



Conference Paper

Workplace Deviant Behaviours: A Critical Review of the Empirical Literature

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Abstract.

Extant empirical research suggests that Workplace Deviant Behaviour (WDB) represents harmful acts that threaten organizations and/or their members. Specifically, research suggests that WDB is associated with a large variety of negative consequences, including decreased organisational commitment, lower levels of self-confidence, higher levels of employee absenteeism, and increased drug use/abuse at work, among others. This chapter critically provides an overview of previous research on the antecedents and consequences of WDB. In particular, the chapter explores WDB constructs and then reviews empirical findings about the typologies, antecedents and consequences of such Behaviour. Before the conclusion, the chapter also identifies several exciting areas for further research.

Keywords: deviant behaviour, interpersonal deviance, organisational deviance, workplace deviance

1. Introduction

Over the past three decades, industrial and organisational psychologists have been trying to better understand employee behaviours that violate significant organisational norms and threaten the well-being of individual employees and the effective functioning of organizations (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Researchers have conceptualized and assigned different names to such behaviours, including "organisational misbehaviour" (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999), workplace deviant behaviours (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), "counterproductive work behaviour" (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Mangione & Quinn, 1975), "dysfunctional behaviour" (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998), "noncomplaint behaviour" (Puffer, 1987), "workplace deviance" (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), antisocial behaviour (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989), employee theft (Greenberg, 1990; Hollinger & Clark, 1982), workplace sabotage

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(Analoui, 1995; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006), organisational revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997), workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), workplace aggression (Baron & Kenny, 1996), cyberloafing (Lim, 2002), cyberdeviancy (Weatherbee, 2010), workplace mobbing and bad behaviour in organizations (Griffin & Lopez, 2005), among others.

This chapter adopts, Robinson and Bennett's (1995) conceptualization of WDB, which refers to voluntary Behaviour engaged by employee that violates significant organisational norms and by so doing threaten to the well-being of an organization and/or its members. Although different terminologies are used, using different theoretical perspectives, organisational behaviour researchers apparently agree that such Behaviour could harm both individuals and organisations (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Robinson and Bennett's (1995) conceptualization is adopted in this chapter because it is highly cited in Management and organisational behaviour literature.

Evidence suggests workplace deviance is harmful Behaviour that poses a serious threat to organizations and/or their members (Alias, Randi, Ismail, & AbuSamah, 2013; El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013; Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Omonijo, Uche, Nwadiafor, & Rotimi, 2013). Specifically, research suggests workplace deviance is associated with a large variety of negative consequences, such as a decrease in organisational commitment (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Caza & Cortina, 2007; Kenny & Judd, 1984; Lim & Teo, 2009; Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012), lower levels of self-confidence (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Y*ı*ld*ı*z, 2007), higher levels of employee absenteeism (Hirschi, 1969), increase in actual or turnover intentions (Agnew, 1992; Sutherland, 1947; Sykes & Matza, 1957), as well as an increase in drug use/abuse at work, among others (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

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

2. Typology of WDB

A comprehensive review of the literature on deviant Behaviour indicates that some early studies have attempted to classify workplace deviance into various dimensions (e.g.,



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

To address these shortcomings, several studies have been conducted to empirically develop a comprehensive typology of workplace deviance using different scientific approaches (Martin & Hine, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). For example, Hollinger and Clark (1982) described two dimensions of workplace deviance: property deviance and production deviance. The former dimension refers to acts related to acquiring or damaging the property of an organization, such as an employee using stationeries belonging to their employer for personal use without permission or stealing the property of an organization. Production deviance is essential acts that violate the norms of an organization in terms of quantity and quality of work that has been carried out by an employee, such as working slowly, coming to work late and leaving early.

In another study, Robinson and Bennett (1995) extended the work of Hollinger and Clark (1982) to develop an empirically derived typology of employee deviance using a multidimensional scaling approach. Two samples were utilized in the study. In the first sample, 70 respondents from four different sources in Toledo, Ohio, were included in the study: seven from a university office, 10 were technical staff in an industrial company, 38 were from the neighbourhood, and the remaining 38 were students who enrolled for the MBA programme. While in the second sample, 180 part-time evening students in the Master of Business Administration (MBA) program at a Midwestern University were included. The study's results suggest that WDB varies along two dimensions: minor versus serious and interpersonal deviance (WDB-I) versus organisational deviance (WDB-O). Based on these two dimensions, Robinson and Bennett (1995) further argued that WDB seems to fall into four distinct but related types of deviance: Production deviance is defined as behaviours that "violate the formally proscribed norms delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to be accomplished" (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, pp. 333-334). Examples of production deviance include but are not limited to arriving late for work, leaving work early without prior permission, and on-the-job drug abuse or misuse to get high. Property deviance reflects "those instances where employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the work organization without authorization" (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, p. 333). Examples of property deviance include inflating hours worked to get more pay, intentionally wasting organization's materials



or supplies, and collecting bribes at work. Political deviance reflects "engagement in social interaction that puts other individuals at a personal or political disadvantage" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 566). Examples of political deviance include lying about coworkers, workplace gossip, favouritism, and spreading false rumours. On the other hand, personal aggression reflects behaviours such as sexual harassment at work, abusive supervision, and shouting in the workplace (see Figure 1).



Figure 1: Robinson and Bennett's (1995) Typology of WDB.

Later, Gruys and Sackett (2003) extended the work of Robinson and Bennett (1995) to develop a typology of counterproductive work behaviour using a multidimensional scaling technique. Two samples were utilized for the study. In each sample, 343 college alumni of a Midwestern university in the United States were included in the survey. Principal component analysis was performed to determine the dimensionality of counterproductive work behaviour. The results of the principal components analysis yielded two dimensions of counterproductive work behaviour: interpersonal versus organisational dimension and task relevance dimension. The interpersonal versus organisational dimension refers to the extent at which the behaviours are directed at an individual or at the organization. This dimension reflects the interpersonal versus organisational dimension of workplace deviance proposed by the Robinson and Bennett (1995). The task relevance consists of two aspects of employee behaviour: positive and negative The first aspect includes all positive behaviours relevant to tasks that are carried out within the context of a job such as using time and resources appropriately. On the



other hand, the second aspect of task relevance dimension encompasses all negative behaviours relevant to tasks that are performed within the context of a job such as theft and verbal actions toward others.

Relatedly, Martin and Hine (2005) conducted a survey to develop the dimensionality of workplace incivility using Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) analysis. Three hundred and sixty eight Australian adult employees from five samples participated in the study. The results of the principal axis factoring analysis using the self-ratings yielded four distinct categories of workplace incivility: hostility, privacy invasion, exclusionary Behaviour, and gossiping. Hostility refers to an individual's predisposition to strike on others or feel anger toward others easily (Chaplin, 1982). Privacy invasion refers to the unwelcome tendency of an individual to get access to other people's privacy. Exclusionary Behaviour, also known as ostracism in organisational behaviour literature, is defined as the tendency of an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group of individuals to ignore or exclude an individual or group. On the other hand, gossiping is defined as an informal and sentimental talk by few members of an organization about other member of that organization in his absence (Kurland & Pelled, 2000).

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

In summary, following Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of WDB, numerous studies about conceptualizations and dimensionality of deviant Behaviour at work were carried out in different organisational settings (e.g., Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012a; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). However, results of these studies were in line with Robinson and Bennett's (1995) two dimensions of workplace deviance (i.e. interpersonal deviance and organisational deviance). Besides, it is worth noting that specific types of deviant behaviours are not sufficient enough to predict employees' negative outcomes. This is because employees



actually engage in a much wider range of voluntary behaviours that violate significant organisational norms. Therefore, this study adopts the typology of workplace deviance proposed by Robinson and Bennett (1995). Furthermore, their typology is broader and it is much suitable in the Nigerian context. Finally, their typology of workplace deviance has been most widely accepted within the organisational behaviour literature.

3. Antecedents of WDB

Basically, the antecedents of workplace deviant Behaviour can be classified into four categories: individual factors, organisational factors, group factors, and job factors (Chullen, Dunford, Angermeier, Boss, & Boss, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2010; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Salgado, 2002; Øardi, 2001; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Individual factors refers to a variety of factors including demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, marital status), personality characteristics, attitudes, values, and emotions that influence employees to engage in acts of deviance (Robbins & Judge, 2010). Organisational factors refers to the situational factors such as organisational justice, organisational trust, organisational culture, and organisational politics that influence individual to engage in deviant Behaviour at work (Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012b; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Group factors refer to the factors that influence individuals to engage or refrain from deviant Behaviour at work as a result of interactions with members of the group. Some of the variables within group include group size, group cohesiveness, and group norms, among others. On the other hand, job factors are factors related to the job such as job security, job satisfaction, and job stress, among others. Some of the antecedents of workplace deviance that have been investigated by scholars are reviewed here.

3.1. Individual factors

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



Gruys & Sackett, 2003) and gender (Cohen, Panter, & Turan, 2013; Fagbohungbe et al., 2012a).

In particular, Douglas and Martinko (2001) examined the effects individual differences on workplace aggression among 151 employees from two organizations located in the north-eastern United States. There results showed that individual differences (i.e., trait anger, attribution style, negative affectivity, attitudes toward revenge, self-control, and previous exposure to aggressive cultures) accounted for significant proportions of incremental variance (62%) in predicting workplace aggression.

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

Ashton and Shin (2005b) found significant incremental validities for HonestyHumility over Big Five in predicting workplace antisocial behaviour. Recently, Marcus, Ashton and Lee (2013) indicated that integrity accounted for practically significant proportions of incremental variance beyond Big Five dimensions across all integrity tests in predicting counterproductive work behaviour.

Despite the aforementioned empirical studies on the role of individual factors in explaining the likelihood of employees to engage in deviant Behaviour at work, literatures indicate that less attention has been paid to the effects of other individual factors, especially self-regulatory efficacy. Even if any such studies are limited to examining specific types of deviant behaviours, such as, delinquent Behaviour among adolescents (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino, & Pastorelli, 2003), and violent conduct (Caprara, Regalia, & Bandura, 2002). Thus, to fill this empirical gap, the present study examines the interaction effects of self-regulatory efficacy on WDB.



3.2. Organisational factors

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

In particular, perceived injustice has been reported to be positively related to individual's tendency to engage in to deviant Behaviour at the workplace (Ambrose et al., 2002; Bechtoldt et al., 2007). In a longitudinal study among 602 full-time employed students at a French-speaking university, El Akremi *et al.* (2010) examined the mediating role of perceived organisational support and leader–member exchange (LMX) on the relationship between orgnisational justice and workplace deviance. The results showed that the relationship of procedural justice and organization-directed deviance was fully mediated by perceived organisational support. Furthermore, LMX was found to be a full mediating variable on the relationships of informational justice, interpersonal justice and workplace deviance.

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

With regards to effects of organisational politics and WDBs, Bodla and Danish (2011) conducted a study to test their hypothesis that social exchange perceptions moderate the relationship between perceptions of organisational politics and antisocial Behaviour among 577 executives from variety organizations in Pakistan including manufacturing

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organizations, financial services organizations and telecommunication organizations. The study revealed a significant positive relationship between perceptions of organisational politics and antisocial Behaviour. Rashid, Saleem, and Rashid (2012) also investigated the mediating role of job stress and job satisfaction on the influence of perceived organisational politics on workplace deviance that was operationalized as theft and intention to quit. The study was carried out among 145 employees from variety organizations in Pakistan. The study found a significant positive relationship between organisational politics and employee theft. But there was no significant relationship between organisational politics and intention to quit. It was also found that both job stress and low job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between organisational politics and workplace deviant behaviour (i.e. employee theft).

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

In sum the evidence regarding influence of organisational factors, especially organisational formal control on WDB is inconclusive (de Lara, Tacoronte, & Ding, 2006; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2013). One explanation for why the findings were inconclusive across numerous studies is that boundary conditions exist, such that theorized relationship between organisational formal control and WDB are contingent upon certain factors.

3.3. Group factors

Previous research has shown that group factors, such as group size and group cohesiveness, among others can play a significant role in predicting workplace criteria, particularly WDB. For example Høigaard, Säfvenbom, and Tønnessen (2006) extended research on group dynamics to the soccer industry by investigating the relationship between group cohesion, group norms, and perception of social loafing among 118 **KnE Social Sciences**



junior so showed

junior soccer players from 12 separate teams in Norway. Multiple regression analysis showed that group cohesion and group norms were negatively related to perceived social loafing among the soccer players. Similarly, Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) conducted a cross-level field study to investigate the moderating role of dissatisfaction with group members on the influence of work groups on antisocial Behaviour among 187 employees from 35 different groups in Midwestern United States organizations. Consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1978) and social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), results of hierarchical regression analysis showed that antisocial Behaviour exhibited by work group significantly influences individual members of the workgroup to engage in antisocial Behaviour. It was also found that this relationship was moderated by dissatisfaction with group members.

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

3.4. Job factors

A number of job factors have been linked to WDBs, including job stress (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Fox et al., 2001; Omar, Halim, Zainah, & Farhadi, 2011; Penney & Spector, 2005; Salami, 2010; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Tucker et al., 2009), job attitudes (Bowling, 2010; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006), dimensions of human resource practices such as and job description, job security, and internal career opportunities (Arthur, 2011; Benjamin & Samson, 2011; Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007; Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles, & König, 2010; Shamsudin, Subramaniam, & Ibrahim, 2011), among others. In particular, Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and König (2010) conducted a study to investigate the effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, deviant Behaviour, and negative emotions among 320 managers in United States. The Structural Equation Modelling results showed a significant negative relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction. It was also found that job insecurity has



significant, direct and indirect effects on workplace deviant Behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour and negative emotions among U. S. managers.

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

In summary, the above studies have made significant contributions to the literature of workplace deviance by consistently demonstrating the significant effects of job factors (e.g. job stress, job description, job security, performance appraisal and internal career opportunities) on workplace deviant behaviours. Yet one major deficiency that is evident in the aforementioned studies is that they were mainly carried out in the United States and Asia, paying less attention to the African continent, particularly in Nigeria. Hence, further investigation of workplace deviance is needed in the Nigerian context.

4. Consequences of WDB

Although most of the extant empirical studies on workplace deviance have focused primarily on the antecedents of WDB, there is also a growing body of research on its consequences. Several studies (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Lim & Teo, 2009; Pearson & Porath, 2005) have demonstrated that workplace deviance has many negative consequences for the organization and its members. For example, Bowling and Beehr (1984) conducted a meta-analytic study on the antecedents and consequences of workplace harassment, which is specific form of WDB on a total of 90 samples. They reported that victims of interpersonal workplace deviance (i.e., sexual harassment) have a higher tendency to



report lower levels of organisational commitment, increased generic strains, depression, frustration, anxiety, burnout, negative emotions at work and higher levels of physical symptoms.

In a study involving 335 schoolteachers from government and non-government high schools in Australia Djurkovic et al., (1947) indicated that targets of work-related harassment have a higher tendency to quit work. Bowling and Gruys (2010) indicated that WDB is positively associated with decreased employee productivity as well as loss of both existing and potential customers. Relatedly, in a three-wave prospective study on the risk of turnover among targets of workplace bullying

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

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

5. Empirical Studies on WDB in Nigerian context

Although many studies have been carried out to examine various factors that influence individuals to engage in workplace deviant behaviours, empirical research on workplace deviance especially in the Nigerian context is limited. Hence, there is a need to further investigate workplace deviant behaviour so that the findings from the studies can be generalized to the Nigerian context. For example, Babajide (2010) conducted a study to investigate the influence of personal factors including workfamily life, commitment, job satisfaction, and general health on turnover intention among 725 employees in



Nigerian work organizations. Regression results revealed that work-family life, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and general health were significant predictors of employees' turnover intention. Ejere (2010) included 356 teachers from 47 public primary schools in Uyo, Nigeria to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, meaningfulness of work, and job stress on absenteeism. Results showed that job stress, job satisfaction, and perceived meaningfulness of work were significant predictors of employee absenteeism. In another study, Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, and Ayodeji (2012a) conducted a study to investigate whether there were significant gender differences in the occurrence of workplace deviant behaviours. Six hundred and ninety six employees from various public and private organizations in Nigeria participated in the study. Result of the independent t-test revealed that the occurrence of workplace deviant behaviours at both controlled work environment and less controlled work environment was higher for men than for women. One possible explanation for this significant difference could be due to variation in personality traits, such as impulsivity, extroversion and aggressionhostility. For example, men are more impulsive and under-controlled than their women counterpart (Kogan, 1974; Lisak & Roth, 1988). Studies showed that individuals with higher level of impulsivity have a higher tendency to engage in WDBs than those with lower level of impulsivity (Henle, 2005).

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

A study of 200 female media practitioners in Oyo State, Nigeria by Adeyemo and Afolabi (2007) found that sexual harassment, job stress, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were significant predictors of withdrawal cognition. In another study, Adebayo and Ogunsina (2011) conducted a study to investigate the relations between supervisory Behaviour, job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention among 350





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

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

In sum, although quite a number of empirical studies have been conducted on workplace deviance or similar constructs in the Nigerian context, most of them did not consider various forms of deviant Behaviour; rather, they looked at specific types of deviant Behaviour at work such as absenteeism, withdrawal cognition, turnover intention and fraudulent intention. Hence, this study incorporates Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of workplace deviance to examine the moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship among organisational formal controls, perceived group norms and workplace deviance. This is because Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology is broader, most widely accepted and it is much suitable in the Nigerian context.

6. Suggestions for future research

One of the promising areas for future research is conducting a study to test the discriminant validity of the workplace deviance related constructs to determine whether these constructs are similar not. Robinson and Bennett, (1997) and Shamsudin (2006) indicated that there is lack of agreement regarding not only the terminology used, but also the definition offered what is considered to be a similar WDB construct. Hence, this supports our suggestion that future research is needed to test the discriminant validity of WDB related constructs, possibly using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) because of its robustness (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005).



Another important area for future research is examining workplace deviant behaviours using situation-specific measure. Bowling and Gruys (2010), for instance, noted that investigating WDB using generic workplace deviance measures (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox, et al., 2001) represents an important departure from the way in which workplace deviance is typically measured. Hence, this also supports our suggestion that more studies are needed on workplace deviance using situationspecific measure.

7. Concluding remarks

This paper has attempted to provide a comprehensive review of the WDB. The paper critically reviews previous research on typology, measures, antecedents and consequences of WDB. The paper argued that despite the theoretical and methodological importance of situation-specific measure of workplace deviance, however, there is a paucity of empirical studies examining WDBs using such approach, which suggests more studies are needed on workplace deviance using situation-specific measure.

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