, 2004).

In particular, perceived injustice has been reported to be positively related to individual's tendency to engage in to deviant behaviour at the workplace (Ambrose et al., 2002; Bechtoldt et al., 2007). In a longitudinal study among 602 full-time employed students at a French-speaking university, El Akremi *et al.* (2010) examined the mediating role of perceived organisational support and leader–member

exchange (LMX) on the relationship between orgnisational justice and workplace deviance. The results showed that the relationship of procedural justice and organization-directed deviance was fully mediated by perceived organisational support. Furthermore, LMX was found to be a full mediating variable on the relationships of informational justice, interpersonal justice and workplace deviance.

Regarding the relationship between trust in organization and deviant behaviour at work, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found from their meta-analysis that trust in leadership was negatively related with intent to quit. Similarly, Thau et al. (2007) conducted a study to investigate the effects of organizational trust on antisocial behaviour at work. The findings indicated that organisational trust was negatively related to antisocial behaviour in the work among care-giving employees in the Midwestern United States. Colquitt, Scott and LePine (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 132 independent samples to examine the effect of trust variables and both risk taking on job performance. They reported a significant and negative relationship between organisational trust variables and counterproductive behaviour.

With regards to effects of organisational politics and DWBs, Bodla and Danish (2011) conducted a study to test their hypothesis that social exchange perceptions moderate the relationship between perceptions of organisational politics and antisocial behaviour among 577 executives from variety organisations in Pakistan including manufacturing organisations, financial services organisations and telecommunication organisations. The study revealed a significant positive relationship between perceptions of organisational politics and antisocial behaviour. Rashid, Saleem, and Rashid (2012) also investigated the mediating role of job stress

and job satisfaction on the influence of perceived organizational politics on workplace deviance that was operationalized as theft and intention to quit. The study was carried out among 145 employees from variety organizations in Pakistan. The study found a significant positive relationship between organizational politics and employee theft. But there was no significant relationship between organizational politics and intention to quit. It was also found that both job stress and low job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between organizational politics and workplace deviant behaviour (i.e. employee theft).

While several studies have been conducted to examine the effects of organizational factors in explaining deviant behaviour at work, one major gap in the literature concerns the need to clarify the influence of organizational formal control on workplace deviance. In other words, despite the aforementioned empirical studies on the role of organizational factors in predicting deviant behaviour, literatures indicate that limited studies have been carried out to empirically test the influence of organizational formal control on deviant workplace behaviour. Even if any, such studies were limited to examining specific types of workplace deviant behaviours such as employee absenteeism and theft at the workplace. Hence, considering specific types of workplace deviant behaviours will not allow better understanding of the variety of deviant behaviours employees engage in at work.

In sum the evidence regarding influence of organizational factors, especially organizational formal control on deviant workplace behaviour is inconclusive (de Lara et al., 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Kura et al., 2013a). One explanation for why the findings were inconclusive across numerous studies is that boundary

conditions exist, such that theorized relationship between organizational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour are contingent upon certain factors.

2.2.4.3 Group Factors

Previous research has shown that group factors, such as group size and group cohesiveness, among others can play a significant role in predicting workplace criteria, particularly deviant workplace behaviour. For example Høigaard, Säfvenbom, and Tønnessen (2006) extended research on group dynamics to the soccer industry by investigating the relationship between group cohesion, group norms, and perception of social loafing among 118 junior soccer players from 12 separate teams in Norway. Multiple regression analysis showed that group cohesion and group norms were negatively related to perceived social loafing among the soccer players. Similarly, Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) conducted a cross-level field study to investigate the moderating role of dissatisfaction with group members on the influence of work groups on antisocial behaviour among 187 employees from 35 different groups in Midwestern United States organizations. Consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b) and social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), results of hierarchical regression analysis showed that antisocial behaviour exhibited by work group significantly influences individual members of the workgroup to engage in antisocial behaviour. It was also found that this relationship was moderated by dissatisfaction with group members.

Taken all together, the findings of most of these studies consistently indicate that group characteristics exert considerable influence on work-related attitudes and behaviours. Hence, it is quite reasonable to deduce that group characteristics (e.g., group cohesion and group norms) are significant predictors of deviant behaviours in the workplace. Furthermore, while studies have examined the effect of group characteristics on work-related attitudes and behaviours, few researches investigated how different group norms dimensions (i.e., injunctive norms and descriptive norms) explain broad categories of deviant behaviour at work. Drawing on Bandura's social learning theory (1977b, 1978b), the present study attempts to address this gap in the literature by explicitly modeling the influence of workgroup norms on DWBs.

2.2.4.4 Job Factors

A number of job factors have been linked to workplace deviant behaviours, including job stress (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Fox et al., 2001; Omar et al., 2011; Penney & Spector, 2005; Salami, 2010; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Tucker et al., 2009b), job attitudes (Bowling, 2010; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006b), dimensions of human resource practices such as and job description, job security, and internal career opportunities (Arthur, 2011; Benjamin & Samson, 2011; Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007; Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles, & König, 2010; Shamsudin, Subramaniam, & Ibrahim, 2011), among others. In particular, Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and König (2010) conducted a study to investigate the effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, deviant behaviour, and negative emotions among 320 managers in United States. The

Structural Equation Modelling results showed a significant negative relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction. It was also found that job insecurity has significant, direct and indirect effects on workplace deviant behaviour, organizational citizenship behaviour and negative emotions among U. S. managers.

Meanwhile, Fox, Spector and Miles (2001) investigated the moderating effect of job control (autonomy) on the relationship between job-related stressors (interpersonal conflict and organizational constraints) and perceived organizational justice on counterproductive work behaviours among 292 employees from a variety of organizations in Southern and Central Florida, U.S.A. Multiple regression analysis showed that job stressors and perceived injustice were significant predictors of counterproductive work behaviours. It was also found that job control did not moderate the relationship between job-related stressors and counterproductive work behaviours. In another study, Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim (2011) conducted a study to investigate the effects of human resource management practices (i.e. job description, job security, performance appraisal and internal career opportunities) on deviant workplace behaviour among 372 manufacturing employees from the northern region of Malaysia. The results showed that job description, job security, performance and internal career opportunities were negatively related with deviant workplace behaviour. On the other hand, performance appraisal was not significantly related to organizational deviance.

In summary, the above studies have made significant contributions to the literature of workplace deviance by consistently demonstrating the significant effects of job factors (e.g. job stress, job description, job security, performance appraisal and

internal career opportunities) on workplace deviant behaviours. Yet one major deficiency that is evident in the aforementioned studies is that they were mainly carried out in the United States and Asia, paying less attention to the African continent, particularly in Nigeria. Hence, further investigation of workplace deviance is needed in the Nigerian context.

2.2.5 Consequences of Workplace Deviance

Although most of the extant empirical studies on workplace deviance have focused primarily on the antecedents of DWB, there is also a growing body of research on its consequences. Several studies (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Lim & Teo, 2009; Pearson & Porath, 2005) have demonstrated that workplace deviance has many negative consequences for the organisation and its members. For example, Bowling and Beehr (1984) conducted a meta-analytic study on the antecedents and consequences of workplace harassment, which is specific form of deviant workplace behaviour on a total of 90 samples. They reported that victims of interpersonal workplace deviance (i.e., sexual harassment) have a higher tendency to report lower levels of organisational commitment, increased generic strains, depression, frustration, anxiety, burnout, negative emotions at work and higher levels of physical symptoms.

In a study involving 335 schoolteachers from government and non-government high schools in Australia Djurkovic et al., (1947) indicated that targets of work-related harassment have a higher tendency to quit work. Bowling and Gruys (2010) indicated that deviant workplace behaviour is positively associated with

decreased employee productivity as well as loss of both existing and potential customers. Relatedly, in a three-wave prospective study on the risk of turnover among targets of workplace bullying

Hogh et al. (1992) reported a positive relationship between exposure to bullying at work and turnover. Bartlett and Bartlett (2011) reported that targets of interpersonal workplace deviance (i.e., bullying at work) have a higher tendency to be involved in on-the-job drug use/abuse. In the Nigerian context, Imonikhe, Aluede and Idogho (2012) investigated the perceptions of lecturers and students regarding the incidents of sexual harassment in Nigerian tertiary institutions. They found that the sexual harassment in Nigerian tertiary institutions is still prevalent and could have negative impacts on students' academic performance.

While the aforementioned empirical studies considered negative consequences of workplace deviance for the well-being of organization and its members, some researchers have demonstrated that consequences of DWB can also be positive as well (Brief, Buttram, & Dukerich, 2001; Darley, 1995; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Warren, 2003). In particular, Warren (2003) contended that employee deviance can be associated with desirable behaviours, such as functional disobedience and whistle blowing by members of an audit firm. This is because they "reflects a desire to do things better or to "do good" in the context of one's organizational role" (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998, p. 8).

2.2.6 Empirical Studies on Workplace Deviance in Nigeria

Although many studies have been carried out to examine various factors that influence individuals to engage in workplace deviant behaviours, empirical research on workplace deviance especially in the Nigerian context is limited. Hence, there is a need to further investigate workplace deviant behaviour so that the findings from the studies can be generalized to the Nigerian context. For example, Babajide (2010) conducted a study to investigate the influence of personal factors including work-family life, commitment, job satisfaction, and general health on turnover intention among 725 employees in Nigerian work organizations. Regression results revealed that work-family life, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and general health were significant predictors of employees' turnover intention. Ejere (2010) included 356 teachers from 47 public primary schools in Uyo, Nigeria to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, meaningfulness of work, and job stress on absenteeism. Results showed that job stress, job satisfaction, and perceived meaningfulness of work were significant predictors of employee absenteeism. In another study, Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, and Ayodeji (2012a) conducted a study to investigate whether there were significant gender differences in the occurrence of workplace deviant behaviours. Six hundred and ninety six employees from various public and private organizations in Nigeria participated in the study. Result of the independent t-test revealed that the occurrence of workplace deviant behaviours at both controlled work environment and less controlled work environment was higher for men than for women. One possible explanation for this significant difference

could be due to variation in personality traits, such as impulsivity, extroversion and aggression-hostility. For example, men are more impulsive and under-controlled than their women counterpart (Kogan, 1974; Lisak & Roth, 1988). Studies showed that individuals with higher level of impulsivity have a higher tendency to engage in DWBs than those with lower level of impulsivity (Henle, 2005).

Meanwhile, in a study of bank employees in Nigeria, Benjamin and Samson (2011) found that perceived inequality, perceived job insecurity, and tenure were significant predictors of fraudulent intent, while gender was not related with fraudulent intent. Salami (2010) also conducted a study to test whether negative affectivity moderate the relationship between job stress and counterproductive work behaviour among 422 teaching staff, randomly selected from five states in the south-eastern Nigeria. Results revealed that gender, age, and tenure were significantly related to counterproductive work behaviour and negative affectivity moderated the relationship between job stress and counterproductive work behaviour. According to Salami, a possible explanation for the moderator results could be that individuals high in negative affectivity tend to use more counterproductive behaviour as a means of neutralising job stressors. Hence, the findings suggest that an individual's personality may determine how he or she behaves under a stressful work environment.

A study of 200 female media practitioners in Oyo State, Nigeria by Adeyemo and Afolabi (2007) found that sexual harassment, job stress, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were significant predictors of withdrawal cognition. In another study, Adebayo and Ogunsina (2011) conducted a study to investigate the relations

between supervisory behaviour, job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention among 350 police personnel in Nigeria. Supervisory behaviour, job satisfaction and job stress were found to be significant predictors of turnover intention. Similarly, in a study conducted among 251 non-teaching staff of a public university in Ado Ekiti, Nigeria, Adebayo and Nwabuoku (2008) showed that age was a significant predictor of employee absenteeism, while education level, gender, conscientiousness and perceived organisational support were not significant predictors of employee absenteeism.

Amah (2013) examine the moderating effect of job role centrality and life satisfaction on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among 400 bank employees in Lagos, Nigeria. The findings of the study showed a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction turnover intentions. The results further revealed that life satisfaction and role centrality moderated the relationship between job satisfaction turnover intentions. In a more recent study, Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012) examine the effects of job satisfaction on the turnover intention among 300 permanent employees of major petroleum marketing company in Nigeria. As expected, the findings of the study showed that job satisfaction reduces the likelihood of employees' turnover.

In sum, although quite a number of empirical studies have been conducted on workplace deviance or similar constructs in the Nigerian context, most of them did not consider various forms of deviant behaviour; rather, they looked at specific types of deviant behaviour at work such as absenteeism, withdrawal cognition, turnover intention and fraudulent intention. Hence, this study incorporates Robinson and

Bennett's (1995) typology of workplace deviance to examine the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship among organisational formal controls, perceived group norms and workplace deviance. This is because Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology is broader, most widely accepted and it is much suitable in the Nigerian context.

2.3 Organizational Formal Control

Organizational formal control can be defined from at least three different perspectives, namely: marketing perspective, accounting perspective and human resource management perspective. From the marketing perspective, organizational formal control has been defined by Jaworski (1988) as "attempts by management or other stakeholders within the organization to influence the behaviour and activities of marketing personnel to achieve desired outcomes" (p.24). From the accounting perspective, organisational formal control has been defined as "all the devices managers use to ensure that the behaviours and decisions of people in the organization are consistent with the organization's objectives and strategies" (Merchant, 1998, p. 2). Taking human resource management perspective, Vardi and Weitz (2004) defined formal control system as "physical or procedural entities within the workplace designed specifically to reduce the occurrence of events judged to be detrimental to the organization" (pp. 38-39). While the first two perspectives of organizational formal controls are equally important, yet the present study adopts human resource management perspective as operational definition because this work focuses on human resource management practices.

A comprehensive review of literature on management control indicates that organizational formal control is a multidimensional construct consisting of at least two components or dimensions (Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Cardinal, Sitkin, & Long, 2004; Cravens, Ingram, LaForge, & Young, 1993; Davila, 2005; Jaworski, 1988; Joshi & Randall, 2001; Kirsch, 1996, 1997; Merchant, 1985, 1998; Oliver & Anderson, 1995; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992). For example, Anderson and Oliver (1987) identified two dimensions of organizational control systems: outcome-based control system and behaviour-based control system. As the name implies, outcome-based control is the component of organizational formal control that is typically characterized by monitoring the efforts of employees with a very little managerial contact (Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). On the other hand, a behaviour-based control is the component of organizational formal control characterized by high levels of monitoring, directing and evaluating of employee's behaviour (Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Oliver & Anderson, 1995).

In a similar vein, Ouchi (1979) identified three components of organizational control: market control, bureaucratic control, and clan control. Market control refers to the component of organisational control that is based on the use of external market mechanisms such as price, market share, and competition for effective decision making (Cangarli & Delen, 2012). Bureaucratic control is typically based on close personal supervision, direction and putting rules by the management to regulate employees' actions. On the other hand, clan control refers to the component of organisational control that is informal in nature and it is exercised by individuals

who are interrelated and interdependent, such as traditional societies, religious bodies, labour unions and professional bodies (Kirsch, 1996; Ouchi, 1979, 1980).

Merchant's (1985, 1998) typology of control also differentiates along three components of organizational formal control: personnel control, action control, and results control. Personnel control is a process that ensures personal objectives of individual members of the organization are in line with those of the organization. Action control refers to mechanisms that influence individual members of the organization by specifying the behaviours they ought to engage in the workplace. Results found that control is a process that influences individual members of the organization by evaluating the outcomes of their actions. Meanwhile, Jaworski (1988) classified organizational control systems into three components: input controls, process controls, and output controls. Input controls refer to measurable actions employed by organisations before the implementation of an activity (Jaworski, 1988). This type of formal control is exercised through various forms of resource allocation, which include budgeting, recruitment and selection procedures and manpower development programs, among others (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Otley, 1999; Waterhouse & Tiessen, 1978). Process controls focus on directing employees by specifying the methods and procedures to be employed in carrying out tasks, while output control focus on directing employees by specifying output goals and standards to be achieved for a given tasks (Ramaswami, 1996).

This present study adopts the typology of management control proposed by Anderson and Oliver (1987) for several reasons. Firstly, this typology of management control is not only applicable in marketing discipline but also in other

related fields, particularly, human resource management. Secondly, this typology is sufficient enough as it taps various management control practices.

Empirical support for the relationship between organizational formal control and workplace deviant behaviour is limited. Specifically, some of these studies focused on a single component of formal control as the predictor of workplace deviant behaviours, while some other studies focused on multiple components of formal control as the antecedents of workplace deviant behaviours (Bello & Gilliland, 1997; Challagalla & Shervani, 1996; Evans, Landry, Po-Chien, & Shaoming, 2007; Fang, Evans, & Zou, 2005; Flamholtz et al., 1985; Khakwani, Aslam, Ashraf, Javad, & Shabbir, 2012; Kwok, Au, & Ho, 2005; Miao & Evans, 2012; Niehoff & Paul, 2000; Wang, Dou, & Zhou, 2012).

Additionally, most of the few existing studies on the relationship between organizational formal control and workplace deviant behaviour have considered specific types of DWBs and their results were conflicting. For example, de Lara, Tacoronte, and Ding (2006) conducted a study to test their hypothesis that formal control system would negatively reduce cyberloafing 758 non-teaching staff from public university in Spain. The hypothesis was tested using a Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and received empirical support that formal control system plays a significant role in minimizing cyberloafing (i.e. when an employee perceived that management exercises strong control over organizational activities, he/she is less likely to engage in cyberloafing, defined as personal use of internet services by an employee during work hours).

In another study Hollinger and Clark (1982) adopted a cross-sectional research design to examine the effects of formal management sanctions along with informal co-workers' sanctions on workplace deviance among 9,175 employees from 47 different organizations in United States. The standardized regression coefficients and path analysis showed that perception of formal management sanctions was negatively related to deviant behaviour, defined as employee theft. In a related study, Detert, Treviño, Burris, and Andiappan (2007), and Vardi and Weitz (2001) found that process controls had a significant inverse relationship with workplace deviance. On the other hand, process control in form of supervisory guidance was not found to be a significant predictor of deviant behaviour (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006).

In another study, Parilla et al.(1988) employed a triangulation approach to examine the effects of organisational control on deviant workplace behaviour among 9,175 employees in a variety of work organisations in U.S. Results of quantitative study showed that organisational control in retail industry had a significant negative association with employee theft. Relatedly, Robertson and Anderson's (1993) study showed no significant relationship between sales force control (i.e. a process of monitoring, supervising and compensating employee) and ethical behaviour was found. Recently in a study conducted by Kura et al. (2013a) organizational formal control, conceptualized as perceived outcomes control was not significant predictor of deviant behaviour at work.

Taken together, while the above studies have made substantial contributions to the organizational behaviour literature by empirically demonstrating the influence

of organizational formal controls on various work-related attitudes and behaviours, the findings of these studies are mixed. Several reasons may account for the conflicting findings. Firstly, organizational formal controls were operationalized differently across these studies. Secondly, most of these studies did not capture the effects of contingency variables on the relationship between organizational formal controls and workplace deviance, because as noted by Jaworski (1988), the effectiveness of various control mechanisms may be contingent upon internal and external contingency variables. Hence, this suggests introducing a potential moderator towards better understanding the relationship between organizational formal controls and workplace deviance. Furthermore, as we noted earlier in chapter one, apart from organizational formal control, perceived group norm is another important factor that has been studied by organizational researchers and practitioners alike because of its significant role in determining employee behaviour. Hence, the next section covers a review of literature on perceived group norms.

2.4 Perceived Group Norms

Every group develops norms; some conventions, habits, customs and/or expectations that regulate the behaviour of its members (Parks, 2004). A group norm is defined as established rules that determine acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in a group (Levi, 2011). This definition implies that workgroup norms perform regulatory and survival functions; for these reasons alone they have strong influence on employee behaviour (Parks, 2004).

Theoretical discussions and empirical studies have suggested that perceived group norm is a multidimensional construct that is comprised of two different dimensions: injunctive norms and descriptive norms (Ajzen, 1985, 1991; Borsari & Carey, 2003; Christensen et al., 2004; Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990; Larimer, Turner, Mallett, & Geisner, 2004; Manning, 2009; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003). Injunctive norms refer to the kind of behaviours that most members of the group approve or disapprove (Cialdini et al., 1990; Schultz, Nolan, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2007). On the other hand, descriptive norms refer to the kind behaviours that most members of the group do in a given situation irrespective of its appropriateness (Borsari & Carey, 2003; Burger & Shelton, 2011; Forward, 2009; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003).

Some researchers adopted a multidimensional perspective of workgroup norms to examine the unique effect of each dimension on either specific or generic workplace deviance.(e.g., Cialdini et al., 1990; Reno, Cialdini, & Kallgren, 1993). For example, in their study, Cialdini et al. (1990) found that the relative effect of injunctive norms on anti-social behaviour (i.e., littering) was stronger than the effects of descriptive norms. Similar finding was reported by Reno et al. (1993). They found that the effect of injunctive norms on littering behaviour was quite stronger than that of descriptive norms. In a sample of 582 Greek students from a large West coast university, Larimer et al. (2004) found that both descriptive and injunctive norms exerted significant influence on alcohol-related behaviour, with injunctive norms having a stronger effect than descriptive norms.

Conversely, Godin and Kok (1996) reported that the relative effect of descriptive norms on anti-social behaviour (e.g., alcohol use) was stronger than the effects of injunctive norms. They reasoned that this is because injunctive norms were contingent upon the behaviour in question and the circumstances under which the norm was evoked. In a sample of 624 undergraduate students from two large mid-western universities in the USA, Cho (2006) also found that the influence of descriptive norms on college students' alcohol consumption was stronger than both campuses and everyday college life injunctive norms. He argued that this is because injunctive norms were less critical in influencing everyday college behaviour.

Several studies have been conducted on the perception of group norms in different organisational settings. Although there is abundant empirical research linking the perception of group norms with deviant workplace behaviour, findings are mixed. This suggests that further studies are needed to better understand this relationship. Meanwhile, some of the many empirical studies investigate the effects of workgroup norms on DWBs. For instance, Elek, Miller-Day and Hecht (2006) showed that group norm significantly predicted substance use/abuse by adolescent. Research also showed that group member absence for the next academic calendar was positively associated with group members' absence norms (Kivlighan, Kivlighan, & Cole, 2012). On the contrary, Väänänen et al. (2008) showed that permissive absence norm was not a significant predictor of sickness absence behaviour.

Furthermore, Smith and McSweeney (2007) reported that attitudes, perceived behaviour control, injunctive norms, moral norms and past behaviour were

significant predictors of donating intentions to charitable organisations. However, descriptive norm was not found to be a significant predictor.

2.5 Self-Regulatory Efficacy

Self-regulatory efficacy has been defined as individual's belief in their capacity to regulate and control thoughts, feelings, motivation and behaviour for attaining of goals (Bandura, 1986, 1993; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Self-regulatory efficacy is regarded as a cognitive resource as well as situation-specific construct that differs among individuals (Bandura, 1982). Specifically, according to Bandura (1977a) "people who regard themselves as highly efficacious act, think, and feel differently from those who perceive themselves as inefficacious. They produce their own future, rather than simply foretell it" (p. 395).

Based on the literature, self-regulatory efficacy is a well established factor that exerts a significant influence on variety of behaviours, including technology adoption behaviour (Igbaria & Iivari, 1995; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), career choice behaviour (Betz & Hackett, 2006; Mau, 2000), newcomers' adjustments to organizations (Saks, 1995), and group performance (Hoyt, Murphy, Halverson, & Watson, 2003; Katz-Navon & Erez, 2005). Furthermore, self-regulatory efficacy was negatively related to deviant behaviour (Caprara et al., 2002; Caprara et al., 1998). Thus, individuals with high levels of self-regulatory efficacy are less likely to engage in behaviours that violate significant organisational norms than those with lower levels of self-regulatory efficacy. Despite these empirical studies on the role of self-regulatory efficacy in explaining variety of individuals' behaviours, however, only a

few numbers of studies have been conducted to examine the self-regulatory efficacy as a potential moderator on the relationships between behavioural outcomes and their predictors. As such, this call for additional empirical work on the moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal controls and DWBs, as well as perceived group norms -DWBs relationships so as to better understand the predicting role of the said construct.

In this study, self-regulatory efficacy was incorporated as moderator to see if this construct plays a significant role in strengthening the negative effect of organisational formal controls on deviant behaviour at work as well as reducing the positive influence of perceived group norms on DWBs. In a meta-analytic study of the unique contribution of self-efficacy on work-related performance, Judge and colleagues (2007) recommended that future research can go beyond examining self-efficacy as a mediator. "Specifically, although self-efficacy traditionally has been examined as a mediator of individual differences, a promising area for future research is to examine the role of self-efficacy as a moderator" (Judge et al., 2007, p. 118). This is because examining self-efficacy as a moderator could increase researchers' theoretical understanding and provide them with empirical evidence on how self-efficacy might be a potential moderator.

2.6 Gaps in the Literature

From the literature review, several conclusions can be drawn. Firstly, the present study examines the moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between (1) organisational formal controls and deviant workplace behaviour, and (2)

the relationships between perceived group norms and DWBs. A number of predictors of deviant workplace behaviour have been identified in the literature. To date, some of predictors of DWBs have been studied include perceived organizational justice (Aquino et al., 1999; Colquitt et al., 2001; Near & Miceli, 2013; Shao et al., 2013), perceived organizational support (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Ferris et al., 2009; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), psychological contract breach (Bandura, 1982; Jensen et al., 2010; Restubog et al., 2007; Tenenhaus, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007), and leadership styles, among others (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Shamsudin et al., 2012b).

Despite these empirical studies, literatures indicate that very few studies have looked at the effects of organizational formal control on deviant workplace behaviours. Even if there are studies on control and workplace deviant behaviour, the studies were limited to examining specific types of workplace deviant behaviours such as employee absenteeism and theft at the workplace. 1975). Hence, in order to better understand variety of deviant behaviours employees engage in at work, this study intends to assess the influence of organisational formal controls and perceived group norms on broader construct of deviant workplace behaviour rather than the specific types.

Secondly, a comprehensive review of literatures indicate that there are inconsistent findings regarding the relationship between organizational formal control on deviant workplace behaviours (e.g., de Lara et al., 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Kura et al., 2013a) as well as the direction of perceived group norms and DWBs relationship (e.g., Elek et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2007; Väänänen et al., 2008).

In order to better understand the underlying causes of DWBs, this study intends to assess the organisational factors, group related factors and well as situation-specific by incorporating self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator on the relationship between organisational formal controls, perceived group norms and deviant workplace behaviour, By doing so, this study aims to better understand and explain the predicting factors of deviant workplace behaviour among academics in the Nigerian universities located in the North-west Geo-political zone.

Overall, the study incorporates organisational formal controls, consisting of perceived behaviour control and perceived outcome control, as well as perceived group norms, encompassing perceived descriptive norms and perceived injunctive norms as the independent variables. Deviant workplace behaviour is evaluated in terms of behaviour that violates significant organizational norms as the dependent variables in the study. Finally, self-regulatory efficacy is included as a moderator to better explain and understand the influence of each dimension in organisational formal controls and perceived descriptive norms on deviant workplace behaviour.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

Based on the prior empirical evidences and theoretical gaps identified in the preceding sections, a conceptual framework for this study was developed illustrating the role of self-regulatory efficacy moderator variable on (1) perceived formal controls-DWBs relationship; (2) workgroup norms - DWBs relationship as depicted in Figure 3.1. Two dimensions of workplace deviance, namely, organisational deviance and interpersonal deviance are the dependent variables in this study. The

independent variables are organisational formal control and perceived group norms, each having two dimensions: perceived descriptive norms/injunctive norms and perceived behaviour control/perceived outcome control, respectively. In addition, the present study suggests self-regulatory efficacy as a potential moderator variable on the relationship between organisational formal controls, workgroup norms and deviant workplace behaviour.

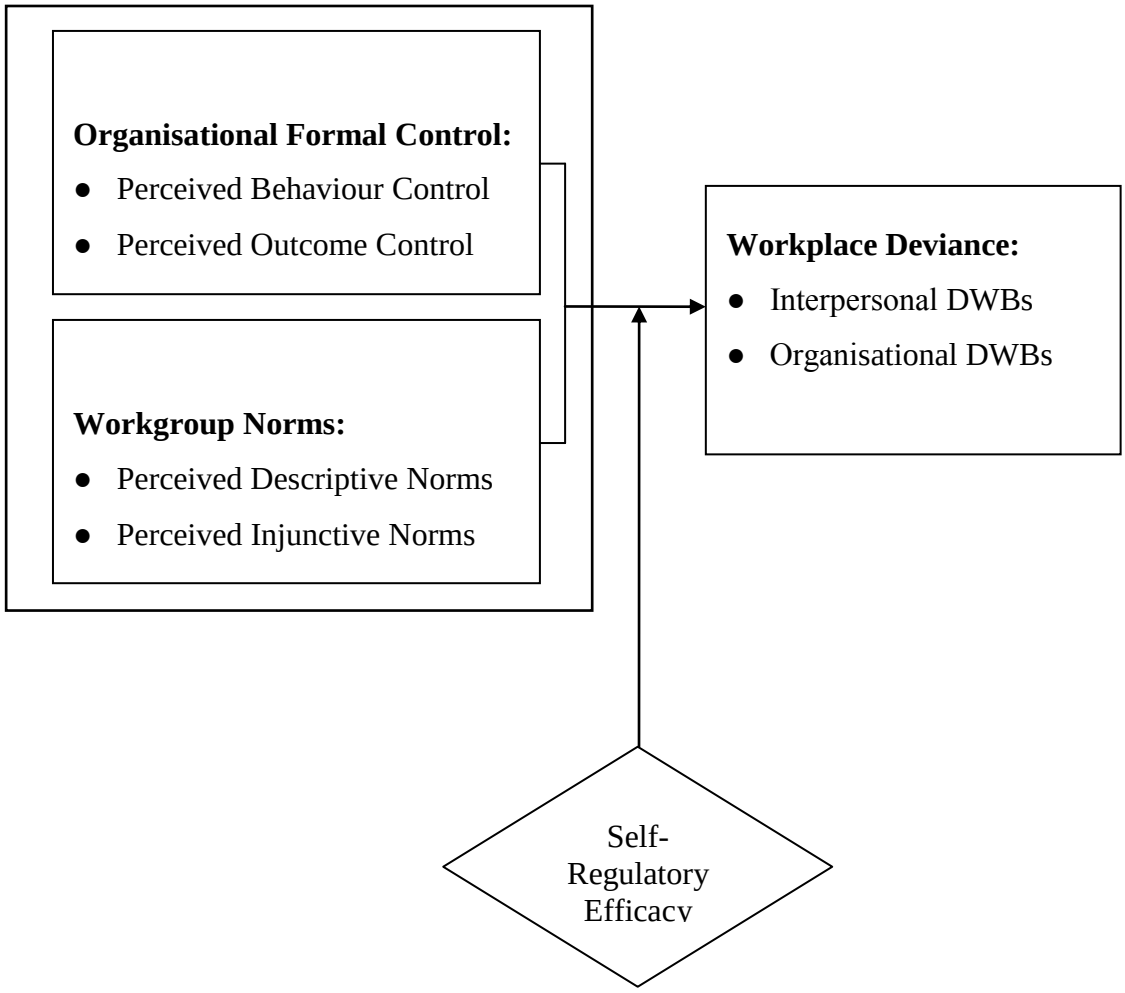

Figure 3.1
Conceptual Framework

2.8 Underpinning Theory

The buffering role of self-regulatory efficacy on perceived formal controls-DWBs relationship, as well as workgroup norms - DWBs relationship can be explained from various perspectives. Hence, main underpinning theories used to explain the above research framework are: organisational control theory, social learning theory and self-efficacy theory.

2.8.1 Organisational Control Theory

Organisational control theory provides some theoretical underpinnings to support the relationship between organisational formal controls and DWBs. Organisational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992) suggests that formal control designed and implemented by an organization should theoretically be able to regulate individual's behaviour in the workplace through monitoring, directing and rewarding system. In other words, Organisational control theory postulates that deviant workplace behaviours can be minimize by formal control instituted by an organisation through a series of policies and rules that promote compliance.

Regarding the relationship between organisational formal controls and DWBs, organizational control literature indicates that there is a general consensus among the researchers that organisational control processes play an important role in minimizing deviant behaviours in the organization. Additionally, support for the organisational control theory has been found across a variety of life situations, including salespersons' behavioural and performance outcomes (Miao & Evans, 2012; Miao, Evans, & Shaoming, 2007; Panagopoulos & Dimitriadis, 2009), deviant behaviours at work (de Lara et al., 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Kwok et al., 2005), and asymmetric information problem in corporate governance (O'Sullivan, 2000),

In particular, Ramaswami (1996) found that behaviour control has a significant negative influence on dysfunctional behaviour at work. Similarly, Dekker and Barling (1998) found that perceived behaviour control was negatively associated

with individual's predisposition to engage in interpersonal DWBs (i.e., sexual harassment at work. Choi et al.'s (2004) studied salespeople in Korea found that perceived outcome control was a significant determinant of DWBO, such as ignoring certain job-related activities simply because they were not monitored by supervisors. Jaworski and MacInnis' (1989) empirical finding revealed that an increase in outcome control reduces the likelihood of an individual to engage in deviant workplace behaviour.

de Lara, Tacoronte, and Ding (2006) examined the extent to which behaviour controls receive research support in minimizing deviant workplace deviance among university lecturers in Spain. They found that deviant behaviour at work was explained by the individual's perception regarding behaviour control. Evans *et al.* (2007) studied 293 U.S. salespeople and found that outcomes control leads to desired outcomes, which can be can translated into decreased negative behaviours such as problem solving and opportunism. In the same vein, Wang *et al.* (2012) showed that outcomes control reduces interpersonal deviance (i.e., customer-directed dysfunctional sales behaviours). A more recent study conducted by Kura, Shamsudin and Chauhan (2013a) showed that behaviour control instituted by an organization minimizes the likelihood of employees to engage in interpersonal deviant behaviour.

In line with the underlying proposition of organisational control theory that formal control designed and implemented by an organization should theoretically be able to regulate individual's behaviour in the workplace, it is predicted that this theory would provide a support for the relationship between organisational formal controls and workplace deviance in the current context.

2.8.2 Social Learning Theory

Social Learning Theory (SLT; Bandura, 1977b) is one of the most important scientific contributions of the greatest living psychologist named Albert Bandura, who served as the President of the American Psychological Association in 1970s. Social learning theory postulates that individuals learn behaviour from their work environment through observation, imitation, and modelling. Individuals observe their work-based referent others behaving in various ways. These individuals' work-based referent others provide examples of certain behaviours to observe and imitate.

Social learning theory also suggests that an individual's behaviour at work is determined by perception regarding the kind of behaviours that most others do in a social setting (i.e., perceived descriptive norms), and perception regarding the kind of behaviours that most others approve or disapprove in a social setting (i.e., perceived injunctive norms). Social learning theory has demonstrated sound predictive capacity across a variety of life situations, including career success (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Lau & Shaffer, 1999), health-related behaviour (Norman, 1991; Rosenstock, Strecher, & Becker, 1988), domestic violence (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997; Murrell, Christoff, & Henning, 2007), pro-environmental behaviours (Bhuian, Joonas, & Ruiz, 2007; Robertson & Barling, 2013), workplace deviant behaviour (Baumgartner, Valkenburg, & Peter, 2011; Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Crane & Platow, 2010; Dabney, 1995; Frone & Brown, 2010; Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2013c), and organizational citizenship behaviour (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Vigoda-Gadot, Beeri, Birman-Shemesh, & Somech, 2007), among others.

Specifically, in relation to deviant behaviours at work, Ames, Grube and Moore (2000) hypothesized that when work-based referent others do not accommodate the use of alcohol at work, individuals are less likely to use it in the workplace. Blanchard and Henle (2008) reported that perceived injunctive norms were positively related to minor cyberloafing. Frone and Brown (2010) investigated the relationship between workplace substance-use norms and drug use at work. They found a significant positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and drug use at work. Similarly, Crane and Platow (2010) reported that employees who perceived that their referent others (e.g., co-workers/colleagues) engage in deviant behaviours were more likely to engage in such deviant behaviours, including sexual harassment and voicing discontent.

Along these same lines, research has shown that workplace deviant behaviours may be explained by perceived group norms (e.g., Bamberger & Biron, 2007; Bobek, Hageman, & Kelliher, 2013; Henle, Reeve, & Pitts, 2010; Kura et al., 2013c; Luna & Shih Yung, 2013). Given the relative support for social learning theory across various life situations and the underlying principle of social learning that individuals learn behaviour from their work-based referent others via observation and imitation, it is predicted that this theory would provide a support for the group norms–workplace deviance relationship.

2.8.3 Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-Efficacy Theory (SET) is yet another scientific contribution of Albert Bandura. Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986) postulates that self-efficacy beliefs exert significant influence on all aspects of individual life including health-related activities, work-related performance and educational activities. High self-efficacy beliefs suggest that an individual has the capacity to engage in positive behaviour and more likely to resist peer pressure to engage in negative behaviours. Conversely, low self-efficacy beliefs indicate that an individual is less likely to perform positive behaviour and more likely to engage in negative behaviours at works, such as theft, absenteeism and lying against co-workers.

Ample research evidence supports self-efficacy theory as an underlying principle for understanding work-related performance across various organizational settings including technology adoption and usage behaviour (Hill, Smith, & Mann, 1987; Igbaria & Iivari, 1995; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Suur-Inkeroinen & Seppanen, 2011; Zhu, Sangwan, & Lu, 2010), career choice behaviour (Betz, 2000; Betz & Hackett, 2006; Mau, 2000; Taylor & Betz, 1983), newcomers' adjustments to organizations (Saks, 1995), group performance (Hoyt et al., 2003; Katz-Navon & Erez, 2005; Villanueva & Sanchez, 2007; Watson, Chemers, & Preiser, 2001) and deviant workplace behaviour, among others (Anandarajan & Simmers, 2005; Block, 2001; Caprara et al., 1998; Galperin, 2002; Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013).

In particular, extant empirical research has shown that self-efficacy belief is negatively related to deviant behaviours. Individuals low in self-regulatory efficacy and academic self-efficacy were more likely to engage in antisocial conduct and

substance abuse (Caprara et al., 1998). Similarly, in the personality literature, Caprara, Regalia, and Bandura (2002) suggested that students having a high sense of self-regulatory efficacy may be less likely to engage in antisocial behaviours (e.g., fighting, violent conduct, vandalism, and/or used weapons) than for low self-regulatory efficacy students.

In explaining the moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship among organisational formal controls, workgroup norms and DWBs using principle underlying self- efficacy, the present study suggests that the extent to which organisational formal controls and perceived group norms are able to influence employees to engage in deviant behaviour vary, depending upon the level of the individual's self-regulatory efficacy. The stronger the individual's self-efficacy beliefs to resist peer pressure the less likely he or she will engage in deviant workplace behaviours. Given the empirical support for self- efficacy theory across various organizational settings, it is proposed that this theory would provide an empirical support for self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator variable on the relations between organisational formal controls and workgroup norms and DWBs.

2.9 Hypotheses Development

In line with the theoretical justifications and prior empirical studies (e.g., Bandura, 1977b, 1986; Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Caprara et al., 1998; de Lara et al., 2006; Ouchi, 1979), hypotheses for this study have been advanced for empirical testing and validation. The present study has seven constructs, namely, perceived behaviour control, perceived outcome control, perceived descriptive norms, and perceived

injunctive norms as the independent variables, self-regulatory efficacy as the moderating variable, interpersonal deviance (DWBI) and organisational deviance (DWBO) as the dependent variables. Consequently, in this study, eighteen hypotheses have been advanced for testing and validation, which were concerned with relationships among the study variables.

2.9.1 Perceived Behaviour Control and DWBI

Anderson and Oliver (1987) proposed behaviour control as a significant determinant of employee's behaviour. Ramaswami (1996) and Jaworski and Young (1992) asserted that behaviour control reduces the likelihood of employees engaging in dysfunctional behaviour. Dekker and Barling (1998) showed that perceived that behaviour control is negatively related to interpersonal deviance (i.e., sexual harassment at work. Likewise, Kura, Shamsudin and Chauhan (2013a) found that behaviour control instituted by an organization through high levels of monitoring, directing, supervision and raising awareness among employees about what constitutes deviant acts would likely to motivate them to refrain from deviant behaviour directed at individuals.

To better understand the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance, the present study borrows from organisational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992). This theory suggests that formal controls instituted by an organization are mechanisms that appear to directly influence individual's decision for interpersonal deviant behaviour at work. It is argued that perceptions regarding the effectiveness of formal

controls in an organisation are also important in determining the individual's likelihood to engage in interpersonal deviance. Accordingly, the more an employee perceives formal controls to be effective, the less likely he/she would engage in deviant behaviour directed at individuals, and vice versa. Thus, the hypothesized relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance is as follows:

H1: There will be a negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBI.

2.9.2 Perceived Behaviour Control and DWBO

Researchers have also proposed that employees' perception regarding behaviour control may likely minimize their tendencies to engage in organisational deviance (e.g., Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Indeed, organisational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992) supports this assertion. Organisational control theory postulates that formal control instituted by an organization plays a significant role in regulating employee's behaviour at work. This is because individuals are generally hedonistic in nature, such that they tend to follow organisational rules and regulations to avoid pain (Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000; Higgins, 1998). Furthermore, previous research supports the negative relationship between behaviour control and organisational deviance (e.g., de Lara et al., 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Parilla et al., 1988; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). In particular, Vardi and Wiener (1996) reported that behaviour control systems, including performance appraisal, reward and disciplinary

systems, and/or monitoring systems have a direct influence on individual's considerations whether to engage in or refrain from deviant behaviour at work. de Lara et al. (2006) found a significant and relationship between behaviour control and cyberloafing (i.e., organisational deviance) among non-teaching staff from a public university in Spain. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H2: There will be a negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBO.

2.9.3 Perceived Outcome Control and DWBI

Extant research has empirically supported a negative association between perceived outcome control and interpersonal deviance at work, supporting control theory. For example, drawing from a sample of 500 manufacturing firms from China, Wang et al. (2012) showed that outcome-based control, characterized by monitoring the efforts of employees with a very little managerial contact reduces interpersonal deviance (i.e., customer-directed dysfunctional sales behaviours). Similarly, Arthur (2011) suggested outcome-based control may be a significant predictor of interpersonal deviant behaviors in organizations, such as sexual harassment, bullying and incivility at work. Hence, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H3: There will be a negative relationship between perceived outcome control and DWBI.

2.9.4 Perceived Outcome Control and DWBO

Previous research has supported a relationship between perceived outcome control and DWBO (Choi et al., 2004; Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989). In particular, Choi et al.'s (2004) study found that perceived outcome control is related negatively to organisational deviance (e.g., ignoring certain job-related activities simply because they are not monitored by supervisors). Similarly, Jaworski and MacInnis (Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989) found that an increase in outcome control minimizes the predisposition of an individual to engage in DWBO. Furthermore, this linkage between outcome control and DWB is in line with control theory that formal control instituted by organizations should able to reduce the propensity of individual to engage in DWB (Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979). The aforementioned empirical contributions, lead to the following hypothesis:

H4: There will be a negative relationship between perceived outcome control and DWBO.

2.9.5 Perceived Descriptive Norms and DWBI

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b) postulates that an individual's behaviour is significantly influenced by observations and perceptions of what most others do in a social setting. In line with the principle of social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b), Crane and Platow (2010) found that perceptions of what most others do in group or social setting was an important factor in motivating individuals to engage in deviant behaviours (e.g., sexual harassment and voicing

discontent. In another study, Kura, Shamsudin and Chauhan (2013c) found a significant and positive relationship between descriptive norms and DWBI. Taken together, these studies suggest that perceived descriptive norms play a significant role in explaining the occurrence of interpersonal deviance. These contributions, lead to the following hypothesis:

H5: There will be a positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBI.

2.9.6 Perceived Descriptive Norms and DWBO

Cialdini et al. (1990) define descriptive norms as the kind of behaviours that most members of the group exhibit in a given situation irrespective of its appropriateness. Prior research supports a positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBO (Brauer & Chaurand, 2010). For example, Dabney (1995) reported a significant and positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and drug theft or use by employees. Similarly, in a more recent study conducted on the relationship between workplace substance-use norms and employee substance use and impairment among 2,430 U.S. workers, Frone and Brown (2010) reported a significant positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBs (i.e., alcohol and illicit drug use at work). These authors concluded that perceived descriptive norms play an important role in predicting substance use among the U.S. workforce. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H6: There will be a positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBO.

2.9.7 Perceived Injunctive Norms and DWBI

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b) as well as theory of planned behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1985, 1991) postulates that injunctive norms (i.e., perception of what most other approve or disapprove in a group) would influence the behaviour of other group members. Consistent with these theories, prior studies indicate that perceived injunctive norm is positively related to deviant behaviour at work. For example, a longitudinal study by Baumgartner, Valkenburg, and Peter (2011) reported that perceptions of what peers approve to be positively related to risky sexual online behaviour. Similarly, in a more recent study, perceived injunctive norm was found to be a significant predictor of interpersonal deviance (Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2013b). Based on the above empirical evidence, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H7: There will be a positive relationship between perceived injunctive norms and DWBI.

2.9.8 Perceived Injunctive Norms and DWBO

Although perceived injunctive norm has been frequently identified as a factor that can influence an individual's behaviour, there is limited empirical research focusing on broad categories of organisational deviance (e.g., Robinson & Bennett, 1995). In particular, Dabney (1995) found that perceived injunctive norms were

positively related to drug theft and/or use by employees. Similarly, Ames, Grube and Moore (2000) hypothesized that injunctive norm is positively related to workplace drinking practices among employees in U.S. based industry. A study conducted by Blanchard and Henle (2008) among 221 employed MBA students at a Southeastern university showed that perceived injunctive norms were positively related to minor cyberloafing. Frone and Brown's (2010) study based on a sample of 2,829 employees from the U.S. public sector showed that injunctive norm significantly and positively influences workplace substance use. Likewise, Henle, Reeve and Pitts (2010) included 176 employed undergraduate business students to examine the influence of what most others approve (i.e. injunctive norms) and stealing time at work (defined as employees unnecessarily wasting time for personal matters during their scheduled work hours). They showed that perceived injunctive norms were positively related to intentions to engage in time theft. In view of the above, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H8: There will be a positive relationship between perceived injunctive norms and DWBO.

2.9.9 Self-regulatory Efficacy as a Moderator on the Relationship between Organisational Formal Controls and DWBs

The nature of the influence of organisational formal controls on DWBs is likely to vary according to the level of self-regulatory efficacy. This section discuses the role of self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator within the organisational formal control

dynamics resulting in DWBs. Self-regulatory efficacy is defined as individuals' beliefs in their capability to avoid social incitement for deviant workplace behaviour as well as their beliefs in their capability to discern their emotional states, understand their feelings toward others, and manage the expression of positive and negative affect (Bandura et al., 2003). Self-regulatory efficacy is a well-established factor that exerts a significant influence on a variety of behaviours including technology adoption behaviour (Igbaria & Iivari, 1995; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), career choice behaviour (Betz & Hackett, 2006; Mau, 2000), newcomers' adjustments to organizations (Saks, 1995), group performance (Hoyt et al., 2003; Katz-Navon & Erez, 2005) and deviant behaviour, among others (Chavarria, Stevens, Jason, & Ferrari, 2012; Tucker et al., 2009a). According to Bandura (1992), perceived self-efficacy is an important consideration in understanding the levels of motivation and performance accomplishments because it is able to shape the way individuals feel, think, and behave.

Indeed, there is substantial and strong evidence in workplace deviance literature shows that lack of personal control (e.g., self-regulatory efficacy) lead individuals to engage in deviant workplace behaviours (Christian & Ellis, 2011; Cretu & Burcas, 2014; Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011; Kura et al., 2013b; Prasad, Lim, & Chen, 2010; Tyler, 2009). In particular, Caprara, Regalia, and Bandura (2002) showed in a longitudinal study that students having a high sense of self-regulatory efficacy may have low predisposition to engage in antisocial behaviours (e.g., fighting, violent conduct, vandalism, and/or used weapons). Relatedly, Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, and Regalia (2001) found a

significant and negative relationship between perceived self-regulatory efficacy and transgressive conduct, defined as detrimental behaviours, including interpersonal breaches, verbal and physical assaults. Recently, Kura et al. (2013b) showed that self-regulatory efficacy related negatively with DWBI and DWBO.

The present study draws on Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1986) to advance the argument that self-regulatory efficacy might moderate the relationship between organisational formal controls on DWBs. The core tenet of the self-efficacy theory is that individuals low in of self-regulatory efficacy is more likely to engage in DWBs whenever they get opportunity to do so. Theoretically, self-regulatory efficacy might moderate the relationship between organisational formal controls on DWBs in several ways. Firstly, effortful control abilities such as self-regulatory efficacy may be able to override individuals automatic tendencies toward deviant behaviour at work (Wilkowski & Robinson, 2008), because individuals with high levels of self-regulatory efficacy think positively and hedonistic in nature than those with low levels of self-regulatory efficacy (Caprara & Steca, 2005).

Secondly, self-regulatory efficacy is expected to moderate the relationship between organisational formal controls and workplace deviance because individuals low in self-regulatory efficacy tend to be aggressive, and they find it hard to internalise their negative feelings or behaviours (Caprara, Vecchione, Barbaranelli, & Alessandri, 2013; Eisenberg et al., 2001). They also tend to resist organizational rules and regulations and find it hard to conform (Henle, 2005). As such, their disregard of organizational rules and regulations, make DWBs a viable response to

formal control instituted by their organisations. The foregoing contributions lead to the following hypotheses:

H9: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

H10: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

H11: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived outcome control and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

H12: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived outcome control and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

2.9.10 Moderating Effects of Self-Regulatory Efficacy on the Relationship between Perceived Group Norms and DWBs

The present study also hypothesized that the positive relationship between perceived group norms and deviant behaviour at work is contingent upon the level of

individual's self-regulatory efficacy. Hence, the process through which self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between the dimensions of perceived group norm and DWBs can be understood from self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986) as well as extant empirical studies. Drawing on principle underlying self efficacy (Bandura, 1978a, 1997), self-regulatory efficacy serves several purposes. Firstly, when individuals find themselves in a web of group influence, self-regulatory efficacy help them to achieve compliance with significant organisational norms and in so doing keep them away from engaging in deviant workplace behaviours. Secondly, self-efficacy theory suggests that self-regulatory efficacy may contribute to the regulation of behaviours and/or fostering prosocialness and adherence to moral self-sanctions for dysfunctional behaviour (Bandura, 1978a, 1986; Bandura et al., 2001).

Additionally, according to the moderator model, the positive relationship between perceived group norms and DWBs should be a function of the level of self-regulatory efficacy. This suggests that individuals with high level of self-regulatory efficacy may overpower the influence of workgroup members, because they are able to influence things despite situational constraints (Speier & Frese, 1997). On the other hand, individuals with low level of self-regulatory efficacy may succumb to the workgroup members' pressure towards deviant behaviour at work. Thus, the moderator effect of self-regulatory efficacy implies that the relationship between perceived group norms and DWBs should be weaker for individuals with high level of self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low level of self-regulatory

efficacy. Therefore, from the preceding discussion, the following hypotheses are advanced.

H13: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

H14: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

H15: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

H16: Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

2.10 Summary of Chapter

This chapter has critically reviewed the literature on workplace deviance, organizational formal control, perceived group norms and self-regulatory efficacy. In particular, a review of the literature indicates that the antecedents of workplace deviant behaviour can be classified into four categories: individual factors, organizational factors, group factors, and job factors. Scientific evidence provides support for the relationship between organizational formal controls, workgroup norms and DWBs (de Lara et al., 2006; Elek et al., 2006; Kivlighan et al., 2012; Parilla et al., 1988). However, the results of these studies are far from conclusive, which suggests the need for introducing a moderator variable on the relationships. Hence, self-regulatory efficacy is proposed as a potential moderator to determine whether it will change or strengthen the relationships.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the method employed to collect data for the present study. Specifically, the chapter covers the nature and the philosophy of the study, research framework, underpinning theory, hypotheses development, research design, operational definition of variables, measurement of variables, population of the study, sampling, data collection procedures and proposed techniques of data analysis.

3.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy, also known as research paradigm, is defined by Guba and Lincoln (1994) as the "basic belief system or world view that guides the investigation" (p.105). Research philosophy can be classified into two major categories, namely, positivist paradigm and interpretive paradigm (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Myers, 2009, 2013). Positivist paradigm, also called the scientific paradigm, is a philosophical contribution of a French philosopher Auguste Comte (1798–1857) (Koval, 2009; Mack, 2010; Moore, 2010). The doctrine of positivism has been the most widely practiced research paradigm in social sciences (Neuman, 2011). Positivists believe that social reality can be studied independent of the researcher (Scotland, 2012). Positivists also assume that social life can be represented

quantitatively using correlation and experimentation to determine cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Creswell, 2009).

Taken together, positivists employ deductive inquiry (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), which aims to test hypotheses that reflect causal relationships between variables that are based on theories and empirical evidence (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Creswell, 2009; Deshpande, 1983; Perlesz & Lindsay, 2003). Furthermore, the major goal of deductive research is to draw conclusions that are generalizable, which also allow a revision of theory (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Deshpande, 1983). In summary, Neuman (2011) describes positivists as researchers that advocate value-free science, seeks precise quantitative measures, tests causal theories with statistics, and believes in the importance of replicating studies.

In contrast, interpretive paradigm, also known as anti-positivist or constructivist, is a philosophical underpinning of a German philosopher and mathematician, Edmund Husserl (1859-. 1938) (Mack, 2010; Willis, 2007). Unlike the positivist paradigm, interpretive philosophical approach assumes that human social life can be qualitatively studied through an array of means including direct observation, interviews, and case studies, among others (Neuman, 2011). Furthermore, interpretivists view social reality as subjective and socially constructed, with both researchers and participants interacting to understand a phenomenon from an individual's perspective (Creswell, 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The purpose of this study was to test a hypothesized structural model. The model theorized that self-regulatory efficacy has a significant moderating effect on the relationships between organisational formal controls, perceived workgroup

norms and deviant workplace behaviour. Two dimensions of organisational formal controls, namely perceived behaviour control and perceived outcome control were postulated to have a significant influence on DWBs among academics. The study also hypothesized that two dimensions of workgroup norms, namely perceived descriptive norms and perceived injunctive norms to have a significant influence on DWBs. Based on the primary objectives of the study, a total number of three objectives were put forward and 18 of hypotheses has been formulated and tested.

Based on the research model developed, the present study focuses on theory testing and verification rather than developing a new theory, thus, employing a deductive research approach. Therefore, drawing on the philosophical assumptions discussed above, the present study largely adopts the positivist paradigm, based on objectivism as the underlying ontological and epistemological positions.

3.3 Research Design

This study adopts quantitative research approach to assess the structural relationships among the four constructs: workplace deviance, organizational formal control, workgroup norms, and self-regulatory efficacy. Partial Least Squares path modeling in conjunction with SmartPLS was used to test several hypotheses based on self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986), organizational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Merchant, 1985; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992), and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b).

The study also adopts cross-sectional research design in which data were collected once during the whole study. The data were then analysed and interpreted

statistically, while drawing conclusions or making inferences about the population of the study at one point in time. Cross-sectional research design was adopted over longitudinal research design because of the resource constraints of the researchers in terms of time and money (Punch, 2005; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2009).

In this study, survey research method was used to collect data through self-administered questionnaire. Survey research was considered the most appropriate because it is a widely used method adopted by organisational researchers who are interested in collecting information about a very large population that cannot be observed directly (Keeter, 2005; Tanur, 1982). Because the target population of the study was individual lecturers who are teaching in the selected Nigerian universities, the unit of analysis in this study was individual.

3.4 Conceptual Definition of Variables

3.4.1 Deviant Workplace Behaviour

The conceptual definition of deviant workplace deviance was developed in accordance with Robinson and Bennett's (1995) as "a voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and in so threatens the well-being of an organisation, its members, or both" (p. 556). Such behaviours include attending to personal matters during working hours, accepting material gifts or rewards from students in exchange for good grades or assessments, and harassing or intimidating against particular students, sexually or otherwise, among others. Besides the present

research, a large number of empirical studies have also operationalized workplace deviance in similar way (e.g., Alias et al., 2013; Bordia et al., 2008; Colbert et al., 2004; Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004).

3.4.2 Organisational Formal Control

Organisational formal control is conceptually defined as mechanisms put in place by management such as rules and regulations, disciplinary measures and auditing with the aim of monitoring, detecting, punishing and minimizing the occurrence of improper conduct (Ṿardi & Weitz, 2004).

3.4.3 Perceived Group Norms

Perceived group norm is conceptually defined as some conventions, habits, customs, expectations and established rules that determine acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in a group (Levi, 2011; Parks, 2004).

3.4.4 Perceived Self-Regulatory Efficacy

Self-regulatory efficacy is conceptually defined as cognitive resources that enable employees to exert control over their behaviours so that they would be able to resist peer pressure and temptation to engage in deviant behaviours in the workplace (Bandura, 1993; Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000).

3.5 Measurement of Variables and Instrumentation

In this study, questionnaire was administered to the teaching staff of the Nigerian universities (see Appendix A). The questionnaire consists of seven sections. Section one consists of 26 items that measure workplace deviance. Section two consists of nine items that measure self-regulatory efficacy scale. Section three consists of three items that measure perceived descriptive norms. Section four also consists of three items that measure perceived injunctive norms. Section five comprises nine items that measure perceived behaviour control. Section six consists five items that measure perceived outcomes control, while Section seven comprises of five demographic variables including gender, age, rank, job tenure and highest educational qualification.

Furthermore, as stated earlier, all items adapted in the questionnaires were answered using a four-point scale (see Appendix A, section 1-7). The use of a four-point scale format is considered the most appropriate because it has been found to enhance the reliability of measures (Bendig, 1954; Chang, 1994), and reduce social desirability bias that could lead to contamination of the substantive results (Fisher, 1993; Garland, 1991; Paulhus, 1991). Furthermore, respondents would not know what is being investigated, thereby decreasing their tendency to respond in a particular way (Hughes, 1969). Such scale has also been used in previous studies (Deshpande, 1996; Ferris et al., 2009; Kaai et al., 2011; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007; McCabe et al., 2006; Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo, 2006). Furthermore, according to Frary (1996a), using a large number of points on a scale such as seven-point scale or more takes some thought, effort and time, which could annoy or

confuse the respondents with hair-splitting differences between the response levels. Hence, the use of use of a four-point scale format was considered sufficient to stimulate the respondents to indicate their responses towards reasonable and reliable direction (Frary, 1996b).

3.5.1 Deviant Workplace Behaviour

In the present study, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they typically engaged in deviant behaviour at work on a total of 20 items adapted from Bennett and. Robinson's (2000) workplace deviance scale. The present study also dropped two items from the Bennett and Robinson's (2000) workplace deviance scale as they were deem to be irrelevant to university lecturers' job in the Nigerian context. An example of item dropped is: "dragged out work in order to get overtime." Additionally, six items that are relevant to the lecturer's job in the Nigerian context were developed specifically for the present study. These six items were obtained based on preliminary telephone interviews with the head of departments, deans of the faculty and job incumbents. Partial Least Squares Path Modeling was used to validate the six relevant items included in the measures of DWB. Examples of adapted items are: "discussed university's confidential information with an unauthorized person", "worked on a personal matter instead of work for the university" and "utilized university's property for self-fish/private gain".

All the items for workplace deviance measures adapted in this study were scored by using a 4-point Likert- scale ranged from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*always*). The

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for this scale yielded 2-factor structure with acceptable fit. Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha for the Bennett and Robinson's (2000) workplace deviance scale were .85 and .91 for interpersonal DWBI and organizational DWBO, respectively. Besides the present research, many past empirical studies have also used it to assess DWBs (e.g., Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Ferguson & Barry, 2011; Henle, 2005; Judge et al., 2006b; Ménard, Brunet, & Savoie, 2011). Table 3.1 presents the items used to measure deviant workplace behaviour.

Table 3.1
Survey Items Related to Deviant Workplace Behaviour

Construct	**Item Code**	**Survey Items**	**Source**
Interpersonal Deviance	IDB01	Made fun of colleagues or students in public.	Bennett and. Robinson (2000)
	IDB02	Said something that hurt feelings of some colleagues or students.	
	IDB03	Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark or joke to colleagues or students.	
	IDB04	Embarrassed colleagues or students publicly.	
	IDB05	Lost temper easily while at work.	
	IDB06	Acted rudely toward colleagues at work.	

Table 3.1 (Continued)

Construct	Item Code	Survey Items	Source
Interpersonal Deviance	IDB07	Went too far in joking with students.	Bennett and. Robinson (2000)
	IDB08	Sexually or otherwise harassed or intimidated against particular students.	
	IDB09	Treated students badly.	
	IDB10	Refused to talk to other colleague(s).	
	IDB11	Accepted material gifts or rewards in exchange for good grades or assessments.	Subject Matter Expert and Job Incumbent
	IDB12	Became biased in giving grade or assessment to students because of family ties or private requests.	
	IDB13	Became biased in giving grade or assessment to students because of student's race, culture, social class or religion.	
	IDB14	Threatened students with carryover of the course, thereby forcing them to buy handouts or textbooks.	
	IDB15	Plagiarised someone works or idea.	

Table 3.1 (Continued)

Construct	Item Code	Survey Items	Source
Organisational Deviance	ODB01	Worked on a personal matter instead of work for the university.	Bennett and. Robinson (2000)
	ODB02	Utilized university's property for self-fish/private gain.	
	ODB03	Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on university expenses.	
	ODB04	Came to class late without giving prior notice to students.	
	ODB05	Condemned the university in public.	
	ODB06	Intentionally worked slower when discharging official assignment.	
	ODB07	Discussed the institution's confidential information with an unauthorized person.	
	ODB08	Ignored the misconduct of colleagues.	
	ODB09	Refused to accept any responsibility other than teaching.	Subject Matter Expert and Job Incumbent
	ODB10	Refused to attend meetings when needed.	
	ODB11	Lied about participation in conference or seminar.	

Source: The Researcher

3.5.2 Organisational Formal Control

To measure organisational formal control, eight items were adapted from Babakus, Cravens, Grant, Ingram and LaForge's (1996) and Oliver and Anderson's (1994) organisational formal control scale, while the remaining seven items were adapted from management control scale. These two scales will measure two empirically derived dimensions of organisational formal control in the workplace: behaviour-

based control and outcome based control. Examples of items are: “Management of the university stays very well informed of lecturer’s activities.”; “My head of department spends time guiding lecturers to make sure that they know how to carryout his/her official assignments.”; “I don't get much day-to-day contact with the management of the university”.

In order to ensure that items in the organisational formal control scale really capture the extent to which management controls are being practiced, we conducted interviews with the head of departments, deans of the faculty and job incumbents. Based on the interviews, some items were added to the organisational formal control scale because they are relevant for the lecturer’s job in the context of the study, while those items that are not relevant for the lecturer’s job in the context of the study were excluded from the original scale as suggested by Cook and Campbell (1979). Example of item included is: “Management of the university ensures every lecturer is provided with employee handbook that contains certain provisions on how lecturers should to conduct themselves.” On the other hand, example of item excluded is: “How heavily do you think your manager relies on sales volume.”

Furthermore, self-ratings was applied to each item on the organisational formal control scale using four-point Likert scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). The internal consistency coefficients of behaviour-based control and outcome based control were .70 and .75 respectively, suggesting good reliability. Beside this study, Babakus et al.’s (1996) and Oliver and Anderson’s (1994) organisational formal control scales have been successfully used in several empirical studies (e.g., Ahearne, Rapp, Hughes, & Jindal, 2010; Küster & Canales,

2011; Panagopoulos & Dimitriadis, 2009; Piercy, Cravens, Lane, & Vorhies, 2006; Slater & Olson, 2000; Theodosiou & Katsikea, 2007). Table 3.2 presents the items used to measure organisational formal control.

Table 3.2
Distribution of Items Used to Measure Organisational Formal Control

Construct	Item Code	Survey Items	Source
Perceived Behaviour Control	**PBC01**	My head of department spends time guiding lecturers to make sure that they know how to carryout his/her official assignments.	Babakus, Cravens, Grant, Ingram and LaForge (1996) and Oliver and Anderson (1994)
	PBC02	My head of department stays in close contact with every member of the department.	
	PBC03	Management of the university stays very well informed of lecturer's activities.	
	PBC04	Management of the university encourages lecturers to increase their efforts by rewarding them for their efforts.	
	PBC05	My head of department strongly recommends lecturers to participate in conferences and seminars on the job.	
	PBC06	My head of department discussed performance evaluations with lecturers in the department.	
	PBC07	Examinations set by lecturers are subjected to moderation by an independent colleague.	
	PBC08	My head of department often issues official query or warning to lecturers for negative act like refusing to attend departmental meeting.	
	PBC09	Management of the university ensures every lecturer is provided with an employee handbook that contains certain provisions on how lecturers should to conduct themselves.	

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Construct	Item Code	Survey Items	Source
Perceived Outcome Control	PCO01	My head of department tells me about the expected level of achievement on job performance.	Babakus, Cravens, Grant, Ingram and LaForge (1996) and Oliver and Anderson (1994)
	PCO02	My head of department monitors my performance on achieving certain level of job performance.	
	PCO03	I receive frequent feedback from my head of department on whether I am meeting expected job performance.	
	PCO04	My head of department ensures that I am aware of the extent to which I attain job performance.	
	PCO05	I would be recognized by my head of department if I perform well on my job.	

Source: The Researcher

3.5.3 Perceived Group Norms

In the present study, six items in the Beliefs about Peer Norms Scale developed by Hansen and Graham (1991) were adapted to measure the dimensions of perceived group norms: perceived descriptive norms and perceived injunctive norms. For descriptive norms subscale, respondents rated their perception of injunctive group norms using four-point scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disapprove*) to 4 (*strongly approve*). Examples of adapted items are: "how would your colleagues' respond if you reported to class late without giving prior notice to students once in a while?" and "how would your colleagues' response if you engaged in negative act like sexual harassment and treating students badly?" Similarly, for injunctive norms subscale, respondents rated their perception of injunctive group norms using four-point scale

ranged from 1 (*none of them*) to 4 (*most of them*). Examples of adapted items are: "how many of your colleagues do you think have attended to personal matters instead of official work during the past 30 days" and "how many of your colleagues do you think have utilized university's property for self-fish/private gain during the past 30 days?."

The Cronbach's alpha for perceived descriptive norms and perceived injunctive norms were .76 and .63, respectively. Prior studies also assessed individuals' perception regarding workgroup norms using this scale (e.g., Kulis, Marsiglia, Nieri, Sicotte, & Hohmann-Marriott, 2004; Kumar, O'Malley, Johnston, Schulenberg, & Bachman, 2002; Wyrick et al., 2004). Table 3.3 presents the items used to measure workgroup norms.

Table 3.3
Distribution of Items Used to Measure Workgroup Norms

Construct	Item Code	Survey Items	Source
Perceived Descriptive Norms	PDN01	How many of your colleagues do you think have attended to personal matters instead of official work during the past 30 days?	Hansen and Graham (1991)
	PDN02	How many of your colleagues do you think have utilized university's or institution's property for self-fish/private gain during the past 30 days?	
	PDN03	How many of your colleagues do you think have accepted material gifts or rewards in exchange for positive grades or assessments during the past 30 days?	

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Construct	Item Code	Survey Items	Source
Perceived Injunctive Norms	PIN01	How would your colleagues respond if you reported to class late without giving prior notice to students once in a while?	Hansen and Graham (1991)
	PIN02	How would your colleague respond if you tried forcing students to purchase materials for your personal gain?	
	PIN03	How would your colleague respond if you engaged in negative act like sexual harassment and treating students badly?	

Source: The Researcher

3.5.4 Self-Regulatory Efficacy

In the present study, nine items was adapted from Bandura's (1990) Self-Regulatory Efficacy Scale to measure self-regulatory efficacy. Self-regulatory efficacy was assessed using a four-point scale ranged from 1 (*not well at all*) to 4 (*extremely well*). Examples of adapted items are: "discussed institution's confidential information with an unauthorized person", "how well can you resist pressure to stop yourself from spending too much time attending to personal matters instead of official work?" and "How well can you prevent yourself from getting into too far joking with students?". The Cronbach's alpha for Self-regulatory efficacy scale was .88. A part from the present study, prior research has utilized this scale to measure self-regulatory efficacy (e.g., Bandura, 1993; Bandura et al., 2003; Caprara et al., 2002; Caprara et al., 1998; Zimmerman et al., 1992). Table 3.4 presents the items used to measure self-regulatory efficacy.

Table 3.4
Survey Items Related to Self-Regulatory Efficacy

Construct	Item Code	Survey Items	Source
Self-Regulatory Efficacy	SRE01	How well can you resist colleagues' pressure to do things in university/institution that can get you into trouble?	Bandura (1990)
	SRE02	How well can you stop yourself from spending too much time attending to personal matters instead of official work?	
	SRE03	How well can you resist pressure to accept material gifts or rewards in exchange for good grades or assessments?	
	SRE04	How well can you resist pressure to become biased in giving grade or assessment to students because of family ties or private requests?	
	SRE05	How well can you prevent yourself from getting into too far joking with students?	
	SRE06	How well can you prevent yourself from plagiarizing someone works or idea?	
	SRE07	How well can you ignore the misconduct of colleagues or student?	
	SRE08	How well can you resist pressure to sexually harass or intimidate against particular students?	
	SRE09	How well can you control your temper?	

Source: The Researcher

3.5.5 Demographic Variables

Demographic variables such as gender, age, job tenure, job rank and educational qualifications were also incorporated into the questionnaire. Gender was measured as a nominal variable, while age and job tenure were treated as continuous variables. Gender was coded using dummy variables with value "1" for male and "2" for female. The participants were asked to indicate their educational qualification. As such, educational qualification was also was coded using dummy variables with "1" = Doctorate Degree, "2" = Master's Degree, and "3" = First Degree. Age was also denoted using dummy variables with "1" = 21-30 years, "2" = 31-40 years, "3" = 41-50 years, and "4" = 51 years and above. A similar coding system was applied to job tenure with "1" = Less than 1 year, "2" = 1-5 years, "3" = 6 -10 years, and "4" = 11 years and above. job rank was coded using dummy variables with "1" = Professor, "2" = Reader, "3" = Senior Lecturer, "4" = Lecturer I, "5" = Lecturer II, "6" = Assistant Lecturer, and "7" = Graduate Assistant. Marital status was coded using dummy variables with "1" = Married, "2" = Single, "3" = Widowed, and "4" = Divorced or Separated. Finally, ethnicity was coded using dummy variables with "1" = Yoruba, "2" = Hausa/Fulani, "3" = Igbo, and "4" = others.

3.5.6 Pretesting of the Instrument

Before conducting the actual survey, an initial draft of the questionnaire was pre-tested by asking experts to read go through it and see if there are any ambiguities which have not been noticed by the researcher. Firstly, three experts, including a Professor, an Associate Professor, and a Senior Lecturer from Ahmadu Bello

University, Zaria, Nigeria, Bayero University Kano, Nigeria and Universiti Utara Malaysia examined the quality of the survey instrument for its face validity in terms of wording, format, clarity, simplicity and ambiguity of the questionnaire items (Dillman, 1991; Yaghmale, 2009). Based on these evaluation criteria, corrections and improvements were suggested, which were later included in the survey instrument. Thus, all corrections and suggestions for improvement were noted and reflected in the survey instrument before it was administered to the respondents.

Secondly, a total number of 100 questionnaires were pilot-tested in order to receive feedbacks and comments from the respondents about the length, structure and wording of the questionnaire (section 3.8). While carrying out the pilot study, some fundamental issues in the questionnaire were raised by the respondents. These issues raised were recorded in a diary. On the basis of issues identified during the pilot test, some changes were made in the questionnaire before administering to the main survey sample. For example, in the initial draft, a sentence was as "spent most of his/her time attending to personal matters instead of official work". Because the word he or she is not be suitable for self-rating, this item has been modified to "worked on a personal matter instead of work for the university". Similarly, the item that read "falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than he/she spent on university/institution expenses" have been changed to "falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on university expenses".

3.6 Population of Study

Population of the study refers to the collection of a clearly defined elements (e.g., people, places, objects and cases) about which a researcher wishes to make some inferences (Cooper & Schindler, 2009). The present research work focuses on lecturers of universities located in the north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Universities were selected for this study for at least two main reasons. Firstly, lecturers are the are bedrock of the educational system in a country (Kaluchi, 2009) and the success of every university depends largely upon its faculty (Indiresan, 1976). Secondly, frequent cases of deviant behaviours in Nigerian universities, such as syndicated plagiarism by lecturers, sexual harassment and intimidation of female students by some lecturers, have been reported, making this setting highly relevant for our study (Nnabugwu; Onuoha, 2012).

Furthermore, this study focuses mainly on north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria for the following reasons. Firstly, other geopolitical zones of Nigeria, particularly the north-east geopolitical zone, comprising of Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe Yobe, and Taraba States were not covered by this study because of *Boko Haram* insurgency. *Boko Haram* "is an extremist Islamic sect in Nigeria that has created havoc across the north of the country and in the capital, Abuja. Its violent attacks on government offices, the United Nations, and churches threaten to destabilize the country" (Sutherland, 1947, p. 1). Because of this unfortunate crises in this geopolitical zone schools including universities were shut down until further notice as the leader of Boko Haram calls for more attacks on schools (Agnew, 1992; Sykes & Matza, 1957). Secondly, regarding the geopolitical zones in southern and

north-central of Nigeria, the present study could not cover those areas because they became inaccessible by the researchers due to the Niger Delta Militancy attacked on innocent individuals and the unfortunate recurrent crisis in the north-central of Nigeria, particularly, the Plateau and Benue States (Mohammed, 2012).

Based on the statistics obtained from Report of the Needs Assessment of Nigerian Universities, as at November 1, 2012, there were 5,752 teaching staff members in 11 universities located in north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria as shown in table 3.5.

Table 3.5
Total Number of Universities Located in North-West Geopolitical Zone of Nigeria

S/No.	State	Total Number of Universities	Number of Teaching Staff	%
1	Jigawa	1	43	0.75
2	Kaduna	3	2,381	41.39
3	Kano	2	1,303	22.65
4	Katsina	3	979	17.02
5	Kebbi	1	170	2.96
6	Sokoto	1	876	15.23
	Total	11	5,752	100

Note: The Federal University, Birnin Kebbi, Federal University, Gusau and Northwest University Kano were excluded from this study as they are yet to take off as at the time of data collection exercise.
Source: Report of the Needs Assessment of Nigerian Universities (2012)

3.7 Sample Size and Power Analysis

In a survey research, determining an appropriate sample size is essential (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001). An appropriate sample size is needed in order to minimize the total cost of sampling error. To minimize the total cost of sampling error, the power of a statistical test has to be taken into consideration. The power of

a statistical test is defined as the probability that null hypothesis (which predicts no significant relationship between variables) will be rejected when it is in fact false (Cohen, 1988, 1992; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). Researchers have generally agreed that the larger the sample size, the greater the power of a statistical test (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 2001; Kelley & Maxwell, 2003; Snijders, 2005). Power analysis is a statistical procedure for determining an appropriate sample size for a research study (Bruin, 2006). Hence, to determine the minimum sample for this study, an a *priori* power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1 software (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Faul et al., 2007). Using the following parameters: Power (1-β err prob; 0.95), an alpha significance level (α err prob; 0.05), medium effect size f^2 (0.15) and four main predictor variables (i.e., PBC, PCO, PDN and PIN), a minimum sample of 129 would be required to test a regression based models (Figure 3.2; Cohen, 1992; Faul et al., 2009; Faul et al., 2007).

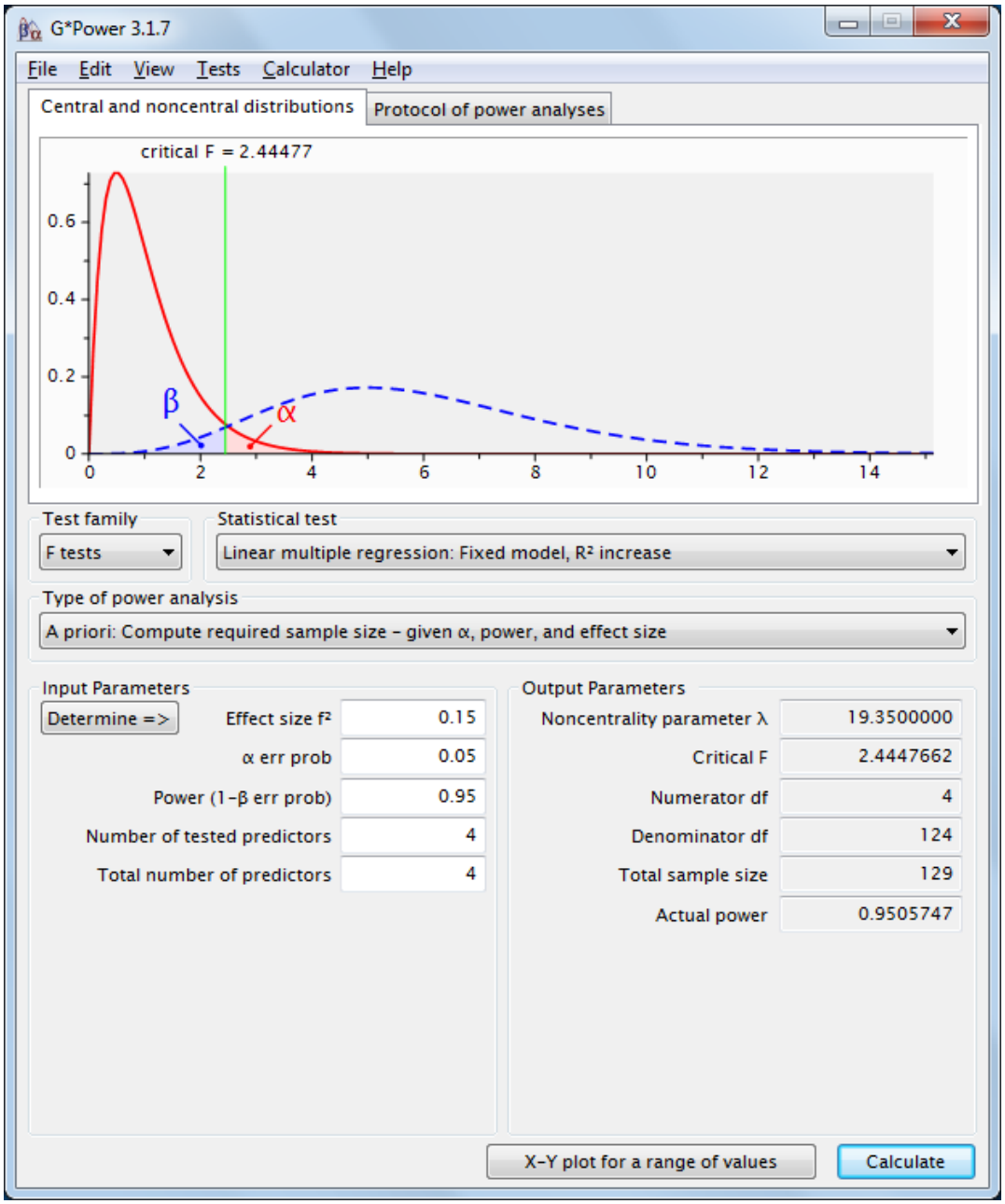

Figure 3.2
The Output of a Priori Power Analysis

While the output of *priori* power analysis indicated that a minimum of 129 subjects would be required for the present study, it is worth noting that response rate in the Nigerian context is very poor even among highly educated people (Asika,

1991; Nakpodia, Ayo, & Adomi, 2007; Ofo, 1994). Due to the poor response rate, the sample size obtained using *priori* power analysis appears to be in adequate in the present study**.** Therefore, it became necessary to consider other means of determining an adequate sample size for a given population. Following this line of argument, the present study compromised a priori analysis for Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size determination criteria. Most importantly, Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size determination criteria was used to determine the representative sample size for this study because it has taken into account the level of confidence and precision, ensuring that sampling error is minimized.

As mentioned earlier, there were 5,752 teaching staff working in the 11 universities located in north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria as at 1st November 2012. By referring to the sample size table generated by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), for a given population of 5,752, a sample size of 361 would be required to represent the population of this study. To further minimize the low response rate from uncooperative respondents, the sample size of 361 was increased by 40% as suggested by Salkind (1997). Adding this percentage to 361 gave 505. Finally, a sample size of 505 was decided to account for uncooperative respondents and unusable questionnaires.

3.7.1 Sampling Technique

In this study, to ensure an equal distribution of teaching staff members working in the 11 universities located in north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria, a quota sampling technique was used to select 361 determined sample size. According to

Sekaran and Bougie (2010) "Quota sampling can be considered as a form of proportionate stratified sampling, in which a predetermined proportion of people are sampled from different groups, but on a convenience basis" (p. 278). Quota sampling technique was used for at least three main reasons. Firstly, because sampling frame could not be access, quota sampling (i.e., a non-probability sampling technique) is considered appropriate for the present study despite the fact that findings cannot be generalized (Cooper & Schindler, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009).

Secondly, given the large population of 5,752 of teaching staff, quota sampling technique ensures that sampling error is minimized (Cooper & Schindler, 2009; Wilson, 2010). Secondly, quota sampling technique ensures homogeneity within a group (i.e. academic staff in Nigerian universities) and heterogeneity across groups (i.e. different universities with different departments, under either Federal or State Government) (Cooper & Schindler, 2009; Hair, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2007; Punch, 2005). Thirdly, quota sampling technique was also be used because of the resource constraints of the researchers in terms of time and money (Hair et al., 2007; Punch, 2005; Saunders et al., 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2009) as well as unavailability of a practical sampling frame (Cooper & Schindler, 2009).

Adoption of quota sampling technique involves a series of steps. The first step is to define the population. As noted earlier, the population is 5,752 (see Table 3.6). The second step is to define the stratum. The logical stratum in this study is the north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Eleven universities are located 6 states of north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Next is to determine an average number of

population elements per strata by dividing the population size (i.e., 5,752) by number of strata (6 strata or states). This yielded 958.67 elements per strata. Next is to determine the percentage of participants to be drawn from each stratum by dividing the determined sample size by the population of the study (i.e. 361 divided by 5,752, and then multiply by 100 = 6.28%). The final step is to determine the number of subjects in a sample by multiplying the total number of each element in the population by determined percentage (i.e. 6.28 %.) For example, the total number of teaching staff in Kaduna state is 2,381 and this number is multiplied by 6.28% to arrive at the number of subjects in sample (i.e. 2, 881 x 6.28% = 150) …and so on as shown in Table 3.6. This study adopts disproportionate quota random sampling to ensure an equal distribution of the participants representing each state in the north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria.

Table 3.6
Disproportionate Quota Sampling of Respondents

S/No.	State	Total Number of Universities	Number of Elements in Stratum	Number of Subjects in Sample
1	Jigawa	1	43	3
2	Kaduna	3	2,381	150
3	Kano	2	1,303	82
4	Katsina	3	979	61
5	Kebbi	1	170	11
6	Sokoto	1	876	55
	Total	11	5,752	361

Note: The Federal University, Birnin Kebbi, Federal University, Gusau and Northwest University Kano were excluded from this study as they are yet to take off as at the time of data collection exercise

Having identified the sample size in each stratum; next was to select number of subjects in sample from number of elements in quota. For example, selecting 3 from 43 or 150 from 2,381. A non-probability sampling technique was used to select number of subjects in sample from number of elements in quota.

3.8 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to ascertain the reliability and validity of measures (Flynn, Sakakibara, Schroeder, Bates, & Flynn, 1990). This is considered necessary because the original scales that have been adapted in the present study were developed mainly in United States (Bandura, 1990; 2000; Hansen & Graham, 1991; Oliver & Anderson, 1994) and/or Australia (Babakus, Cravens, Grant, Ingram, & LaForge, 1996).

Following Diamantopoulos and Siguaw's (2012) guidelines, a total of 100 questionnaires were sent out for the pilot survey, however, only 89 teaching staff from various universities located in the north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria completed the questionnaires. This gives a response rate of 89%. It should be noted that the 89 teaching staff were also not considered in the actual study. A PLS path modelling (Wold, 1974, 1985) using Smart PLS 2.0 M3 software (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005) was employed to ascertain the internal consistency reliability and discriminant validity of the constructs used in the pilot study. In particular, PLS Algorithm (Geladi & Kowalski, 1986) was calculated to obtain the average variance extracted and the composite reliability coefficients. Bagozzi and Yi (1988) as well as Hair et al. (2011) suggested that the composite reliability coefficient should be at

least .70 or more. Meanwhile, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) score should be .5 or more. They further stated that to achieve adequate discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE should be greater than the correlations among latent constructs. Table 3.7 presents the average variance extracted and composite reliability coefficients of the four latent constructs.

Table 3.7
Reliability and Validity of Constructs (n=89)

Latent variables	**No. of Indicators**	**Average variance extracted**	**Composite reliability**
Interpersonal deviance	15	.78	.93
Organisational deviance	11	.74	.92
Perceived behaviour control	9	.64	.84
Perceived outcomes control	5	.52	.81
Perceived descriptive norms	3	.72	.88
Perceived injunctive norms	3	.61	.82
Self-regulatory efficacy	9	.60	.90

Source: The Researcher

As indicated in Table 3.7, the composite reliability coefficient of each latent construct ranged from .81 to .93, each exceeding the minimum acceptable level of .70, which also suggests adequate internal consistency reliability of the measures used in the pilot study (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2011). Likewise, as indicated in Table 3.7, the values of the average variances extracted range between .52 and .78, suggesting acceptable values. Regarding the discriminant validity, Table 3.8 compares the correlations among the latent constructs with the square root of AVE.

Table 3.8
Latent Variable Correlations

	Latent Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Interpersonal deviance	.88						
2	Organisational deviance	.85	.86					
3	Perceived behaviour control	-.15	-.21	.80				
4	Perceived descriptive norms	.69	.70	-.19	.85			
5	Perceived injunctive norms	.24	.22	-.05	.16	.78		
6	Perceived outcomes control	-.38	-.39	.01	-.33	-.23	.72	
7	Self-regulatory efficacy	-.35	-.40	-.05	-.30	-.19	.18	.77

Note: Diagonals (bold face) represent the square root of the average variance extracted while the other entries represent the correlations.
Source: The Researcher.

In Table 3.8, the correlations among the latent constructs were compared with the square root of the average variances extracted (values in bold face). Table 3.8 shows that the square root of the average variances extracted were all greater than the correlations among latent constructs, suggesting adequate discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3.8.1 Data Collection Procedures

In the present study, the actual data collection started a month after the proposal defence and lasted for three months (i.e., between March 14, 2013 and June 8, 2013). The data was collected through a self-administered questionnaire. In the initial stage of data collection, an official letter was collected from the Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business (OYAGSB), introducing the researcher and also explain the purpose of the study. This was to enable the researcher get support from

the executive members of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) who acted as the liaison persons for the researcher.

In the second stage of data collection, a survey package was sent to the executive members of ASUU who assisted in administering the questionnaires. The survey package was in a fullscap size envelope with a cover letter, the questionnaire and a pen with UUM logo to motivate the participants in the survey. The cover letter clearly highlights the background and purpose of the study. The cover letter also provides instructions on how to answer and return the questionnaire. To further increase the willingness of the participants to partake in the survey, their anonymity and confidentiality were confirmed in the cover letter (see Appendix A).

Nearly 30 days after sending out the survey package, 217 completed and usable questionnaires were received through the executive members of the ASUU. These 217 completed questionnaires were labelled as early responses and were further used in conducting non-response bias on the main study variables. Despite the encouraging responses, a follow-up phone calls and Short Message Service (SMS) were also sent to the executive members of the ASUU to remind those participants who were yet to complete their questionnaires. However, since the participants were given assurance of their, it was difficult to track those participants who were yet to complete their questionnaires. Therefore, the executive members of the ASUU helped in sending a gentle reminder those participants who were returned their questionnaires using notice boards and group emails. Hence, this effort yielded additional 48 questionnaires, which were labelled as late responses, which were used for testing non-response bias. Overall, within a period of data collection, out of 505

questionnaires distributed to the target participants, 329 questionnaires were returned. Of these 329 questionnaires, 58 were excluded because a significant part of these questionnaires incomplete; and the remaining 271 useable questionnaires were utilized for further analysis. This accounted for a response rate of 54%.

It is it is practically impossible to collect data without encountering some problems. One of the major problems encountered during the course of data collection was related to geographical location of the participated universities as many of them were sparsely distributed in remote areas of the states. For example, Kano University of Science and Technology, Wudil was located as far as 44 kilometers away from state capital. Another problem encountered during the data collection was related to the time taken before collecting back the completed questionnaires. Initially, it is predicted that the data collection exercise would not exceed as the respondents gave assurance that they will return completed questionnaire in two weeks time. Hence, the use of text messages, phone calls and frequent visits to the participated universities at least once in a week facilitated the data collection exercise. Finally, the data collection exercise lasted for three months (i.e., 12 weeks).

3.8.2 Data Analysis

The present study employed PLS path modelling (Wold, 1974, 1985) using Smart PLS 2.0 M3 software (Ringle et al., 2005) to test the theoretical model. The PLS path modelling is considered as the most suitable technique in this study for several reasons: First, even though PLS path modelling is similar to conventional regression

technique, it has the advantage of estimating the relationships between constructs (structural model) and relationships between indicators and their corresponding latent constructs (measurement model) simultaneously (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Gerlach, Kowalski, & Wold, 1979; Lohmöller, 1989).

Secondly, as mentioned at the outset of this study, despite the extant research regarding the role of organizational system and workgroup norms in shaping employee behaviour at work, literatures indicate that the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the influence of organisational formal controls and group norms on workplace deviance has not yet been explored. Further, the goal of the present study is to predict the role of organisational formal controls, workgroup norms and self-regulatory efficacy in minimizing the likelihood of employees to engage in deviant behaviour at work. The present research is explorative in nature by applying organisational control theory, self-efficacy theory, self-efficacy theory, and social learning theory. This requires a path modelling approach to be employed because it has been suggested that if research is prediction-oriented or an extension of an existing theory, PLS path modelling should be employed (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Hulland, 1999).

Fourthly, compared to other path modelling software (e.g., AMOS; Analysis of Moment Structures), the Smart PLS 2.0 M3 software was selected as a tool of analysis because of its friendly graphical user interface, which help users create a moderating effect for path models with interaction effects (Temme, Kreis, & Hildebrandt, 2006, 2010).

Several steps were followed in the data analysis. Firstly, the data collected was screen using SPSS to ensure that it is suitable for the PLS analysis. Secondly, to ascertained the measurement model, individual item reliabilities, internal consistency reliabilities, convergent validity and discriminant validity were calculated using Smart PLS 2.0 M3 software (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009).

Thirdly, standard bootstrapping procedure with a number of 5000 bootstrap samples and 265 cases was applied to evaluate the structural model (Hair et al., 2011; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). In particular, the significance of the path coefficients, level of the *R*-squared values, effect size and predictive relevance of the model were assessed (e.g., Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

Fourthly, after the analyses of the main PLS path model were run, a supplementary PLS-SEM analysis (i.e., moderator analysis) was conducted. Hence, following Henseler and Chin's (2010b) as well as Henseler and Fassott's (2010a) approaches to the analysis of moderating effects in PLS path models, a two-stage approach was used to test the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal controls, group norms and workplace deviance. Finally, the fourth step requires the ascertaining the strength of the moderating effects using Cohen's (1988) effect size formula (see Table 4.11).

3.8.3 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has described the methodology comprising the research framework, underpinning theory, hypotheses development, research design, operational

definition of variables, measurement, population, sampling, data collection procedures and techniques of data analysis. The present study also adopts cross-sectional research design in which data collected were analysed and interpreted statistically. The unit of analysis in this study was individual lecturers who are teaching in the selected Nigerian universities located in the north-west geo-political zone. A proportionate stratified random sampling technique was used in this study. Measurement scales from the previous studies were adapted to measure four constructs: organisational formal controls and perceived group norms, self-regulatory efficacy and workplace deviance. In the next chapter, results of the analyses are presented.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of data analysed using PLS path modelling. The chapter begins by reporting the results of pilot study conducted to ascertain the reliability and validity of measures. The initial data screening and preliminary analysis are then discussed. Results of the descriptive statistics for all the latent variables are reported. Next, the main results of the present study are presented in two main sections. In section one; the measurement model was assessed to determine the individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Results of structural model are reported in section two (i.e., significance of the path coefficients, level of the R-squared values, effect size, and predictive relevance of the model). Finally, results of complementary PLS-SEM analysis, which examines the moderating effects of self-regulatory efficacy on the structural model, are presented.

4.2 Response Rate

In this study, a total of 505 questionnaires were distributed to the academics in the public universities located in the Northwest geo-political zone of Nigeria. In an attempt to achieve high response rates, several phone call reminders (Salim Silva, Smith, & Bammer, 2002; Traina, MacLean, Park, & Kahn, 2005) and SMS (Sekaran,

2003) were sent to respondents who were yet to complete their questionnaires after four weeks via group emails and notice boards (Dillman, 2000; Porter, 2004).

Therefore, the outcomes of these attempts yielded 329 returned questionnaires, out of 505 questionnaires that were distributed to the target respondents. This gives a response rate of 65% based on Jobber's (1989) definition of response rate. Of these 329 questionnaires, 58 were unusable because a significant part of those questionnaires were not completed by the participants; and the remaining 271 useable questionnaires were used for further analysis. This accounted for 54% valid response rate. Therefore, a response rate of 54% is considered adequate for the analysis in this study because Sekaran (2003) suggested that a response rate of 30% is sufficient for surveys (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1
Response Rate of the Questionnaires

Response	**Frequency/Rate**
No. of distributed questionnaires	505
Returned questionnaires	329
Returned and usable questionnaires.	271
Returned and excluded questionnaires.	58
Questionnaires not returned	176
Response rate	65%
Valid response rate	54%

Source: The Researcher

4.3 Data Screening and Preliminary Analysis

Initial data screening is very crucial in any multivariate analysis because it helps researchers identify any possible violations of the key assumptions regarding the application of multivariate techniques of data analysis (Hair et al., 2007).

Additionally, initial data screening helps researchers to better understand the data collected for further analysis.

Prior to initial data screening, all the 329 returned and usable questionnaires were coded and entered into the SPSS. In addition, all the negatively worded items in the questionnaires were reverse coded. The negatively worded items that were reverse coded include IDB01 – IDB15, ODB01 – ODB11. Subsequent to data coding and entry, the following preliminary data analyses were performed: (1) missing value analysis, (2) assessment of outliers, (3) normality test, and (4) multicollinearity test (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

4.3.1 Missing Value Analysis

In the original SPSS dataset, out of the 16,802 data points, 37 were randomly missed, which accounted for .22%. Specifically, perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance had 5 missing values each. Likewise, perceived injunctive norms and interpersonal deviance had 8 missing values each. On the other hand, perceived outcomes control had 4 missing values; perceived descriptive norms had 7 missing values; and no missing value was found in self-regulatory efficacy. Although there is no acceptable percentage of missing values in a data set for making a valid statistical inference, researchers have generally agreed that missing rate of 5% or less is non-significant (Schafer, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Furthermore, researchers have suggested that mean substitution is the easiest way of replacing missing values if the total percentage of missing data is 5% or less (Little

& Rubin, 1987; Raymond, 1986; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Hence, in this study, randomly missing values were replaced using mean substitution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 4.2 shows the total and percentage of randomly missing values in the present study (see Appendix B for SPSS outputs).

Table 4.2
Total and Percentage of Missing Values

Latent Variables	**Number of Missing Values**
Perceived behaviour control	5
Perceived outcomes control	4
Perceived descriptive norms	7
Perceived injunctive norms	8
Self-regulatory efficacy	0
Interpersonal deviance	8
Organisational deviance	5
Total	37 out of 16,802 data points
Percentage	.22%.

Note: Percentage of missing values is obtained by dividing the total number of randomly missing values for the entire data set by total number of data points multiplied by 100.

4.3.2 Assessment of Outliers

Outliers are defined by Barnett and Lewis (1994) "as observations or subsets of observations which appear to be inconsistent with the remainder of the data" (p. 7). In a regression-based analysis, the presence of outliers in the data set can seriously distort the estimates of regression coefficients and lead to unreliable results (Verardi & Croux, 2008). In order to detect any observation which appears to be outside the SPSS value labels as a result of wrong data entry, first, frequency tables were tabulated for all variables using minimum and maximum statistics. Based on this

initial analysis of frequency statistics, there was no any value found to be outside the expected range.

Furthermore, the data were examined for univariate outliers using standardized values with a cut-off of ±3.29 ($p < .001$) as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Following Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) criterion for detecting outliers, none of the case was identified using standardized values as potential univariate outliers. Besides using standardized values to detect univariate outliers, multivariate outliers were also detected using Mahalanobis distance (D2). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) defined Mahalanobis distance (D2) as "the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at the intersection of the means of all the variables" (p. 74). Based on 56 observed variables of the study, the recommended threshold of chi-square is 93.17 ($p = 0.001$). Mahalanobis values that exceeded this threshold were deleted. Following this criterion, six multivariate outliers (i.e., 35, 38, 127, 263, 269, and 271) were detected and subsequently deleted from the dataset because they could affect the accuracy of the data analysis technique. Thus, after removing six multivariate outliers, the final dataset in this study was 265.

4.3.3 Normality Test

Previous research (e.g., Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009; Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder, & Van Oppen, 2009) has traditionally assumed that PLS-SEM provides accurate model estimations in situations with extremely non-normal. However, this assumption may turn to be

false. Recently, Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Mena (2012) suggested that researchers should perform a normality test on the data. Highly skewed or kurtotic data can inflate the bootstrapped standard error estimates (Chernick, 2008), which in turn underestimate the statistical significance of the path coefficients (Dijkstra, 1983; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012a).

Against this background, the present study employed a graphical method to check for the normality of data collected (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Field (2009) suggested that in a large sample of 200 or more, it is more important to look at the shape of the distribution graphically rather than looking at the value of the skewness and kurtosis statistics. Field (2009) added that a large sample decreases the standard errors, which in turn inflate the value of the skewness and kurtosis statistics. Hence, this justified the reason for using a graphical method of normality test rather than the statistical methods.

Following Field's (2009) suggestion, in the present study, a histogram and normal probability plots were examined to ensure that normality assumptions were not violated. Figure 4.1 depicts that data collected for the present study follow normal pattern since all the bars on the histogram were closed to a normal curve. Thus, Figure 4.1 indicates that normality assumptions were not violated in the present study.

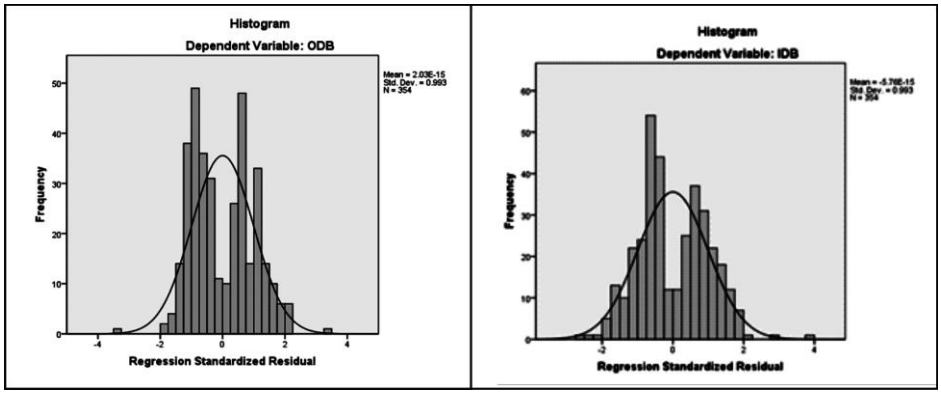

Figure 4.1
Histogram and Normal Probability Plots

4.3.4 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity refers to a situation in which or more exogenous latent constructs become highly correlated. The presence of multicollinearity among the exogenous latent constructs can substantially distort the estimates of regression coefficients and their statistical significance tests (Chatterjee & Yilmaz, 1992; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). In particular, multicollinearity increases the standard errors of the coefficients, which in turn render the coefficients statistically non-significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

To detect multicollinearity, two methods were used in the present study (Chatterjee & Yilmaz, 1992; Peng & Lai, 2012). First, the correlation matrix of the exogenous latent constructs was examined. According to Hair *et al.* (2010), a correlation coefficient of 0.90 and above indicates multicollinearity between exogenous latent constructs. Table 4.3 shows the correlation matrix of all exogenous latent constructs.

Table 4.3
Correlation Matrix of the Exogenous Latent Constructs

No.	Latent constructs	1	2	3	4
1	Perceived behaviour control	1			
2	Perceived outcomes control	.19	1		
3	Perceived descriptive norm	-.42	-.50	1	
4	Perceived injunctive norm	.13	-.21	.18**	1

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

As shown in Table 4.3, the correlations between the exogenous latent constructs were sufficiently below the suggested threshold values of .90 or more, which suggests that the exogenous latent constructs were independent and not highly correlated.

Secondly, following the examination of correlation matrix for the exogenous latent constructs, variance inflated factor (VIF), tolerance value and condition index were examined to detect multicollinearity problem. Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011) suggested that multicollinearity is a concern if VIF value is higher than 5, tolerance value is less than .20, and condition index is higher than 30. Table 4.4 shows the VIF values, tolerance values, and condition indices for the exogenous latent constructs.

Table 4.4
Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF)

Latent Constructs	**Collinearity Statistics**		**Condition Index**
	Tolerance	**VIF**	1.000
Perceived behaviour control	.998	1.002	7.615
Perceived outcomes control	.997	1.003	9.775
Perceived descriptive norm	.965	1.036	12.440
Perceived injunctive norm	.969	1.032	25.055

Source: The Researcher

Table 4.4 indicates that multicollinearity did not exist among the exogenous latent constructs as all VIF values were less than 5, tolerance values exceeded .20, and condition indices were below 30, as suggested by Hair *et al.* (2011). Thus, multicollinearity is not an issue in the present study.

4.4 Non-Response Bias

Lambert and Harrington (1990) defined non-response bias as "the differences in the answers between non-respondents and respondents" (p. 5). In order to estimate the possibility of non- response bias, Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested a time-trend extrapolation approach, which entails comparing the early and late respondents (i.e., non-respondents). They argued that late respondents share similar characteristics with non-respondents. Meanwhile, to further minimize the issue of non-response bias, Lindner and Wingenbach (2002) recommended that a minimum response rate of 50% should be achieved. Following Armstrong and Overton's (1977) approach, the present study divided the respondents into two main groups: those who responded within 30 days (i.e., early respondents) and those who responded after 30 days (i.e., late

respondents) (c.f., Vink & Boomsma, 2008). Majority of the respondents in the sample; that is 217 (82%) responded to the questionnaire within 30 days, while the remaining 48, representing 18% responded after 30 days (Table 4.5).

In particular, an independent samples t-test was conducted to detect any possible non-response bias on the main study variables including interpersonal deviance, organisational deviance, perceived behaviour control, perceived outcomes control, perceived descriptive norms, perceived injunctive norms and self-regulatory efficacy. Table 4.5 presents the results of independent-samples t-test obtained.

Table 4.5
Results of Independent-Samples T-test for Non-Response Bias

Variables	**Group**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Levene's Test for Equality of Variances**	
					F	**Sig.**
Interpersonal Deviance	Early Response	217	2.48	.42	.04	.85
	Late Response	48	2.44	.42		
Organisational Deviance	Early Response	217	2.46	.49	.26	.61
	Late Response	48	2.42	.48		
Perceived Behaviour Control	Early Response	217	2.64	.42	2.64	.11
	Late Response	48	2.62	.35		
Perceived Outcomes Control	Early Response	217	2.75	.61	.00	.97
	Late Response	48	2.87	.63		
Perceived Descriptive Norms	Early Response	217	2.84	.92	.06	.81
	Late Response	48	2.77	.89		
Perceived Injunctive Norms	Early Response	217	3.07	.73	.69	.41
	Late Response	48	2.93	.77		
Self-Regulatory Efficacy	Early Response	217	2.80	.57	.64	.42
	Late Response	48	2.73	.60		

Source: The Researcher

As presented in Table 4.5, the results of independent-samples t-test revealed that the equal variance significance values for each of the seven main study variables were greater than the 0.05 significance level of Levene's test for equality of variances as

suggested by Pallant (2010) and Field (2009). Hence, this suggests that the assumption of equal the variances between early and late respondents has not been violated. As such, it can be concluded that non-response bias was not a major concern in the present study. Furthermore, following Lindner and Wingenbach's (2002) recommendation, since this study achieved 54% response rate, it can be added that the issue of non-response bias does not appear to be a major concern.

4.5 Common Method Variance Test

Common method variance (CMV), also known to as monomethod bias, refers to "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879). Researchers have generally agreed that common method variance is a major concern for scholars using self-report surveys (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Spector, 2006). For example, Conway and Lance (2010) stated that "common method bias inflates relationships between variables measured by self-reports" (p. 325). Similarly, in a meta-analytic review of 55 studies on attitudinal and dispositional predictors of OCB, Organ and Ryan (1995) stated that studies conducted using self-report surveys are associated with spuriously high correlations due to common method variance.

The present study adopted several procedural remedies to minimize the effects of CMV (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Viswanathan & Kayande, 2012). First, to reduce evaluation apprehension, the participants were

informed that there is no right or wrong answer to the items in the questionnaire and they were also given an assurance that their answers were confidential throughout the research process. Second, improving scale items was also used to reduce method biases in the present study. This was achieved by avoiding vague concepts in the questionnaire and when such concepts were used, simple examples were provided. To further improve scale items, all questions in the survey were written in a simple, specific and concise language.

Besides the procedural remedies described above, the present study also adopted Harman's single factor test proposed by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) to examine common method variance. Traditionally, in this procedure all variables of interest are subjected to an exploratory factor analysis and the results of the unrotated factor solution are then examined to ascertain the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The main assumption of Harman's (1967) single factor test is that if a substantial amount of common method variance is present, either a single factor may emerge, or one general factor would account for most of the covariance in the predictor and criterion variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Following Podsakoff and Organ (1986), all items in this study were subjected to a principal components factor analysis. The results of the analysis yielded six factors, explaining a cumulative of 78.60% of the variance; with the first (largest) factor explaining 34.83% of the total variance, which is less than 50% (c.f., Kumar, 2012). Additionally, the results indicate that no single factor accounted for the majority of covariance in the predictor and criterion variables (Podsakoff et al.,

2012). Hence, this suggests that common method bias is not a major concern and is unlikely to inflate relationships between variables measured in the present study.

4.6 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

This section describes the demographic profile of the respondents in the sample. The demographic characteristics examined in this study include gender, age, rank, previous experience, level of education, marital status and ethnicity (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6
Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

	Frequency	**Percentage**
Gender		
Male	182	68.7
Female	83	31.3
Age		
21-30 years	30	11.3
31-40 years	89	33.6
41-50 years	124	46.8
51 years and above	22	8.3
Rank		
Professor	3	1.1
Reader	19	7.2
Senior Lecturer	30	11.3
Lecturer I	71	26.8
Lecturer II	90	34.0
Assistant Lecturer	33	12.5
Graduate Assistant	19	7.2
Tenure		
Less than 1 year	25	9.4
1-5 years	65	24.5
6 -10 years	88	33.2
11 years and above	87	32.8
Education		
Doctorate Degree	35	13.2
Master's Degree	191	72.1
First Degree	39	14.7

Table 4.6 (Continued)

	Frequency	Percentage
Status		
Married	202	76.2
Single	54	20.4
Widowed	1	0.4
Divorced or Separated	8	3.0
Ethnicity		
Yoruba	122	46
Hausa/Fulani	92	34.7
Igbo	29	10.9
Others	22	8.3

Source: The Researcher

As shown in Table 4.6, the majority of the respondents in the sample, that is 182 (68.7%), were males while the remaining 83, representing 31.3% were females. Previous studies have also demonstrated similar distribution regarding the gender of the respondents. For example, the present study reflects the study conducted by de-Lara and Tacoronte (2007), where the majority of teachers at a university were males (64.6%) compared to their female counterparts (35.4%).

Regarding the age group, 46.8% of the participants were in the age group of 41-50 years. This is followed by those in the age group of 31-40 years with 89 respondents, which accounted for 33.6% of the sample. In the age group of 21-30 years, there were 30 respondents, representing 11.3% of the sample. The smallest age group ranged between 51 years and above, which accounted for 8.3% or 22 respondents.

Additionally, in terms of rank, Table 4.6 shows that 34% of the participants were on the rank of Lecturer II, followed by Lecturer I (26.8%); Assistant Lecturers (12.5%); Senior Lecturers (11.3%); Readers and Graduate Assistants with 7.2% each

and Professors (1.1%). In terms of job tenure, only 33.2% of the participants spent 6 -10 years working in university, (32.8% %) spent between 11 years and above in the university, another 24.5% spent between 1-5 years working in the university, while the remaining 9.4% had less than 1 year in the university.

Table 4.6 also shows a high proportion of the respondents were master's degree holders, which accounted for 72.1% or 191 respondents. This is followed by 14.7%) with first degree, while the remaining 35, representing 13.2% were doctorate degree holders. The low proportion of doctorate degree holders in the sample is a reflection of an assertion made by the Nigerian President, Goodluck Jonathan, that 60% of lecturers in various Nigerian universities do not have a doctorate degree (Odiegwu, 2012). Table 4.6 also shows that most of the respondents were married (76.2%), followed by single (20.4%), divorced or separated (3%). Approximately less than 1% were widowed. Table 4.6 further indicates that the respondents came from diverse ethnic backgrounds, namely, Yoruba, Hausa/Fulani, Igbo and minority ethnic groups. Approximately 46% of the participants were Yorubas; 34.7% were Hausa/Fulani; 10.9% were Igbos and the remaining 8.3% represents ethnic minority groups.

4.7 Descriptive Analysis of the Latent Constructs

This section is primarily concerned with the descriptive statistics for the latent variables used in the present study. Descriptive statistics in the form of means and standard deviations for the latent variables were computed. All the latent variables used in the present study were measured using a four-point scale anchored by 1 =

strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree. The results are presented in Tables 4.7. For easier interpretation, the four-point scale used in the present study was classified into three categories, namely, low, moderate and high. Scores of less than 2 (3/3 + lowest value 1 is considered as low; scores of 3 (highest value 4 - 3/3) is considered high, while those between low and high scores are considered moderate (Sassenberg, Matschke, & Scholl, 2011).

Table 4.7
Descriptive Statistics for Latent Variables

Latent Constructs	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Perceived behaviour control	9	2.610	.377
Perceived outcomes control	5	2.791	.615
Perceived descriptive norms	3	2.808	.916
Perceived injunctive norms	3	3.046	.742
Self-regulatory efficacy	9	2.793	.580
Interpersonal deviance	15	2.468	.420
Organisational deviance	11	2.449	.480

Source: The Researcher

Table 4.7 shows that the overall mean for the latent variables ranged between 2.449 and 3.046. In particular, the mean and standard deviation for the perceived behaviour control were 2.610 and .377, respectively. This suggests that respondents tended to have moderate level of perception of behaviour control. Table 4.7 also indicates that the mean for the perceived outcomes control was 2.791, with a standard deviation of .615, suggesting that the respondents perceived the level of outcomes control as moderate. Further, the results show a moderate score for the perceived descriptive norms (Mean = 2.808, Standard deviation = .916) but a high score for perceived injunctive norms with mean and standard deviation of 3.046 and .742, respectively.

The descriptive statistics also show a moderate score for self-regulatory efficacy (Mean = 2.793; standard deviation =. 580). In terms of the two dimensions of workplace deviance, the means and standard deviations are as follows: for interpersonal deviance (Mean = 2.468; standard deviation = .420) and for organisational deviance (Mean = 2.449; standard deviation = .916). This indicates that the respondents tended to have moderate level of perception of deviant acts.

4.8 Assessment of PLS-SEM Path Model Results

It is necessary to mention that a recent study conducted by Henseler and Sarstedt (2013) suggests that goodness-of-fit (GoF) index is not suitable for model validation (see also Hair et al., 2014). For instance, using PLS path models with simulated data, the authors show that goodness-of-fit index is not suitable for model validation because it cannot separate valid models from invalid ones (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). In the light of the recent development about the unsuitability of PLS path modelling in model validation, the present study adopted a two-step process to evaluate and report the results of PLS-SEM path, as suggested by Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009). This two-step process adopted in the present study comprises (1) the assessment of a measurement model, and (2) the assessment of a structural model, as depicted in Figure 4.1 (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009).

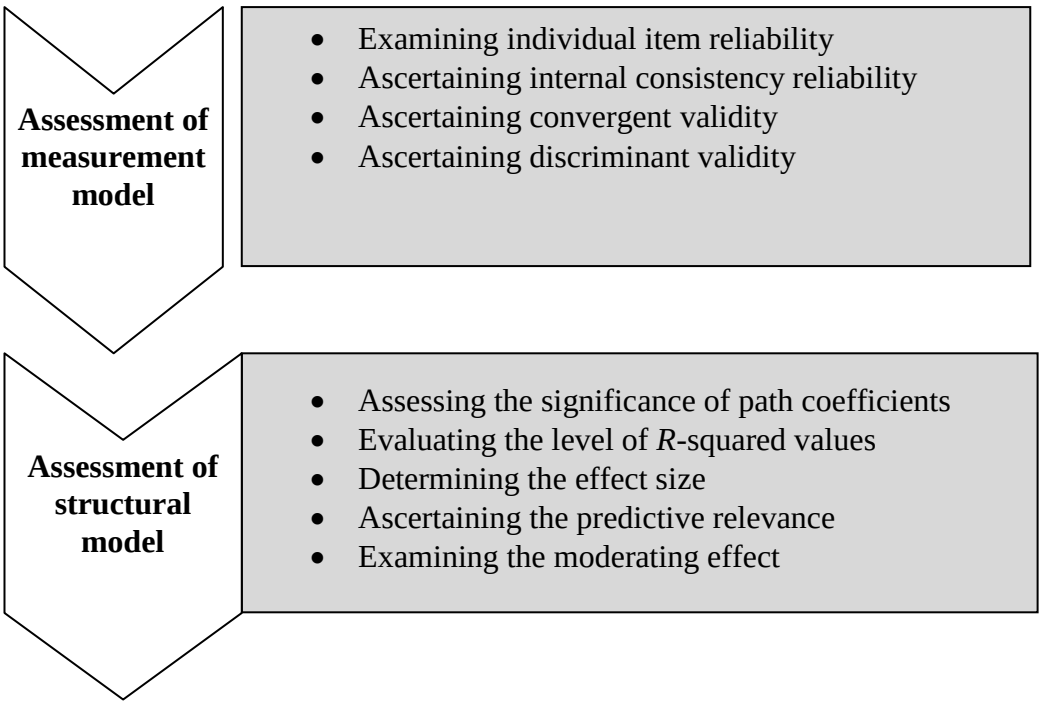

Figure 4.2
A Two-Step Process of PLS Path Model Assessment
Source: (Henseler et al., 2009)

4.9 Assessment of Measurement Model

An assessment of a measurement model involves determining individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, content validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009).

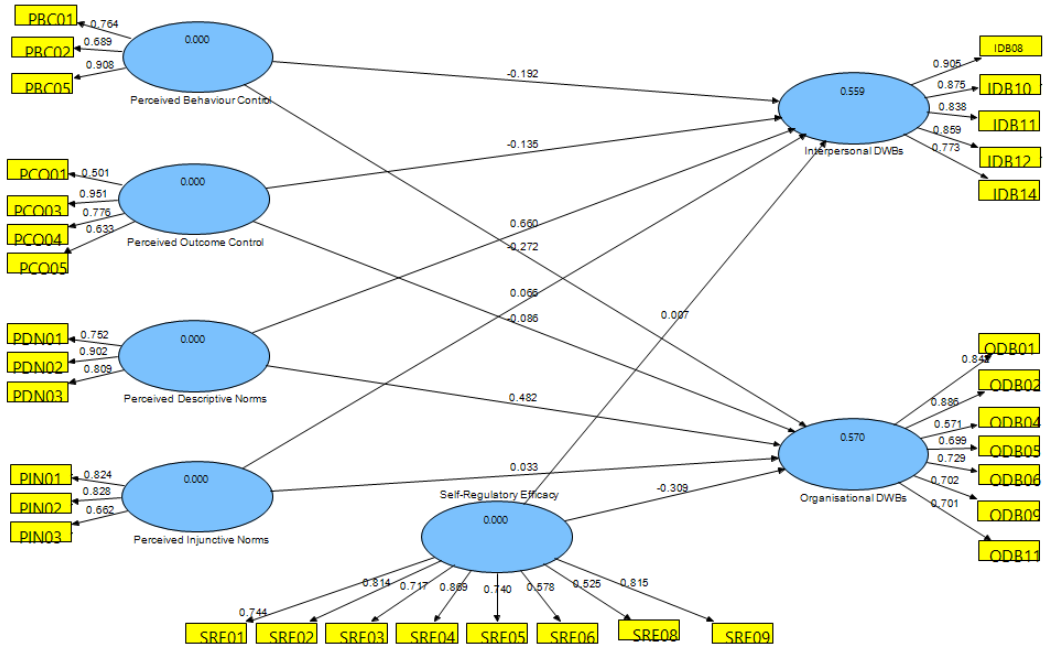

Figure 4.3
Measurement Model

4.9.1 Individual Item Reliability

Individual item reliability was assessed by examining the outer loadings of each construct's measure (Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Hulland, 1999). Following the rule of thumb for retaining items with loadings between .40 and .70 (Hair et al., 2014), it was discovered that out of 55 items, 22 were deleted because they presented loadings below the threshold of 0.40. Thus, in the whole model, only 34 items were retained as they had loadings between 0.501 and 0.951 (see Table 4.8 and Appendix C).

4.9.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

Internal consistency reliability refers to the extent to which all items on a particular (sub) scale are measuring the same concept (Bijttebier et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2007). Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient are the most commonly used estimators of the internal consistency reliability of an instrument in organizational research (e.g., Bacon, Sauer, & Young, 1995; McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011; Peterson & Kim, 2013). In this study, composite reliability coefficient was chosen to ascertain the internal consistency reliability of measures adapted.

Two main reasons justified the use of composite reliability coefficient. Firstly, composite reliability coefficient provides a much less biased estimate of reliability than Cronbach's alpha coefficient because the later assumes all items contribute equally to its construct without considering the actual contribution of individual loadings (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995; Gotz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010).

Table 4.8
Loadings, Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted

Latent constructs and indicators	Standardized Loadings	Composite Reliability (ρc)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Interpersonal DWBs		.929	.724
IDB08	.905		
IDB10	.875		
IDB11	.838		
IDB12	.859		
IDB14	.773		
Organisational DWBs		.892	.546
ODB01	.842		
ODB02	.886		
ODB04	.571		
ODB05	.699		
ODB06	.729		
ODB09	.702		
ODB11	.701		
Perceived Behaviour Control		.833	.628
PBC01	.764		
PBC02	.689		
PBC05	.908		
Perceived Outcome Control		.816	.540
PCO01	.501		
PCO03	.951		
PCO04	.776		
PCO05	.633		
Perceived Descriptive Norms		.863	.678
PDN01	.752		
PDN02	.902		
PDN03	.809		
Perceived Injunctive Norms		.817	.601
PIN01	.824		
PIN02	.828		
PIN03	.662		

Table 4.8 (Continued)

Latent constructs and indicators	Standardized Loadings	Composite Reliability (ρc)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Self-Regulatory Efficacy		0.901	0.538
SRE01	0.744		
SRE02	0.814		
SRE03	0.717		
SRE04	0.869		
SRE05	0.74		
SRE06	0.578		
SRE08	0.525		
SRE09	0.815		

Source: The Researcher

Secondly, Cronbach's alpha may over or under-estimate the scale reliability. The composite reliability takes into account that indicators have different loadings and can be interpreted in the same way as Cronbach's α (that is, no matter which particular reliability coefficient is used, an internal consistency reliability value above .70 is regarded as satisfactory for an adequate model, whereas a value below .60 indicates a lack of reliability). Nevertheless, the interpretation of internal consistency reliability using composite reliability coefficient was based on the rule of thumb provided by Bagozzi and Yi (1988) as well as Hair et al (2011), who suggest that the composite reliability coefficient should be at least .70 or more.

Table 4.8 shows the composite reliability coefficients of the latent constructs. As shown in Table 4.8, the composite reliability coefficient of each latent constructs ranged from .828 to .931, with each exceeding the minimum acceptable level of .70,

suggesting adequate internal consistency reliability of the measures used in this study (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2011).

4.9.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which items truly represent the intended latent construct and indeed correlate with other measures of the same latent construct (Hair et al., 2006). Convergent validity was assessed by examining the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of each latent construct, as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981). To achieve adequate convergent validity, Chin (1998) recommends that the AVE of each latent construct should be .50 or more. Following Chin (1998), the AVE values (see Table 4.8) exhibited high loadings (> .50) on their respective constructs, indicating adequate convergent validity.

4.9.4 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a particular latent construct is different from other latent constructs (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). In the present study, discriminant validity was ascertained using AVE, as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This was achieved by comparing the correlations among the latent constructs with square roots of average variance extracted (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Additionally, discriminant validity was determined following Chin's (1998) criterion by comparing the indicator loadings with other reflective indicators in the cross loadings table. First, as a rule of thumb for evaluating discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest the use of AVE with a score of .50 or more. To achieve

adequate discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker (1981) further suggest that the square root of the AVE should be greater than the correlations among latent constructs.

As indicated in Table 4.8, the values of the average variances extracted range between .540 and .724, suggesting acceptable values. In Table 4.9, the correlations among the latent constructs were compared with the square root of the average variances extracted (values in bold face). Table 4.9 also shows that the square root of the average variances extracted were all greater than the correlations among latent constructs, suggesting adequate discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 4.9
Latent Variable Correlations and Square Roots of Average Variance Extracted

	Latent Variables	1	2	3	6	4	5	7
1	Interpersonal DWBs	**.85**						
2	Organisational DWBs	.59	**.74**					
3	Perceived Behaviour Control	-.25	-.39	**.79**				
6	Perceived Outcome Control	-.25	-.21	.08	**.73**			
4	Perceived Descriptive Norms	.70	.58	-.05	-.15	**.82**		
5	Perceived Injunctive Norms	.24	.25	-.15	-.04	.21	**.78**	
7	Self-Regulatory Efficacy	-.22	-.50	.28	.08	-.22	-.22	**.73**

Note: Entries shown in bold face represent the square root of the average variance extracted.
Source: The Researcher.

Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, discriminant validity can be ascertained comparing the indicator loadings with cross-loadings (Chin, 1998). To achieve adequate discriminant validity, Chin (1998) suggests that all the indicator loadings should be higher than the cross-loadings. Table 4.10 compares the indicator loadings with other reflective indicators. All indicator loadings were greater than the cross-loadings, suggesting adequate discriminant validity for further analysis.

Table 4.10
Cross Loadings

	DWB-I	DWB-O	PBC	POC	PDN	PIN	SRE
IDB08	**0.905**	0.678	-0.208	-0.212	0.635	0.231	-0.116
IDB10	**0.875**	0.646	-0.223	-0.225	0.584	0.244	-0.299
IDB11	**0.838**	0.611	-0.197	-0.237	0.569	0.188	-0.178
IDB12	**0.859**	0.705	-0.310	-0.260	0.543	0.176	-0.404
IDB14	**0.773**	0.504	-0.110	-0.141	0.652	0.164	0.064
ODB01	0.664	**0.842**	-0.376	-0.244	0.578	0.180	-0.269
ODB02	0.664	**0.886**	-0.271	-0.231	0.601	0.171	-0.328
ODB04	0.346	**0.571**	-0.210	0.020	0.129	0.146	-0.229
ODB05	0.522	**0.699**	-0.289	-0.071	0.298	0.179	-0.356
ODB06	0.499	**0.729**	-0.421	-0.112	0.222	0.122	-0.213
ODB09	0.454	**0.702**	-0.317	-0.199	0.314	0.281	-0.663
ODB11	0.579	**0.701**	-0.186	-0.103	0.611	0.175	-0.444
PBC01	-0.105	-0.240	**0.764**	-0.019	-0.066	-0.081	0.142
PBC02	-0.105	-0.210	**0.689**	0.104	0.101	-0.151	0.090
PBC05	-0.294	-0.417	**0.908**	0.090	-0.098	-0.131	0.330
PCO01	0.020	0.033	0.124	**0.501**	0.005	0.012	-0.112
PCO03	-0.271	-0.239	0.098	**0.951**	-0.196	-0.059	0.118
PCO04	-0.118	-0.011	0.006	**0.776**	-0.031	0.030	-0.132
PCO05	-0.078	-0.077	0.053	**0.633**	0.023	0.021	0.028
PDN01	0.357	0.335	0.130	-0.164	**0.752**	0.151	-0.126
PDN02	0.607	0.585	-0.062	-0.117	**0.902**	0.241	-0.460
PDN03	0.696	0.475	-0.127	-0.114	**0.809**	0.123	0.061
PIN01	0.251	0.237	-0.162	-0.033	0.202	**0.824**	-0.229
PIN02	0.152	0.172	-0.132	-0.059	0.112	**0.828**	-0.184
PIN03	0.101	0.138	-0.010	0.025	0.164	**0.662**	-0.058
SRE01	-0.067	-0.267	0.092	0.013	-0.308	-0.108	**0.744**
SRE02	-0.365	-0.472	0.249	0.162	-0.316	-0.183	**0.814**
SRE03	-0.112	-0.401	0.148	0.010	-0.093	-0.194	**0.717**
SRE04	-0.132	-0.336	0.191	0.074	-0.140	-0.204	**0.869**
SRE05	-0.035	-0.353	0.291	0.031	0.025	-0.069	**0.740**
SRE06	0.146	-0.278	0.171	-0.082	0.203	-0.152	**0.578**
SRE08	0.075	-0.055	0.113	-0.058	0.258	-0.057	**0.525**
SRE09	-0.279	-0.461	0.267	0.081	-0.299	-0.233	**0.815**

4.10 Assessment of Significance of the Structural Model

Having ascertained the measurement model, next, the present study assessed the structural model. The present study also applied the standard bootstrapping procedure with a number of 5000 bootstrap samples and 354 cases to assess significance of the path coefficients (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). Figure 4.7 and Table 4.13 therefore show the estimates for the full structural model, which includes moderator variable (i.e., self-regulatory efficacy).

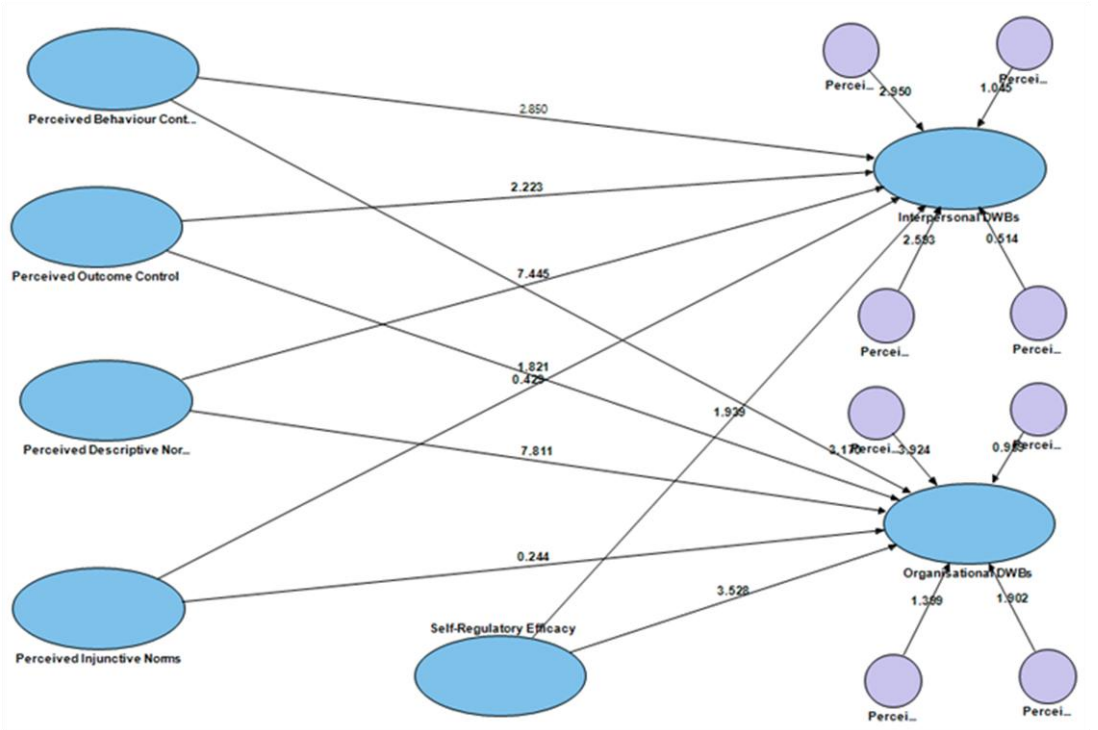

Figure 4.4
Structural Model with Moderator (Full Model)

At the outset, Hypothesis 1 predicted that perceived behaviour control is negatively related to DWBI. Result (Table 4.11, Figure 4.4) revealed a significant

negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBI ($\beta = -0.17$, $t = 2.85$, $p < 0.01$), supporting Hypothesis 1.

Table 4.11
Structural Model Assessment with Moderator (Full Model)

Hypotheses	Relation	Beta	SE	T-Value	Findings
H1	Perceived Behaviour Control -> Interpersonal DWBs	-0.17	0.06	2.85***	Supported
H2	Perceived Behaviour Control -> Organisational DWBs	-0.18	0.06	3.17***	Supported
H3	Perceived Outcome Control -> Interpersonal DWBs	-0.13	0.06	2.22***	Supported
H4	Perceived Outcome Control -> Organisational DWBs	-0.08	0.05	1.82**	Supported
H5	Perceived Descriptive Norms -> Interpersonal DWBs	0.45	0.06	7.45***	Supported
H6	Perceived Descriptive Norms -> Organisational DWBs	0.43	0.05	7.81***	Supported
H7	Perceived Injunctive Norms -> Interpersonal DWBs	0.02	0.04	0.43	Not Supported
H8	Perceived Injunctive Norms -> Organisational DWBs	0.01	0.04	0.24	Not Supported
H9	Perceived Behaviour Control * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Interpersonal DWBs	0.18	0.06	2.95***	Supported
H10	Perceived Behaviour Control * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Organisational DWBs	0.19	0.05	3.92***	Supported
H11	Perceived Outcome Control * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Interpersonal DWBs	-0.05	0.05	1.04	Not Supported
H12	Perceived Outcome Control * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Organisational DWBs	-0.09	0.10	0.96	Not Supported
H13	Perceived Descriptive Norms * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Interpersonal DWBs	0.19	0.07	2.59***	Supported
H14	Perceived Descriptive Norms * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Organisational DWBs	0.10	0.07	1.40*	Supported
H15	Perceived Injunctive Norms * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Interpersonal DWBs	0.02	0.05	0.51	Not Supported
H16	Perceived Injunctive Norms * Self-Regulatory Efficacy -> Organisational DWBs	0.09	0.05	1.90**	Supported

Note: ***Significant at 0.01 (1-tailed), **significant at 0.05 (1-tailed), *significant at 0.1 (1-tailed).

Hypothesis 2 predicted that perceived behaviour control is negatively related to DWBO. Result (Table 4.11, Figure 4.4) indicated that perceived behaviour control had a significant negative relationship with deviant behaviour directed at organisation (β = -0.18, t = 3.17, $p < 0.01$), supporting Hypothesis 2. Similarly, in examining the influence of perceived outcomes control on DWBI, result indicated that perceived outcomes control had a significant negative relationship with DWBI (β = -0.13, t = 2.22, $p < 0.01$), support Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that perceived outcomes control is negatively related to DWBO. As shown in Table 4.11, a significant negative relationship between perceived outcomes control and DWBO (β = -0.08, t = 1.82, $p < 0.05$) was found, indicating support for Hypothesis 4. Regarding the influence of perceived descriptive norm on DWBI, result (Table 4.11, Figure 4.4) indicated that perceived descriptive norm had a significant positive relationship with DWBI (β = 0.45, t = 7.45, $p < 0.01$). Hence, Hypothesis 5 was fully supported.

Perceived descriptive norm was also predicted to be positively related to DWBO (Hypothesis 6). Result showed a significant positive relationship between perceived descriptive norm and DWBO (β = 0.43, t = 7.81, $p < 0.01$). As such, Hypothesis 6 was supported. With respect to Hypothesis 7 on the influence of perceived injunctive norm on DWBI, result (Table 4.11) showed no significant positive relationship between perceived injunctive norm and DWBI (β = 0.02, t = 0.43, $p > 0.10$). Hence, this hypothesis was not supported. Similarly, Hypothesis 8, which predicted a positive relationship between perceived injunctive norms and DWBO was not supported because the estimates from the PLS model were not significant (β = 0.01, t = 0.24, $p > 0.10$).

4.10.1 Assessment of Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables

Another important criterion for assessing the structural model in PLS-SEM is the *R*-squared value, which is also known as the coefficient of determination (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). The *R*-squared value represents the proportion of variation in the dependent variable(s) that can be explained by one or more predictor variable (Elliott & Woodward, 2007; Hair et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2006). Although the acceptable level of R^2 value depends on the research context (Hair et al., 2010), Falk and Miller (1992) propose an R-squared value of 0.10 as a minimum acceptable level. Meanwhile, Chin (1998) suggests that the *R*-squared values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 in PLS-SEM can be considered as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively. Table 4.12 presents the *R*-squared values of the two endogenous latent variables.

Table 4.12
Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables

Latent Variables	**Variance Explained (R2)**
Interpersonal Deviant Workplace Behaviour	56%
Organisational Deviant Workplace Behaviour	57%

As indicated in Table 4.12, the research model explains 56% of the total variance in interpersonal DWBs and 57% of the total variance in organisational DWBs. This suggests that the five sets of exogenous latent variables (i.e., perceived behaviour control, perceived outcomes control, perceived descriptive norms, perceived injunctive norms, and self-regulatory efficacy) collectively explain 56% and 57% of the variance of the interpersonal DWBs and organisational DWBs,

respectively. Hence, following Falk and Miller's (1992) and Chin's (1998) the criteria, the two endogenous latent variables showed acceptable levels of *R*-squared values, which were considered as moderate.

4.10.2 Assessment of Effect Size (f^2)

Effect size indicates the relative effect of a particular exogenous latent variable on endogenous latent variable(s) by means of changes in the *R*-squared (Chin, 1998). It is calculated as the increase in *R*-squared of the latent variable to which the path is connected, relative to the latent variable's proportion of unexplained variance (Chin, 1998). Thus the effect size could be expressed using the following formula (Cohen, 1988; Selya, Rose, Dierker, Hedeker, & Mermelstein, 2012; Wilson, Callaghan, Ringle, & Henseler, 2007):

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

Cohen (1988) describes f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 as having weak, moderate, strong effects respectively. Table 4.13 shows the respective effect sizes of the latent variables of the structural model.

Table 4.13
Effect Sizes of the Latent Variables on Cohen's (1988) Recommendation

R-squared	Included	Excluded	f-squared	Effect Size
Interpersonal DWBs:				
Perceived Behaviour Control	0.559	0.526	0.07	Small
Perceived Outcome Control	0.559	0.542	0.04	Small
Perceived Descriptive Norms	0.559	0.196	0.82	Large
Perceived Injunctive Norms	0.559	0.555	0.01	None
Organisational DWBs:				
Perceived Behaviour Control	0.570	0.561	0.02	Small
Perceived Outcome Control	0.570	0.562	0.02	Small
Perceived Descriptive Norms	0.570	0.388	0.42	Large
Perceived Injunctive Norms	0.570	0.569	0.00	None

Source: The Researcher.

As indicated in Table 4.13, the effect sizes for the perceived behaviour control, perceived outcome control, perceived descriptive norms, and perceived injunctive norms on interpersonal DWBs, were 0.07, 0.04, 0.82 and 0.01, respectively. Hence, following Cohen's (1988) guideline, the effects sizes of these four exogenous latent variables on interpersonal deviance can be considered as small, small, large, and none respectively. Furthermore, Table 4.13 indicated that the effect sizes for the perceived behaviour control, perceived outcome control, perceived descriptive norms, and perceived injunctive norms on organisational DWBs were 0.02, 0.02, 0.42, and 0.00 respectively. Similarly, on the basis of Cohen's (1988) guideline for interpretation of the effect size, the results suggest that the effects sizes of these four exogenous latent variables on organisational DWBs can be considered as small, small, large, and none respectively.

4.10.3 Assessment of Predictive Relevance

The present study also applied Stone-Geisser test of predictive relevance of the research model using blindfolding procedures (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). The Stone-Geisser test of predictive relevance is usually used as a supplementary assessment of goodness-of-fit in partial least squares structural equation modelling (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). Even though this study used blindfolding to ascertain the predictive relevance of the research model, it is worth noting that according to Sattler, Völckner, Riediger and Ringle (2010) "blindfolding procedure is only applied to endogenous latent variables that have a reflective measurement model operationalization" (p. 320). Reflective measurement model "specifies that a latent or unobservable concept causes variation in a set of observable indicators (McMillan & Conner, 2003, p. 1). Hence, because all endogenous latent variables in present study were reflective in nature, a blindfolding procedure was applied mainly to these endogenous latent variables.

In particular, a cross-validated redundancy measure (Q^2) was applied to assess the predictive relevance of the research model (Chin, 2010; Geisser, 1974; Hair et al., 2013; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012b; Stone, 1974). The Q^2 is a criterion to a measure how well a model predicts the data of omitted cases (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2014). According to Henseler *et al.* (2009), a research model with Q^2 statistic (s) greater than zero is considered to have predictive relevance. Additionally, a research model with higher positive Q^2 values suggests more predictive relevance. Table 4.14 presents the results of the cross-validated redundancy Q^2 test.

Table 4.14
Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy

Total	SSO	SSE	1-SSE/SSO
Interpersonal DWBs	1325	801.067	0.3954
Organisational DWBs	1855	1332.377	0.2817

Source: The Researcher.

As shown in Table 4.14, the cross-validation redundancy measure Q^2 for all endogenous latent variables were above zero, suggesting predictive relevance of the model (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009).

4.10.4 Testing Moderating Effect

The present study applied a product indicator approach using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling to detect and estimate the strength of the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal controls, group norms and deviant behaviour at work (c.f., Chin et al., 2003; Helm, Eggert, & Garnefeld, 2010; Henseler & Chin, 2010a; Henseler & Fassott, 2010b).

The product term approach is considered appropriate in this study because the moderating variables is continuous (Rigdon, Schumacker, & Wothke, 1998). According to Henseler and Fassott (Henseler & Fassott, 2010a) "given that the results of the product term approach are usually equal or superior to those of the group comparison approach, we recommend always using the product term approach" (p. 721).

To apply the product indicator approach in testing the moderating effects of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal controls, group norms and deviant behaviour, the product terms between the indicators of the

latent independent variable and the indicators of the latent moderator variable need to be created, hence, these product terms would be used as indicators of the interaction term in the structural model (Kenny & Judd, 1984). Furthermore, to ascertain the strength of the moderating effects, the present study applied Cohen's (1988) guidelines for determining the effect size. Figure 4.7 and Table 4.11 therefore show the estimates after applying the applied a product indicator approach to examine the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy the relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent variable.

It could be recalled that Hypothesis 9 stated that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. As expected, the results shown in Table 4.11, Figure 4.7 indicated that the interaction terms representing perceived behaviour control x self-regulatory efficacy ($\beta = 0.18$, $t = 2.95$, $p < 0.01$) was statistically significant. Hence, Hypothesis 9 was fully supported. Information from the path coefficients was used to plot the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance, following the procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1993), Dawson and Richter (2002) and Dawson (Marcus et al., 2002). Figure 4.8 shows that the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

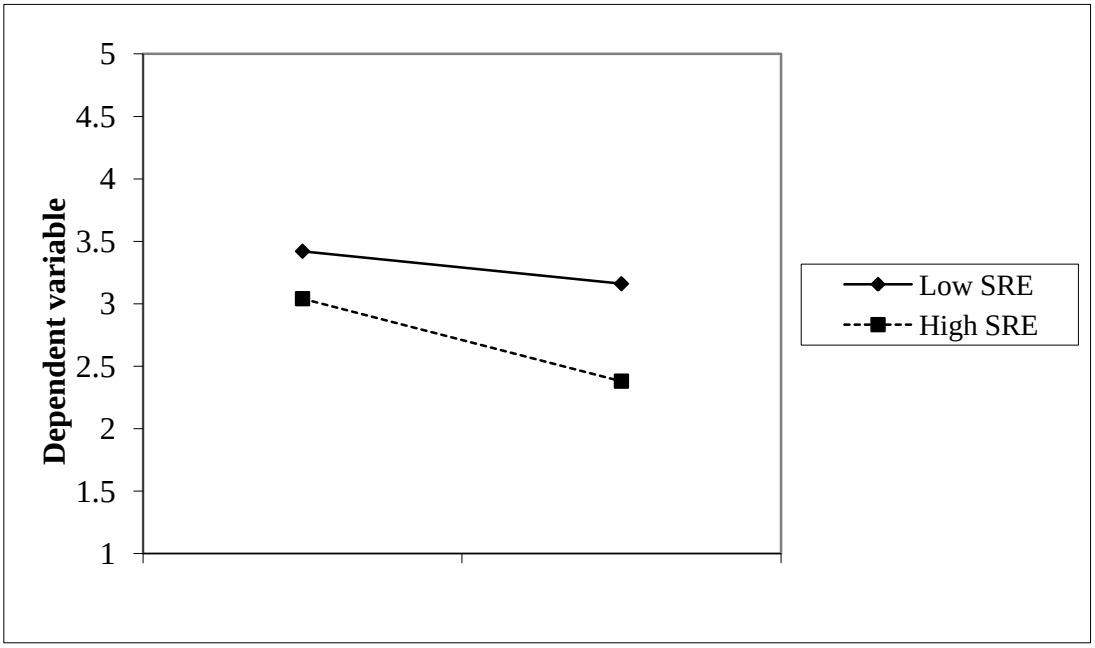

Figure 4.5
Interaction Effect of Perceived Behaviour Control and Self-Regulatory Efficacy on DWBO

Similarly, the results shown in Table 4.11, Figure 4.4 support Hypothesis 10, which stated that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance, such that the relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy ($\beta = 0.19$, $t = 3.92$, $p < 0.01$). The moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance is depicted in Figure 4.5, which shows a stronger negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBO for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

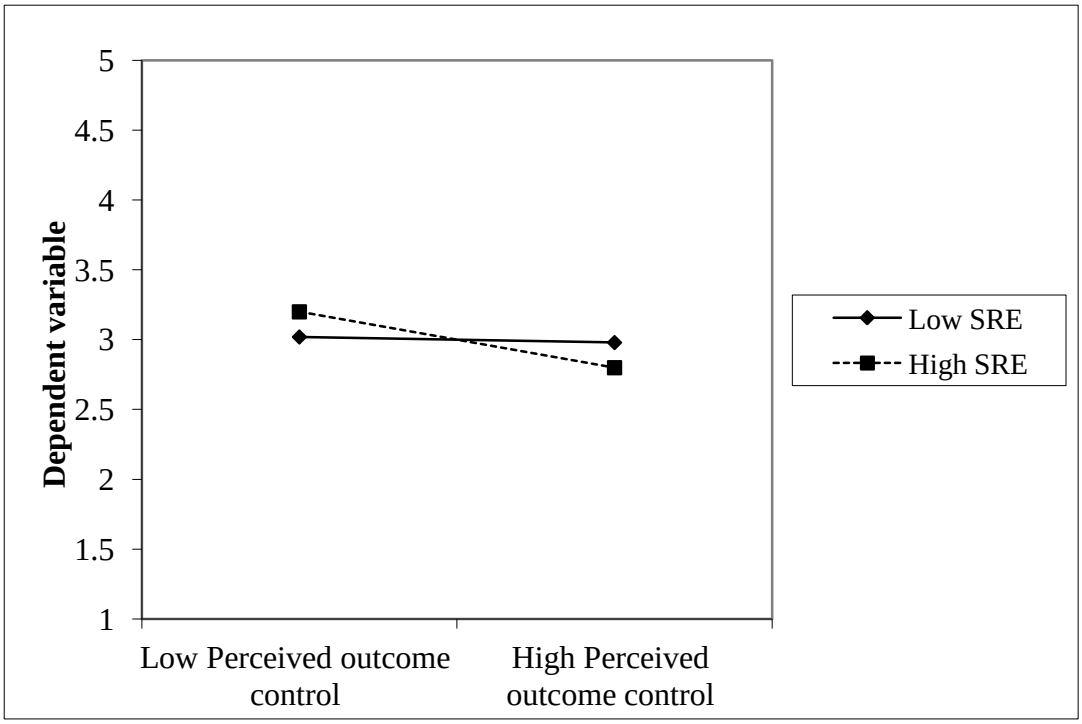

Figure 4.6
Interaction Effect of Perceived Behaviour Control and Self-Regulatory Efficacy on DWBO

On the other hand, the results shown in Table 4.11, Figure 4.4 did not support Hypothesis 11, which posited that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived outcome control and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy (β = -0.05, t = 1.04, p > 0.10). Similarly, Hypothesis 12, which predicted an interaction between perceived outcome control and self-regulatory efficacy with regard to their effect on the incidence of organisational deviance, was not supported (β = -0.09, t = 0.96, p > 0.10).

Hypothesis 13 stated that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this

relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. The results in Table 4.11, Figure 4.4 indicated a significant interaction between perceived descriptive norm and self-regulatory efficacy in predicting interpersonal deviance ($\beta = 0.19$, $t = 2.59$, $p < 0.01$), hence providing strong support for Hypothesis 13. Graphically, this finding is depicted in Figure 4.7 depicted that self-regulatory efficacy moderated the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and interpersonal deviance, such that this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

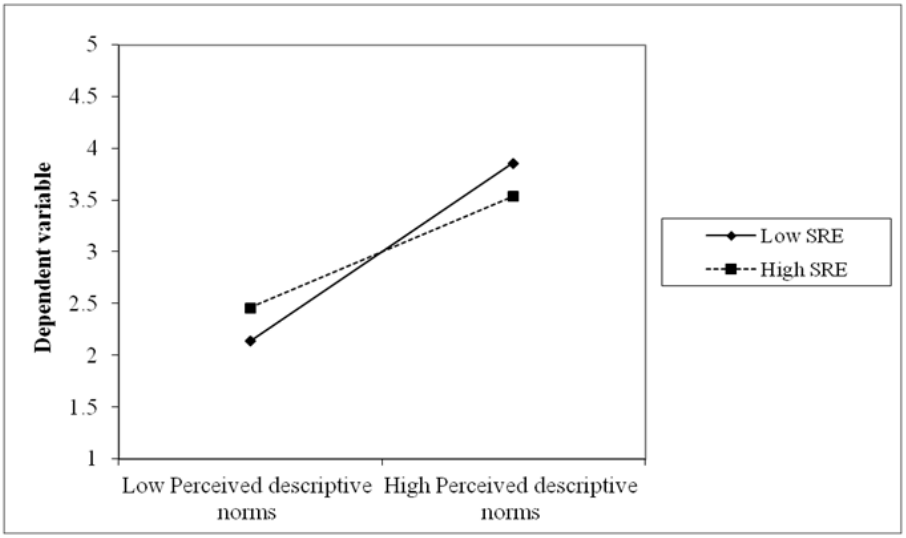

Figure 4.7
Interaction Effect of Perceived Descriptive Norms and Self-Regulatory Efficacy on DWBI

Hypothesis 14 posited that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and organisational deviance. Specifically, this

relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. Results shown in Table 4.11, Figure 4.4 also demonstrated a significant interaction between perceived descriptive norm and self-regulatory efficacy with regard to their effect on the incidence of organisational deviance ($\beta = 0.10$, $t = 1.40$, $p < 0.10$). Graphically, this result is illustrated in Figure 4.8. As depicted in Figure 4.8, self-regulatory efficacy moderated the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and organisational deviance, such that the relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

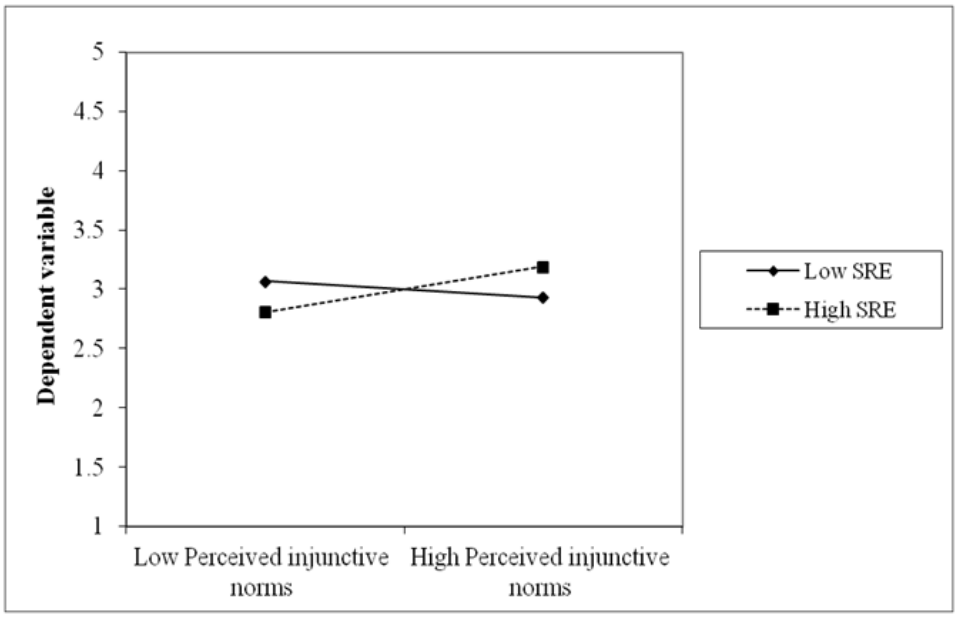

Figure 4.8
Interaction Effect of Perceived Descriptive Norms and Self-Regulatory Efficacy on DWBO

Hypothesis 15 predicted that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norms and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. Results (Table 4.11, Figure 4.4) show that the interaction terms representing perceived injunctive norm x self-regulatory efficacy was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.02$, $t = 0.51$, $p > 0.10$).

Finally, Hypothesis 16 posited that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. This hypothesis was also supported because the interaction between perceived injunctive norms and self-regulatory efficacy in predicting organisational deviance was significant ($\beta = 0.00$, $t = 1.90$, $p < 0.05$). As depicted in Figure 4.9 the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and organisational deviance is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.

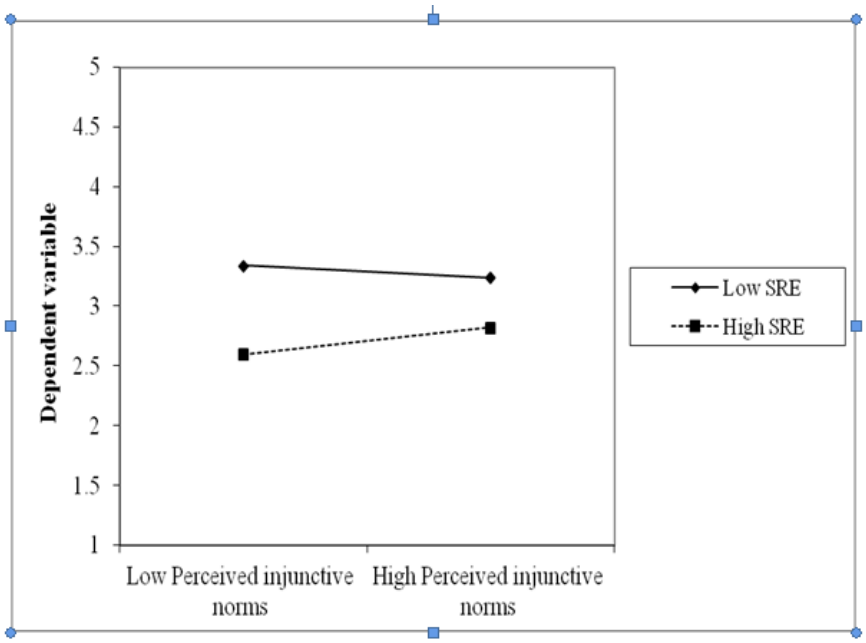

Figure 4.9
Interaction Effect of Perceived Injunctive Norms and Self-Regulatory Efficacy on DWBO

4.10.5 Determining the Strength of the Moderating Effects

In order to determine the strength of the moderating effects of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal controls, group norms and workplace deviance, Cohen's (1988) effect sizes were calculated. Further, the strength of the moderating effects can be assessed by comparing the coefficient of determination (*R*-squared value) of the main effect model with the *R*-squared value of the full model that incorporates both exogenous latent variables and moderating variable (Henseler & Fassott, 2010a; Wilden, Gudergan, Nielsen, & Lings, 2013). Thus, the strength of the moderating effects could be expressed using the following formula (Cohen, 1988; Henseler & Fassott, 2010a):

$$\text{Effect size: } (f^2) = \frac{R^2_{\text{model with moderator}} - R^2_{\text{model without moderetor}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{model with moderator}}} \quad (4.2)$$

Moderating effect sizes (f^2) values of 0.02 can be considered as weak, effect sizes of 0.15 as moderate while the effect sizes above 0.35 may be regarded as strong (Cohen, 1988; Henseler & Fassott, 2010a). However, according to Chin *et al.* (2003), a low effect size does not necessarily mean that the underlying moderating effect is insignificant. "Even a small interaction effect can be meaningful under extreme moderating conditions, if the resulting beta changes are meaningful, then it is important to take these conditions into account" (Chin et al., 2003p. 211,). Result of the strength of the moderating effects of self-regulatory efficacy is presented in Table 4.15.

Following Henseler and Fassott's (2010b) and Cohen's (1988) rule of thumb for determining the strength of the moderating effects, Table 4.15 shows that the effect size for interpersonal deviance was .53 and for organisational deviance was .28, suggesting that the moderating effect was strong and medium, respectively (c.f., Henseler, Wilson, Götz, & Hautvast, 2007; Wilden et al., 2013).

Table 4.15
Strength of the Moderating Effects Based on Cohen's (1988) and Henseler and Fassott's (2010) Guidelines

Endogenous Latent Variables	**R-squared**		**f-squared**	**Effect Size**
	Included	**Excluded**		
Interpersonal DWBs	.71	.56	.53	Strong
Organisational DWBs	.67	.57	.28	Moderate

4.11 Summary of Findings

Having presented all the results including main and moderating effects in preceding sections, Table 4.16 summarizes the results of all hypotheses tested.

Table 4.16
Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Statement	Finding
H1:	There will be a negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBI.	Supported
H2:	There will be a negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBO.	Supported
H3:	There will be a negative relationship between perceived outcome control and DWBI.	Supported
H4:	There will be a negative relationship between perceived outcome control and DWBO	Supported
H5:	There will be a positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBI.	Supported
H6:	There will be a positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBO.	Supported
H7:	There will be a positive relationship between perceived injunctive norms and DWBI.	Not Supported
H8:	There will be a positive relationship between perceived injunctive norms and DWBO.	Not Supported
H9:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	supported

Table 4.16 (Continued)

Hypothesis	Statement	Finding
H10:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	Supported
H11:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived outcome control and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	Not Supported
H12:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived outcome control and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	Not Supported
H13:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	Supported
H14:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	Supported

Source: The Researcher.

Table 4.16 (Continued)

Hypothesis	Statement	Finding
H15:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	Not Supported
H16:	Self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and organisational deviance. Specifically, this relationship is weaker (i.e. less positive) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy.	Supported

Source: The Researcher.

4.12 Summary

In this chapter, the justification for using PLS path modelling to test the theoretical model in this study was presented. Following the assessment of significance of the path coefficients, the key findings of the study were presented. Generally, self-report techniques has provided considerable support for the moderating effects of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control and perceived group norms on workplace deviance. In particular, the path coefficients revealed a significant negative relationship between: (1) perceived behaviour control and DWBI, (2) perceived behaviour control and DWBO, (3) perceived outcomes control and DWBO, and (4) perceived outcomes control and DWBO. Regarding the influence workgroup norms, results indicated a significant positive relationship between: (1) perceived descriptive norm and DWBI, (2) perceived descriptive norm

and DWBO, (3) perceived injunctive norm and DWBI, and (4) perceived injunctive and DWBO.

Importantly, concerning the moderating effects of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between the four predictor variables and two dimensions of workplace deviance, PLS path coefficients revealed that of eight formulated hypotheses, six were significant. In particular, self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between: (1) perceived behaviour control and DWBO, (2) perceived outcomes control and DWBI, (3) perceived outcomes control and DWBO, (4) perceived descriptive norms and DWBI, (5) perceived injunctive norms and DWBI, and (6) perceived injunctive norms and DWBO. The next chapter (Chapter 5) will discuss further the findings, followed by implications, limitations, suggestions for future research directions and conclusion.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the main research findings presented in the preceding chapter by relating them to the theoretical perspectives and previous studies related to workplace deviance. Specifically, the rest of the chapter is organized as follows. Section 2 recapitulates the findings of the study. Section 3 discusses the findings of the study in the light of underpinning theories and previous studies. Theoretical, methodological and practical implications of the study are discussed in Section 4. In Section 5, limitations of the study are noted and based of these limitations suggestions for future research directions are made. In the final section, conclusion is drawn.

5.2 Recapitulation of the Study's Findings

The main objective of this study is to examine the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal controls, group norms and workplace deviance among teaching staff of the Nigerian universities. Overall, this study has succeeded in advancing the current understanding of the key determinants of deviant behaviours at work by providing answers to the following research questions:

1. To what extent does organisational formal control explain deviant workplace behaviour?
2. To what extent does perceived group norms explain deviant workplace behaviour?
3. Does self-regulatory efficacy moderate the relationship between organisational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour?
4. Does self-regulatory efficacy moderate the relationship between perceived group norms and deviant workplace behaviour?

Regarding the direct relationship between exogenous latent variable and endogenous latent variables, the findings of this study indicated that of 8 hypotheses, 6 were supported. The results of the PLS path model showed that perceived behaviour control was significantly and negatively related to both DWBI and DWBO. Perceived outcomes control was also found to be significantly and negatively related DWBI as well as organisational deviance. Finding further revealed that perceived descriptive norm was significantly and positively related to both DWBI and DWBO. In contrast, perceived injunctive norm was not found to be significantly and positively related to DWBI as well as DWBO.

With respect to self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator on the relationship between exogenous latent variable and endogenous latent variables, results provided empirical support for 5 hypotheses. Specifically, self-regulatory efficacy was found to moderate the relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBI. The results also revealed that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and DWBO. But self-regulatory efficacy was not found

to moderate the relationship between perceived outcome control and DWBI. The results also revealed that self-regulatory efficacy does not moderate the relationship between perceived outcome control and DWBO.

Results further revealed that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBI. In the same vein, self-regulatory efficacy was found to moderate the relationship between perceived descriptive norms and DWBO. Self-regulatory efficacy was not found to moderate perceived injunctive norms- DWBI relationship. Furthermore, the results indicated that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norms and DWBO.

5.3 Discussion

This section discusses the study's findings in the light of relevant theories and findings of previous research. The subheadings of discussion section are structured according to the research questions.

5.3.1 The Influence of Dimensions in Organisational Formal Control on Deviant Workplace Behaviour

The first research question was whether the dimensions of organisational formal control explain deviant workplace behaviour. In line with this research question, the first objective of this study was to examine the relationship between organisational formal controls and DWB.

5.3.1.1 Organisational Formal Control and Workplace Deviance

Organisational formal control refers to mechanisms put in place by management such as rules and regulations, disciplinary measures and auditing with the aim of monitoring, detecting, punishing and minimizing the occurrence of improper conduct (Ṿardi & Weitz, 2004). Anderson and Oliver (1987) identified two dimensions of organizational control systems (i.e., outcome-based control and behaviour-based control) that can influence employee's behaviour. As proposed by Ramaswami (1996) as well as Jaworski and Young (1992), organisational formal control reduces the likelihood of employees to engage in dysfunctional behaviour. Hence, this study hypothesized that organisational formal control is negatively and significantly related to workplace deviance. To attain this end, four research hypotheses were formulated and tested using the PLS path modelling.

Firstly, consistent with Hypothesis 1, result revealed a significant negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance with moderate effect size (f^2 = 0.102), suggesting that when employees perceive that management exercises strong control over interpersonal relations, they are less likely to engage in interpersonal deviance, defined as deviant behaviours directed at an individual. This finding is congruent with organizational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992) that formal control instituted by an organization should theoretically able to reduces the likelihood of deviant behaviour at work through discipline and punishment

Furthermore, negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance is consistent with the findings from Dekker and Barling

(1998), who demonstrated that when faculty and staff perceived that management of a university effectively enforced sanctions against workplace sexual harassment, they were less likely to engage in any interpersonal behaviours reflecting sexual harassment at work. Likewise, Kura, Shamsudin, and Chauhan (2013a) found results similar to this study. They reported that perceived behaviour control instituted by an organization through high levels of monitoring, directing, supervision and raising awareness among employees about what constitutes deviant acts motivate them to refrain from deviant behaviour directed at individuals.

Secondly, the present study also hypothesized that perceived behaviour control is negatively related to organisational deviance (Hypothesis 2). As expected, the findings revealed a significant negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance. This finding seems to suggest that lecturers who perceive control system to be behaviour-based are more likely to accept direction and thus exhibit less deviant behaviours (Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Choi et al., 2004; de Lara et al., 2006; Kura et al., 2013a; Oliver & Anderson, 1994), such as spending most of their time attending to personal matters instead of official work. Organizational control theory (e.g., Jaworski, 1988) suggests that behaviour-based control in form of monitoring and high level of management direction plays a significant role in regulating employees behaviour at work.

Additionally, the significant negative relationship between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance reported in the present study is not surprising because previous researchers also reported similar results (de Lara et al., 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Parilla et al., 1988). In particular, a significant

negative relationship was found between perceived behaviour control, defined as formal management sanctions, and employee theft (Hollinger & Clark, 1982). Similarly, de Lara et al. (2006) reported that employees who perceived high level of behaviour-based control, defined as a process of exercising strong control over organizational activities by management, were less likely to engage in cyberloafing. Furthermore, Parilla et al. (1988) found that behaviour-based controls played an inhibitory influence on theft rates among employees in the retail and hospital industries.

Thirdly, with regard to hypothesis 3, as predicted, the PLS path modelling results indicated that outcome-based control was negatively and significantly related to interpersonal deviance. This finding indicates that as outcome-based control, which is characterized by monitoring the efforts of employees with a very little managerial contact (Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Oliver & Anderson, 1994) decreases interpersonal deviance in the workplace. This particular result is consistent with existing research on organizational control systems and deviant behaviour at work (e.g., Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1993; Choi et al., 2004; Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989). More specifically, these previous studies have found a negative association between outcome-based control and behaviours that are considered to be threatening the well-being of employees at work (e.g., interpersonal conflict, and aggressive behaviour).

Fourthly, regarding hypothesis 4, results of the study supported that outcome-based control is a significant predictor of organizational deviance. The linkage between outcome-based control and organizational deviance validates the theoretical proposition that formal control instituted by organisations will reduce deviant

behaviour at work (Evans et al., 2007; Jaworski, 1988; Kura et al., 2013a; Ouchi, 1979). It indicates that an increase in outcome-based control will decrease the level of organizational deviance in the university settings. This suggests that the outcome-based control is critically important for minimizing the occurrence of organizational deviance among university lecturers. Outcome-based control is a laissez faire management style whereby employees are given liberty to use their initiatives towards achievement of goal (Anderson & Oliver, 1987). As such, this system of control would motivate employees towards achieving positive performance, translated into decreased in deviant behaviour at work. This finding is also consistent with the extant literature which supports the negative relationship between outcome-based control and organizational deviance (Choi et al., 2004; Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989).

5.3.2 The Influence of Dimensions in Perceived Group Norms on Deviant Workplace Behaviour

The second research question was whether the dimensions of perceived group norms explain deviant workplace behaviour. In line with this research question, the second objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between perceived group norms and deviant workplace behaviour.

5.3.2.1 Perceived Group Norms and Workplace Deviance

Group norms refer to established rules that determine acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in a group (Levi, 2011). Group norm is one of the significant factors that

have been empirically supported by various studies to have positive influence on attitude and behaviour of individuals in general. For example, the two dimensions of group norm (i.e., descriptive norms and injunctive norms) have been used to predict adolescent substance use (Elek et al., 2006; Frone & Brown, 2010), sexual harassment (Baumgartner et al., 2011) and pro-environmental behaviour, among others (Fornara, Carrus, Passafaro, & Bonnes, 2011; Robertson & Barling, 2013). Descriptive norms refer to group norm that describes the perceptions of what most others actually do in a given situation, while injunctive norms reflect the perceptions of what most others approve or disapprove (Cialdini et al., 1990).

Consistent with Hypothesis 5, a significant positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms interpersonal deviance was found. Consistent with Bandura's social learning theory (1977b, 1978b), this result suggests that an individual's behaviour is significantly influenced by observations and perceptions of what most members of a group or network actually do in a given situation. Additionally, this finding suggests that perceived descriptive norms have a significant influence on the behaviour of lecturers in Nigerian universities.

The positive relationship between perceived descriptive norms and interpersonal deviance at work is also consistent with prior research indicating that perceptions of others' behaviour in group or social network may be important in motivating decisions to engage in deviant behaviours such as sexual harassment and voicing discontent (Crane & Platow, 2010). This result is also similar to Kura, Shamsudin and Chauhan (2013c) who found that perceived descriptive norms played a significant role in explaining the occurrence of interpersonal deviance among

lecturers from various higher education institutions in Nigeria. Additionally, when group members perceive that referent others who serve as their models support a certain deviant behaviour, they are more likely to exhibit this deviant act themselves because they are typically able to learn from their role model which gives them the opportunity to engage in deviant behaviour (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

In the same vein, the present study predicted that perceived descriptive norm is positively related to organisational deviance (Hypothesis 6). Result provided empirical support for this hypothesis since a significant positive relationship was found between perceived descriptive norm and organisational deviance. This indicates individuals in a particular social setting are typically able to learn from their role model who gives them the opportunity to behave in a certain way (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b). Therefore, when group members learn that referent others who interest them approve certain deviant behaviours in a particular social setting, they are likely to exhibit such deviant acts because of the significant influence of a role model on group members' behaviour. Additionally, this result is consistent with Dabney (1995), who reported a significant and positive relationship between perceived injunctive norms and drug theft or use by employees. Similar results were also reported regarding the positive relationship between perceived injunctive and other specific forms of deviant behaviours, such as drinking practices or workplace substance-use (e.g., Ames et al., 2000; Frone & Brown, 2010).

On the contrary, perceived injunctive norms were not found to exert a unique influence on the two dimensions of deviant workplace behaviour. These findings are somewhat not consistent with prior research that has found unique effects for

perceived injunctive norms (e.g., Ames et al., 2000; Bamberger & Biron, 2007; Dabney, 1995; Frone & Brown, 2010). However, a plausible explanation for this inconsistent finding might be due to the fact that past research with injunctive norms has frequently considered different norm sources for perceived group norms (i.e. "what behaviors are generally approved or disapproved.'' for injunctive norms vs. ''what do most other people do'' for descriptive norms - see e.g. Brauer and Chaurand (2010); Elek et al. (2006); (c.f., McMillan & Conner, 2003) and the manner in which they are measured (i.e. a time element vs. no time element for perceived group norms - see e.g. Cooke, Sniehotta, and Schuz (2007). Furthermore, prior studies on the influence of perceived group norms within the social learning theory were mainly focused on health related behaviours (e.g., Elek et al., 2006; Frone & Brown, 2010; Neighbors, Geisner, & Lee, 2008) rather than on deviant workplace behaviours. As such future research effort may be needed to examine the conditions under which a unique effect of perceived group norms will emerge.

5.3.3 Moderating Effect of Self-Regulatory Efficacy

Self-regulatory efficacy is defined as individuals' beliefs in their capability to avoid social incitement for deviant workplace behaviour as well as their beliefs in their capability to discern their emotional states, understand their feelings toward others, and manage the expression of positive and negative affect (Bandura et al., 2003). This study also proposes self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator on the relationship between organisational formal control, workgroup norms and workplace deviance because Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1986) and later studies (Caprara et al., 2002;

Caprara et al., 1998) have found that those with a higher level of self-control are less likely to engage in deviant behaviour. Additionally, Bandura (1992) noted that perceived self-efficacy is an important consideration in understanding the levels of motivation and performance accomplishments because it is able to shape the way individuals feel, think, and behave.

Following this argument, the third research question was whether self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between organisational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour. In line with this research question, the third objective of this study was to assess the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour.

5.3.3.1 Moderating Effect of Self-regulatory Efficacy on the Relationship between Organisational Formal Controls and DWBs

To answer the third research question, four research hypotheses were formulated and tested using the PLS path modelling (i.e., H9, H10, H11 and H12). It could be recall that hypothesis H9 stated that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance. Specifically, this relationship is stronger (i.e. more negative) for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. Because the findings regarding moderating effects represent the main contributions of this research, possible explanations of the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy could be explained from theoretical perspectives rather than prior empirical studies.

Thus, self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986) provide possible justifications for the new findings.

Firstly, results regarding the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance appear to be congruent with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986). Consistent with the view that self-regulatory efficacy is an important cognitive resource that can restrain individual from engaging in deviant act (Bandura, 1977a, 1978a, 1986), it also strengthens the influence of perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance. In particular, there was a stronger relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy as opposed to individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. This suggests that employees with high self-regulatory efficacy are less likely to engage in interpersonal deviance even if they perceived behaviour control to be low.

Furthermore, building on the general hedonistic perspective, individuals seek pleasure and avoid pain (Carless et al., 2000; Higgins, 1998). Specifically, regulatory focus theory, "distinguishes self-regulation with a promotion focus (accomplishments and aspirations) from self-regulation with a prevention focus (safety and responsibilities)" (Carless et al., 2000, p. 1280). According to regulatory focus theory, individuals who adopt promotion focus tend to regulate their behaviours by engaging in positive behaviours at work, and those who are inclined towards prevention focus will be more likely to regulate their behaviours by refraining from negative outcomes, such as deviant behaviours at work (Carless et al., 2000; Higgins, 1998; Higgins, 2002; Wilkowski & Robinson, 2008).

Secondly, result regarding the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance is also in line with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977a, 1978a, 1986). This research suggests that self-regulatory efficacy acted as a buffer between perceived behaviour control and organisational deviance, such that individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy were less likely to engage in organizational deviant acts than those with low self-regulatory efficacy. In other words, this finding suggests that employees with higher level of self-regulatory efficacy are unlikely to engage in deviant behaviour at work regardless of laxity in formal control system. More importantly, this result showed that for those that individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy, the higher their perceived behaviour control, the lower their organisational deviance. Individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy were more able to override their automatic tendencies toward deviant behaviour at work (Wilkowski & Robinson, 2008), because such individuals with high levels of self-regulatory efficacy think positively and are hedonistic in nature than those with low levels of self-regulatory efficacy (Caprara & Steca, 2005). Along similar lines, individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy may have been more able to internalise their negative feelings or behaviours (Caprara et al., 2013; Eisenberg et al., 2001). They were also more able to follow organizational rules and regulations and find easy to conform (Henle, 2005). Hence, their regards of organizational rules and regulations, make them less likely to conform to formal control instituted by their organisations, thereby restraining them from engaging in organisational deviance.

Thirdly, Hypothesis 11 stated that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived outcome control and interpersonal deviance, while Hypothesis 12 posited that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived outcome control and organisational deviance. Unexpectedly, the present study did not find support for these two hypotheses (i.e., H11 and H12). One possible reason for the absence of support for these hypothesized relationships might be because self-regulation is a limited resource; which can temporarily be depleted upon continuous efforts, and thus makes extended acts of self-regulation hard to sustain (Baumeister et al., 1994; Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Restubog, Zagenczyk, Bordia, Bordia, & Chapman, 2012). Another possible explanation for the lack of support for these hypothesized relationships pertains to the notion of misregulation. In misregulation, the cause of self-regulation failure lies in the use to which the efforts are directed. According to Baumeister and Heatherton (1996), "the person may even be quite successful at exerting control over him or herself but the end result is failure because the efforts are misguided or are wasted in other ways" (p. 9).

5.3.3.2 Moderating Effect of Self-regulatory Efficacy on the Relationship between perceived Group Norms and DWBs

Bandura‘s social learning principles (1977b, 1978b) suggest that when individuals work in an environment that includes referent others who serve as role models for workplace deviant behaviour, they are more likely to behave in deviant ways. Group members are able to learn beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours of their role models through a role-modelling process (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Additionally, in a social setting when individuals observe that others behave in a deviant ways without being punished by management or even get rewards for such acts, they are more likely to be motivated to imitate these deviant behaviours; and (2) an individual’s choice of referent others (i.e., deviant role models) within the social context of work groups, however, should be determined by whether the particular role model are able to fulfil an individual’s needs and wants (Hackman, 1992).

From self-efficacy perspective, high level of self-regulatory efficacy enables employees to predict event at work and to develop ways to control those events (Bandura, 1993). Hence, it is expected that high levels of self-regulatory efficacy could negatively energize employees’ coping activity when dealing with forces within a work environment including workgroup influence (Restubog et al., 2012). Furthermore, self-efficacy theory suggests that individuals high in self-regulatory efficacy do not exhibit deviant acts even if they faced environmental and situation forces at work (e.g., workgroup influence towards deviant behaviours).

Based on the foregoing arguments, the last research question was whether self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived group norms

and deviant workplace behaviour. In line with this research question, the fourth objective of this study was to assess the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control and deviant workplace behaviour.

To answer the fourth research question, four research hypotheses were also formulated and tested (i.e., H13, H14, H15 and H16). Firstly, the findings provide support for the hypotheses 13 and 14 forwarded in this study. It supports the view that the self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and interpersonal deviance. Likewise, the results provide support for the view that the self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and organisational deviance. These findings are not surprising because they are consistent with self-efficacy principle (Bandura, 1977a, 1978a, 1986), which suggests that self-regulatory efficacy moderated the relationship between perceived descriptive norm and deviant workplace behaviour, in such a way that employees with higher level of self-regulatory efficacy are unlikely to engage in deviant behaviour at work regardless of pressure from reference others to do so. More importantly, this result showed that when individuals find themselves in under the influence of reference others, self-regulatory efficacy help them to achieve compliance with significant organisational norms and in so doing keep them away from engaging in deviant workplace behaviours. Additionally, the results suggest that self-regulatory efficacy play a significant role in regulating behaviours and/or fostering prosocialness and adherence to moral self-sanctions for dysfunctional behaviour (Bandura, 1978a, 1986; Bandura et al., 2001).

Again the results suggest that compared with those individuals with low level of self-regulatory efficacy, individuals who are high in self-regulatory efficacy have capacity to overpower the influence of workgroup members, because they are able to influence things despite situational constraints (Speier & Frese, 1997).

Contrary to expectation, Hypothesis 15 was not supported because self-regulatory efficacy did not moderate the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and interpersonal deviance. One possible explanation for the lack of significant moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and interpersonal deviance may have to do with the salience of different norms in different contexts. Injunctive norms, which highlight what reference others approve or disapprove in a given situation, can induce conformity for the sake of fitting in with a group (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Therefore, injunctive workplace norms regarding deviant behaviour at work may become more internalized than self-regulatory efficacy and are more likely to influence employee deviant at work.

Finally, the results of the present study again supported the prediction that self-regulatory efficacy moderates the relationship between perceived injunctive norm and organisational deviance, such that this relationship is weaker for individuals with high self-regulatory efficacy than it is for individuals with low self-regulatory efficacy. The finding suggests compared with those academics who are low in self-regulatory efficacy, academics with high level of self-regulatory efficacy were less likely to be “impulsive, emotional wrecks, lashing out upon the smallest

provocation, blurting out the first thing that comes to mind, and engaging in whatever behavior feels good at the time" (Heatherton, 2011, p. 374).

Furthermore, drawing upon Bandura's self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977a, 1978a, 1986) the results suggest that self-regulatory efficacy is an important cognitive resource by which academics seek to exert control over their thoughts, their feelings, and their behaviour at work. This further suggests that organisational deviance is not merely explained by perceptions of injunctive norms, since they depend on individual's level of self-regulatory efficacy to a degree. Academics with high level of self-regulatory efficacy tend to evaluate their actions and behaviour of their reference others carefully and are better able to cope with their pressure to engage in organisational deviance than those with low level of self-regulatory efficacy. Thus, academics with high level of self-regulatory efficacy were more likely to stay away from deviant behaviour at work because they believe in their capacities to avoid social incitement for deviant workplace behaviour (Bandura et al., 2003).

5.3.4 Theoretical Implications

The conceptual framework of this study was based on the prior empirical evidences and theoretical gaps identified in the literature. It was also supported and explained from three theoretical perspectives, namely organizational control theory (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Jaworski, 1988; Ouchi, 1979; Snell, 1992), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b, 1978b), and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986). The present study incorporated self-regulatory efficacy as a moderating variable to better explain

and understand the relationship between organisational formal control, perceived workgroup norms and DWBs. Based on the research findings and discussions, the current study has made several theoretical contributions in the research on organisational formal control, workgroup norms, self-regulatory efficacy, and deviant workplace behaviour.

5.3.4.1 Additional Empirical Evidence in the Domain of Organizational Control Theory

This study has provided a theoretical implication by giving additional empirical evidence in the domain of organizational control theory. The theory posits that formal control instituted by an organization should theoretically be able to regulate individual's behaviour in the workplace through monitoring, directing and rewarding system. Instead of focusing on the relationship between organisational formal control and specific forms of deviant behaviours, such as, theft workplace substance use, and cyberloafing, among others, this study has extended the theory by examining a broad range of deviant behaviour at work. This is crucial because focusing on narrow forms of DWBs provide incomplete view of deviant behaviours at work (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

This study has also tested the moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control, perceived workgroup norms and DWBs. Extant empirical studies regarding the relationship between organizational formal control on deviant workplace behaviours (e.g., de Lara et al., 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Kura et al., 2013a) as well as the direction of

perceived group norms and DWBs relationship (e.g., Elek et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2007; Väänänen et al., 2008) reported inconsistent findings. Hence, this strongly suggested the need for incorporating a moderating variable on these relationships. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), "moderator variables are typically introduced when there is an unexpectedly weak or inconsistent relation between a predictor and a criterion variable" (p. 1178).

This study has attended to the gap by incorporating self-regulatory efficacy as a moderating variable to enhance the understanding on the influence of organisational formal control and perceived workgroup norms on deviant behaviour at work among academics in the Nigerian universities located in the North-west Geo-political zone. In testing organizational control theory, the research results reported that the two dimensions of organisational formal control (i.e. perceived behaviour control, and perceived outcome control) had significant influence on both interpersonal and organisational deviance among academics, lending empirical evidence in support of the said theory. Based on the results, it can be concluded that formal control instituted by organisation played a significant role in explaining DWBs.

Taken together, it is evident that the two dimensions of organisational formal control, i.e. perceived behaviour control, and perceived outcome control are important in explaining deviant workplace behaviour among academics, particularly in the Nigerian universities located in the North-west Geo-political zone.

5.3.4.2 Additional Empirical Evidence in the Domain of Social Learning Theory

This study has provided a theoretical implication by giving additional empirical evidence in the domain of social learning theory. The theory postulates that individuals learn behaviour from their work environment through observation, imitation, and modelling. Individuals observe their work-based referent others behaving in various ways. These individuals' work-based referent others provide examples of certain behaviours to observe and imitate. This study has extended the social learning theory by assessing perceived workgroup norms on broader forms of deviant behaviour at work. In the course of testing social learning theory, the findings reported in this study demonstrated that perceived descriptive norms significantly predicted both interpersonal and organisational deviance, thereby lending empirical evidence in support of the said theory.

Based on the results and discussions, it can be summed up that perceived workgroup norms was significant predictors of deviant workplace behaviour among academics. Therefore, it is important to pay attention to these factors in ensuring positive work behaviour, especially in terms of lower levels of deviant behaviours exhibited by academics, in the Nigerian universities located in the North-west Geo-political zone.

5.3.4.3 Significant Moderating Role of Self-Regulatory Efficacy

The present study has also provided empirical evidence on the significant role of self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator on the relationship between organisational formal control, perceived workgroup norms and DWBs. While most previous studies (e.g., Bamberger & Biron, 2007; Dabney, 1995; de Lara et al., 2006; Vardi & Wiener, 1996) have mainly focused on investigating the direct linkage between organisational formal control and workplace deviance as well as the direct relationship between perceived group norms and DWBs, this study incorporated self-regulatory efficacy as a moderator on these relationships for the following reasons. Firstly, effortful control abilities such as self-regulatory efficacy may be able to override individuals automatic tendencies toward deviant behaviour at work (Wilkowski & Robinson, 2008), because individuals with high levels of self-regulatory efficacy think positively and hedonistic in nature than those with low levels of self-regulatory efficacy (Caprara & Steca, 2005).

Secondly, self-regulatory efficacy is expected to moderate the relationship between organisational formal controls and workplace deviance because individuals low in self-regulatory efficacy tend to be aggressive, and they find it hard to internalise their negative feelings or behaviours (Caprara et al., 2013; Eisenberg et al., 2001). They also tend to resist organizational rules and regulations and find it hard to conform (Henle, 2005). As such, their disregard of organizational rules and regulations, make DWBs a viable response to formal control instituted by their organisations. Taken as a whole, this study has added empirical evidence to the body

of knowledge in the area of deviant workplace behaviour and the research results could be a strong basis for future researches on organizational and group factors as well as work attitudes and behaviours.

5.3.5 Practical Implications

Based on the research findings, the present study has contributed several practical implications in terms of human resource management practices in the context of Nigerian universities practices. Firstly, the results suggest that perceptions of formal control system are important consideration in managing deviant behaviour at work. Universities can make considerable efforts in minimizing the occurrence of workplace deviance by enhancing lecturers' perceptions of organisational formal control. By creating a fair controlled environment, management of Nigerian universities can minimize the tendency of lecturers to engage in deviant behaviour at work. For example, rewarding those lecturers who accomplish their goals by behaving in ways that are consistent with stated norms and punishing deviant acts can enhance the perceptions of formal control system in universities (Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2000).

Secondly, the findings suggest that workgroup variables were related to deviant behaviour at work. In particular, the two dimensions of group norms (i.e., descriptive norms and injunctive norms) were found to be positively related to interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance in the entire sample. Thus, management of the universities could minimize the likelihood of lecturers from engaging in deviant behaviour by improving conditions that lead to positive group

context (Kidwell & Valentine, 2009). For example, management of the universities might establish peer mentoring within the workgroup as well as increase discussion through symposium, departmental and faculty meeting on the negative influence of group norms on the entire university system.

Finally, as stated at the outset of this report, deviant workplace behaviour is a prevalent and costly phenomenon for organizations (Robinson, 2008). Therefore, the results of the current study suggest that besides organizational and group factors, individual factors should be given serious consideration in the selection process in the Nigerian universities. In particular, the moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy suggests that effective self-regulation can minimize the tendencies of individuals to engage in deviant acts. Thus, human resource managers in the Nigerian universities could consider self-regulatory efficacy as a selection criterion when making hiring decisions academics. This can be achieved by conducting personality inventory test selection process, so that the outcomes of such test can help human resource managers in the Nigerian universities to select those academics whose values are compatible with organizational norms and screening out those whose values are incompatible.

5.3.6 Methodological Implications

The present study has a number of methodological implications. One of the methodological contributions lies in assessing the criterion variables using situation-specific measure. Specifically, in an attempt to fill a methodological gap suggested by Bowling and Gruys (2010), the present study assessed workplace deviance

constructs based on the job-relevant behaviours identified by the subject matter experts (SMEs) such as job incumbents or immediate supervisors (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). Furthermore, the present study removed all irrelevant items from Bennett and Robinson's (2000) generic workplace deviance measure and added relevant items in order to really capture the degree to which deviant behaviours occur in the context of the study (Bowling & Gruys, 2010; Cook & Campbell, 1979). By adding the relevant items and removing the irrelevant ones from the original scale, this study purified and tested the measure of workplace deviance in Nigeria, which is culturally different from the setting in which this measure was initially developed.

Another methodological contribution of this study is related to using PLS path modeling to assess the psychometric properties of each latent variable. Specifically, the present study has succeeded in assessing psychometric properties of each latent variable in terms of convergent validity, as well as discriminant validity. Psychometric properties examined were individual item reliability, average variance explained (AVE) and composite reliability of each latent variable. Convergent validity was assessed by examining the value of AVE for each latent variable. Furthermore, the discriminant validity was determined by comparing the correlations among the latent variables with the square roots of AVE. The results of the cross loadings matrix were also examined to find support for discriminant validity in the conceptual model. Thus, this study has managed to use one of the more robust approaches (PLS path modeling) to assess the psychometric properties of each latent variable illustrated in the conceptual model of this study.

5.3.7 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Even though this study has provided support for a number of the hypothesized relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables, the findings have to be interpreted with consideration of the study's limitations. Firstly, the present study adopts a cross-sectional design which does not allow causal inferences to be made from the population. Therefore, a longitudinal design in future needs to be considered to measure the theoretical constructs at different points in time to confirm the findings of the present study.

Secondly, the present study adopts a non-probability sampling (i.e., quota sampling) in which all elements of the target population were not captured, as such the extent to which sample size represents the entire population cannot be known (Lohr, 2009). The use of quota sampling has limited the extent to which the findings of the study can be generalized to the population. Therefore, future research needs to go beyond using quota sampling if sample frame can be obtained so that probability sampling technique could be employed. Hence, one sample frame is obtained the the findings of the study can be generalized to the entire academics in the Nigerian universities.

Thirdly, workplace deviance was assessed using self-report measures. According to Bennett and Robinson (2000), self-report measures are valid in assessing deviant behaviour at work particularly when anonymity was assured during the data collection. Nevertheless, the use of self-reports is associated with common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and social desirability bias (Dodaj, 2012; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Randall & Fernandes, 1991). Although this

study attempts to reduce these problems by ensuring anonymity and improving scale items (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012), it is possible that the participants in this study might have under-reported their deviance on survey questionnaires. Therefore, in the future, researchers may wish to employ other strategies to assess workplace deviance. More specifically, supervisor ratings of workplace deviance and peer reporting of workplace deviance should be used to control for the common method variance and social desirability bias.

Fourthly, it is also important to note that the workplace deviance data reported in this study was subjective. Research demonstrates that subjective data is valid and reliable for assessing deviant behaviour at work (see, for example, Ferris et al., 2009; Holtz & Harold, 2010; Lee et al., 2005a). Nevertheless, subjective measure is susceptible to many types of judgmental biases (Dunlop & Lee, 2004). Although it was not easy to obtain objective data (Detert et al., 2007), the use of objective measure would have clearly strengthened the results. Therefore, future research is needed to replicate the findings of the current study using objective measure of workplace deviance.

Fifthly, the present study offers quite limited generalizability as it focused mainly on teaching staff from universities located in the north-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Consequently, additional work is needed to include non-teaching staff from various universities in order to generalize the findings. Universities should be studied and compared with other institutes of higher education such as polytechnics, monotechnics and colleges.

Sixthly, the research model was able to explain 56% of the total variance in interpersonal deviance and 57% of the total variance in organisational deviance, which means there are other latent variables that could significantly explain the variance in workplace deviance. In other words, the remaining 44% and 43% of the variance for interpersonal deviance and organisational deviance respectively could be explained by other factors. Therefore, future research is needed to consider other possible factors that could motivate employees to refrain from engaging in deviant behaviour. In particular, future research might examine how employee's regulatory focus could further buffer the relationship between organisational formal control, workgroup norms and workplace deviance among employees from various sectors or industries.

Research has demonstrated that regulatory focus (defined as the process of bringing oneself into alignment with one's standards and goals) plays an important role in understanding human behaviour because it is able to influence the way individuals feel, think, and behave (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Cooke et al., 2007; Higgins, 1998). Previous research has demonstrated that regulatory focus affects various aspects of human behaviour including risky decision making (Hamstra, Bolderdijk, & Veldstra, 2011; Higgins, 2002), consumer behaviour (Werth & Foerster, 2007), and work-related outcomes (Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012). Therefore, it is expected that employee's regulatory focus might strengthen the relationship between organisational formal control, workgroup norms and workplace deviance.

Finally, no significant moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance was found, and self-regulatory efficacy was not found to moderate the relationship between perceived descriptive norms and organisational deviance. Possibly some mediating effects could also occur (Sharma, Durand, & Gur-Arie, 1981). Specifically, the relationship between perceived behaviour control and interpersonal deviance may be mediated by self-regulatory efficacy. Similarly, the relationship between perceived descriptive norms and organisational deviance may also be mediated by self-regulatory efficacy. Examining self-regulatory efficacy as a mediator on these relationships could be an avenue for future research because literature indicates that less attention has been paid to the fundamental reason why organisational formal control and workgroup norms predict workplace deviance. Thus, more research is needed to investigate such mediator effects. Furthermore, the relationship between self-regulatory efficacy and interpersonal deviance was insignificant; therefore future research is necessary to verify whether other moderating variable may strengthen this relationship. Specifically, further research is encouraged to examine whether conscientiousness might moderate the relationship between self-regulatory efficacy and interpersonal deviance. This is because research indicates that individuals high in self-regulatory efficacy but low in conscientiousness tended to engage more in deviant behaviour at work compared to those low in self-regulatory efficacy (Prasad et al., 2010).

5.4 Conclusion

Taken together, the present study has provided additional evidence to the growing body of knowledge concerning the moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control, workgroup norms and workplace deviance. Results from this study lend support to the key theoretical propositions. In particular, the current study has successfully answered all of the research questions and objectives despite some of its limitations. While there have been many studies examining the underlying causes of workplace deviance, however, the present study addressed the theoretical gap by incorporating self-regulatory efficacy as a significant moderating variable.

This study also lends theoretical and empirical support for the moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between organisational formal control, workgroup norms and workplace deviance. The study has also managed to evaluate how self-regulatory efficacy theoretically moderates the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables. The theoretical framework of this study has also added to the domain of organizational control theory and social learning theory by examining the influence of organisational formal control on workplace deviance as well as the effect of perceived group norms on DWBs.

In addition to the theoretical contributions, the results from this study provide some important practical implications to organizations and managers. Furthermore, on limitations of the current study, several future research directions were drawn. In conclusion, the present study has added valuable theoretical, practical, and

methodological ramifications to the growing body of knowledge in the field of industrial and organizational psychology, particularly human resource management.

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