

**PSYCHO-SOCIOLOGICAL FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF  
COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR AMONG THE NON-ACADEMIC  
STAFF OF UNIVERSITIES IN SOUTHWESTERN NIGERIA**

**BY**

**ADEOYE, JONATHAN ADEWALE**

**B.A. Ed (Lagos), M.Ed (Lagos)**

**MATRIC NO: 141495**

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**SUPERVISOR:**

**PROFESSOR S. O. SALAMI**

**DECEMBER, 2014**

## CERTIFICATION

I certify that Adeoye Jonathan Adewale carried out this work in the Department of Guidance and Counselling, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria, under my supervision.

.....  
**Date**

.....  
**Supervisor**  
Prof. S. O. Salami  
Dept of Guidance and Counselling  
Faculty of Education,  
University of Ibadan,  
Ibadan, Nigeria.

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## **DEDICATION**

To God the Almighty Creator through Jesus Christ my Lord and Sustainer

AND

The memories of my late dad, Prophet Frederick Akanbi Adeoye (Oba Inu Apata)  
and my late mum, Deaconess Esther Taiwo Adeoye

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## ABSTRACT

Counter-productive Work Behaviours (CWB) are acts of employees going against the expectations of an organisation. This behaviour is on the increase in the Nigerian university system particularly among non-academic staff, with negative consequences on the system. Literature has documented the effects of CWB without its pre-disposing factors in the university system. The study, therefore, investigated the predictive effects of psychological (Locus of Control (LoC), impulsiveness, anxiety, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, extroversion) and sociological factors (age, gender, marital status, educational qualification and workers' income) on CWB among non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

The descriptive survey research design of the *ex-post facto* type was adopted. Stratified random and proportionate sampling techniques were used to select 1,442 non-academic staff in six purposely selected universities (three federal, two state and one private) in Southwestern Nigeria (751 senior non-academic staff, 691 junior non-academic staff). The research instruments used were: Demographic Information Questionnaire, conscientiousness ( $r = 0.78$ ), agreeableness ( $r = 0.76$ ), openness ( $r = 0.83$ ), extroversion ( $r = 0.91$ ), LoC ( $r = 0.82$ ), Impulsivity Measure ( $r = 0.56$ ), Neuroticism Scale ( $r = 0.70$ ) and Anxiety Scale ( $r = 0.72$ ). Nine research questions were answered and six hypotheses tested at the 0.05 level of significance. Data were analysed using Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression.

The participants were 786 male and 656 female with age of  $46.5 \pm 8.08$ . There was an observed difference in the level of CWB in universities sampled: state-owned (64.0%), federal (41.2%) and private (39.8%). Psycho-sociological factors significantly predicted CWB ( $F_{(13,1428)} = 20.06$ ); and jointly contributed 15.4% to CWB variance. Psychological factors ( $F_{(8,1433)} = 31.41$ ) jointly contributed to CWB, accounting for 14.9% in its variance, while the joint sociological factors did not. Conscientiousness ( $\beta = .198$ ), LoC ( $\beta = -.19$ ), agreeableness ( $\beta = -.18$ ), neuroticism ( $\beta = .07$ ), openness to experience ( $\beta = .07$ ), extroversion ( $\beta = -.14$ ), impulsivity measure ( $\beta = -.02$ ), anxiety ( $\beta = .15$ ) and marital status ( $\beta = -.09$ ) contributed relatively to CWB but impulsivity measure, qualification and income did not. Locus of control ( $r = -.170$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .156$ ); agreeableness ( $r = .23$ ), neuroticism ( $r = 0.83$ ); openness ( $r = -.14$ ), extroversion ( $r = -.22$ ); impulsivity measure ( $r = -.036$ ) anxiety scale ( $r = .21$ ) correlated significantly CWB. The psycho-sociological factors helped to negatively predict CWB among non-academic staff in Southwestern Nigerian universities.

Marital status, locus of control, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, extroversion and anxiety had great influence on counter-productivity work behaviours of non-academic staff in Southwestern Nigerian universities. These factors should be considered by counseling psychologists when designing intervention strategies to minimize counter-productivity work behaviours among the non-academic staff.

**Keywords:** Nigerian universities non-academic staff, Counter-productive work behaviour, Big Five personality factors.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background to the study

Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB) is defined as the acts of an employee that go against the goals of an organisation. These acts can be intentional or unintentional and result from a wide range of underlying causes and motivations. Counterproductive behaviours include: abusive behaviour, physical and verbal aggression, making intentional improper work, sabotage, theft, absenteeism, delays etc.. These behaviours are a set of distinct acts that are intended to harm the organisation, people within the organisation, or stakeholders such as customers, colleagues and supervisors (Fox & Spector 2005).

The constituents of Counterproductive work behaviour include aggressive acts such as theft, fraud, vandalism, and sabotage (Harper, 1990). Less prevalent, yet still harmful, are aggressive behaviours such as lying (DePaulo & DePaulo, 1989), spreading rumours (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Fox & Spector, 1999), withholding effort (Kidwell and Bennett, 1993) and absenteeism (Johns, 1997). These attitudes violate workplace norms and therefore are considered to be an antisocial type of behaviour (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). It is therefore not surprising that organisational scholars have focused, on various forms of negative behaviours in the workplace in recent times (Fox & Spector, 1999; Fisher, 2003; Griffin & Lopez, 2005). Indeed, the impetus for the growing interest in workplace deviance behaviours is obvious considering the increasing prevalence of this type of behaviour in the workplace and the enormous economic and social costs associated with such behaviours (Robinson & Benneth, 1995; Fisher, 2002; Peterson, 2002, Galperin & Burke, 2006, Akinbode 2009).

Vardi and Weitz (2004) and also Fox and Spector (2005) cited instances to illustrate a better understanding of what may constitute CWB and these include workers feigning sickness and staying at home to avoid work; workers deliberately coming late to work; workers deliberately working rather slowly when a given task needs to be performed quickly; workers ignoring colleagues at work; workers refusing to help their colleagues; workers deliberately

concealing information which should be shared and jointly processed; workers deliberately refusing to follow instructions; workers failing to return a call to someone they should; workers insulting their colleagues at the slightest provocation; workers damaging company property on purpose; etc. Usually, each type of behaviour is one of the ways that people deal with the stress and dissatisfaction that they have at their workplace. Because CWB occurs frequently in the workplace, people do not seem to know what it is. There appears then the general tendency for it to be viewed as normal work behaviour.

Research evidence shows that counterproductive work behaviour is now more prevalent among non-academic staff of Nigerian universities and their deviant acts have impacted negatively on such institutions (Adekola, 2010 & Ukertor, 2011). In spite of their destructiveness and other pains they give organisations, little has been done to research the deviant behaviours exhibited by non-academic staff of Nigerian universities, although a string of studies have been carried out by organisational scholars in the Western world. (Varda & Weitz, 2004) noted a growing interest for research on workplace behaviours that harm employees or the organisation, especially because of the harmful consequences and associated costs.

The belief among empirical researchers is that as more employees engage in CWBs, the organisation becomes less successful in terms of the goals it is structured to achieve (Yen & Neihoff, 2004). The incidence of this seeming organisational failure has assumed a critical dimension calling for the attention of all stakeholders not only in the Western world, but in Nigeria also. Like Akinbode (2005), Fagbemi, (1981) and Ejimofor, (1987) have found that the Nigerian university non-academic staff attitudes to work have manifested in gross inefficiency, lack of commitment and job involvement. As a result only a few supervisors and managers tend to gain little effort of their subordinates. Akinbode, (2005) notes that, indeed, a good number of researches have been devoted to studying the antecedents of these seeming impending deviant behaviours in the work place as well as its various dimensions.

Researchers like Bennett and Robinson (2003), Fox, Spector and Miles, (2001), Colquitt (2001), Ambrose, Seabright, and Schminke (2002) all showed in their study that individuals will engage in more serious forms of sabotage when experiencing various types of injustice. Lau, Au

and Ho (2003), Chen and Spector (1992), Fox and Spector (1999) and Penney and Spector (2005) all relate work satisfaction to counterproductive behaviours, with correlations tending to be stronger for organisational counterproductive behaviours. They concluded that people who had a low work satisfaction developed more counterproductive behaviours. Lee, Ashton, and Shin (2005) found that certain personality factors predict various types of workplace deviance. Douglas and Martinko (2001) showed that trait anger, attributional style, negative affectivity and other factors of personality are a big part of the aggression variance in workplace. Storms and Spector (1987) showed that people with an external locus of control are more likely to react to frustration with counterproductive behaviours.

Several studies in the recent past have documented not only the financial impact of it, but also the social and psychological effects of negative workplace behaviour on the organisation (Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Murphy, 1993). Therefore, the prevalence of workplace deviance and its associated organisational costs necessitate a specific, systematic, theoretically focused programme of study into this behaviour. To date, relatively little empirical research has directly addressed this generally misunderstood and neglected side of employee behaviour (Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Over the years, organisational behaviour literature has shown a disproportionate emphasis on desirable phenomenon such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Organ, 1988; Commitment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) and adaptation (Hulin, 1991).

Although previous studies have examined the influence of various factors on counterproductive work behaviour, in this study, attention was focused on the following sociological factors: age, sex, marital status, education and income and psychological factors: impulsiveness, neuroticism, locus of control and anxiety. Sociological factors in this study relate to demography which is the study of human population statistics, changes, and trends including personal characteristics of humans like age, gender, marital status, education and income, while psychological factors involve the natural tendency that may predispose the way an individual thinks or performs an act to reflect his overall personality. Studies have revealed that these factors influence CWB.

Age is one sociological factor that influences CWB. Murphy, (1993), Peterson (2002), and Lau, Au & Ho (2003), all reported that some forms of CWB are related to employees who are young, new in the organisation and who work part time and have low paid jobs. This is because younger workers might have attitudes that encourage CWB. Besides, new, younger, and part-time workers are commonly hired for low-status and low-paying positions that may be conducive to counterproductive behaviours. Lewicki et al., (1997) indicate in their research that older employees tend to be more honest than younger employees. Hollinger and Clark, (1983) opined that older workers are less likely to steal engage in production deviance. Just as previous studies have reported a correlation between the independent variable (age) and the dependent variable (CWB), it is very likely that this variable will influence CWB in the present study as well.

Another sociological factor that influences CWB is gender as studies have revealed that women appear more trustworthy than men and tend to be incorruptible compared with men. Baron et al., (1999) reported that males seem to engage more in aggressive behaviour at work, absenteeism (Johns, 1997), theft (Hollinger and Clark, 1983), substance abuse (Hollinger, 1988), and vandalism (DeMore et al., 1988). Herschovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, LeBlanc & Sivanathan (2007) found that men are more aggressive and tend to exhibit CWB than women. Women are less likely to agree with counterproductive work behaviours like bribery than men. Since other researchers have discovered that gender has an effect on CWB, it is expected that this study may be influenced by the same variable also.

Marital status is another variable that plays a significant role on CWB. Researchers like Bowen, Radhakrishna & Keyser (1994) found in a study that married 4-H agents were more satisfied with their jobs, a factor that reduces the incidence of counterproductive behaviours in them, than those who were single. Fetsch and Kennington (1997) also found a relationship between marital status and job satisfaction levels. They found both divorced and married agents to be more satisfied with their jobs and are less prone to CWBs at the workplace, than agents who were never married, remarried, or widowed. From the above review, marital status may also influence CWB in the present study.



A fourth sociological variable considered to influence CWB in this study is education, and reference to education here is schooling, legitimate training, and other indicators of human capital held by non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria through the certificates acquired on the one hand and training undergone, on the other. Adekola (2006) observed that lower levels of education which are often caused by poverty may contribute to CWBs among non-academic staff in the Nigerian university. With less amounts of education people are not informed as to how the university system truly works or what rights they have under the governing policies. It is easier for corrupt office-holders to conceal corrupt activities from a poorly educated public. Non-academic staff are less likely to be aware of CWBs within the university system or how to stop it, and therefore, CWB is able to remain and spread. When non-academic university office holders are less educated, they will be less likely to find legitimate ways to make the university well-structured, productive, and successful (Ukertor 2011). Although few studies have documented the correlation between education and CWB especially in Nigeria, it had been expected, however, that this independent variable would influence the criterion variable which is CWB in the study.

Considering income as an influencer of CWB, Ehrlich (1970) stressed that persons engaged in counterproductive behaviours especially those affecting property would tend to enter criminal activity at a relatively young age, because legitimate earnings opportunities available to young age groups may generally fall short of their potential illegitimate payoffs. Moreover, since entry of the very young into the legitimate labour force is restricted by child labour laws, compulsory schooling, and federal minimum wage provisions, their entry into criminal activity may frequently precede entry into legitimate activity. Chiswick, (1967) and Mincer, (1969) report a positive and statistically significant association between the extent of income inequality, measured as the relative density of the lower tail of the family-income distribution, and the rate of all specific crimes against property across states in three census years in the United States. There also exists a growing body of empirical evidence confirming the importance of education and on-the-job training in determining the distribution of labour and personal income (Mincer, 1969). Foreign studies have correlated income with CWB and this has been significantly correlated also in the present study.

Since psychological consideration refers to the natural tendency that may predispose the way an individual thinks or performs an act to reflect his overall personality, it is tied to personality in this study. Barrick and Mount (1999) showed that personality traits play a major role in deviant behaviour exhibited by individuals, but like all behaviours, CWB is influenced by factors other than an individual's personality traits. The Big Five personality traits are five broad domains or dimensions of personality that are used to describe human personality. The theory based on the Big Five factors is called the Five Factor Model (FFM). The Big Five factors are Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism.

Barrick and Mount (1999) propose that a person's general attitudinal evaluation of his or her work influences CWB. They further viewed employees' job satisfaction as playing an important role in understanding CWBs as it partially mediates the relationship between personological characteristics such as impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism, and CWBs. That is, employees' reactions to work experiences and work environment features are influenced by individuals' psychological characteristics, which in turn influence CWBs. In their review of the literature on the antecedents of CWB, Bennett and Robinson (2003) noted that the streams of research that (a) considered deviance as a reaction to experiences at work and (b) examined deviance as a reflection of employees' personological characteristics have been relatively distinct.

Impulsive behaviour usually occurs in reaction to some events that have caused one to have some kind of emotional response. For example, imagine you are waiting in a queue at the bank and someone cuts in front of you. If you were to act on an impulse, you might immediately behave aggressively toward that person (e.g., yelling, or even becoming violent), without thinking about the consequences of this kind of behaviour (e.g. being escorted out of the bank or even arrested). Ackroyd and Thompson (1992) commented on a portrayal of deviant acts as a range of conflicts between employer and employee concerning time, product, work and identity. The conflicts, in turn, are defined by levels of intensity that range from commitment to impulsive hostility. Such conflicts usually involve employees who are sometimes driven by impulse to seek autonomy in the face of confining working practices.

In his study on Employee Misbehaviour and Management among Academic and Non-Academic Staff of the University of Abuja, Ukertor (2011) related impulsiveness to deviant behaviours of non-academic staff. According to Ukertor (2011), impulsive acts result from the existence of a culture of rudeness. Ukertor (2011) opined that some staff resort to deviant acts as a reaction to the poor working conditions and environment in the university without properly thinking out the repercussions of their actions. As is evident from the above, impulsiveness has been documented by researchers as influencing CWB and this was also found to be the case in this study.

Locus of Control (LoC) refers to beliefs about personal control over events in life. LoC is the extent to which an individual believes he or she controls things that happen around them (both positive and negative events; Rotter, 1966), and so it is considered as an individual factor that will have a relationship with CWB. A person with an internal locus of control believes that he or she is responsible for his or her own actions; whereas a person with an external locus of control believes that outside forces (e.g. fate, chance, powerful others) are responsible for things that happen to them. Empirical support for the control–CWB link is limited. Fox et al. (2001) found that perceived autonomy related significantly to organisation forms of CWB (work avoidance and work sabotage), but not person forms. This might be expected since autonomy has to do with control over the work itself, and thus targets for CWB are the organisation rather than co-workers.

Adekola (2010), showed in his work titled: ‘Work Burnout Experience among University Non-Teaching Staff: A Gender Approach’, that the relationship between LoC and voluntary workplace behaviours may not be straightforward but it has consistently been shown that an external LoC is related to aggression at work, and possibly other forms of counterproductive work behaviour which are noticeable among non-academic staff of Universities in Nigeria. This is because if the situation is within a worker’s control, he or she is not likely to engage in CWB, but if the belief is that others are in control, a worker can show annoyance or anger and likely exhibit CWB (Spector, 1998; Salami, 2007). Just as researchers identified above have correlated LoC with CWB, this psychological construct also influenced the criterion variable in this study.

Neuroticism is an enduring tendency to experience negative emotional states. Individuals who score high on neuroticism are more likely than the average to experience such feelings as anxiety, anger, envy, guilt, and depressed mood. They respond more poorly to environmental stress, and are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. Maertz & Griffeth (2004) characterized neuroticism as compulsive efforts to gain perfection, power and independence. They view the neurotic to be afflicted by feelings of anxiety, obsessive thoughts and compulsive acts which are capable of being counterproductive in the workplace. Emotion serves an adaptive function in response to environmental events that have implications for survival (Plutchik, 1989). From the above review, neuroticism is shown to influence deviant acts of employees and this was reported in the study also.

Anxiety is a general term for several disorders that cause nervousness, fear, apprehension, and worrying. These disorders affect how we feel and behave, and can manifest real physical symptoms. Mild anxiety is vague and unsettling, while severe anxiety can be extremely debilitating, having a serious impact on daily life. People often experience a general state of worry or fear before confronting something challenging such as a test, examination, recital, or interview. These feelings are easily justified and considered normal. While reviewing literature on his study: 'Work Burnout Experience among University Non-Teaching Staff: A Gender Approach', Adekola (2010) reported Work-burnout to be correlated with numerous self-reported measures of personal distress such as depression, apathy, tension, fatigue and anxiety (Burke & Greenglass, 2001). Such correlates, Adekola observes, affect the productivity of the non-teaching staff of universities particularly in South-West Nigeria.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Akinbode, (2005) observed that in modern times, two categories of workers, and indeed, non-academic staff within the university system in South West Nigeria have evolved - some who go the extra mile to ensure that tasks are performed judiciously, and others who jettison appropriate work behaviours, particularly when such behaviours do not attract direct or indirect benefit. According to him, in Nigeria today, workers hardly do anything for anyone without requesting or expecting some kinds of inducement even when such assistance is a legitimate

duty. This CWB is now believed to have impacted negatively on work quality, optimal performance and service delivery in the university environment (Akinbode, 2005). The efforts of previous researchers notwithstanding, there still exists a wide gap in understanding why non-academic staff engage in CWB. This is why a study like this is pertinent to bridge the gap in research efforts especially in Nigeria, with a view to minimizing or completely eradicating CWB among non-academic staff of universities. The question is, to what extent are counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) and their attendant poor organisational performance, influenced by sociological factors such as age, gender, marital status, education and income, and psychological factors such as impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria, and for how long must this be allowed to continue?

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which sociological factors such as age, gender, marital status, education and income, and psychological factors such as impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism influenced counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) of non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The general objective of this study is to investigate sociological factors such as age, sex, marital status, education and income, and psychological factors such as impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism as predictors of CWB among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria. In order to address the basic objective of this research, the following specific objectives, were examined:

1. Finding out the joint influence of sociological factors such as age, sex, marital status, education and income, and psychological factors such as impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism on counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).
2. Examining the influence of sociological factors such as age, sex, marital status, education and income on counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).

3. Examining the influence of psychological factors such as impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism on counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).

### **Significance of the Study**

The findings from the study would be of great significance to all universities not only in South-West Nigeria, but the entire country because such will help these institutions to have a better grasp of what pre-disposes non-academic staff to exhibit counterproductive work behaviours.

The findings from the study may also be of great benefit to the Federal and State Governments, especially in their drive to understand counterproductive work behaviours not only in localities but in the nation as a whole.

This research should serve as good reference material for private universities and university administrators in their desire to fully comprehend human behaviour with a view to stemming lack of productivity and the attendant losses resulting from the counterproductive work behaviours of non-academic staff.

This research would be invaluable to policy makers and employers of labour in Nigeria as a whole, who are concerned about why counterproductive behaviours flourish in the workplace, and become impossible to correct.

Finally, this study would not only be of immense benefit to students and researchers in the same and relevant field by broadening their knowledge on how demography and personological factors influence counterproductive work behaviours, but also become a reference source for further studies in understanding why CWB thrives in organisations.

### **Scope of Study**

The study involved both Federal and State universities, but was limited to non-academic staff in South-West Nigerian universities in Ogun, Oyo and Lagos states. The dependent variable in the study is Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB), while the independent variables are

sociological factors (age, gender, marital status, education and income) and psychological factors (impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism).

### **Operational Definition of Terms**

In order to avoid confusion, ambiguity and misrepresentation of words and concepts, the underlisted terms, which were used in this study, are defined operationally as follows:

#### **Counterproductive Work Behaviour:**

This represents volitional acts that harm or are intended to harm organisations or people within organisations. Such acts will include, but are not limited to, workers feigning sickness to avoid work, workers deliberately concealing information which should be shared and jointly processed, workers damaging university property on purpose, and other such deviant behaviours which generally affect the productivity of non-academic staff of Nigerian universities.

#### **Psycho-Sociological Factors:**

These are being made up of psychological and sociological factors which may influence an individual's pattern of thinking or line of action in a given situation or at a particular place.

#### **Psychological Variables:**

These are variables that show the natural tendency that may predispose the way an individual thinks or performs an act to reflect his overall personality. Such factors in this study include impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism.

#### **Sociological Variables:**

These are human characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, education and income which influence the way an individual thinks or performs an act.

**Impulsiveness:**

This refers to an individual's tendency to perform an action on sudden urges or desires before thinking about the consequence.

**Locus of Control:**

This is a unidimensional concept in which individuals attribute responsibility for outcomes, both positively and negatively, to either themselves (internality) or to an outside influence (externality).

**Anxiety:**

This refers to nervousness or agitation, often about something that is going to happen in the workplace.

**Neuroticism:**

This is a personality trait that describes a state in which an individual is unreasonably anxious, afraid or upset about something in a work situation.

**Personality:**

This is the totality of an individual's interests, attitudes, behavioural patterns, emotional responses, social roles and other traits that endure over a long period of time.

**Income:**

This is the money that an individual earns from work, from investing in money, from business, etc. In this study, income includes the salary which non-academic staff of Universities in South West Nigeria get.



**Educational Qualification:**

In this study, educational qualification refers to the certificates acquired by non-academic staff of Universities in South West Nigeria on the one hand and training undergone, on the other, and educational qualification is categorised in three, namely: low (primary school leavers), medium (West African School Certificates holders) and high (graduates of tertiary institutions).

**Big Five or NEO-PI Model of Personality:**

These are five fundamental factors of personality made up of neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness.

**Emotional Stability:**

This refers to a person's ability to remain stable and balanced.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter will be highlighting the review of related literature within the frameworks of theoretical background and empirical studies. In the theoretical background the researcher will be considering some forms of counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) as he provides theoretical information on the dependent variable (CWBs) in the study and also be highlighting predictors of CWBs. Under the empirical framework, the study shall be highlighting conceptualization of CWBs, typologies and structures of CWBs, and also how the dependent variable (CWBs) has influenced the independent variables (sociological factors such as age, sex, marital status, education and income and psychological factors such as impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism) in the study.

#### Outline

The literature review will cover the following topics:

- Theoretical background
- Forms of Counterproductive Work Behaviour
- Theories of Counterproductive Work Behaviour
- Predictors of CWB
- Personality
- Personality theories
- Psycho-sociological theory
- Theory of Impulsiveness
- Theory of Locus of Control
- Theory of Neuroticism
- Empirical Review
- Sociological variables and CWB
- Education and CWB

- Age and CWB
- Gender and CWB
- Marital status and CWB
- Income and CWB
- Psychological variables and CWB
- Impulsiveness and CWB
- Locus of Control and CWB
- Anxiety and CWB
- Neuroticism and CWB
- Conceptual framework
- Research hypotheses

## **Theoretical Background**

### **Counterproductive Work Behaviour**

Counterproductive Work Behaviours (CWBs) are voluntary acts that are detrimental to an organisation and the individuals within the organisation. They have important implications for the well-being of an organisation. Theft alone is estimated to cause monumental losses worldwide each year. These estimated losses do not include losses from other sources, nor do they consider the fact that many losses attributable to CWBs go undetected (Akinbode, 2005).

The consequences of CWBs and their persistence in the workplace have led to increased attention being given to the study of such behaviours. Current trends in industrial organisational psychology suggest a continuing increase in the study of CWBs. Lau, Au & Ho (2003) categorised research in CWBs into three namely:

- (1) Classification of CWBs;
- (2) Predicting counterproductive behaviours; and
- (3) Furthering the theoretical framework of CWBs.

Researchers use many sources in attempting to measure CWBs. These include potentially subjective measures such as self-reports, peer reports, and supervisor reports (Burke, Brief & George, 1993). More objective methods for assessing CWBs include disciplinary records, absentee records, and job performance statistics. Each of these methods presents potential problems in the measurement of CWBs. For example, self-reports always have the potential for bias with individuals trying to cast themselves in a good light. Self-reports may also cause problems for researchers when they measure what an incumbent 'can-do' and what an incumbent 'will-do.' Peer and supervisor reports can suffer from personal bias, but they also suffer from lack of knowledge of the private behaviours of the job incumbent whose behaviour is being studied. Archival records suffer from lack of information about the private behaviour of incumbents, providing instead information about instances where incumbents are caught engaging in CWBs. Some researchers have proposed a differential detection hypothesis which predicts that there will be discrepancies between reports of detected CWBs and other reports of CWBs.

Studying job stress and CWB with a focus on negative affectivity as a moderator, Salami (2010) observed a growing interest among researchers who have investigated a similar set of behaviours using different terminologies which included: organisational delinquency (Hogan and Hogan, 1989), organisation-motivated aggression (O' Leary-Kelly et al., 1996), organisational retaliatory behaviours, workplace aggression and workplace deviance (Robinson and Bennett, 1995), revenge and intimidation (Gallagher et al., 2008) and antisocial behaviour in organisations (Lee et al., 2005). Salami (2010) observed further that few researches have focussed on both person and environmental variables in the same study (Aquino et al., 1999; Penney and Spector, 2002; Skarlicki et al., 1999) eventhough researchers agree on the interactionist perspective in investigating the contributions of person and environmental variables. In his study, Salami (2010) reported a positive correlation between job stress and negative affectivity and CWB. Negative affectivity moderated the relationship between job stress and CWB such that high levels of CWB occurred when job stress and negative affectivity were both high.

The lack of accurate measures for CWBs jeopardizes the ability of researchers to find the relationships between CWB and other factors they are evaluating. The primary criticism of

research in CWBs has been that too much of the research relies on a single-source method of measurement relying primarily on self-reports of counterproductive work behaviour (Cronbach, 1987). Several studies have therefore attempted to compare self-reports with other forms of evidence about CWBs. These studies seek to determine whether different forms of evidence converge, or effectively measure the same behaviours. Convergence has been established between self-reports and peer and supervisor reports for interpersonal CWBs but not organisational CWBs. This finding is significant because it promotes the ability of researchers to use multiple sources of evidence in evaluating CWBs.

### **Forms of Counterproductive Work Behaviour**

#### Employee silence

Employee silence refers to situations where employees withhold information that might be useful to the organisation to which they are a part of whether intentionally or unintentionally. This can happen if employees do not speak up to a supervisor or manager. Within organisations people often have to make decisions about whether to speak up or remain silent - whether to share or withhold their ideas, opinions, and concerns. However, in many cases, they choose the safe response of silence, withholding input that could be valuable to others or thoughts that they wish they could express. This means the situation is not going to change for the better anytime soon. Employee silence does not only occur between management and employees, it also occurs during conflict among employees, and as a result of organisational decisions. This silence keeps managers from receiving information that may help to improve the organisation.

Employee silence can occur in any organisation. Specifically though, it occurs in most organisations where communication is suffering. Employee silence causes the most damage when the employees and supervisors do not meet on a regular basis. In a virtual workplace where the only in-person communication is in small discussion groups, employee silence thrives easily. Employee silence is a problem for more than just virtual organisations. Within the past few years employee silence has been happening more often in non-virtual organisations (Fineman & Panteli, 2005). Organisations where considerable risk is involved such as airports and hospitals;

should be especially mindful of employee silence. This is because mistakes caused by employee silence in these organisations can lead to the loss of life or serious damage costs to the organisation.

### Workplace Gossip

Gossip is idle talk or rumour, especially about the personal or private affairs of others. It is one of the oldest and most common means of sharing facts and views, but also has a reputation for the introduction of errors and variations into the information transmitted.

### Malicious Compliance

Malicious compliance is the behaviour of a person who intentionally inflicts harm by strictly following the orders of management or following legal compulsions, knowing that compliance with the orders will cause a loss of some form resulting in damage to the manager's business or reputation, or a loss to an employee or subordinate. In effect, it is a form of sabotage used to harm leadership or used by leadership to harm subordinates. Work-to-rule is the expression of malicious compliance as an industrial action, in which rules are deliberately followed to the letter in an attempt to reduce employee productivity.

### Psychological manipulation

Psychological manipulation is a type of social influence that aims to change the perception or behaviour of others through underhanded, deceptive, or even abusive tactics. By advancing the interests of the manipulator, often at the other's expense, such methods could be considered exploitative, abusive, devious, and deceptive.

Social influence is not necessarily negative. For example, doctors can try to persuade patients to change unhealthy habits. Social influence is generally perceived to be harmless when it respects the right of the influenced to accept or reject it, and is not unduly coercive.

## Social undermining

Social undermining is the opposite of social support. For example, in the context of the workplace, it refers to intentional offenses aimed at destroying another's favorable reputation, their ability to accomplish their work, or their ability to build and maintain positive relationships.

## Sabotage

Sabotage is a deliberate action aimed at weakening another entity through subversion, obstruction, disruption, or destruction. In a workplace setting, sabotage is the conscious withdrawal of efficiency generally directed at causing some change in workplace conditions. One who engages in sabotage is a saboteur. As a rule, saboteurs try to conceal their identities because of the consequences of their actions. For example, whereas an environmental pressure group might be happy to be identified with an act of sabotage, it would not want the individual identities of the perpetrators known.

## Types of sabotage

When disgruntled workers damage or destroy equipment or interfere with the smooth running of a workplace, it is called workplace sabotage. This can be as part of an organized group activity, or the action of one or a few workers in response to personal grievances. In general, workplace sabotage takes the form of deliberate and prolonged inefficiency by the saboteurs. Alternatively there may be repeated "accidents" which cause damage/delays to equipment, supplies or processes. Whether it is hand-tools or documents which go missing, the intended effect is the same. The only real limit to workplace sabotage is the imagination of the saboteurs.

## As Environmental Action

Certain groups turn to destruction of property in order to immediately stop environmental destruction or to make visible arguments against forms of modern technology they consider detrimental to the earth and its inhabitants. The FBI and other law enforcement agencies use the term eco-terrorist when applied to damage of property. Proponents argue that since property can

not feel terror, damage to property is more accurately described as sabotage. Opponents, by contrast, point out that property owners and operators can indeed feel terror. The image of the monkey wrench thrown into the moving parts of a machine to stop it from working was popularized by Edward Abbey in the novel *The Monkey wrench Gang* and has been adopted by eco-activists to describe destruction of earth damaging machinery.

#### As Crime

Some criminals have engaged in acts of sabotage for reasons of extortion. For example, Klaus-Peter Sabotta sabotaged German railway lines in the late 1990s in an attempt to extort DM10 million from the German railway operator Deutsche Bahn. He is now serving a sentence of life imprisonment.

#### As Political Action

The term political sabotage is sometimes used to define the acts of one political camp to disrupt, harass or damage the reputation of a political opponent, usually during an electoral campaign.

### **Theories of Counterproductive Work Behaviour**

The theories reviewed in this study are from existing literature on Counterproductive Work Behaviour focussing on the peculiar nature of the Nigeria situation and these are:

- (1) The Employee Risk Triangle Theory
- (2) The Stress Facilitation Theory

The relationships of each theory to the risk of unethical employee behaviour in the workplace are discussed below.



## The Employee Risk Triangle Theory

Researchers at DePaul University in Chicago formulated the “Employee Risk Triangle” theory which offers a common-sense theory of employee crime and deviance (Terris, 1985). Empirical research supporting this model has focused heavily on the attitudinal component. This model identified three forces which act on an employee’s propensity to engage in unethical behaviours like employee theft and counterproductivity – Need, Opportunity, and Attitude. The theory also posits that when employees find themselves at the confluence of these three forces, then the odds of them engaging in on-the-job deviance are significantly higher. This theory also has relevance to better understanding unethical employee behaviour during a turbulent economic downturn. For example, during an economic downturn one’s need for engaging in on-the-job deviance for financial gain is arguably higher (Deloitte Financial Advisory Services, 2008). Few employees have been left unscathed by the collapse of the stock market, a higher debt load, an uncompromising credit crunch, higher gas and food prices, a weaker U.S. dollar, and the collapse of the housing market, and therefore their financial needs are currently much higher.

Moreover, unemployment rates are currently high and climbing (Pepitone, 2009; PBS, 2008), as job losses continue to accrue and many employees fear for their jobs and have a greater psychological need for financial security. Finally, many companies are freezing salaries and even benefits during these tough economic times and in some cases salaries and benefits are even being reduced. It is reasonable to conclude that on average, the need for affected employees to engage in on-the-job deviance is going to increase. An argument can also be made that the opportunity to engage in unethical workplace behaviours increases during an economic downturn. Many companies are forced to make the unfortunate decision to cut back on loss control and security services. The loss of these prevention and deterrence programs makes it easier for employees to steal or engage in on-the-job dishonesty. Moreover, many companies are also forced to cut back on supervisory positions resulting in less oversight to ensure that employees only engage in honest, reliable, and dependable behaviours at all times.

It is also likely that when massive store, plant, or business shutdowns and layoffs occur, apathy and or distraction sets in during such closings and therefore co-workers might become “blind” to their co-workers’ unethical actions. It seems obvious that there are increased opportunities to engage in employee deviance during economic downturns. Employees’ attitudes can also be adversely impacted during tough economic times. For instance, if an organisation cuts back on pre employment screening procedures that are aimed at ensuring the hiring of ethical and honest employees, then significantly more high-risk employees would be allowed into the organisation. If an employer freezes and, or cuts back on pay adjustments, then employees might be more likely to rationalize and tolerate acts of fraud, theft, and related counterproductivity in an attempt to cognitively balance their employer’s cost-cutting needs with their own financial needs. Employees could also become angry and frustrated with required layoffs and the expectation that the “survivors” need to work harder, and such feelings of anger could trigger acting out in the form of counterproductive and deviant workplace behaviours. Employees’ attitudes could also be skewed toward more unethical thinking through a psychological phenomenon known as modelling. If more dishonest employees are allowed into the organisation due to lower screening standards, and if more employees in general are stealing due to a greater tendency to rationalize theft and/or act out their anger during an economic downturn, then even the relatively honest employees will become more uninhibited toward stealing when they constantly observe a higher frequency of employee deviance.

This type of phenomenon, if not checked through strong loss control communications and programming, could lead to a contagion effect. It is logical to conclude that downturns in the economy, especially when followed by a reduction of loss control programs, can adversely impact employees’ attitudes toward theft, dishonesty and other unethical behaviours in a material way.

### The Stress Facilitation Theory

The Stress Facilitation Theory posits that when more dishonest employees experience heightened job stress, their feelings of distress facilitate a multiplicative theft response (Jones,

2004). Researchers have consistently documented that employees who endorse dishonest attitudes toward theft are reliably more likely to steal at work than job candidates and employees who endorse intolerant and punitive attitudes toward theft. Moreover, distressed workers are more likely to engage in on-the-job counterproductivity than less stressed employees. Yet based on the Stress Facilitation Theory, employees with favourable attitudes toward theft who are also experiencing debilitating stress will steal significantly more cash, merchandise, and property from their employers than both

(a) non-distressed employees with equally favourable attitudes toward theft, and

(b) both distressed and non-distressed employees with intolerant and punitive attitudes toward theft.

In fact, in one study conducted by the author that focused on the percentage of employees who engaged in “serious workplace theft” (i.e., routinely stealing \$10 or more from one’s employer every 3 months), the following results were obtained that confirmed the theory (Jones, 2004):

Low Stress/Low Dishonesty Group

(0% engaged in serious theft)

High Stress/Low Dishonesty Group

(6% engaged in serious theft)

Low Stress/High Dishonesty Group

(12% engaged in serious theft)

High Stress/High Dishonesty Group

(39% engaged in serious theft)

This study supported the notion that heightened levels of stress served as a source of arousal that activated the dominant theft responses in the dishonest group. That is, workers who were cognitively predisposed to steal actually stole considerably more when they were distressed compared to control groups who were calm and unstressed at work. Conversely, heightened levels of job stress apparently did not serve to appreciably “ignite” and “fuel” theft behaviour in

workers with unfavourable attitudes toward theft. This theory finds support in Nigeria as the nation itself reinforces those that steal from their employers who were not caught, mostly the civil servants who snatch the nation's income and store them away in foreign banks, they are given national honours by the federal government, e.g. OFR, (Officer of the Federal Republic) MON, (Member Order of the Niger). The church organisation rewards him by either awarding a Knighthood, or simply make him a Deacon, other organized private sectors award Excellence of the year, and the Royal Fathers award the subject a chieftaincy title, thus encouraging stealing in various forms as every man desires a self esteem. These results have clear-cut implications for feelings of distress associated with an economic downturn. While some rise in unethical employee behaviour is to be expected as a function of this type of heightened financial stress, the impact will be more pronounced with dishonest employees than with honest employees. Therefore, organisations that screened their workforces with pre-employment ethics and integrity tests should be more immune from the impact of the stress caused by a tough economy compared to companies that did not screen their employees for integrity and ethics attitudes. In fact, based on the Stress Facilitation Theory, the latter companies might need to brace up for significantly higher rates of crime and counterproductivity among a larger base of workers who tolerate on-the-job theft and deviance.

### **Predictors of CWB**

In the Nigerian environment, predictors of counterproductive work behaviour include stress, job dissatisfaction and injustice among others. Increasingly, organisational justice or fairness perceptions have been shown to influence the display of counterproductive work behaviours. Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice have all been shown to include both counterproductive work behaviours aimed at individuals, such as political deviance and personal aggression; and counterproductive work behaviours aimed at the organisation, such as production slowdown and property deviance.

Overall perceptions of unfairness may particularly elicit interpersonal counterproductive work behaviours such as political deviance and personal aggressions. Interpersonal justice and informational justice may also predict counterproductive work behaviours aimed at the

supervisor, such as neglecting to follow supervisory instructions, acting rudely toward one's supervisor, spreading unconfirmed rumors about a supervisor, intentionally doing something to get one's supervisor in trouble, and encouraging coworkers to get back at one's supervisor. Although several factors predict counterproductive work behaviour, this study, however, focussed mainly on psychological and sociological factors.

In their analysis of predictors or causes of counterproductive work behaviour, Bennett & Robinson (2003) highlighted three trends namely: Those dealing with deviance as a reaction to the employee experiences. Here are considered the reaction to frustration, lack of autonomy, organisational injustice, the organisational constraints and emotions experienced at work, perceptions of work situations. Counterproductive behaviour as a response to frustration received strong empirical support, sustaining the view that employee deviance is an emotional reaction to the experience of job-related frustration stressors (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001), the frustration being interpreted as interference with the goals of the person or that occurred in the ongoing activity of a person. Bennett & Robinson (2000) also found a strong relationship between frustration and interpersonal counterproductive behaviours.

Some researchers consider that the lack of employees autonomy and participation have an important role in the manifestation of counterproductive work behaviour. It could constitute a way for letting down or correction for restoring employee's sense of control over work environment. Analoui & Kakabadse (1992) have highlighted the possibility that one of the reasons why employees engage in unconventional practices is the desire to have more autonomy in the workplace. Dwyer & Fox (2000) provided evidence, although indirectly, for possible effects of autonomy at work. In this regard, an exaggerated monitoring of the manner of achieving professional tasks and not taking into account an employee's ideas and proposals can favour the tasks assigned sabotage activities or disregard the autonomy of peers or subordinates. Fox et al. (2001) showed that autonomy at work has a significant negative correlation with organisational counterproductive behaviour, but not with interpersonal counterproductive behaviour. However, high autonomy employees tend to engage in increased counterproductive behaviours when they perceive a high level of stress at the work place.

A second trend is those addressing deviance as a reflection of employees psychological characteristics. In this context analysis was made in the dimensions of personality on the Big Five model, negative affectivity, and other types of emotions, locus of control, Machiavellianism, narcissism, age and gender. Lee, Ashton, & Shin (2005) found that certain personality factors predict various types of workplace deviance. Deviance oriented on organisation is thus associated with low conscientiousness and interpersonal deviance is associated with low levels of extraversion and agreeableness. Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick (2004) showed that personality factors, as conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness moderate the relationship between perceived work situation and counterproductive behaviours. Relationship between perceptions of environment development and organisational deviance was stronger for employees with low conscientiousness and emotional stability, and that between perceived organisational support and interpersonal deviance was stronger for those with low agreeableness. Salgado's (2002) meta-analysis demonstrated that factors such as conscientiousness predict deviant behaviours such as theft and drug abuse. He also showed that this factor is the most important predictor and that employees who have high scores on conscientiousness and agreeableness factors tend not to manifest counterproductive behaviours.

Vardi & Wiener (1996) examined the low level of individuals' moral development and value incongruity between individual and organisation. Also Gallperin (2002) showed that people with a strong ethical orientation are less likely to engage in either of the two forms of deviance. Other authors mentioned the predictive nature of the level of individual integrity and certain personality inventory scales of the CPI (Hakistan, Farrell & Tweed, 2002). Individuals who have tolerance towards such counterproductive behaviours have a greater willingness to show such behaviour at work.

Gallperin (2002), who showed that Machiavellianism (a person's tendency to perceive and treat people as objects that can be manipulated to achieve a particular purpose) is positive, correlated with destructive organisational deviance and interpersonal deviance. Bennett & Robinson (2000) also found that scores on the Machiavellianism scale correlates with the organisational and interpersonal deviance.

Mikulay, Neuman & Finkelstein (2001) mentioned several personal factors which may be predictors of counterproductive behaviour, such as employees that have not yet developed loyalty to the organisation where they work. It is also considered relevant the specific nature of jobs that certain persons have, involving a lower status or a salary.

Douglas & Martinko (2001) showed that trait anger, attributional style, negative affectivity and other factors of personality are a big part of the aggression variance in workplace. O'Brien (2004) showed that workplace perceived support is negative related to counterproductive behaviours and internal locus of control is negative correlated with these behaviours. Storms & Spector (1987) showed that people with an external locus of control are more likely to react to frustration with counterproductive behaviours.

Trait anger correlates consistently with counterproductive behaviour (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Fox & Spector, 1999; Penney & Spector, 2002). Fox & Spector (1999) showed that a temperament structure that include anger is more strongly linked to interpersonal counterproductive behaviour, and anger as response is related to the organisational counterproductive behaviour. Herschovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, LeBlanc, Sivanathan (2007) in their meta-analysis showed that trait anger and interpersonal conflict were the strongest predictors of interpersonal aggression. For the organisational aggression, the most powerful predictors were: interpersonal conflict, situational constraints and work dissatisfaction.

Penney & Spector (2002) found in their study that individuals with high levels of narcissism get angry more often and tend to express themselves through counterproductive behaviours, especially when they perceive constraints in their work environment. An important observation made by Megargee (1997, quoted by Ones & Viswesvaran, 2003) is that people avoid manifesting behaviours with an increased probability of negative consequences or of those that are not leading to achievements. Liao, Joshi & Chuang (in 2004) reported that organisational commitment is negatively correlated with counterproductive behaviours.

Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, (1999) showed that there is a direct relationship between negative affectivity and counterproductive behaviours; negative affectivity was positively correlated with both interpersonal and organisational deviance. Negative affectivity is an

important personality variable that describes the degree to which an individual manifests (in terms of frequency and intensity) levels of disturbing emotions such as anger, hostility, fear or anxiety (Watson & Clark, 1984). Lee & Allen (2002) argued that job affects (work-related emotions) may be predictors for interpersonal deviance and job cognitions (work-related cognitions) predict organisational deviance.

A third trend is those who consider deviance as adjustment to social context. Even if, by definition, organisational deviance may involve violation of significant organisational rules, it could be that the pressures of local work groups, the rules and regulations supporting deviance must be essential for it to occur. In this regard, investigations have revealed that a primary predictor of antisocial behaviour at work is the degree to which an employee's colleagues are engaged in similar behaviours (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

Situational factors emphasize the nature of individual and organisational circumstances that would increase the probability of counterproductive behaviour development. Varda & Wiener (1996) took into account the specific nature of the job opportunity, too loose system of monitoring and control of job activity and unrealistic or too demanding for employees' organisational goals.

## **Personality**

Personality is the totality of an individual's interests, attitudes, behavioural patterns, emotional responses, social roles and other traits that endure over a long period of time. It is a predictor of an employee's proclivity toward counterproductive work behaviours. With regard to the Big Five, conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, and openness to experience all predict counterproductive behaviours. When an employee is low in conscientiousness, counterproductive work behaviours related to the organisation are more likely to occur. Employees who are low in agreeableness will exhibit counterproductive work behaviours related to interpersonal deviant behaviours. Furthermore, in terms of greater specificity, for employees low in conscientiousness, sabotage and withdrawal are more likely to occur. For employees low in extraversion, theft is likely to occur. Finally, for employees high in openness to experience, production deviance is likely to occur.



If one must curb growing concerns about counterproductive behaviours in the workplace a fuller grasp of workers' personality is necessary. This is because understanding personality is vital to understanding behaviour. Personality, according to Stephens (1989), is the sum total of an individual's way of behaving, reacting and interacting with people and his environment. It is the totality of somebody's attitudes, interests, behavioural patterns, emotional responses, social roles, and other individual traits that endure over long periods of time.

Individuals are dissimilar in outward appearances and sensory capabilities. These dissimilarities are also noticeable in psychological traits including intelligence, aptitudes, likes, dislikes and other personal characteristics like integrity, endurance trustworthiness, introversion, extroversion, aggressiveness, personableness and so forth. Research now suggests, more than ever before, that an understanding of the various physical and psychological characteristics of an individual, as well as their liabilities, usually helps in assigning the right type of official role to them and also get them to experience job satisfaction.

### **Personality Traits**

The Big Five personality traits are five broad domains or dimensions of personality that are used to describe human personality. The theory based on the Big Five factors is called the Five Factor Model (FFM). The Big Five factors are: Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism. The factors of the Big Five and their constituent traits can be summarised as:

- **Openness to experience** – (inventive/curious vs. consistent/cautious). Appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, curiosity, and variety of experience. Openness reflects the degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity and a preference for novelty and variety. Some disagreement remains about how to interpret the openness factor, which is sometimes called "intellect" rather than openness to experience.
- **Conscientiousness** – (efficient/organized vs. easy-going/careless). A tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement; planned rather than spontaneous behaviour; organized, and dependable.

- **Extroversion** – (outgoing/energetic vs. solitary/reserved). Energy, positive emotions, surgency, assertiveness, sociability and the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others, and talkativeness.
- **Agreeableness** – (friendly/compassionate vs. cold/unkind). A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others.
- **Neuroticism** – (sensitive/nervous vs. secure/confident). The tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as anger, anxiety, depression, or vulnerability. Neuroticism also refers to the degree of emotional stability and impulse control, and is sometimes referred by its low pole – "emotional stability".

The Big Five model is a comprehensive, empirical, data-driven research finding. Identifying the traits and structure of human personality has been one of the most fundamental goals in all of psychology. The five broad factors were discovered and defined by several independent sets of researchers. These researchers began by studying known personality traits and then factor-analyzing hundreds of measures of these traits (in self-report and questionnaire data, peer ratings, and objective measures from experimental settings) in order to find the underlying factors of personality.

The initial model was advanced by Ernest Tupes and Raymond Christal in 1961, but failed to reach an academic audience until the 1980s. Digman (1990) advanced his five factor model of personality, which Goldberg extended to the highest level of organisation. These five overarching domains have been found to contain and subsume most known personality traits and are assumed to represent the basic structure behind all personality traits. These five factors provide a rich conceptual framework for integrating all the research findings and theory in personality psychology. The Big Five traits are also referred to as the "Five Factor Model" or FFM, and as the Global Factors of personality.

At least four sets of researchers have worked independently for decades on this problem and have identified generally the same Big Five factors: Tupes and Cristal were first, followed by Goldberg at the Oregon Research Institute, Cattell at the University of Illinois, and Costa and McCrae at the National Institutes of Health. These four sets of researchers used somewhat

different methods in finding the five traits, and thus each set of five factors has somewhat different names and definitions. However, all have been found to be highly inter-correlated and factor-analytically aligned.

Because the Big Five traits are broad and comprehensive, they are not nearly as powerful in predicting and explaining actual behaviour as are the more numerous lower-level traits. Many studies have confirmed that in predicting actual behaviour the more numerous facet or primary level traits are far more effective (e.g. Mershon & Gorsuch, 1988; Paunonon & Ashton, 2001).

### **Relevant Personality Theories**

The main personality theories are those of Cloninger (1987), Eysenck (1987), Costa & McCrae (1990) and Watson et al (1994); and the circumflex models of Wiggins (1979) and Kiesler (1982), the latter being a circular arrangement of interpersonal dispositions around the orthogonal dimensions of dominance (submission) and nurturance (hostility). Broadly, the first four models encompass three main dimensions: neuroticism, extra-version and one (or more, depending on the specific theory) other dimension that is less well-defined. Neuroticism, or negative emotionality, represents a tendency to see the world as threatening; extraversion, or positive emotionality, is a tendency to engage and confront the world. The Neuroticism, Extraversion and Other — Five-Factor Inventory (NEO—FFI) is currently the most generally accepted dimensional model of personality and includes the following five factors: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1990).

### **Social Exchange Theory:**

This theory is a social psychological and sociological perspective that explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties, and it is the theory upon which the current study is anchored. Social Exchange Theory posits that all human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. The theory has roots in economics, psychology and sociology. Social Exchange Theory features many of the main assumptions found in rational choice theory and structuralism. The Social Exchange Theory explains social exchange and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties. Social Exchange Theory explores the nature of exchanges between

parties. As with everything dealing with the Social Exchange Theory it has its outcome satisfaction and dependence of relationships. Both parties in a social exchange take responsibility for one another and depend on each other. Stafford (2008), opined that economic exchanges and social exchanges have some differences: Social exchanges involve a connection with another person; social exchanges involve trust, not legal obligations; social exchanges are more flexible; and social exchanges rarely involve explicit bargaining.

"The guiding force of interpersonal relationships is the advancement of both parties' self-interest", Roloff (1981): Interpersonal exchanges are thought to be analogous to economic exchanges where people are satisfied when they receive a fair return for their expenditures. Fulfilling self-interest is often common within the economic realm of the Social Exchange Theory where competition and greed can be common.

At the core of the Social Exchange Theory is the outcome derived of subtracting the costs from the rewards. Rewards can be material (economic) or symbolic (attention, advice or status) and typically bring satisfaction to the individual. For example in a relationship, a boyfriend or girlfriend could provide their significant other with security and trust which could be considered rewards within the relationship. Diminished Marginal Utility can occur within an exchange if the reward in question has been received repeatedly, the other party will lose interest in the reward. Costs can be viewed as punishments or discomfort such as physical or emotional pain. In a relationship, if conflict arises often, it could be viewed as a cost. Since individuals have different values, costs and rewards can vary depending on the individual's values and beliefs.

Freudian Psychoanalytical Theory:

The proponent of this theory is Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), an Austrian physician and neurologist, who created an entirely new approach to the understanding of human personality. His theory explains the existence in unconscious minds of the individual certain drives which he referred to as id, ego and superego. According to Freud, these drives or existence makes individuals to do either good or bad and their actions or deeds depends on which one of the drives is in control at any given point. For instance, the id drive comprises primitive, pleasure-going drives. When this drive is in control in people's minds, they tend to act according to the

dictates of their instincts, whether positive or negative. The id, therefore, could pre-dispose a person to behave in a way that could be counterproductive to the goals of an organisation. The ego moderates things based on the realities of the environment and gives a sense of control and restraints to people's actions. The superego considers the values and moral soundness of the individual's actions and preaches goodness, ethics and conscience.

Trait Theory:

The trait theory explains that certain qualities, traits and predispositions would help determine people's personalities. Certain traits which people possess can help understand their persons and personalities. For instance, a wrestler should be skilful, muscular and very strong. The traits we possess go to make and influence the kind of person we are ultimately.

Using person-based approaches, researchers seek to identify which attitudes and personality traits might predispose an individual to commit a counterproductive behaviour (Greenberg & Barling, 1996). Some researchers have focused on sociological variables to explain such behaviour. For example, Hollinger & Clark (1983) suggested that new, younger, and part-time workers might be most likely to engage in counterproductive behaviours. Although Hollinger & Clark identified higher levels of counterproductive behaviour among members of these groups, the causes of these behaviours have remained unclear.

Counterproductive behaviour might be due to the attitudes held by these groups. For example, new workers might not have developed a loyalty to the organisation they work for, and younger workers might have attitudes that are not opposed to counterproductive behaviour (Murphy, 1993). Alternatively, counterproductive behaviour might be a function of the specific jobs commonly held by people in these groups. New, younger, and part-time workers are commonly hired for low-status and low-paying positions that may be conducive to counterproductive behaviours. In addition to the inability of a demographic approach to offer a clear theoretical explanation of why certain groups are more likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour (Murphy, 1993), the demographic approach is limited in its usefulness in predicting and controlling these behaviours.

As a result of this limitation of group-membership explanations, research on the impact of person-based factors has been directed toward identifying and developing a construct that focuses on employee predisposition toward such behaviour (Ash, 1991). Thus, research has centered on employee integrity as a predictor (U.S. Congress, Office of Technology Assessment, 1990). Measures of integrity have been used to identify those displaying attitudes or exhibiting personality traits that are favorable or have been empirically related to counterproductive behaviours (O'Bannon, Goldinger, & Appleby, 1989; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). Individuals who have tolerant attitudes toward counterproductive behaviours are more likely to commit these behaviours in the workplace (Moretti, 1986).

Integrity-based approaches have been criticized for the measures they use. Integrity tests have been the target of a range of criticisms about their validation, the privacy issues they raise, and the applicant reactions they prompt, their adverse impact, and the base rates of behaviours they use for validation (Camara & Schneider, 1994, 1995; Lilienfeld, Alliger, & Mitchell, 1995). Researchers have begun to address these criticisms, however, and though integrity testing still has its detractors, there is increasing support for using integrity-based approaches to understanding counter-productivity (Mikulay & Goffin, 1998a; Ones et al., 1993; Wimbush & Dalton, 1997).

As research support increases, the relative contribution of the integrity-based approach has become clearer. Ones et al. (1993) performed a meta-analysis in which they found a mean correlation between integrity tests and counterproductive behaviours of .47, which shows that as much as 75% of the variability in counterproductive behaviour might be owing to factors other than personal integrity.

Organisations view job dissatisfaction seriously because it affects the psyche of employees, which in turn affects their productivity. Job dissatisfaction is undesirable, and most individuals are conditioned, probably even biologically-driven, to respond to unpleasant conditions by searching for mechanisms to reduce the dissatisfaction. This drive towards adaptation is as natural and inevitable in workplaces as it is in any other environment. But for better or worse, it has gathered particular attention among organisational researchers because

employees' adaptive mechanisms may operate in such a way as to affect organisationally-relevant outcomes, ranging from changes in job performance to such withdrawal behaviours as absence or turnover. Thus it is not surprising that a rich literature concerning job satisfaction and dissatisfaction exists in the Organisational Behaviour domain.

What is less prevalent in this domain is agreement about the strength of the relationship between individual and organisational outcomes and job (dis)satisfaction and related states. Empirical associations between job satisfaction and various behavioural outcomes have been inconsistent and generally modest in size (Blau, 1998). More seriously—and perhaps at the root of the problem—the processes underlying the associations have remained a black box for the most part. Rosse and his colleagues (Miller & Rosse, 2002a; Rosse & Noel, 1996), among others, have suggested that one potential avenue for improving our understanding of this adaptive process among employees is to explore personological factors that may help explain why different employees respond differently to similar sources and levels of dissatisfaction. The primary purpose of this study is to begin systematically exploring this possibility.

### **Personality Components**

Gbadamosi (1996), categorised personality components into four, namely:

#### **1. The way people affect others.**

This is the totality of individuals' outward appearance when they interact with others. This is the domain where the first impression others form about an individual may be binding.

#### **2. The way people understand and view themselves.**

This will involve the kind of perception people have about themselves viz-a-viz the world they live in. whereas certain individuals are focused and can predict the outcome of their actions, others see life as a maze where confusion is the order of the day.

#### **3. People's inner and outer measurable characteristics.**

The individual characteristic, which is the quality that distinguishes him from another or inherited characteristic, a quality that is genetically determined will always define people's personalities.

#### 4. **The person-situation interaction.**

Individuals respond to situations differently and this reflects in their personality. The reaction of individuals to different situations will either enhance or reduce their personality and show others who they really are.

### **Impulsiveness Theory**

#### Ego (cognitive) depletion

Impulsiveness is a person's tendency to act on sudden urges or desires before thinking about the consequence of the action. Since impulsiveness relates to acting on urges or desires, it has been linked to the ego and according to the ego (or cognitive) depletion theory of impulsivity, self-control refers to the capacity for altering one's own responses, especially to bring them into line with standards such as ideals, values, morals, and social expectations, and to support the pursuit of long-term goals. Self-control enables a person to restrain or override one response, thereby making a different response possible. A major tenet of the theory is that engaging in acts of self-control draws from a limited "reservoir" of self-control that, when depleted, results in reduced capacity for further self-regulation. Self-control is viewed as analogous to a muscle: Just as a muscle requires strength and energy to exert force over a period of time, acts that have high self-control demands also require strength and energy to perform. Similarly, as muscles become fatigued after a period of sustained exertion and have reduced capacity to exert further force, self-control can also become depleted when demands are made of self-control resources over a period of time. Baumeister and colleagues termed the state of diminished self-control strength ego depletion (or cognitive depletion).

Another impulsiveness theory is the Dual process theory which states that mental processes operate in two separate classes: automatic and controlled. In general, automatic processes are those that are experiential in nature, occur without involving higher levels of



cognition, and are based on prior experiences or informal heuristics. Controlled decisions are effortful and largely conscious processes in which an individual weighs alternatives and makes a more deliberate decision.

### **Locus of Control Theory**

Locus of control is a theory in personality psychology referring to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them. Understanding of the concept was developed by Julian B. Rotter in 1954, and has since become an aspect of personality studies. A person's "locus" (Latin for "place" or "location") is conceptualised as either internal (the person believes they can control their life) or external (meaning they believe that their decisions and life are controlled by environmental factors which they cannot influence).

Individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that events in their life derive primarily from their own actions; for example, if a person with an internal locus of control does not perform as well as they wanted to on a test, they would blame it on lack of preparedness on their part. If they performed well on a test, they would attribute this to ability to study. In the test-performance example, if a person with a high external locus of control does poorly on a test, they might attribute this to the difficulty of the test questions. If they performed well on a test, they might think the teacher was lenient or that they were lucky.

Locus of control has generated much research in a variety of areas in psychology. The construct is applicable to fields such as educational psychology, health psychology or clinical psychology. There will probably continue to be debate about whether specific or more global measures of locus of control will prove to be more useful. Careful distinctions should also be made between locus of control (a concept linked with expectancies about the future) and attributional style (a concept linked with explanations for past outcomes), or between locus of control and concepts such as self-efficacy. The importance of locus of control as a topic in psychology is likely to remain quite central for many years.

Locus of control has also been included as one of four dimensions of core self-evaluations – one's fundamental appraisal of oneself – along with neuroticism, self-efficacy, and

self-esteem. In a follow up study, Judge et al. (2002) argued the concepts of locus of control, neuroticism, self-efficacy and self-esteem measured the same, single factor. The concept of core self-evaluations was first examined by Judge, Locke, & Durham (1997), and since has proven to have the ability to predict several work outcomes, specifically, job satisfaction and job performance.

### **Neuroticism Theory**

Neuroticism is the tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, or depression. It is sometimes called emotional instability, or is reversed and referred to as emotional stability. According to Eysenck's (1967) theory of personality, neuroticism is interlinked with low tolerance for stress or aversive stimuli. Those who score high in neuroticism are emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress. They are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. Their negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time, which means they are often in a bad mood. These problems in emotional regulation can diminish the ability of a person scoring high on neuroticism to think clearly, make decisions, and cope effectively with stress. Lacking contentment in one's life achievements can correlate to high Neuroticism scores and increase a person's likelihood of falling into clinical depression.

At the other end of the scale, individuals who score low in neuroticism are less easily upset and are less emotionally reactive. They tend to be calm, emotionally stable, and free from persistent negative feelings. Freedom from negative feelings does not mean that low scorers experience a lot of positive feelings.

Emotional stability refers to a person's ability to remain stable and balanced. At the other end of the scale, a person who is high in neuroticism has a tendency to easily experience negative emotions. Neuroticism is similar but not identical to being neurotic in the Freudian sense. Some psychologists prefer to call neuroticism by the term emotional stability to differentiate it from the term neurotic in a career test.

## **Empirical Review**

### **Sociological Variables and CWB**

This section examines certain sociological variables which may lead to or encourage Counterproductive Work Behaviours (CWB) among non-academic University staff in South-West Nigeria. Demographic variables pertain to demography which is the study of human population statistics, changes, and trends including personal characteristics of humans like age, sex, marital status, education and income, and these play a decisive role in counterproductive work behaviours. Because there are many factors that can lead to Counterproductive Work Behaviours (CWB) among non-academic University staff, it is hard to study CWB patterns empirically, but recently, improved research strategies and information sources have made such studies better.

Socioeconomic characteristics can be encouraging factors for non-academic University staff to engage in Counterproductive Work Behaviours (CWB). Sociological factors that have been known to lead to or increase the likelihood of CWBs among non-academic staff within the South-West Nigerian University system are education, age, gender, marital status and income. Some factors are interrelated or can lead to other factors which may cause more CWBs. It is pertinent to note, however, that although there have been research work carried out on some of these demographic factors, especially in the United States of America and other parts of the Western world, literature on this study in Nigeria is very scarce, hence the need for the present study.

### **Education and CWB**

Education here is meant schooling, legitimate training, and other indicators of human capital held by non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria through the certificates acquired on the one hand and training undergone, on the other. Adekola (2006) observed that lower levels of education which are often caused by poverty may contribute to CWBs among non-academic staff in the Nigerian university. With less amounts of education people are not informed as to how the university system truly works or what rights they have under the

governing policies. It is easier for corrupt office-holders to conceal corrupt activities from a poorly educated public. Non-academic staff are less likely to be aware of CWBs within the university system or how to stop it, and therefore, CWB is able to remain and spread. When non-academic university office holders are less educated, they will be less likely to find legitimate ways to make the university well-structured, productive, and successful (Ukertor 2011).

Ehrlich and Becker (1972) reasoned that "education" can be regarded as an efficiency parameter in the production of legitimate as well as illegitimate market and nonmarket returns. In addition, education may increase an offender's productivity at self-protection against apprehension and punishment for counterproductive acts, as well as against various legitimate occupational hazards. Since education generally enhances the pecuniary part of both legitimate and illegitimate "wages," the pecuniary opportunity cost of punishment and other losses, and may reduce the probability of many hazards, its overall effect on participation in deviant acts cannot be determined a priori and would depend on the extent of its relative effect on the productivities of inputs used to produce legitimate and illegitimate returns and to reduce the relevant risks. Ehrlich (1970) argued that, given the probability of apprehension and punishment and the length of time served in prison, inmates with a lower level of schooling and training, i.e., those with potential legal income well below the average, would have a relatively large wage differential in crimes against property and a relatively low opportunity cost of imprisonment and thus a relatively strong incentive to "enter" crimes against property. They would also tend to spend more time at, or to "specialize" in, illegitimate activities relative to other offenders. In contrast, those with higher education - in particular, those with specific legitimate training - would have less incentive to participate in such crimes.

A lower level of education that generally results in lower legitimate earnings may also be related positively to index crimes against the person (murder, rape, and assault), although the relation here is less clear than in the case of crimes against property. On the one hand, a lower opportunity cost of time reduces the cost of engaging in time-intensive activities, and these crimes may well fit into this category because of the prospect of harder punishment like long imprisonment terms associated with them. On the other hand, little can be said about the interaction between education and malevolence or other interpersonal frictions leading to crimes

against the person. Empirical evidence shows that crimes against the person prevail among groups known to exercise close and frequent social contact (Ehrlich, 1970). Those in school would have less incentive to participate in crime relative to those not enrolled since many of them specialize voluntarily in acquiring education and therefore would view their opportunity cost of time not in terms of their potential current earnings but in relation to the expected future returns on their investment in human capital. In addition, effective school attendance (enrollment net of truancy) poses a constraint on students' participation in deviant acts because it leaves them with less time for the pursuit of all market activities - legitimate as well as illegitimate. From the above literature review, it is apparent that very little appears to have been done in Nigeria on the relationship between education and CWB.

#### Age and CWB

Peterson (2002) found that some forms of counterproductive behaviour like absenteeism, lateness to work, truancy, lack of commitment, etc, are related to employees who are young, new in the organisation and who work part time and have low paid jobs. Lau, Au & Ho (2003), in their meta-analysis showed that older people were generally less involved in counterproductive behaviours than the younger folks. This is because younger workers might have attitudes that are not opposed to counterproductive behaviour (Murphy, 1993). Alternatively, counterproductive behaviour might be a function of the specific jobs commonly held by people in these groups. New, younger, and part-time workers are commonly hired for low-status and low-paying positions that may be conducive to counterproductive behaviours. More empirical evidence indicates that older employees tend to be more honest than younger employees (Lewicki et al., 1997). Further, older workers are less likely to steal (Hollinger and Clark, 1983), engage in production deviance (Hollinger, 1986), or commit altruistic property deviance (give away company property at no charge or at a substantial discount; Hollinger et al., 1992).

Studying the influence of demography on CWB, researchers identified age as a variable that may extend current understanding of shrinkage, as there is evidence that it relates negatively to shrinkage at both the individual (Cleveland & Lim, 2007; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Lau, Au, & Ho, 2003; Marcus & Schuler, 2004) and societal levels (i.e., shrinkage rates are decreasing as

the mean age of employees in the U.S. workforce increases; Hollinger & Adams, 2007; U.S. General Accounting Office, 2001). It is questionable, however, whether the results at these levels of analysis generalize to the retail store level, which holds critical importance for organisational efforts to reduce shrinkage. Making such an inferential leap in the absence of supporting theory and empirical evidence is likely to result in an ecological or atomistic fallacy (Klein & Koslowski, 2000). Moreover, recent scholarship (e.g., Bamberger, 2007; Johns, 2006) has harkened organisational researchers to consider the role of context in theory development. Work to date on shrinkage has been conceptualized primarily from an individual-level perspective (e.g., Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Román & Munuera, 2005) with little to no attention to the role of situational variables. Davis-Blake & Pfeffer (1989), however, discussed how organisational context might impose constraints upon individual discretion and subsequent behaviours, suggesting present theories on shrinkage may be underspecified. Therefore, unanswered questions remain as to the role of store-level characteristics in precipitating, or curbing, shrinkage as well as how and why such effects might occur.

Allemand, Zimprich, & Hendriks, 2008; McCrae et al., 1999; Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006), observe that older individuals are higher in conscientiousness and emotional stability and are more prone to behave ethically (Beverly, Chatterjee, & Lindquist, 2002; Borkowski & Ugras, 1998; Dawson, 1997; Dubinsky, Jolson, Michaels, Kotabe, & Lim, 1992; Lovinsky, Treviño, & Jacobs, 2007; Peterson, Rhoads, & Vaught, 2001; Román & Munuera, 2005) than younger individuals. Ajzen (1991) described norms as perceived expectations to engage in or not engage in a particular behaviour. Essentially, what employees do or do not do with respect to theft and theft prevention should be influenced by the attitudes and behaviours of their co-workers through the formation and enforcement of behavioural norms within the store. Prior theory and evidence indicate that such norms may operate at the retail store level (e.g., Nicholson & Johns, 1985; Salamon & Robinson, 2008), and possibly influence the propensity to engage in CWBs which are theft-related, thereby affecting shrinkage levels across the store. What is evident from the empirical literature review above is a paucity of research on the relationship between age and CWB in Nigeria.

## Gender and CWB

Research shows that women are more trustworthy than men and are less likely to be corrupt. Males tend to engage more in aggressive behaviour at work (Baron et al., 1999), absenteeism (Johns, 1997), theft (Hollinger & Clark, 1983), substance abuse (Hollinger, 1988), and vandalism (DeMore et al., 1988). Herschovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, LeBlanc & Sivanathan (2007) found that men are more aggressive and tend to exhibit counterproductive work behaviour than women. Women are less likely to agree with Counterproductive Work behaviours like bribery or taking bribes. Having fewer women as office holders in the university is another factor that may encourage CWBs.

Applebaum, Shapiro & Molson (2006), in their research, obtained results that showed that men tend to engage in more aggressive behaviours than women, for employees with less seniority are more likely to exhibit deviant behaviours related to organisations' resources. Institutions that do not have policies to narrow gender gaps and give women equal rights in higher office holding, more commonly, have less integrity and more CWBs tendency in them. From the above literature review, research on the relationship between gender and CWB seems to have been restricted to the western hemisphere.

## Marital Status and CWB

Marital status was related to the level of satisfaction which people experience at their work place as indicated by Bowen, Radhakrishna & Keyser (1994). These researchers found in a study that married 4-H agents were more satisfied with their jobs, a factor that reduces the incidence of deviant behaviours in them, than those who were single. Fetsch and Kennington (1997) also found a relationship between marital status and job satisfaction levels. They found both divorced and married agents to be more satisfied with their jobs and are less prone to CWBs at the workplace, than agents who were never married, remarried, or widowed. The literature review above underscores the dire need for research on the relationship between marital status and CWB in Nigeria.

## Income and CWB

Ehrlich (1970) opined that persons engaged in counterproductive behaviours especially those affecting property would tend to enter criminal activity at a relatively young age, because legitimate earnings opportunities available to young age groups may generally fall short of their potential illegitimate payoffs. Moreover, since entry of the very young into the legitimate labour force is restricted by child labour laws, compulsory schooling, and federal minimum wage provisions, their entry into criminal activity may frequently precede entry into legitimate activity. Chiswick, 1967 & Mincer, 1969 report a positive and statistically significant association between the extent of income inequality, measured as the relative density of the lower tail of the family-income distribution, and the rate of all specific crimes against property across states in three census years in the United States. There also exists some evidence of a positive association between inequality in earnings and the dispersion in schooling across regions in the United States (Chiswick, 1967), as well as a growing body of empirical evidence confirming the importance of education and on-the-job training in determining the distribution of labour and personal income (Mincer, 1969). Fleisher (1966), also reported a positive association between aggregate arrest rates and the difference between the incomes of the highest and second-to-lowest quartiles, of families, based on a regression analysis using intercity and intra-city data.

Studies show positive relationships between corporate social responsibility and financial performance (Beurden & Gossling, 2008; Cochran & Wood, 1984; Shen & Chang, 2009). Corporate social responsibility advocates the interests of all stakeholders, including employees, consumers, the community, and the environment (Shen & Chang, 2009). The adherence to the classical view tends to overlook the importance of employees as stakeholders in the firm. Employees are often seen as dispensable and replaceable. In recent years, however, an emphasis has been placed on valuing human resources as a core competence that could lead to a source of sustained competitive advantage (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Lado & Wilson, 1994; Wright et al., 2001). Because human resources are a valuable component of an organisation, it is important to understand issues that may influence employee attitudes, such as morale and justice perceptions, as well as behaviours, such as organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive workplace behaviours.



Even Friedman (1962, 1970) makes it clear that the purpose of the firm is to maximise shareholder wealth "without deception or fraud." It is this deception and fraud that leads to feelings of trust violations. Bies & Tripp (1996) suggest trust violations or "unmet expectations concerning another's behaviour, or when that person does not act consistent with one's values," result in a damaged sense of civic order. Actions violating trust between employees and top executives of the organisation may result in a range of counterproductive behaviours. During times of uncertainty, sense-making behaviour becomes a way of predicting the future to gain a sense of control. Therefore, anticipatory justice judgments "will become increasingly important as organisations struggle to adapt to today's turbulent business environment" (Shaw, 1997: 5). When employees anticipate injustice, they expect unfairness, including unfair outcomes or decisions (distributive injustice), unfair decision-making procedures (procedural injustice), and/or unfair interpersonal treatment (interactional injustice) (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001). Anticipatory injustice likely results in numerous negative consequences, including counterproductive workplace behaviours and self-defeating behaviours that erode organisational beliefs and cultures. Shapiro & Kirkman (2001) suggest that both justice theories and management practices consider conditions that are likely to give rise not only to the perception of injustice, but also to worries about the possibility of continued future injustice.

It stands to good reasoning, therefore, that unmotivated employees are likely to spend little or no effort in their jobs, avoid the workplace as much as possible, exit the organisation if given the opportunity and produce low quality work. On the other hand, employees who feel motivated to work are likely to be persistent, creative and productive, turning out high quality work that they willingly undertake. There has been a lot of research done on motivation by many scholars, but the behaviour of groups of people to try to find out why it is that every employee of a company does not perform at their best has been comparatively under researched especially in Nigeria. Many things can be said to answer this question; the reality is that every employee has different ways to become motivated. Employers need to get to know their employees very well and use different tactics to motivate each of them based on their personal wants and needs.

When employees have high autonomy, receive feedback about their performance, including a commensurate income, and have an important, identifiable piece of work to do which

requires skill variety, they may experience feelings of happiness and therefore intrinsic motivation to keep performing well and become less prone to counterproductive behaviours at the workplace (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

### Psychological variables and CWB

This section explores various psychological traits on individuals' reactions to work situations. Psychological factors refer to the natural tendency that may predispose the way an individual thinks or performs an act to reflect his overall personality. Such factors as examined in this study include impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and neuroticism, and they can be influenced by family, culture, biology, socialization, environment and situational factors.

In their presentation titled "Individual Differences in Adaptation to Work Dissatisfaction", Rosse & Saturay (2004) were able to indicate in their result that the more dissatisfied an individual becomes at work, the more likely he or she is to engage in impulsive reactive behaviours, such as quitting, disengaging, or retaliation, rather than adaptive behaviours, such as problem solving or adjusting expectations. In addition, a relatively small number of individual differences were found to have a noticeable impact on reactions to dissatisfaction at work. Among the most prevalent of these traits are conflict management styles, individual work ethic, and proactive personality.

### Impulsiveness and CWB

Impulsiveness as a trait has been linked to many CWBs including drug use (Watson & Clark, 1993), and juvenile delinquency (Robins, John, Caspi, Moffitt, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1996). Impulsivity quitting is a key component in several models of turnover. As outlined in their model of linkages between personality and CWBs, Cullen & Sacket (2003) believe that personality plays a direct role in such behaviours owing to impulsive actions. In Mobley et al.'s (1979) expanded model of turnover, the authors included impulsiveness as a key moderator in the quit intentions-turnover relationship. Where workers have quit intentions, their loyalty becomes questionable and the tendency for them to engage in deviant acts increases.

## Locus of Control (LoC) and CWB

Locus of control is an individual difference regulating the degree that individuals attribute responsibility for outcomes, both positive and negative, to either themselves or to an outside influence. It is linked to job outcomes, such as job satisfaction and job performance (Spector 1982). An external LoC has been shown to be consistent predictor of counterproductive work behaviour (Storms & Spector, 1987) as well as aggression (Perlow & Latham, 1993).

Other research, however, generally supports a negative relationship between internal locus of control and counterproductive work behaviour. Research investigating the relationship between LoC and counterproductive work behaviour, however, has been more consistent. Within the area of counterproductive work behaviour, the causal reasoning perspective of Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas (2002) and Spector's frustration-aggression model (1975) have investigated these relationships.

The causal reasoning perspective of counterproductive work behaviour (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002) proposes that the attributions an individual makes regarding the cause of workplace events creates emotions and behaviours that result in counterproductive work behaviour. In this paradigm, situational variables and individual differences either independently or synergistically affect cognitive processing through attributions or perceptions of disequilibria, which leads to counterproductive work behaviour. In their model, they briefly mention that LoC may result in attributions that are related to the opportunity for the individual to commit a counterproductive work behaviour, without being more precise.

Spector (1975) proposed a model which states that the frustration of goals results in emotional and behavioural reactions. The emotional response, anger, is aversive and results in increased psychological arousal. In response to frustration, individuals engage in several actions, including an attempt to find alternatives that allow goal attainment, acts of aggression directed toward the organisation, or withdrawal from the situation (Spector, 1978). It was later found that locus of control moderated this relationship such that individuals with an external locus of control were more likely to respond to frustration in counterproductive ways, relative to individuals with an internal locus of control (Storms & Spector, 1987).

In sum, the relationship between LoC and voluntary workplace behaviours is not straightforward, even though one would intuit that OCB and CWB would have opposite relationships with LoC. It has not received much attention from the organisational citizenship behaviour literature and the information that does exist is contradictory and difficult to interpret as a meaningful whole. In contrast, counterproductive work behaviour has been studied with its relationship to LoC in depth. It has consistently been shown that an external LoC is related to aggression at work, and possibly other forms of counterproductive work behaviour. The review of literature reveals that previous researchers appear to have done little on the relationship between LoC and CWB, especially in Nigeria.

#### Anxiety and CWB

Anxiety is nervousness or agitation, often about something that is going to happen and it has also been shown to relate to CWB. Both Fox & Spector (1999) and Fox, Spector & Miles (2001) found significant correlations between trait anxiety and CWB that were somewhat smaller than for trait anger. They also conducted moderated regression tests, and found only 2 of 8 significant, for interpersonal conflict and organisational constraints with personal CWB. In both cases those high in trait anxiety showed a steeper slope in the relation between the stressor and CWB. As with trait anger, part of the problem with finding support for the moderator effect is that it may occur pre-perception rather than post-perception. The literature review above, no doubt, clearly shows a dearth in research on the relationship between anxiety and CWB, and the need for such to be undertaken, especially in Nigeria.

#### Neuroticism and CWB

The personality trait of neuroticism has been defined almost unanimously by researchers as being anxious, depressed, fearful, nervous, emotional, and easily upset (Borgatta, 1964; Conley, 1985; Costa & McCre, 1985; Digman, 1990; Fiske, 1949; Hogan, Curphy & Hogan (1994); Tupes & Christal 1961). These personality traits are believed to impact negatively on work because individuals high in neuroticism tend to have negative perceptions of themselves and their environment (Burke, Brief, & George, 1993). In discussing the affective motivational

forces influencing voluntary turnover, Maertz & Griffeth (2004) noted that those employees who have negative views of their work environment are more likely to leave (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Judge et al. (2000) found that neuroticism was negatively related to how employees perceived the complexity of their jobs.

Neuroticism is likely to have relationship with turnover when employees are new at their jobs because of the stress of having to learn and perform new job responsibilities as well as having to become socialized into a new work environment. During this early stage, job demands are novel, new, ill-defined, and uncertain. Those higher in neuroticism tend to be unsure about their ability to perform the job, especially when just learning the demands of a new job, and this may cause them to be more prone to abandon such positions.

Judge and Ilies (2002) found that neuroticism has negative true score correlations with expectations and self-efficacy beliefs regarding the ability job incumbents have to their jobs. Further empirical evidence supports these arguments as neuroticism has been linked to giving up on stress-inducing goals (Judge & Ilies, 2002; Watson & Hubbard, 1996), and career indecision (Tokar, & Subich, 1997). Taken together, these results suggest that neurotic individuals are more likely to doubt their ability to perform their new job duties and be more prone to give up trying to do so.

Since neurotic individuals tend to be in negative moods and also tend to have higher conflict with co-workers (Organ, 1994), they are less likely to become effectively socialized into their organisations. Spector & Fox, (1998) theorized that individuals exhibiting negative emotions such as sadness and anger are less likely to receive social support from co-workers and more likely to experience interpersonal conflict, thereby increasing their stress levels and increasing their intentions to quit.

Salgado (2002) found a true score relationship between neuroticism and turnover of .35. Further researchers have found evidence demonstrating that workers with job tenure of one year or less in comparison to after they have been on the job for two or more years will likely exhibit an even stronger relationship between neuroticism and turnover Barrick, Mitchell & Stewart (2003). Linking neuroticism to job satisfaction, Judge et al. (2002) found out that out of all FFM

traits, neuroticism had the largest true score correlation with job satisfaction. Thoresen et al. (2003) identified a true score correlation of  $-.28$  between neuroticism and job satisfaction.

From the review of literature, there is an inalienable reflection of a void in the paucity of research into the likely causes of deviant workplace behaviours among non-academic staff of Nigerian universities. Although it is hard to study CWBs patterns empirically, recently however, improved research strategies and information sources have made such studies better. Notwithstanding all these endeavours, very little appears to have been done to checkmate the tide of a rising wave of counterproductive work behaviour in Nigeria, especially among non-academic staff of universities. The study of demographic factors and personological factors as predictors of counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) among non-academic staff in Southwestern Nigerian universities, therefore, will help to bridge the existing gap in research efforts in Nigeria. The study will further contribute to broadening an understanding of why and how some of these category of workers behave the way they tend to i.e. functioning in a mode which appears to be at variance with the expectation of their organisations.

## Variables in the Study

### Independent Variables

(Demographic)

<b>Age</b>
<b>Gender</b>
<b>Marital Status</b>
<b>Education</b>
<b>Income</b>

(Psychological)

<b>Neuroticism</b>
<b>Impulsiveness</b>
<b>Anxiety</b>
<b>Locus of Control</b>

Dependent Variable
<b>Counterproductive Work Behaviour</b>

Conceptual Framework for the Study

**Figure 2.1.** The conceptual model of sociological and psychological factors predicting CWB.

The study adopted the above conceptual framework because the research sought psychosociological factors as predictors of Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South-West Nigeria. The sociological variables in the study are age, gender, marital status, education and income; and psychological variables in the study include neuroticism, impulsiveness, locus of control and anxiety.

The conceptual framework above shows an interplay of sociological variables on Counterproductive Work Behaviour on the one hand, and how psychological constructs influence Counterproductive Work Behaviour on the other. These sociological variables are the independent variables (age, gender, marital status, education and income) and psychological

(independent) variables (neuroticism, impulsiveness, locus of control and anxiety). The dependent variable in the study is Counterproductive Work Behaviour.

### **Research Questions**

1. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Locus of Control?
2. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Conscientiousness?
3. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Agreeableness?
4. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Neuroticism?
5. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Openness to Experience?
6. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Extroversion?
7. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Impulsivity Measure?
8. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Trait Anxiety?
9. What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Counterproductive Work Behaviour?

### **Hypotheses**

H1. There will be no joint significant contribution of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) to the prediction of Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.



H2. There will be no significant relative contributions of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) to Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

H3. There is no significant joint contribution of independent psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

H4. There will be no significant relative effects of psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

H5. There will be no significant joint contribution of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) to the Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

H6. There will be no significant relative contributions of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) to the Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology for this study, under the following headings: research design, population, sampling procedures and samples, instruments, procedure for data collection, and analysis.

#### **Research Design**

This study adopted a survey research design of the ex-post facto type. This study examined psycho-sociological factors as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria. Usually, data are collected after the event or phenomenon under investigation has taken place, hence the name ex-post facto. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) define ex-post facto as a systematic empirical inquiry in which the researcher does not have direct control of the independent variables because their manipulations have already occurred, or because they are inherently not manipulable.

#### **Population of the Study**

The target population for this study included non-academic staff of six (6) registered universities as at 2010 in Southwestern Nigeria. The population sample was one thousand, four hundred and forty-two (1,442) and they were represented in faculties only, because departments do not cut across the universities sampled. The study involved three (3) federal universities, two (2) state universities and one (1) private university.

#### **Sample and Sampling Technique**

The sampling method adopted for the purpose of this study is a simple random sampling technique. Using the Krejcie and Morgan's formula, one thousand, four hundred and forty-two (1,442) participants were randomly selected from six (6) universities that were registered by the National University Commission (NUC) as at December 2010, in South-West Nigeria. The participants were 786 male and 656 female with age of  $46.5 \pm 8.08$ , and their educational

qualification is categorised in three, namely: low (primary school leavers), medium (West African School Certificates holders) and high (graduates of tertiary institutions).

The stratified random sampling technique was used to select the participants in each of the six (6) universities and was based on the faculties to which each member of staff belonged. The random sampling procedure was used to identify and select respondents according to their accessibility and readiness to fill the questionnaire.

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**Table 3.1: Faculties for the study at the University of Ibadan**

University	Faculty	No of Participants
University of Ibadan, Ibadan.	Science	57
	Social Sciences	60
	Technology	57
	Education	60
	Arts	58
Total Participants		292

Table 3.1 shows the faculties which were involved in the study at the University of Ibadan.

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**Table 3.2: Faculties for the study at Lead City University**

University	Faculty	No of Participants
Lead City University, Ibadan.	Science	28
	Social Sciences & Entrepreneurial Studies	28
	Info Tech & Applied Sciences	28
	Education	30
	Law	28
Total Participants		142

Table 3.2 shows the faculties which were involved in the study at Lead City University, Ibadan.

**Table 3.3: Faculties for the study at the University of Lagos**

University	Faculty	No of Participants
University of Lagos, Lagos.	Science	55
	Social Sciences	56
	Bus Admin	55
	Education	55
	Arts	55
Total Participants		276

Table 3.3 shows the faculties which shall be involved in the study at the University of Lagos.

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**Table 3.4: Faculties for the study at the Lagos State University**

University	Faculty	No of Participants
Lagos State University, Lagos.	Science	55
	Social Sciences	53
	Law	53
	Education	55
	Arts	53
Total Participants		269

Table 3.4 shows the faculties which were involved in the study at the Lagos State University.

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**Table 3.5: Colleges for the study at the Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta**

University	College	No of Participants
Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta	Animal Science and Livestock Production	31
	Veterinary Medicine	31
	Plant Science and Crop Production	31
	Natural and Applied Sciences	31
	Management Sciences	31
	Environmental Resources Management	31
	Agriculture and Rural Development	31
	Food Science and Human Ecology	31
Total Participants		248

Table 3.5 shows the colleges which were involved in the study at the Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta.



**Table 3.6: Faculties for the study at the Ogun State University, Abeokuta**

University	Faculty	No of Participants
Ogun State University, Abeokuta.	Science	43
	Social Sciences	43
	Law	43
	Education	43
	Arts	43
Total Participants		215

Table 3.6 shows the faculties which were involved in the study at the Ogun State University, Abeokuta.

## SAMPLE FOR THE STUDY

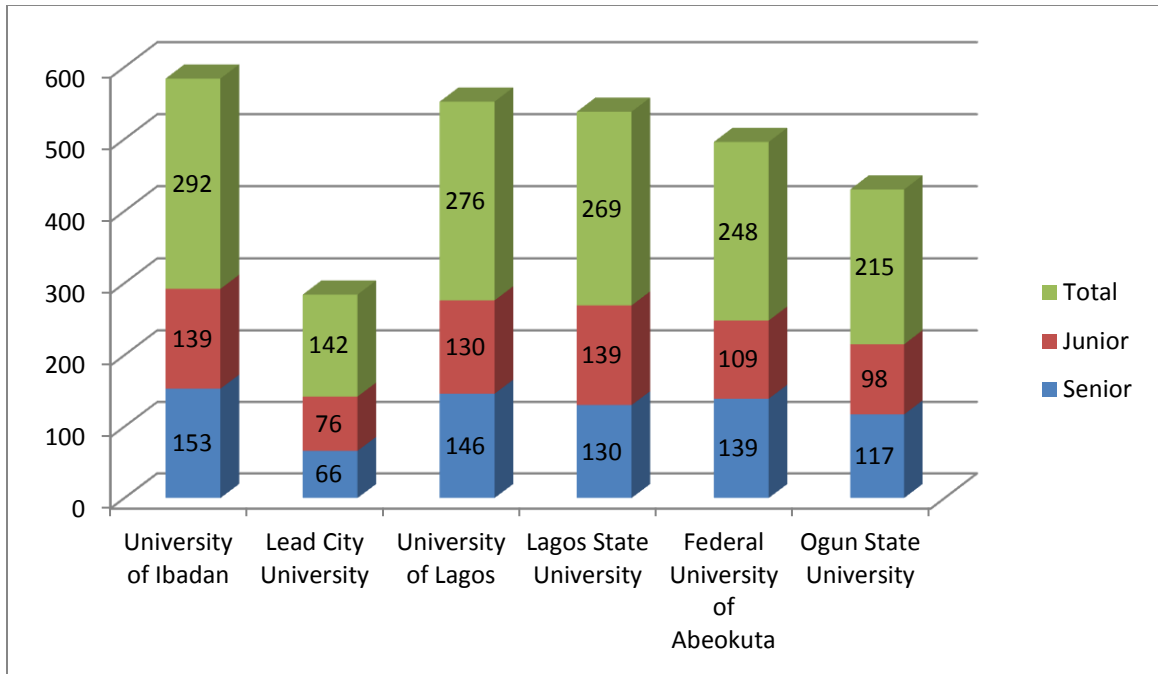
**Table 3.7: Comprehensive sample for the study**

The following table shows the comprehensive sample for the study:

	Universities	Non-academic Staff Population	Sample	Total
<b>A</b>	University of Ibadan, Ibadan.	Senior - 1,560 Junior - 1,002	153 139	292
<b>B</b>	Lead City University, Ibadan.	Senior – 189 Junior – 235	66 76	142
<b>C</b>	University of Lagos, Akoka.	Senior - 1,205 Junior - 837	146 130	276
<b>D</b>	Lagos State University, Ojo.	Senior – 864 Junior - 1,099	130 139	269
<b>E</b>	Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta.	Senior - 915 Junior – 552	139 109	248
<b>F</b>	Ogun State University, Abeokuta.	Senior - 632 Junior – 421	117 98	215
<b>Total no of sample</b>				<b>1,442</b>

**Source:** Krejcie and Morgan's formula, 1970.

Table 3.7 represents the six (6) South West universities where research work was conducted. The non-academic staff population had been structured under senior staff and junior staff and the Krejcie and Morgan's formula (1970) was employed to determine the sample size. The breakdown of the total number of participants (population size) above was arrived at following a visit to each university's registry unit where such information was provided.



**Figure 1. 1**

Figure 1. 1 is a chart depicting the structuring of non-academic staff population in the senior staff and junior staff categories.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

## **Instrumentation**

Five adapted research instruments were used in the study. They include the following:

- A. Demographic Information
- B. Locus of control scale
- C. Neuroticism scale (Big Five Personality Scale)
- D. Impulsivity measure
- E. State Anxiety scale
- F. Counterproductive work behaviour scale

A pilot test was conducted to re-validate the instruments in anticipation for the adoption of their use. These instruments comprise six sections – sections A to F. Section A sought demographic information like, age (in years), sex (male or female), marital status (single or married), education (highest educational qualification) and income. Section B comprises items on impulsiveness; Section C, locus of control; Section D, anxiety; Section E, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness and extroversion and Section F, counterproductive work behaviour scale. The type of residence, ownership of a family car, educational and occupational status of the parents as well as household total income were used as indicators for socioeconomic status. According to Krieger, Williams and Moss (1997), income is a resource-based measure for socioeconomic position, and it is a meaningful measure at the level of household. They pointed out that children's socioeconomic class can be reflected in the household where they were raised. In this study, the household's monthly income was used.

## **Demographic Information**

In this study, the demographic information provided relates to such human characteristics as age, gender, marital status, education and income which influence the way an individual thinks or performs an act.

## **Counterproductive Work Behaviour**

CWB was assessed using a behavioural checklist based on a master list compiled from a number of existing measures and previously used by Goh and colleagues (2003). The checklist

included as many distinct behaviours as possible without duplicating items. The 42-item list required respondents to indicate the frequency with which they engage in specific behaviours; there are 5 response choices ranging from 1=never to 4=every day. Therefore, high scores indicate high incidence of CWB. Counterproductive work behaviour was measured using Counterproductive Work Behaviour Checklist that had been used in at least 11 studies, a standard measure of employee intentional behaviours that harm organisations and people in organisations. The scale has gone through several revisions since its first use (Spector, 1975). All 42 items are measured by using a 4-point Likert scale. The Cronbach's Alpha assessment by Spector et al (2006) was reported at 0.87. For this study, the internal consistency reliability coefficient i.e. Cronbach's Alpha, was found to be .86.

### **Locus of Control**

Locus of Control was measured by means of the Locus of Control scale constructed by Craig, Franklin and Andrews (1984). This Locus of Control scale by Craig et al. (1984) was a modified form of Rotter's I-E scale. Craig & Howie (1982) generated a 17-item test in which 10 items relate to externality and are tallied from the left-hand column of response boxes, while seven others which relate to internality (items 1, 5, 7, 8, 13, 15, and 16) are transposed so that 5 is scored as 0 (strongly disagree), 4 (generally agree) becomes 1 (generally disagree), etc., in the right-hand column of response boxes. After transposing the seven items, the test is scored by summing the scores for all 17 items. The coefficient alpha for these 17 items was 0.79, which according to Nunnally (1967) is evidence of acceptable internal reliability. From the data analyzed in this study, the Cronbach's Alpha of LoC scale was found to be .82.

This instrument was chosen on the basis of its reliable and efficient measurement of Locus of Control and also because it is a modified version of Rotter's I-E scale which has enjoyed widespread use in other research. A compilation of citations from 1966 to 1994 (using the social Sciences Citation Index) revealed that the RLOC was cited (if not actually used) over 600 times (Leone & Burns, 2000).

## **Barratt Impulsiveness Scale – 11 (BIS-11; Patton, Stanford, & Barratt, 1995)**

The BIS-11 is a 30-item self-report questionnaire will measure on a 4-point Likert scale, the multidimensional nature of impulsivity. There are three subscales: 1) motor impulsivity (10 items), 2) cognitive/attentional impulsivity (8 items), and 3) non-planning impulsivity (12 items). A total score of impulsivity, in addition to a subtotal for each subscale was computed. The higher the overall score, the higher the level of impulsiveness. In order to avoid participants developing a response set, a number of items have been worded to imply a lack of impulsivity and therefore are reversed scored.

Since its original version in the 1950s, the Barratt Impulsivity Scale has gone through many revisions. The majority of the studies describing the reliability and validity of the BIS report findings with earlier versions of the measure. Previous versions have differentiated impulsive offenders and individuals with personality disorders from control groups (Barratt, 1985, 1994).

In the development of the most recent version, Patton, Stanford and Barratt (1995) compared BIS-11 scores of a sample of general psychiatric patients, inmates and undergraduates. Inmates were found to have significantly higher scores than both the psychiatric patients and the undergraduates. Reliability has shown adequacy in both American (Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995) and Italian samples Fossati, Maffei, Acquarini, & Di Ceglie (2003). The BIS-11 has a high internal consistency of .80 in a sample of prison inmates (Barratt, 1985; Patton, Stanford & Barratt (1995).

The internal consistency scores for the groups are as follows: undergraduates .82, substance abusers .79, and general psychiatric patients .83. This measure has also been acknowledged as having clinical utility for assessing impulsivity among patient and inmate populations (Patton et al., 1995). During pilot testing, the Cronbach's Alpha of the impulsiveness scale was found.

The factor structure of the BIS-11 however, is inconsistent as a number of items that define each factor (cognitive, non-planning and motor) load on other factors as well. The

subscales of motor and non-planning have been the strongest and most consistently measured, however the cognitive/attentional factor often fails to be identified as a distinct dimension from the other two factors (Barratt, 1991; Patton et al., 1995; Ramirez & Andreu, 2006). It is proposed that the lack of support for the cognitive dimension might result from an inability of participants to have the insight into the characteristics of impulsivity (Ramirez & Andreu, 2003).

The reliability scores for each subscale of the BIS in the above study ranged from .45 for attentional impulsivity, .54 for non-planning impulsivity and .67 for motor impulsivity. The pattern and magnitude of these reliability scores is consistent with previous work conducted on the BIS-11. Specifically, internal consistency of the motor impulsivity is generally higher than the values for either the attentional or non-planning subscales. The overall internal consistency for the BIS-11 in the current sample was assessed at a Cronbach's Alpha of .78. The Cronbach's Alpha of the Impulsivity measure from the analysis of data in this study was found to be .56.

### **Neuroticism scale**

The Neuroticism scale score of the NEO-FFI (Costa & McCrae, 1992) would be used to operationalize the personality construct of Neuroticism. The scale consists of 7 items. Example of the items include, 'I never seem to be able to get organised'; and 'At times I have been so ashamed I just wanted to hide'. Costa & McCrae (1992) used the scale to assess the five personality dimensions and reported Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of neuroticism as 0.86. The Cronbach's Alpha of the neuroticism scale from the analysis of data in the current study was found to be .70

### **State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)**

The STAI measure is a self-administered test that consists of two separate sub-scales for State- (STAI-S) and Trait- (STAI-T) anxiety, each consisting of 20 brief items (Chaplin, 1984). Form STAI-S addresses how the participant feels "right now, at this moment" and Form STAI-T addresses how the participant "generally feels." The 20 State-anxiety scale items are each rated by placing a checkmark under the column that corresponds to a four-point intensity scale, labelled "Not At All," "Somewhat," "Moderately So," and "Very Much So." The 20 Trait-anxiety

scale items are rated in a similar fashion, but the headings change to: "Almost Never," "Sometimes," "Often," and "Almost Always." Participants were told there are no right answers and they were discouraged from spending too much time on any given item. The scoring keys reverse the direction of the non-anxiety items so that the higher the overall score, the higher the individual's anxiety level. This measure was normed for college freshman and for students enrolled in an introductory psychology course; alpha reliability coefficients range from .83 (males) to .92 (females) for state anxiety scores and .86 to .92 for trait anxiety scores (Dreger & Aiken (1957). Both forms of the test were examined for test-retest reliability by having subjects re-take the test after one hour, 20 days, and 104 days.

For the STAI-S form the reliability coefficients were found to be: .33 (males) and .16 (females), .54 and .27, and .33 and .31 respectively. The STAI-T Form yielded coefficients of: .84 and .76, .86 and .76, and .73 and .77, respectively (Dreger, 1978). Validities for trait scores were attained by correlating scores with the IPAT Anxiety Scale, Manifest Anxiety Scale, and Affect Adjective Check List. Coefficients were .75, .80, and .52, respectively (Dreger, 1978). The internal consistency of the STAI is reported to be good (Dreger, 1978); it ranges from .89 to .91 for trait-anxiety, and from .86 to .95 for state-anxiety (Chaplin, 1984). The current study calculated the internal consistency to be .93 for both the STAI-S and the STAI-T. A factor analysis was done on the 40 STAI items; this confirmed the homogeneity of the Trait- and State-anxiety scales (Chaplin, 1984). From the data analyzed in this study, the Cronbach's Alpha of the anxiety scale was found to be .72.

### **Procedure for Administration**

The administration of the questionnaire lasted two (2) months. Participants were informed about the study and their rights regarding participation. The researcher then administered the questionnaire packet with the help of research assistants who were deputy departmental heads of the university under study. The participants were encouraged that their responses to every item in the questionnaire were to be without biases and that there was no right or wrong answer. They were also assured that any response given would be considered very important and their sincerity in filling the questionnaire would be appreciated and treated confidentially.



## **Data Analysis**

Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was employed for testing the hypotheses while multiple regression analysis was used to answer the research questions raised in the study. The dependent variable in the study is Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB), while the independent variables are sociological factors (age, gender, marital status, education and income) and psychological factors (impulsiveness, locus of control, anxiety and conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness and extroversion).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the results from the data analyzed. The study scrutinized sociological variables such as age, gender, marital status, educational qualification and income, as well as psychological constructs such as locus of control, impulsiveness, anxiety, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness and extroversion as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

Nine research questions were tested using Multiple Regression Analysis and Correlation matrix and the summary of the findings are presented as follows:

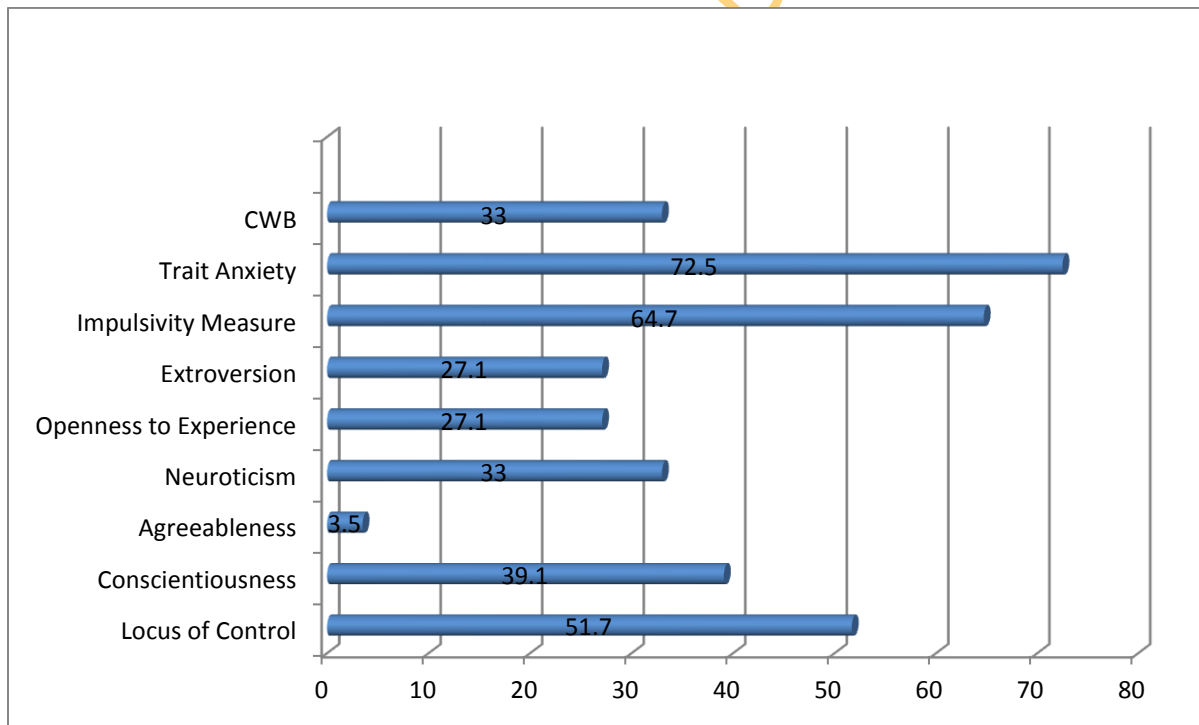
#### **Research Questions**

##### **Research Question One**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Locus of Control?

**Table 4.1: Perceptions of all variables in the study being manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.**

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Result
Locus of Control	51.7476	6.32	Moderate
Conscientiousness	39.169	1.72	Moderate
Agreeableness	33.068	6.26	Moderate
Neuroticism	20.334	3.36	Moderate
Openness to Experience	27.13	8.82	High
Extroversion	27.103	4.51	Low
Impulsivity Measure	64.757	1049	Moderate
Trait Anxiety	72.55	7.503	High
CWB	33.068	6.26	Moderate



**Figure 2. 1**

Figure 2. 1 shows the perception of all the variables.

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Locus of Control are listed below:

The maximum score for Locus of Control of the respondents is 85 (i.e.  $17 \times 5$ ). By the test norm, a Locus of Control score of 1 – 28 indicates a low level of Locus of Control in the external direction; 29 – 56 indicates a moderate external Locus of Control, while 57 – 85 indicates a high level of external Locus of Control.

Table 4.1 indicates that the overall Mean score of the Locus of Control manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria was 51.747 with a Standard Deviation of 6.32. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Locus of Control manifested by the respondents was 51.747 which fell within the range 29 – 56 (moderate external Locus of Control). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Locus of Control.

### **Research Question Two**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Conscientiousness?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Conscientiousness are listed below:

The maximum score for Conscientiousness of the respondents is 60 (i.e.  $12 \times 5$ ). By the test norm, a Conscientiousness score of 1 – 20 indicates a low level of Conscientiousness in the external direction; 21 – 40 indicates a moderate external Conscientiousness, while 41 – 60 indicates a high level of external Conscientiousness.

The overall Mean score of the Conscientiousness manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 39.169 with a Standard Deviation of 1.72. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Conscientiousness manifested by the respondents was 39.169 which fell within the range 21 – 40 (moderate external Conscientiousness). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Conscientiousness.

### **Research Question Three**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Agreeableness?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Agreeableness are listed below:

The maximum score for Agreeableness of the respondents is 55 (i.e.  $11 \times 5$ ). By the test norm, an Agreeableness score of 1 – 18 indicates a low level of Agreeableness in the external direction; 19 – 36 indicates a moderate external Agreeableness, while 37 – 55 indicates a high level of external Agreeableness.

The overall Mean score of the Agreeableness manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 33.068 with a Standard Deviation of 6.26. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Agreeableness manifested by the respondents was 33.068 which fell within the range 19 – 36 (moderate external Agreeableness). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Agreeableness.

### **Research Question Four**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Neuroticism?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Neuroticism are listed below:

The maximum score for Neuroticism of the respondents is 35 (i.e.  $7 \times 5$ ). By the test norm, a Neuroticism score of 1 – 11 indicates a low level of Neuroticism in the external direction; 12 – 22 indicates a moderate external Neuroticism, while 23 – 35 indicates a high level of external Neuroticism.

The overall Mean score of the Neuroticism manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 20.334 with a Standard Deviation of 3.36. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Neuroticism manifested by the respondents was 20.334 which fell within the range 12 – 22 (moderate Neuroticism). It can, therefore, be inferred that the

non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Neuroticism.

### **Research Question Five**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Openness to Experience?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Openness to Experience are listed below:

The maximum score for Openness to Experience of the respondents is 40 (i.e. 8 x 5). By the test norm, Openness to Experience score of 1 – 13 indicates a low level of Agreeableness in the external direction; 14 – 26 indicates a moderate external Openness to Experience, while 27 – 40 indicates a high level of external Openness to Experience.

The overall Mean score of the Openness to Experience manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 27.13 with a Standard Deviation of 8.82. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Openness to Experience manifested by the respondents was 27.13 which fell within the range 27 – 40 (high external Openness to Experience). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a high level of external Openness to Experience.

### **Research Question Six**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Extroversion?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Extroversion are listed below:

The maximum score for Extroversion of the respondents is 110 (i.e. 22 x 5). By the test norm, an Extroversion score of 1 – 36 indicates a low level of Extroversion in the external direction; 37 – 72 indicates a moderate external Extroversion, while 73 – 110 indicates a high level of external Extroversion.

The overall Mean score of the Extroversion manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 27.103 with a Standard Deviation of 4.51.

As it were, the overall Mean score of the Extroversion manifested by the respondents was 27.103 which fell within the range 1 – 36 (low external Extroversion). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a low level of external Extroversion.

### **Research Question Seven**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Impulsivity Measure?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Impulsivity Measure are listed below:

The maximum score for Impulsivity Measure of the respondents is 120 (i.e. 30 x 4). By the test norm, an Impulsivity Measure score of 1 – 40 indicates a low level of Impulsivity Measure in the external direction; 41 – 80 indicates a moderate external Impulsivity Measure, while 81 – 120 indicates a high level of external Impulsivity Measure.

The overall Mean score of the Impulsivity Measure manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 64.757 with a Standard Deviation of 1049. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Impulsivity Measure manifested by the respondents was 64.757 which fell within the range 41 – 80 (moderate external Impulsivity Measure). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Impulsivity Measure.

### **Research Question Eight**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Trait Anxiety?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Trait Anxiety are listed below:

The maximum score for Trait Anxiety of the respondents is 80 (i.e. 20 x 4). By the test norm, a Trait Anxiety score of 1 – 26 indicates a low level of Trait Anxiety in the external direction; 27 – 52 indicates a moderate external Trait Anxiety, while 53 – 80 indicates a high level of external Trait Anxiety.

The overall Mean score of the Trait Anxiety manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 72.55 with a Standard Deviation of 7.503. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Trait Anxiety manifested by the respondents was 72.55 which fell within the range 52 – 80 (high external Trait Anxiety). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a high level of external Trait Anxiety.

### **Research Question Nine**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Counterproductive Work Behaviour?

The responses on the perception of the respondents on Counterproductive Work Behaviour are listed below:

The maximum score for Counterproductive Work Behaviour of the respondents is 92 (i.e. 23 x 4). By the test norm, a Counterproductive Work Behaviour score of 1 – 30 indicates a low level of Agreeableness in the external direction; 31 – 60 indicates a moderate external Counterproductive Work Behaviour, while 61 – 92 indicates a high level of external Counterproductive Work Behaviour.

The overall Mean score of the Counterproductive Work Behaviour manifested by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria as indicated in Table 4.1 was 44.47 with a Standard Deviation of 19.34. As it were, the overall Mean score of the Counterproductive Work Behaviour manifested by the respondents was 44.47 which fell within the range 31 – 60 (moderate external Counterproductive Work Behaviour). It can, therefore, be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Counterproductive Work Behaviour.

### **Hypotheses**

In order to achieve the remaining objectives of this study, fourteen (14) hypotheses were tested having been fused into joint and relative considerations and the results are discussed as follows:



H1. There will be no joint significant contribution of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) to the prediction of Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

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Table 4.2: The joint contributions of sociological variables to the prediction of CWB of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1411.159	5	282.232	1.910	.090
Residual	212244.87	1436	147.803		
Total	213656.03	1441			

$$R = .081$$

$$R^2 = .007$$

$$\text{Adj } R^2 = .003$$

Results on Table 4.2 show that the joint contributions of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria was not significant ( $F(5,1436) = 1.910$ ;  $R^2 = .007$ ;  $p > .05$ ). About 1% of the variation was accounted for by the independent variables.

H2. There will be no significant relative contributions of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) to Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Table 4.3: The relative contributions of the sociological variables to Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	45.578	2.013		23.638	.000
Marital Status	-2.259	.781	-.094	-2.894	.004
Gender	.189	.650	.008	.290	.771
Qualification	5.137E-02	.270	.005	.190	.849
Age	4.044E-02	.051	.027	.786	.432
Household Income	1.484E-05	.000	.022	.760	.447

The result above shows the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the dependent variable:

Marital Status ( $\beta = -.094$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Gender ( $\beta = .008$ ,  $p > .05$ ), Qualification ( $\beta = .005$ ,  $p > .05$ ), Age ( $\beta = .027$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and Household Income ( $\beta = .022$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Thus, it is shown in the above results that while Marital Status made significant contribution to CWB, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income did not. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is partially accepted.

H3. There is no significant joint contribution of psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Table 4.4: The joint contributions of psychological variables to Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	31883.683	8	3985.460	31.419	.000
Residual	181772.35	1433	126.847		
Total	213656.03	1441			

$$R = .386$$

$$R^2 = .149$$

$$\text{Adj } R^2 = .144$$

It was shown in the Table 4.4 above that the joint contributions of the psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and Trait Anxiety) to Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria was significant ( $F(8,1433) = 31.419$ ;  $R^2 = .149$ ;  $p < .05$ ). About 15% of the variation in CWB was accounted for by the independent variables. This shows that Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

H4. There will be no significant relative effects of psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Table 4.5: The relative contributions of psychological variables to Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	41.537	5.422		7.660	.000
Locus of Control	-.360	.050	-.187	-7.218	.000
Conscientiousness	.643	.085	.196	7.592	.000
Agreeableness	-.355	.078	-.182	-4.572	.000
Neuroticism	.280	.106	.077	2.646	.008
Openness to Exp.	.203	.096	.075	2.123	.034
Extroversion	-.160	.043	-.138	-3.741	.000
Impulsivity Measure	-4.667E-02	.041	-.029	-1.138	.255
State Trait Anxiety	.249	.053	.147	4.700	.000

The result in Table 4.5 shows the relative contributions of each of the independent variables on the dependent variable (Counterproductive Work Behaviour):

Locus of Control ( $\beta = -.187$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Conscientiousness ( $\beta = .196$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Agreeableness ( $\beta = -.182$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Neuroticism ( $\beta = .077$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Openness to Experience ( $\beta = .075$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Extroversion ( $\beta = -.138$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Impulsivity Measure ( $\beta = -.138$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and Trait Anxiety ( $\beta = .147$ ,  $p < .05$ ) respectively.

The results show that Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety significantly contributed to

Counterproductive Work Behaviour but Impulsivity Measure did not. Thus Hypothesis 4 is rejected.

H5. There will be no joint contribution of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) to the Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

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Table 4.6: The joint contributions of Psycho-sociological variables to Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	32997.351	13	2538.258	20.063	.000
Residual	180658.68	1428	126.512		
Total	213656.03	1441			

$$R = .393$$

$$R^2 = .154$$

$$\text{Adj } R^2 = .147$$

It was shown in Table 4.6 that the joint contribution of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) to the Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria was significant ( $F(13,1428) = 20.063$ ;  $R^2 = .154$ ;  $p < .05$ ). About 15% of the variation in Counterproductive Work Behaviour was accounted for by the independent variables.

H6. There will be no relative contributions of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) to the Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Table 4.7: The relative contributions of Psycho-sociological variables and Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta Contributions		
(Constant)	43.312	5.648		7.669	.000
Marital Status	-1.848	.729	-.077	-2.535	.011
Gender	-1.356E-02	.604	-.001	-.022	.982
Qualification	3.972E-02	.247	.004	.161	.872
Age	1.388E-02	.046	.009	.304	.761
Household Income	5.700E-04	.018	.001	.031	.975
Locus of Control	-.383	.050	-.189	-7.285	.000
Conscientiousness	.648	.085	.198	7.649	.000
Agreeableness	-.339	.078	-.175	-4.365	.000
Neuroticism	.266	.106	.073	2.509	.012
Openness to Exp.	.200	.096	.074	2.077	.038
Extroversion	-.163	.043	-.141	-3.823	.000
Impulsivity Measure	-3.674E-02	.041	-.023	-.893	.372
State Trait Anxiety	.250	.053	.0147	4.69b2	.000



The results on Table 4.7 show the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the dependent variable (Counterproductive Work Behaviour):

Marital Status ( $\beta = -.077$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Gender ( $\beta = -.001$ ,  $p > .05$ ), Qualification ( $\beta = .004$ ,  $p > .05$ ), Age ( $\beta = .009$ ,  $p > .05$ ), Household Income ( $\beta = .001$ ,  $p > .05$ ), Locus of Control ( $\beta = -.189$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Conscientiousness ( $\beta = .198$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Agreeableness ( $\beta = -.175$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Neuroticism ( $\beta = .073$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Openness to Experience ( $\beta = .074$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Extroversion ( $\beta = -.141$ ,  $p < .05$ ), Impulsivity Measure ( $\beta = -.023$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and State Trait Anxiety ( $\beta = .147$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

The results show that while the contributions of Marital Status, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety were significant, those of Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income and Impulsivity Measure were not.

**Table 4. 8: Descriptive statistics and inter-correlation matrix of all variables in the study.**

	CWB	M.S.	Gender	Qualif	Age	Income	L.O.C	Consc.	Agreeab	Neuro	Extrov	Impuls	STA
CWB	1												
M.S.	-.073	1											
Gender	-.004	.130	1										
Qualif	.009	-.132	-.022	1									
Age	-.020	.576**	.021	-.167	1								
H.Income	.010	.231**	-.018	-.195**	.392**	1							
LoC	-.170	-.027	-.015	.022	-.039	.025	1						
Consc.	.156	.028	.051	.022	-.00	-.024	.071	1					
Agreeable	-.226*	.050	.050	.027	-.020	-.56	-.007	.205**	1				
Neuro.	-.083	-.037	.021	.003	-.052	-.024	.096	.141	.453**	1			
Openness	-.145	.018	.045	.026	-.054	-.096	.009	.135	.663**	.394**	1		
Extrov.	-.220**	-.010	.013	.008	-.044	-.044	.182	.168	.659**	.497**	.609**	1	
Impuls.	-.036	.084	.018	-.016	.045	-.041	.148	.059	.040	-.021	.139**	.023	1
STA	.215**	-.007	-.007	-.006	.065	.066	.154	.097	-.534**	-.334**	-.451**	-.300**	
Mean	4.48	1.64	1.45	2.01	38.56	44722.61	51.7476	39.1699	33.0680	20.3343	27.1033	64.757	72.55
S.D.	12.18	00.51	00.50	01.22	08.08	18035.72	6.32	1.72	6.26	3.36	4.51	1049	7.5039

Note: Abbreviations - CWB = Counterproductive Work Behaviour, M.S. = Marital Status, Qualif = Qualification, H.Income = Household Income, LoC = Locus of Control, Consc. = Conscientiousness, Neuro = Neuroticism, Extrov. = Extroversion, Impuls. = Impulsivity, STA. = State-Trait Anxiety, S.D. = Standard Deviation.

\* Sig. at .05 Level

Table 4.8 shows that there were significant correlations between Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Marital Status, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety, but none between Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income and Impulsivity.

### **Summary of Findings:**

The joint contributions of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria was not significant in this study.

In considering the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the dependent variable results showed that while Marital Status made significant contribution to CWB, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income did not.

The joint contributions of the psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and Trait Anxiety) to Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria was significant.

In studying the relative contributions of each of the independent variables on the dependent variable (CWB) results showed that Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety significantly contributed to Counterproductive Work Behaviour but Impulsivity Measure did not.

The joint contribution of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) to the Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in Southwestern Nigeria was significant.

The result of the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the dependent variable (CWB) showed that while the contributions of Marital Status, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety were significant, those of Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income and Impulsivity Measure were not.

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the discussion of results from analyzed data. It also highlights the conclusion and recommendations emanating from the findings in the study. Discussion here is in connection with studies previously done on the research subject. This then attracted conclusion which was pitched on the result of the findings in this chapter before suggestions for further studies were given.

#### 5.1 Discussion of Findings

##### Research Question One

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Locus of Control?

The result obtained from the overall Mean score of the Locus of Control manifested by the respondents was 51.747 and this fell within the range 29 – 56 (moderate external Locus of Control). From that one can infer that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Locus of Control.

##### Research Question Two

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Conscientiousness?

The result from the above research as obtained from the overall Mean score of the Conscientiousness manifested by the respondents was 39.169 which fell within the range 21 – 40 (moderate external Conscientiousness). Therefore, it can be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Conscientiousness.

##### Research Question Three

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Agreeableness?

The result from this research question as corroborated by the overall Mean score of the Agreeableness manifested by the respondents was 33.068 which fell within the range 19 – 36 (moderate external Agreeableness). Therefore, an inference can be made that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Agreeableness.

#### **Research Question Four**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Neuroticism?

The result from the above research question reveals the overall Mean score of the Neuroticism manifested by the respondents as 20.334 which fell within the range 12 – 22 (moderate Neuroticism). It can, therefore, be deduced that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Neuroticism.

#### **Research Question Five**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Openness to Experience?

The result from this research question records an overall Mean score of Openness to Experience manifested by the respondents as 27.13 which fell within the range 27 – 40 (high external Openness to Experience). It, therefore, can be inferred that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a high level of external Openness to Experience.

#### **Research Question Six**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Extroversion?

The result from this research question as obtained from the overall Mean score of the Extroversion manifested by the respondents (27.103 which fell within the range 1 – 36, a low external Extroversion, indicates that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a low level of external Extroversion.

### **Research Question Seven**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Impulsivity Measure?

This research question shows a result that indicates a moderate level of external Impulsivity Measure as exhibited by the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

### **Research Question Eight**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on State Trait Anxiety?

The result from this research question obtained from the overall Mean score of the Trait Anxiety manifested by the respondents as 72.55 which fell within the range 52 – 80 (high external Trait Anxiety) makes it pertinent to infer that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a high level of external Trait Anxiety.

### **Research Question Nine**

What is the perception of the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria on Counterproductive Work Behaviour?

The result from the above research question shows that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a moderate level of external Counterproductive Work Behaviour.

### **Hypotheses**

In order to achieve the remaining objectives of this study, six (6) hypotheses were tested and the results are discussed as follows:

H1: There will be no significant joint contributions of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) to the Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

The finding reveals that the joint contributions of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) to Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria was significant. About 1% of the variation in Counterproductive Work Behaviour was accounted for by the independent variables.

The finding is consistent with the study of Bowen, Radhakrishna & Keyser (1994) who reported that married agents were more satisfied with their jobs and this factor reduced the incidence of counterproductive work behaviour in them than those who were single. Reporting on age and CWB, Peterson (2002) related forms of counterproductive work behaviour including absenteeism, lateness to work, truancy and lack of commitment to young employees. Ukertor (2011) opined in his study on education and CWB that non-academic university workers were less likely to find legitimate ways to make the university well-structured, productive and successful when they were less educated. In respect of gender and CWB, Baron et al., (1999) submitted that more than their female counterparts, males had a tendency to engage in aggressive work behaviour, absenteeism (Johns, 1997), theft (Hollinger & Clark, 1983), substance abuse (Hollinger, 1998), and vandalism (DeMore et al., 1988). In their study on income and CWB, Chiswick, 1967 and Mincer, 1969 reported inequality, measured as the relative density of the lower tail of the family-income distribution, and the rate of all specific crimes against property across states in three census years in the United States.

H2: There will be no significant relative contributions of sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

The finding from this study structured as Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income reveals that while Marital Status was significant, Gender, Qualification, Age and Household Income were not. This finding negates the research of Greenberg & Barling, 1996, who while using person-based approaches, seek to identify which attitudes and personality traits might predispose an individual to commit a counterproductive behaviour. Focussing on sociological variables to explain such behaviour, Hollinger & Clark (1983) suggested that new,



younger, and part-time workers might be most likely to engage in counterproductive behaviours. Although Hollinger & Clark identified higher levels of counterproductive behaviour among members of these groups, the causes of these behaviours have remained unclear.

The attitudes held by these groups may explain the counterproductive behaviour they sometimes engage in. For example, new workers might not have developed a loyalty to the organisation they work for, and younger workers might have attitudes that are not opposed to counterproductive behaviour (Murphy, 1993). Alternatively, counterproductive behaviour might be a function of the specific jobs commonly held by people in these groups. New, younger, and part-time workers are commonly hired for low-status and low-paying positions that may be conducive to counterproductive behaviours. In addition to the inability of a demographic approach to offer a clear theoretical explanation of why certain groups are more likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour (Murphy, 1993), the demographic approach is limited in its usefulness in predicting and controlling these behaviours.

The finding is also at variance with the study of researchers like Chiswick, 1967 and Mincer, 1969 who reported a positive and statistically significant association between the extent of income inequality, measured as the relative density of the lower tail of the family-income distribution, and the rate of all specific crimes against property across states in three census years in the United States. There also exists some evidence of a positive association between inequality in earnings and the dispersion in schooling across regions in the United States (Chiswick, 1967), as well as a growing body of empirical evidence confirming the importance of education and on-the-job training in determining the distribution of labour and personal income (Mincer, 1969).

Although researchers like Bowen, Radhakrishna & Keyser (1994) and Fetsch & Kennington (1997) have found in their studies that married adults were more satisfied with their jobs, a factor that reduces the incidence of deviant behaviours in them, than those who were single, remarried, or widowed, the researcher is of the opinion that marital status was significant because adults who are either married or have attained a marriageable age tend to express themselves more freely, especially when they are expressing some type of dissatisfaction. Such

expressions, however, could be sometimes lifted off the streets or their homes into the work environment.

H3: There will be no significant joint contributions of psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour of non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

The study reveals that the joint contributions of psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria was significant. About 15% of the variation was accounted for by the independent variables.

The implication of this finding is that psychological constructs are good predictors of CWB among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria. This supports the study of Storms & Spector, 1987 in which an external LoC has been shown to be consistent predictor of counterproductive work behaviour as well as aggression. Other research by Perlow & Latham, 1993, however, generally supports a negative relationship between internal LoC and counterproductive work behaviour. Research investigating the relationship between LoC and counterproductive work behaviour, however, has been more consistent. Within the area of counterproductive work behaviour, the causal reasoning perspective of Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas (2002) and Spector's frustration-aggression model (1975) have investigated these relationships.

Fox & Spector (1999) and Fox, Spector & Miles (2001) found significant correlations between trait anxiety and CWB that were somewhat smaller than for trait anger. They also conducted moderated regression tests, and found only 2 of 8 significant, for interpersonal conflict and organisational constraints with personal CWB.

Salgado (2002) found a true score relationship between neuroticism and turnover of .35. Further researchers have found evidence demonstrating that workers with job tenure of one year or less in comparison to after they have been on the job for two or more years will likely exhibit

an even stronger relationship between neuroticism and turnover Barrick, Mitchell & Stewart (2003). Linking neuroticism to job satisfaction, Judge et al. (2002) found out that out of all FFM traits, neuroticism had the largest true score correlation with job satisfaction. Thoresen et al. (2003) identified a true score correlation of  $-.28$  between neuroticism and job satisfaction. In the researcher's opinion, too, these constructs tend to probe more deeply and are more likely get out the real persons in individuals, hence the significance recorded here.

H4: There will be no significant relative effects of psychological variables (Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

The result of this study indicates that Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety were significant indicators of CWB but Impulsivity Measure was not. The researcher feels that this may be in view of the fact that individual differences recognize people's tendency to differ in the ways they act and think in different situations and circumstances. Impulsivity measure, therefore, will make individuals respond to questionnaires almost nearly on an impulse without having to 'window dress' their responses. As such, this may not truly predict CWB in a work situation. This is in agreement with an impulsiveness theory - the Dual process theory - which states that mental processes operate in two separate classes: automatic and controlled. In general, automatic processes are those that are experiential in nature, occur without involving higher levels of cognition, and are based on prior experiences or informal heuristics. Controlled decisions are effortful and largely conscious processes in which an individual weighs alternatives and makes a more deliberate decision. In this study, the researcher is of the opinion that respondents were seemingly influenced by automatic processes which did not give room for environmental manipulations.

H5: There will be no significant joint effect of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity and State Trait

Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

The result of the above study clearly indicates that the joint effect of independent Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria was significant. This signifies that Psycho-sociological factors are good predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria in this research.

H6: There will be no significant relative effects of Psycho-sociological variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety) on Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria.

From the relative contribution of each of the independent variables (Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity and State Trait Anxiety) on the dependent (CWB) one evolves a research result which clearly shows that while Marital Status, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety were significant, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income and Impulsivity Measure were not.

Furthermore, from the correlation matrix showing the relationship between Marital Status, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion, Impulsivity Measure and State Trait Anxiety and Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria, significant correlations were recorded between Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Marital Status, Locus of Control, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extroversion and State Trait Anxiety, but

none between Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income and Impulsivity.

In the researcher's view, although earlier studies, especially those embarked upon by western scholars, indicate a correlation between Psycho-sociological factors and counterproductive work behaviour as pointed out earlier in this research, Gender, Qualification, Age, Household Income and Impulsivity did not predict CWB in this study very likely because some non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria are familiar with the findings of earlier researches, and therefore, deliberately manipulated their responses in a way that did not allow this study to record similar results as those conducted in the western world.

## **5.2 Implication of the Findings**

The results recorded in this research work clearly point to the fact that not only tertiary institutions but also other organisations will benefit from increased future research work in trying to understand the reason workers behave the way they do in the workplace. Then perhaps, also, this underscores the need for recruitment policies to include items to scrutinize sociological and psychological tendencies of job applicants so that the much desired harmony will be achieved in the workplace to promote organisational goals.

## **5.3 Conclusion**

This study examined Psycho-sociological factors (age, gender, marital status, education, income, locus of control, impulsiveness, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness and extroversion) as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria. The study adopted a descriptive survey employing the expost facto type to select one thousand, four hundred and forty-two (1,442) respondents in six (6) universities in South West Nigeria.

The study revealed that the non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria exhibited a low level of external Extroversion, moderate levels of external Locus of Control,

Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Impulsivity and Counterproductive Work Behaviour but a high level of Openness to Experience and Trait Anxiety.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Intervention strategies should be mounted by Counseling Psychologists to help minimize the incidence of Counterproductive Work Behaviour among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria especially where significant findings have been reported.
2. In areas that have shown insignificant findings, non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria can benefit also from counseling in helping to foster acceptable behaviour among them, especially in the realm of interpersonal relationships.
3. Although sociological factors have not been significant in this study, the researcher recommends that the study could still be replicated in other geographical (university) locations to test the authenticity of the findings.
4. Since most of the sociological variables employed for this study fail to significantly predict CWB among non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria, psychological variables which have done so more reliably should be concentrated upon for future research.
5. Awareness should be created among the non-academic staff of tertiary institutions on the need to cooperate with research scholars to ameliorate a situation where the latter sometimes runs up against brick walls while conducting research work, as was the fate of the researcher in some of the universities studied.
6. Security operatives of universities require more training on how to handle visitors, especially researchers with authenticated authorization, so that they are received and allowed to carry out research in a more conducive atmosphere.

## 5.5 Limitations of the study

In the course of this research endeavour, certain limitations have been observed and these are documented to include:

The work could not cover the whole country due to the constraints of time and finance, so it is limited to the South West, which may not be a true prediction of the responses of non-academic staff in universities in Nigeria as a whole.

The study was restricted to non-academic staff of universities alone and not other tertiary institutions in Nigeria.

Furthermore, the variables employed for the study are limited. There are other variables that might have contributed more to counterproductive work behaviour which could not be investigated.

## 5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

The researcher suggests that:

1. A fresh study should be conducted to capture the responses of non-academic staff in:
  - (a) Federal universities,
  - (b) State universities, and
  - (c) Private universities.

This is because there are systemic variations from one entity to the other in practices, salaries and commitments. Given such variations, therefore, one should not expect all non-academic staff to react to work situations in the same way.

2. Lower-level traits such as trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness should be employed to capture the response of non-academic staff of universities in South West Nigeria in future. This is because the Big Five traits are broad and comprehensive. As such they are not nearly as powerful in predicting and explaining actual behaviour as are the more numerous lower-level traits. Many studies have confirmed that in

predicting actual behaviour the more numerous facets or primary level traits are far more effective.

### **5.7 Contribution to Knowledge**

This study would contribute significantly to the efforts of researchers in understanding the behaviour of workers, especially non-academic staff of universities in Nigeria as a whole.

Although extensive research has been carried out by organisational behaviour scholars in the Western world, not so much can be said to have been done in Nigeria in this area, so the study will help to bridge the existing gap between international and local studies on how organisations, policy makers, employers of labour and governments can have a better understanding of how Psycho-sociological factors impact on the acts of employees.

This research work would become a good reference source for further studies in understanding why Counterproductive Work Behaviour thrives in the Nigerian work environment generally and the appropriate steps which labour employers might take to forestall such.



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**APPENDIX**  
**UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN**  
**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**  
**DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING**

Dear Respondents,

This questionnaire is designed basically for research purpose. It seeks to know how you would react to these statements. All information provided would be treated confidentially. Please be honest as much as possible in your responses.

**SECTION A**

1. Name of University.....
2. Gender:                      Male: (   )                                      Female: (   )
3. Qualification:.....  
  B.Ed./B.Sc: (   )  
  M.Ed/M.Sc. (   )  
  Ph.D.: (   )  
  Others: (specify):
3. Age:.....
4. Marital Status.....
5. Years of Experience:.....
6. Household Monthly Income: .....

Please put salary scale and step (i.e. Contiss 1-15)

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## SECTION B

### LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

(Based on Craig and Howie (1982) generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement).

**Instructions:** Below are a number of statements about how various topics affect your personal beliefs. There are no right or wrong answers. For every item there are a large number of people who agree and disagree. Please tick in the boxes next to those statements that best describe how you feel. You can always go back to a question and change your answer. Use the format below as guide please.

---

1	2	3	4	5
SD	D	N	A	SA

Where SD = Strongly Disagree

D = Disagree

N = Undecided

A = Agree

SA = Strongly Agree

1. I can anticipate difficulties and take action to avoid them.....
2. A great deal of what happens to me is probably just a matter of chance.....
3. Everyone knows that luck or chance determines one's future.....
4. I can control my problem(s) only if I have outside support.....
5. When I make plans, I'm almost certain that I can make them work.....
6. My problem(s) will dominate me all my life.....
7. My mistakes and problems are my responsibility to deal with.....



8. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.....
9. My life is controlled by outside actions and events.....
10. People are victims of circumstances beyond their control.....
11. To continually manage my problems I need professional help....
12. When I am under stress, the tightness in my muscles is owing to things outside my control....
13. I believe a person can really be the master of his fate.....
14. It is impossible to control my irregular and fast breathing when I am having difficulties.....
15. I understand why my problem(s) varies so much from one occasion to the next.....
16. I am confident of being able to deal successfully with future problems.....
17. In my case, maintaining control over my problem(s) is owing mostly to luck.....

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## SECTION C

### PERSONALITY SCALE

**Directions:** Please indicate your response by ticking each statement that best describes your feeling. Please use the format below as guide.

**SA** – Strongly Agree

**A** – Agree

**N** – Not Decided

**D** – Disagree

**SD** – Strongly Disagree

	ITEMS	S A	A	N	D	S D
<b>CONSCIENTIOUSNESS</b>						
1.	I always get into arguments with my family and co-workers.					
2.	I score high on pacing myself so as to get things done on time.					
3.	I feel like “falling apart” sometimes when I’m under a lot of stress.					
4.	I won’t describe myself as particularly as “light-hearted.”					
5.	I’m intrigued by the patterns I find in art and nature.					
6.	Some people think I’m selfish and egoistical.					
7.	I’m not a methodical person.					
8.	I rarely feel lonely.					
9.	I really enjoy talking to people.					
10.	I believe listening to controversial speakers can only confuse one.					
11.	I would rather cooperate with others than compete with them.					
12.	I try to perform all tasks assigned to me conscientiously.					
<b>AGREEABLENESS</b>						

13.	Sometimes when I'm watching a movie I feel a chill or wave of excitement.					
14.	I'm hard-headed and tough-minded in my attitudes.					
15.	I'm not always as dependable or reliable as I should be.					
16.	I'm seldom sad or depressed.					
17.	My life is fast-paced.					
18.	I have little interest in speculating on the nature of the universe or the human conditions.					
19.	I generally try to be thoughtful and considerate.					
20.	I'm a productive person who always gets the job done.					
21.	I often feel helpless and want someone to solve my problems.					
22.	I'm a very active person.					
23.	I have a lot of intellectual curiosity.					
<b>NEUROTICISM</b>						
24.	If I don't like people, I let them know.					
25.	I never seem to be able to get organized.					
26.	At times I have been so ashamed I just wanted to hide.					
27.	I'd rather go my way than be a leader of others.					
28.	I often enjoy playing with theories or abstract ideas.					
29.	If necessary, I'm willing to manipulate people to get what I want.					
30.	I strive for excellence in everything I do.					
<b>OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE</b>						
31.	I am not a worrier.					
32.	I like to have a lot of people around me.					
33.	I don't like to waste my time day-dreaming.					

34.	I like to be courteous to everyone I meet.					
35.	I keep my belongings clean and neat.					
36.	I often feel inferior to others.					
37.	I laugh easily.					
38.	Once I find the right way to do something I stick to it.					
<b>EXTROVERSION</b>						
39.	I often feel tense and jittery.					
40.	I like to be where the action is.					
41.	Poetry or movies have little or no effect on me.					
42.	I tend to be cynical and sceptical of other people's intentions.					
43.	I have a clear set of goals and work towards them in an orderly way.					
44.	Sometimes I feel completely worthless.					
45.	I usually prefer to do things alone.					
46.	I often try new and foreign foods.					
47.	I believe that most people will take advantage of you if you let them.					
48.	I waste a lot of time before settling down to work,					
49.	I rarely feel fearful or anxious.					
50.	I often feel as if I'm bursting with energy.					
51.	I seldom notice the moods or feelings that different environments produce.					
52.	Most people I know like me.					
53.	I work hard to accomplish my goals.					
54.	I often get angry at the way people treat me.					

55.	I am a cheerful, high-spirited person.					
56.	I believe we should look to our religious leaders for decisions on moral issues.					
57.	Some people think of me as cold and calculating.					
58.	When I make a commitment, I can always be counted on to follow through.					
59.	Very often, I get discouraged and feel like giving up when things go wrong.					
60.	I am not a cheerful optimist.					

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## SECTION D

### IMPULSIVITY MEASURE

**BIS – 11 (Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995).**

**Instructions:** People differ in the ways they act and think in different situations. This is a test to measure some of the ways in which you act and think. Read each statement and place a check in the appropriate box on the right side of the page. Do not spend too much time on any statement. Answer quickly and honestly using the format below as guide.

ITEMS	Rarely/Never	Occasionally	Often	Always
1. I plan tasks carefully.				
2. I do things without thinking.				
3. I am a happy-go-lucky fellow.				
4. I have “racing” thoughts.				
5. I plan trips well ahead of time.				
6. I am self-controlled.				
7. I concentrate easily.				
8. I save regularly.				
9. I find it hard to sit still for long periods of time.				
10. I am a careful thinker.				
11. I plan for job security.				
12. I say things without thinking.				
13. I like to think about complex problems.				
14. I change jobs.				
15. I act “on impulse”.				

16. I get easily bored when solving thought provoking problems.				
17. I have regular medical/dental checkups.				
18. I act on the spur of the moment.				
19. I am a steady thinker.				
20. I change where I live.				
21. I buy things on impulse.				
22. I finish what I start.				
23. I walk and move fast.				
24. I solve problems by trial-and-error.				
25. I spend or charge more than I earn.				
26. I talk fast.				
27. I have outside thoughts when thinking.				
28. I am more interested in the present than the future.				
29. I am restless at lectures or talks.				
30. I plan for the future.				

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## SECTION E

### State Trait Anxiety Inventory

**Instructions:** Read each statement and select the appropriate response to indicate how you feel right now, that is, at this very moment. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best using the format below as guide please.

	1	2	3	4
	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very Much So
1. I feel calm			1	2 3 4
2. I feel secure			1	2 3 4
3. I feel tense			1	2 3 4
4. I feel strained			1	2 3 4
5. I feel at ease			1	2 3 4
6. I feel upset			1	2 3 4
7. I am presently worrying over possible misfortunes			1	2 3 4
8. I feel satisfied			1	2 3 4
9. I feel frightened			1	2 3 4
10. I feel uncomfortable			1	2 3 4
11. I feel self confident			1	2 3 4
12. I feel nervous			1	2 3 4
13. I feel jittery			1	2 3 4
14. I feel indecisive			1	2 3 4
15. I am relaxed			1	2 3 4



16. I feel content	1	2	3	4
17. I am worried	1	2	3	4
18. I feel confused	1	2	3	4
19. I feel steady	1	2	3	4
20. I feel pleasant	1	2	3	4

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## SECTION F

### COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR SCALE

**Instructions:** Please read each statement below and select the appropriate response to indicate your preference. There are no right or wrong answers. Use the format below as guide.

1. Never
2. Occasionally
3. Sometimes
4. Everyday

	ITEMS	1	2	3	4
1.	Make fun of people at work				
2.	Say something fearful to someone at work				
3.	Make a religious or regional (tribal) remark at work				
4.	Abuse or curse someone at work				
5.	Play a mean prank on someone at work				
6.	Act rudely to someone at work				
7.	Take property from work without permission				
8.	Spend time fantasizing or day-dreaming instead of working				
9.	Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent as business expenses				
10.	Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace				
11.	Come in late to work without permission				
12.	Litter (dirty) your work environment				
13.	Neglect your superior's instructions				
14.	Intentionally work slower than you could have done				
15.	Discuss confidential organisational information with an unauthorized person				
16.	Consume alcohol on the job or during working hours				
17.	Put little effort into your work				
18.	Drag out work in order to get overtime				
19.	Blame someone at work for an error you made				

20.	Withhold needed information from someone at work				
21.	Hide something so someone at work couldn't find it				
22.	Threaten to teach someone at work a lesson				
23.	Sometimes interfere with someone at work doing his/her job				

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