

**PAY SATISFACTION, PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT AND INTENT TO LEAVE AS  
PREDICTORS OF COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR AMONG NON-  
TEACHING STAFF OF FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-EKITI**

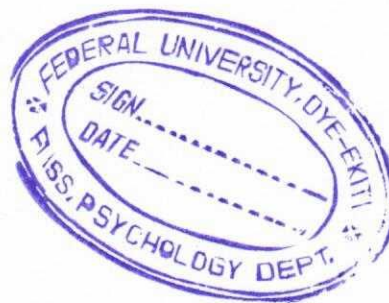
**BY**

**ORDU UZOR FRIDAY**

MATRICULATION NUMER: PSY/11/0211

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY  
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES  
FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-EKITI, EKITI-STATE

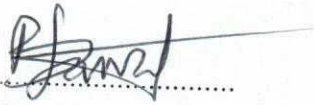
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**SEPTEMBER, 2015**

## CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this work was carried by **ORDU UZOR FRIDAY**  
(Matriculation Number Psy/11/0211) under supervision of Dr. Abiodun M. Lawal of the  
department of psychology, Federal University Oye-Ekiti during the 2014/2015 session.



Dr. Abiodun M. Lawal  
Supervisor  
Department of Psychology  
Federal University Oye-Ekiti,  
Ekiti-State.

28/09/2015  
Sign & Date

.....  
**Professor Benjamin Omolayo**  
Head of the Department  
Department of Psychology  
Federal University Oye-Ekiti,  
Ekiti-State.

.....  
Sign & Date

## DEDICATION

This project is especially dedicated to Almighty God who granted me this great opportunity to be among the chosen and piloted one for seeing me through and to my jewel. To my father late Thomas John Chiaka Ogwezi Ordu, my precious mother Racheal Ordu, and Mrs Omolara Oluyede who showed me the way of truth and granted me the opportunity to have initial education for being always there for me.

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## ABSTRACT

Counterproductive work behaviour refers to behaviour of employees that harms an organization or its members; which can be influenced by some psychological factors. The study examined pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent-to leave as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. With the use of Ex-post facto research design, two hundred non-teaching staffs were accidentally sampled. Questionnaires consisting of socio-demographics, pay satisfaction, psychological contract, intent-to leave and counterproductive work behaviour scales were administered to the participants. Three hypotheses were tested with multiple regression and t-test for independent samples. Result revealed that pay satisfaction and intent-to leave independently predicted counterproductive work behaviour. ( $\beta = -.14$ ,  $t = -1.98$ ,  $p < .05$ ; and  $\beta = .16$ ,  $t = 2.24$ ,  $p < .05$ ) respectively. However, psychological contract did not independently predict counterproductive work behaviour ( $\beta = -.00$ ,  $t = -0.03$ ,  $p > .05$ ). All the predictor variables jointly predicted counterproductive work behaviour ( $F(3,196) = 3.30$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Age significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviour ( $t = -2.23$ ;  $df = 188$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Findings were discussed in relation to past studies. It was concluded that certain psychological variables as investigated in the study are relevant in reducing counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff.

**Key Words:** Pay satisfaction, psychological contract, intent-to leave, counterproductive work behaviour

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the Study

Research on the concept of counterproductive work behaviour has been of interest to researchers throughout the history research in discipline of Behavioural sciences. In today world of competitive business, organisation is struggling to improve their competitive advantage in order to maintain or compete successfully with their rival firms in global market. The behaviour of employee in an organisation goes a long way in influencing the competitive power of the firm and employee performance. Skilful employee level of counterproductive behaviour may hamper the level of organisational growth and development (Verton, 2000).

Among the various definitions of counter work behavior, Robinson & Bennet (1995) defined it as behavior which violates organizational norms in some harmful manner. This harm can be for organization in form of any behavior like theft, sabotage, absenteeism etc. and for individual in form of drugs; alcoholism etc. Organizations are increasingly realizing importance of reducing counter work behavior as cost. They are more interested in identification of factors which determine such behaviors. Counterproductive work behaviour is quite a complex phenomenon as Spector & Fox(2002) points that this behavior is normally hidden. Thus we can argue that it is more dangerous for the organizations.

“Counterproductive work behaviours on the other hand is something which can become a worse nightmare for an organization’s management, as employees demonstrating such behavior are not non-productive but are counter-productive, because they tend to play a role which altogether reverses the organization’s progression”(Bukhari & Ali, 2009). Satisfied employees show their commitment towards organization by engaging in behaviors



which are beneficial for the organizations rather than engaging in such behaviors which result in counter work behavior.

Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox (2002) relate work environment and emotions with counterproductive work behaviours. There are various components of work environment; organizations must attempt to focus each of these components to reduce incidents of counterproductive work behaviour. There has been extensive research on emotions and different studies have established the importance of emotions and their subsequent impact on employee and organizational performance. Thus emotions play an important role in determining counterproductive work behaviour in the organizations thus Spector and Fox(2002) consider negative emotions as a potential determinant of counterproductive work behaviour. The negative emotions like hopelessness, frustration and disgust are generally referred to as cynicism (Anderson & Bateman, 1997) which can result in non-productive behaviors (Storm & Spector, 1987).

Mount, Ilies and Jhonson (2006) consider personality as a determinant of counterproductive work behaviour. It is important to note that though external factors contribute towards determining counterproductive work behaviour, internal factors do play a role in this regard , thus type of personality also contribute towards explaining the phenomena of counterproductive work behaviour. While counterproductive work behaviour is one extreme of employee behavior, the other dimension to continuum is Organizational Citizenship behavior (OCB) which is described as “defending organization when it is criticized” (Turnipseed & Rassuli, 2005). Dalal(2005) suggest that these concepts are opposite as one counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) is harmful while other organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is beneficial for the organization. Similarly Baker (2005) is of the view that counterproductive work behaviour and organizational citizenship behaviour are negatively correlated. Thus the concept of counterproductive work behaviour is

important to understand as if organizations are able to reduce or eliminate counterproductive work behaviour it will result likelihood of organizational citizenship behaviour in the organization which is a beneficial for the organizations

Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB) has had numerous attentions from the Western researchers. Counterproductive work behaviour refers to behaviour of employees that harms an organization or its members (Spector and Fox, 2002) and it includes such as acts as theft, sabotage, verbal abuse, withholding of effort, lying, refusing to cooperate and physical assault (Penney and Spector, 2005). As a result of investigation done by other Western scholars, different terminologies surfaced which implied the same meaning as counterproductive work behaviour such as: organizational delinquency (Hogan and Hogan, 1989), organization-motivated aggression (O'Leary-Kelly *et al.*, 1996), organizational retaliatory behaviours, workplace aggression and workplace deviance (Robinson and Bennet, 1995), revenge and intimidation (Gallagher *et al.*, 2008) and antisocial behaviour in organizations (Lee *et al.*, 2005).

This growing interest in counterproductive work behaviour is due to the common counterproductive work behaviour occurrences in organizations which had posed adverse effects on both organizations in terms of low productivity, increased insurance costs, lost or damage property and increased turnover (Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002); Penney and Spector, 2002) and the people in terms of increased dissatisfaction (Keashly *et al.*, 1994) and expressed job stress. These behaviours are likely to be influenced by individuals' personality traits and attitudes (Douglas & Martinko, 2001), environmental antecedents, such as job stressors (Penney & Spector, 2005) and organizational variables such as employment relationships, psychological contract violations and organizational justice (Penny & Spector, 2005). It should be highlighted that, most of these studies have been undertaken by Western scholars. Only few studies on counterproductive were conducted by Asian researchers and

the numbers of studies are minuscule in Malaysia. Therefore, more empirical evidence on the predictors of counterproductive work behaviour needs further investigations especially in the Asian context. Recent years have seen an explosion of interest among organizational researchers in counterproductive work behaviors (CWB), such as aggression, interpersonal conflict, sabotage, and theft.

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is volitional behavior that harms or intends to harm organizations or people in organizations (Fox & Spector, 2005; Spector, 2011; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006). The categories of behavior that comprise counterproductive work behaviour are: abuse toward others (e.g., starting or continuing a damaging or harmful rumor at work; being nasty or rude to a client or customer); production deviance (e.g., purposely doing your work incorrectly; purposely working slowly when things need to get done); sabotage (e.g., purposely wasting your employer's materials/supplies; purposely damaging a piece of equipment or property); theft (e.g., stealing something belonging to your employer; putting in to be paid for more hours than you work); and withdrawal (e.g., coming to work late without permission; staying home from work and saying you were sick when you weren't).

These are behaviors that are generally regarded as unethical and a threat to the well-being of organizations and their members. Although counterproductive work behaviour is comprised of five categories (Spector *et al.*, 2006), most research that assesses the construct uses total sum scores rather than subscale scores (e.g., Dalal, 2005; Fox *et al.*, 2011; Spector *et al.*, 2010; Zettler & Hilbig, 2010). Thus, counterproductive work behaviour is an aggregated set of behaviors, rather than a single type behavior. Aggregated behaviors are more consistent across time and situations compared to single behaviors, and they can be predicted more reliably by personality and situational variables (Fleeson & Nofhle, 2009; Funder, 2008). Counterproductive work behaviour can be assessed with both self-reports and

observer-reports (e.g., reports by coworkers or managers); however, a recent meta-analysis (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012) found that self-reports provide more reliable and valid assessments of counterproductive work behaviour than observer reports. Self- and other-ratings of counterproductive work behaviour do tend to be highly correlated, but observer-ratings of Guilt Proneness and counterproductive work behaviour under-report the frequency of counterproductive work behaviour, likely because counterproductive behaviors are intended by the perpetrators to be unobservable (Berry *et al.*, 2012; Dalal, 2005; Spector & Fox, 2005). Put simply, individuals have more information about their own behaviors than do observers. Thus, although observer-reports may be less subject to socially-desirable responding, they necessarily rely on a source with incomplete information about the target's behavior—only the target knows what counterproductive acts she or he has performed.

Accordingly, Berry *et al.* (2012) recommend assessing counterproductive work behaviour with self-reports and taking steps to assure respondents of their anonymity, for example by having them complete counterproductive work behaviour assessments online, where they feel a sense of privacy. Spector and Fox (2005) reviewed the predictors of counterproductive work behaviour and concluded that it is determined by both individual differences and situational factors (see also Berry *et al.*, 2012; Spector, 2011). For example, counterproductive work behaviour is predicted by job satisfaction and job stressors, as well as negative emotions; it has an inconsistent relationship with positive emotions (Spector & Fox, 2005). Interpersonal conflict at work—the degree to which people get into arguments and a retreated poorly at their job (Spector & Jex, 1998)—is among the most frequently reported job stressors (Keenan & Newton, 1985) and is one of the strongest known predictors of counterproductive work behaviour (Fox *et al.*, 2011; Spector *et al.*, 2006; Spector *et al.*, 2010).

Some researchers argue that counterproductive work behaviour and unethical behavior are distinct constructs, with counterproductive work behaviour being a violation of organizational norms and unethical behavior a violation of societal norms (Kish-Gephart, Harrison, & Trevino, 2010). However, in most circumstances harming others is considered a moral violation (Graham, Nosek, Haidt, Iyer, Koleva, & Ditto, 2011; Haidt, 2007; Rai & Fiske, 2011). Given that harm is integral to the definition of counterproductive work behaviour, it may be helpful to view counterproductive work behavior through the lens of unethical behavior. One reason is because viewing Guilt Proneness and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) as unethical behavior allows for the prediction that personality and situational factors that affect unethical behavior will also affect counterproductive work behaviour. One such factor is guilt proneness.

Counterproductive work behaviour, according to Sackett, Berry, Wiemann & Laczko (2006), can be conceptualised as any forms of employee's behaviour or activities that goes against legitimate interest of an organisation. Various forms or dimension of counterproductive behaviour have been well-documented in psychological literature. These range from absenteeism, theft, cyber loafing, withdrawal, turnover, work deviance etc. High degree of counterproductive work behaviour not only impairs organisation performance but also hampered overall organisational growth and development (Verton, 2000). For instance cyber-loafing a form of counterproductive behaviour which has to do with high internet surfing, cyber loafing tends to impaired employee level of concentration and in turn reduces their job performance. Lim (2002) noted that cyber loafing become a big problem in an organisational setting as more and more people use computer to carried out their duties in their place of work. For instance counterproductive behaviour like cyber loafing according to Verton (2000) cost United State Firms/Business 5.3 Billion United State Dollars in 1999 and

it has also been reported to lead to 30-40% decrease in employee productivity (see, Bronikowski, 2000).

Psychological contract research has been identified as a useful concept for understanding employees' relationships with their employers and subsequent consequences including work attitudes and performance. The psychological contract is generally defined in the academic literature as the implicit and explicit promises two parties make to one another (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). For example, an employer may make a promise to its employee to provide job security and training, and an employee may promise to work hard and to be loyal. The contract is termed *psychological* because it reflects each party's perceptions of the relationship and promises involved. A distinguishing feature between psychological contracts and legal contracts is that psychological contracts can be implicit (Conway & Briner, 2009). That is, these promises can be unwritten and unspoken by being inferred from actions and behaviors of others in the organization.

Psychological contract has also been reported to be correlated with counterproductive work behaviour. Psychological contract breach tends to be positively associated with counterproductive behaviour. The findings of Chao, Cheung and Wu (2011) justify the point above when they reported that psychological contract breach is positively associated with counterproductive work behaviour. Employees respond to breach in contract by engaging in all forms of activities that is against the interest of the organisation. The employee may engage in absenteeism, withdrawal and some situation engage in embezzlement of firm's money to compensate their loss. Also Turnover-intention has been reported to be significant determinant of counterproductive work-behaviour.

Turnover-intention can be defined as the intention to leave one place of work for other better job opportunity in another firm. Turnover can also be conceptualized as the voluntary

intention of an employee to leave an organization. In organisation setting, turnover of an employee can be conceptualized as the rate at which employers losses their employees. According to Elogovan (2001), turnover intention is conceptualized as the desire or willingness of an employee to quit or leave his/her job in the near future or as soon as there are job opportunity. It also refers to the voluntary (vs. involuntary as in termination) intention of an employee to leave an organization. While employees may intend to leave voluntarily due to the relocation of a spouse, redefined personal role (e.g., primary care giver for an aging parent or staying home with a child or new infant), or retirement, of particular concern to the employer (and human resources) is when highly- productive, key employees intend to leave based on reasons within the control of the employer: insufficient pay, insufficient income, poor working conditions, difficulties with supervisors, and problematic working environment. The examination of an employee's turnover intent allows the opportunity for human resources to take a proactive approach to increasing retention in an organization as opposed to gleaning the same information from an exit interview associated with a voluntary turnover. Employee with high intention to quit their work place may engage in all forms of counterproductive activities since their mind is no longer with their present organisation.

Pay satisfaction is of primary concern to both employers and employees. For employees, pay is of obvious importance in terms of satisfying their economic needs. It is important that they are satisfied with their overall pay as this may impact their attitudes and behaviours. Employee dissatisfaction with pay, for instance, can decrease commitment to the job, increase stealing, and catalyze turnover. An organization's reward system is increasingly viewed as a strategic tool in aligning the interests of workers and management and improving firm performance; that is, organizations may use their pay system to motivate strategic behaviours (Lawler, 1971, 1990; Milkovich and Newman, 2008), making it crucial that

employees are satisfied with their pay. Finally pay satisfaction may also be associated with counterproductive work behaviour. An employee that is dissatisfied with their level of payment in their work place may engage in counterproductive work behaviour than their counterparts that are satisfied with their payment level. A payment which includes salary and reward system tends to improve employee commitment in their place of work.

## 1.2 Statement of Problem

In any business organisation, one of their main objectives is to make maximum profit to ensure sustainable organisational growth and development. Counterproductive behaviour is an act that can hamper the objectives of the firm. Various forms of counterproductive behaviour such as theft, cyber loafing, turnover etc have been reported to have great consequences on organisational growth and development (Lim, 2002). Counterproductive behaviour is a big problem in organisational settings today; it goes a long way in explaining level of organisational growth and development.

Meanwhile the relationships between pay satisfaction, intent to leave, psychological contract and counterproductive behaviour might have been widely researched in the discipline of behavioural sciences especially in the developed countries. Most of these studies have not been conclusive and even most of the studies lack ability to generalised the findings to population other than which sample were selected. For instance the study of Chao, Cheung and Wu (2011) was able to established relationship between psychological contract and counterproductive work behaviour; however Chao, Cheung and Wu (2011) claim the study lack ability to generalise their findings as small sample were used to carry out the study. Apart from this, no study have been carried out on the relationship among psychological contract, pay satisfaction, intent to leave and counterproductive work



behaviour among non-teaching staff in Federal University Oye-Ekiti. This study aimed at improving the body of knowledge by examine psychological contract, pay satisfaction, intent to leave as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. Thus the study aimed at answering the following questions at the end.

- (i) Do pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent to leave independently and jointly predict counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff in Federal University Oye-Ekiti?
- (ii) Is there gender difference in counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching of Federal University Oye-Ekiti?
- (iii) Is there age difference in counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching of Federal University Oye-Ekiti?

### **1.3 Purpose of study**

The main study objective was to examine pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent to leave as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. The following are the specifics objectives;

- i. To examine if pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent to leave will independently and jointly predict counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff Federal University Oye-Ekiti.
- ii. To examine gender difference in counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff Federal University Oye-Ekiti.
- iii. To examine age difference in counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff Federal University Oye-Ekiti.

#### 1.4 Relevance of Study

In its broadest sense the study findings is aimed at improving on the existing literature on the issue relating to pay satisfaction, intent to leave, psychological contract and counterproductive work behaviour. It is also expected to improve existing data on the counterproductive behaviour. The findings of this study as well as the theoretical build-up will also benefit the psychologist, consultant firms, human resources management, stakeholders, counsellors, employer and employees. The study would help the university management to be able to better check counterproductive behaviour among the non-teaching staff. The study would also provide information on how to reduce counterproductive behaviour among non-teaching staff, as well as providing students with empirical information on counterproductive work behaviour and its prevalence in academic settings.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Theoretical Frame work

The following theories will be used in explaining the variables under investigation

##### 2.1.1 Equity Theory of Intent to Leave

Equity theory was particularly useful in understanding the process individuals pass through when contemplating turnover. According to the exchange model of equity theory, when two people create an exchange, the individuals may consider the exchange equitable if inputs are perceived equitable to outcomes; however, inequity is achieved when inputs are perceived inequitable to outcomes for either party (Adams, 1963; Cook & Parcel, 1975). Adams (in Pritchard, 1969) reported that a person can reduce inequity between his and another's inputs and outcomes by cognitively reducing inputs and outcomes, persuading the other person to change his inputs or outcomes, change his own inputs or outcomes, change his comparison person, or leave.

According to equity theory, is based on perceptual and comparative processes (Adams, 1963; Lawler, 1990; Lum., 1998). Equity theorists posit that employees seek the equilibrium between what they invest or put into their jobs in terms of effort, knowledge and skills, and what they get as an outcome through compensation or recognition (Adams, 1963; Greenberg, 1987, 1990; Milkovich and Newman, 2008). Employees perceive what is fair by comparing their work to those with referent others, either internal to the organization (e.g. those holding similar positions within the same organization) or external (e.g. those holding similar positions with a different employer). Equity is achieved when the input-output ratio of the employee equals that of a referent other. What an individual selects as a reference

depends on its availability and relevance. Lawler (1971) further suggests that satisfaction or dissatisfaction with pay is influenced by the discrepancy between what employees perceive they should receive for their inputs (or their pay) and what they contribute to the organization.

There are three outcomes when employees compare their input/output ratio with referent others that may influence their performance. In situations where the outcomes or outputs are perceived to exceed inputs, the individual is being over rewarded. On the contrary, if inputs are perceived to exceed the outputs, the individual is being under-rewarded. The optimal situation is when inputs equal outputs and the reward is considered equitable. If the input-output ratio is not in balance, individuals will experience distress caused from guilt of being over-rewarded or the feelings of resentment from being under-rewarded, and these feelings will serve as a motivational factor leading to restoration of equity (Greenberg, 1987, 1990; Huseman, Hatfield and Miles, 1987; Huseman and Hatfield, 1990). Employees who feel under-rewarded will attempt to restore equity by reducing inputs such as increasing absenteeism, coming late to work, taking longer breaks, and decreasing productivity, or by leaving the organization, all of which are very costly for an employer (Greenberg, 1990).

### **2.1.2 Leader- Member Exchange Theory of Psychological Contract**

As Marks (2001) argues, unlike an employment contract, informal communication and implicit contracting processes enact a psychological contract. Since the organization as a collective entity is not itself able to negotiate or communicate, the organization does so through its agents. Employees often view their direct supervisors as the chief agent and the personification of the organization's commitment to them (Levinson, 1965; Rousseau, 1995; Shore and Tetrick, 1994). Drawing on this idea, the dyadic relationship between the

supervisor and the employee, namely the leader member exchange quality, may alter the perceptions of the employee regarding the psychological contract between the employee and the organization.

The leader member exchange model posits that leaders' behaviors are not necessarily consistent across all subordinates (Aryee and Chen, 2006; Lee 2007). It is generally considered that managers and supervisors develop close relationships with only a few subordinates and these relationships are characterized by high quality exchanges (high level of leader member exchange quality) (Ellemers 2004; Epitropaki and Martin, 2005). Such exchanges are characterized by mutual trust, respect and obligation (Graen and Schieman, 1978; Graen 1982a b), by positive support, common bonds, open communication, shared loyalty (Dansereau 1975; Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) and affection (Liden 1993). Thus, a higher-quality rather than lower-quality relationship seems likely to result in a higher level of communication concerning reciprocal obligations between the manager and employee, which in turn, will tend to enhance the level of agreement on these obligations (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Tekleab and Taylor, 2003).

However, in the case of the relationship between psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behaviour, leader member exchange quality may accentuate the effect of violation on organizational citizenship behaviour. The decision to engage in or withhold this discretionary behavior depends on the organization's treatment of the individual (Organ, 1988,1990). Therefore, a basic premise of the theory is that employees will either engage in organizational citizenship behaviour to reciprocate the organization for fair treatment or withhold it should the organization fail to provide adequate inducements, in other words, violate the psychological contract (Organ,1990). Although, a psychological contract, as was mentioned before, is something attributed to the whole organization, the supervisor is mainly responsible for enacting it. However, there are other agents of the

organization, such as top management and human resource (HR) professionals, that have effects on the psychological contract (Turnley and Feldman, 1999) and the supervisor's behavior may not be prototypical of the organization as a whole. On the other hand, employees who have high quality relationships with leaders have correspondingly high expectations of their treatment by the organization and its agents (Piccolo 2008). These expectations are likely to make psychological contract violation more salient, such that high expectations regarding how they should be treated will make followers more sensitive to experiences of violation. This sensitivity may result in more severe effects of violation on organizational citizenship behaviour for employees who have higher quality leader member exchange compared to those with lower quality.

Based on the above arguments, there is an expectation that the level of quality may affect the relationship between psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behaviour. Although, the psychological contract violation-organizational citizenship behavior relationship is well defined in the literature, there is no previous research which addresses the role of leader member exchange theory in this context.

### **2.1.3 Social Exchange Theory of Counterproductive Work Behaviour**

Social exchange theory (SET) is used in many areas of organizational study to understand and explain diverse exchange relationships. Since the early work in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) the social exchange that occurs between two parties has been characterized by two distinct forms. Referred to by many names over the years, current labels for the forms in SET are negotiated and reciprocal exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Flynn, 2005; Molm, 2003). Negotiated exchange involves explicit, quid pro quo exchanges of resources between parties within a specified and often limited time span. The range of resources exchanged is typically narrow in scope, well defined and tangible (Fao & Fao,

1980) so as to make reviews and enforcement of the exchange easier (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Lau & Cobb, 2010). Reciprocal exchange, on the other hand, is typically implicit and vague (Lau and Cobb, 2010; cf., Molm, 1999; cf., Molm, Schaefer, & Collet, 2009). Issues such as the resources to be exchanged are usually left to the parties of the exchange to be decided in terms of what they think are appropriate—as is the time frame for when reciprocity should occur (Sparrow & Cooper, 2003). In addition, the range of resources exchanged tends to be broader than those found in negotiated exchange. While they can include more tangible resources like money or overt recognition, they include as well more particularistic and symbolic resources like affiliation and emotional support (Foa and Foa, 1980). Because there are no formal agreements to enforce the exchange, the exchange relationship is based more on personal relationships, trust, and the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960). Although negotiated and reciprocal exchanges are distinct forms of exchange, they quite often exist within the same exchange relationship (Flynn, 2005).

Social exchange theory of counterproductive work behavior, This theory posit that when change such as low pay, incentives, denial of position, lack of infrastructure and basic amenities in work place occur between the employee and the employer, this could result to counterproductive work behavior in the organization and slow paste of production. In other words counterproductive work behavior could be as a result of imbalance in an organization of employees in-put and out-put.

#### **2.1.4 Compensation Theory Pay Satisfaction**

Compensation is payment to an employee in return for their contribution to the organization, that is, for doing their job. The most common forms of compensation are; wages, salaries and tips. Compensation theory proposes that such linkages can lead to increased employee knowledge or skill development, flexibility, commitment, retention and

productivity. Strategic compensation theorists thus view compensation as "a pivotal control mechanism that can be flexibly used by management to achieve business purposes." The fact is that much of strategic compensation theory is untested theory-in-use. In addition, strategic planners often identify multiple, sometimes incongruous or even competing goals. Pay systems must be complex because, although they provide some opportunities for leveraging motivation toward strategic actions, they must also meet goals that are not directly related to competitive strategies. For instance, managers must design pay systems to enhance pay satisfaction and pay fairness as well. Pay satisfaction is a strategic concern because of its impact on coworker and supervisor relations, extra-role citizenship behaviors, and dysfunctional organizational politics.

Compensation is usually provided as base pay and/or variable pay. Base pay is based on the role in the organization and the market for the expertise required conducting that role. Variable pay is based on the performance of the person in that role, for example, for how well that person achieved his/her goals for the year. Incentives plans, for example, bonus plans, are a form of variable pay. (Some people might consider bonuses as a benefit, rather than a form of compensation.) Some programs include a base pay and a variable pay. Organizations usually associate compensation/pay ranges with job description in the organization. The ranges include the minimum and the maximum amount of money that can be earned per year in that role.

Pay satisfaction and perceived pay fairness contribute to employees' emotional, psychological and physical health, and although it might not be true that happier workers are more productive, it is true that healthier workers are more productive. Pay satisfaction and pay fairness, therefore, represent legitimate strategic concerns as well as ethical concerns. Even if the tenets of strategic compensation theory were soundly supported by evidence, it



would be difficult to anticipate the effects of implementing contradictory reward strategies on alternative employee reactions.

Compensation theory introduces several counterpart arguments regarding pay strategies and potentially confounding effects on employee satisfaction and perceptions of fairness. In addition, it examines the results of one research study that was designed to investigate some of these relationships. It concludes with some comments about what the results of the study imply for strategic compensation management and presents some direction for ensuring greater success in managing pay systems.

### THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION

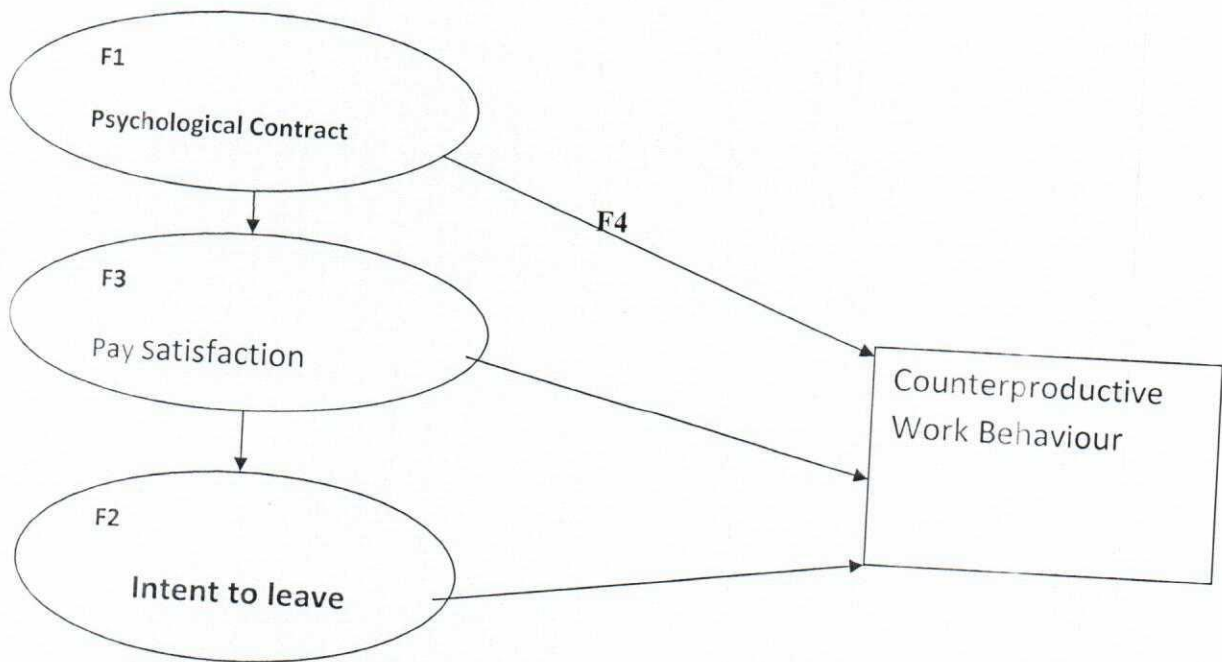


Fig:1 PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

In explaining the diagram, above violation of psychological contract will independently relate to counterproductive work behaviour.

**Fig2:INTENT TO LEAVE**

Intent to leave is positively correlated to counterproductive work behaviour

**Fig3: PAY SATISFACTION**

Pay satisfaction will independently relate to counterproductive work behaviour.

**Fig4: COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR**

All the predictor variables will jointly predict counterproductive work behaviour.

## **2.2 Review of Empirical Studies**

Over the decade various empirical studies on counterproductive work behaviour had been widely documented in literature. The review will serve as guide in conducting the present study.

### **2.2.1 Psychological contract and counterproductive work behaviour**

The origins of the psychological contract construct date back to the early 1960s. Argyri (1960) used the term psychological work contract to describe the mutual respect he observed between foremen and workers and that he gathered from interview conversations. The foremen supported their employees' informal culture norms that they too had experienced before being promoted to their foremen positions. Around the same time, but independently, Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, and Solley (1962) also used the term

*psychological contract* to describe the observed relationship between employers and employees. Levinson and colleagues reported that employees perceived a number of implied and unspoken expectations from their employer. They defined psychological contracts as "a series of mutual expectations of which the parties to the relationship may not themselves be even dimly aware but which nonetheless govern their relationship to each other" (p. 21).

In the late 1980s, Denise Rousseau (1989) described the psychological contract construct as underdeveloped and misunderstood. As a result, she attempted to provide clarity to the construct. A revitalized interest in psychological contracts at the time was also being credited to new people-focused management practices and an economy that was facing increased international competition (Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). In response, Rousseau offered a refined conceptualization of the psychological contract, indicating what it was and was not (Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Conway & Briner, 2009; DelCampo, 2007).

First, she emphasized that the psychological contract was a subjective perception held by one individual (Rousseau 1989, 1995). As noted earlier, there was inconsistency up to this point as to whether the psychological contract was an individual- or group-level phenomenon. Rousseau viewed the psychological contract as beliefs and perceptions about the relationship, as each employer and employee viewed it.

Secondly, Rousseau (1989) defined the psychological contract as promissory in nature. She also distinguished this promissory nature of psychological contracts from expectations and obligations. She argued that although psychological contracts do entail expectations, not all expectations are contractual (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). For example, a new employee may expect to receive a pay raise after one year of work because this occurred at his/her last job. However, because this expectation was not contractually implied by the current employer, it is not part of the psychological contract

(Robinson, 1996). Similarly, obligations do not necessarily possess the same contractual commitment as promises (Roehling, 2008; Rousseau, 1989). For example, an employee may believe that his/her employer is obligated to provide flexible work hours because the practice is common in his/her particular industry. However, if the employer did not implicitly or explicitly make that promise to the employee directly, Rousseau argued that the obligation is not part of that particular psychological contract.

Psychological contract research has been identified as a useful concept for understanding employees' relationships with their employers and subsequent consequences including work attitudes and performance. The psychological contract is generally defined in the academic literature as the implicit and explicit promises two parties make to one another (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). A distinguishing feature between psychological contracts and legal contracts is that psychological contracts can be implicit (Conway & Briner, 2009). That is, these promises can be unwritten and unspoken by being inferred from actions and behaviors of others in the organization. Psychological contract has also been reported to be correlated with counterproductive work behaviour. Psychological contract breach tends to be positively associated with counterproductive behaviour.

The findings of Chao, Cheung and Wu (2011) justify the point above when they reported that psychological contract breach is positively associated with counterproductive work behaviour. Employees respond to breach in contract by engaging in all forms of activities that is against the interest of the organisation. The employee may engage in absenteeism, withdrawal and some situation engage in embezzlement of firm's money to compensate their loss. Violation of the psychological contract has been linked to negative workplace behaviours (Sturges, Conway, Guest & Liefoghe, 2005). When this agreement between employee and employer is fulfilled, increased job performance results; however, when the contract is violated by the employer, the employee may engage in negative

workplace behaviours (Sturges, Conway, Guest & Liefoghe, 2005).

Furthermore, the effect of violation and fulfillment may differ across employees due to individual differences. Violation of psychological contract has negative consequences to employees such as negative impact on employee's work behaviour and attitudes which can lead to all forms counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs).

Robinson & Bennett (1995) have indicated in their study that violation of psychological contract may pose a threat to the well-being of its organization (in both individual and organization deviance). It was also proven in another study that production deviance, or the purposeful failure to perform job tasks the way they are supposed to be done (a form of counterproductive work behaviour) is positively related to psychological contract breach (Jensen et. al., 2010). Theft which is also a form of counterproductive work behaviour, was established in past research as a response to the feeling of unfairly paid (psychological contract breach) (Greenberg, 1996). When an employee perceives contract breach in terms of the way he/she is expected to spend time on the job (i.e., workload, meaningfulness of work), restoration of balance would focused on reallocation of time. The employee will regain time by not engaging in work tasks or slacking, which are all forms of withdrawal under counterproductive work behaviour (Spector et. al., 2002). Stemming from this, Jensen et. al., 2010 has revealed in his study that there is a significant relationship between psychological contract breach and withdrawal.

Psychological contract can be defined as employees belief regarding the mutual obligations between the employee and the employer (Rousseau, 1989). These are the expectation of the employee from the organization, and the expectations of the organization from the employee

The organization (or employer) is, for example, expected to treat the individual justly, provide safe working conditions, etc.; while on the other hand, the employee is expected to

complete requested tasks, demonstrate a good attitude. When an employee perceives that the organization has failed to live up to one or more of its promises, scholars have labelled this as violation, breach, and/or low fulfilment (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; 2000; Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). Thus, psychological contract violation occurs when an employee perceives that the organization has failed to fulfil one or more of its „contractual obligations“. In order to fully understand the nature of psychological contract, one must differentiate between the components of psychological contract: transactional and relational (Rousseau, 1995). Transactional contracts are promises that can be characterized as a more economically oriented exchange, which happen in a short term (e.g. competitive wages; Rousseau, 1990). In contrast, the relational contracts are promises which are noneconomic focusing on building employee-employer relationship by development of trust, respect and loyalty over a long period of time (e.g. career development; Rousseau, 1990). psychological contract violation have negative consequences to employees such as negative impact on employees work behaviour and attitudes which can lead to all forms counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs).

Robinson & Bennett (1995) have indicated in their study that violation of psychological contract may pose a threat to the wellbeing of its organization (in both individual and organization deviance). Robinson et. al (1994) and Turnley Feldman (200) empirically demonstrated that psychological contract violations (PCVs) were found to increase employees feelings of anger, reduces level of satisfaction and commitment. It was also proven in another study that production deviance, or the purposeful failure to perform job tasks the way they are supposed to be done (a form of counterproductive work behaviour) is positively related to relational contract breach (Jensen et. al., 2010). Theft which is also a form of counterproductive work behaviour, was established in past research as a response to the feeling of unfairly paid (transactional contract breach) (Greenberg, 1996). When an

employee perceives contract breach in terms of the way he/she is expected to spend time on the job (i.e., workload, meaningfulness of work), restoration of balance would focused on reallocation of time. The employee will regain time by not engaging in work tasks or slacking, which are all forms of withdrawal under counterproductive work behaviour (Spector et. al., 2006). Stemming from this, Jensen et. al., 2010 has revealed in his study that there is a significant relationship between relational contract breach and withdrawal. Thus, in this research, the researcher will try to predict whether psychological contract violation will have positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviour in a more specific sample of production employees within the manufacturing industry in the state of Selangor, Malaysia. The framework of this study shows that there are two dimensions that may or may not influence counterproductive work behaviour. The first dimension is a person-organization fit (P-O Fit), whereas, the second dimension is psychological contract violation (PCV). From these two variables, we are going to study the relationship for each independent variable towards the dependent variable of counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).

#### ***The Relationship between PCV and CWB***

A substantial body of literature had found that psychological contract violation and counterproductive work behaviour are two important concepts in the organizational behaviour field. As proposed by Bolin *et al.* (2001) and Kickul, (2001), psychological contract violation would lead to counterproductive work behaviour. However, specific relationship between psychological contract violation and forms of counterproductive behaviour has not been delineated (Kickul, 2001). In other words, empirical evidence on the relationship between psychological contract violation and counterproductive work behaviour are scarce. Thus, this study claims that psychological contract violation has a positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviour. The results of the study demonstrated that when the employer violated the psychological contract with regards to „autonomy and

control", employees would reciprocate by displaying organizational- citizenship behaviour O-CWB ( $\beta = .244, p < .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviour CWB ( $\beta = .149, p < .05$ ). This finding is consistent with Parks and Kidder (1994), Robinson and Rousseau (1994) and Kickul, Lester, and Finkl (2003). Moreover, the findings support the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) that when the employee perceived that the organization does not fulfill their promises, they would reciprocate in a counterproductive manner towards the organizations production as a way to even the score (Greenberg, 1997) via retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 2004). On the other hand, findings of this study demonstrated no significant relationship between psychological contract violation (Growth & Development), psychological contract violation (Organizational Support) and dimensions of counterproductive work behaviour. The possible explanation lays in interpreting this finding from the labour market perspectives and management perspectives. The current unemployment rate is about 3.5% (Department of Statistics, 2012) reflecting a loose labour market. Hence, the most important factor among employees is to retain and secure their current position. Moreover, at current Malaysian economic conditions, companies are more focused to increase their profit rather than sending their employees for development purposes and to experience lost man working hours. In addition, knowing that assigning of duties and matters related to development is considered as „managerial prerogatives“, employees care less on issues related to their growth, development and organizational support. However, the study demonstrated that once jobs were assigned, the employees expect the employer to practice their concept of autonomy and control. If the employer violated employees' psychological contract violation (autonomy and control), incidences or organizational counterproductive work behaviour and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviour would be high.



### 2.2.2 Pay Satisfaction and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Pay satisfaction is defined as the amount of positive or negative feelings that individuals have toward their pay. Pay satisfaction is important as research has shown it to be related to absenteeism and employee turnover. Possible causes of pay satisfaction include perceived and actual job characteristics (e.g., autonomy), person characteristics (e.g., seniority), and pay plan characteristics (e.g., job evaluation methods, pay secrecy, merit pay, pay innovations, reward systems). It can be measured using the pay satisfaction questionnaire (PSQ), which is broken down into several pay dimensions toward which individuals have feelings (Heneman and Schwab, 1985). These dimensions are pay level, pay raise, benefits, and structure or administration. Satisfaction with pay level is the perceived satisfaction with direct wages or salaries, whereas satisfaction with pay raises refers to perceived satisfaction with changes in pay level. Satisfaction with structure or administration is defined as perceived satisfaction with the internal pay grades (see pay grade) and with the methods used to distribute pay. Satisfaction with benefits concerns perceived satisfaction with indirect payments to the employees. Pay satisfaction is of primary concern to both employers and employees. For employees, pay is of obvious importance in terms of satisfying their economic needs. It is important that they are satisfied with their overall pay as this may impact their attitudes and behaviours. As Heneman and Judge (2000: 85) concluded, "research has unequivocally shown that pay dissatisfaction can have important and undesirable impacts on numerous employee outcomes." Employee dissatisfaction with pay, for instance, can decrease commitment to the job, increase stealing, and catalyze turnover (Currall *et al.*, 2005; Greenberg, 1990; Miceli and Mulvey, 2000). For employers, some of whom may spend as much as 70-80% of their budget in wages and benefits in the service sector, the issue has implications for the survival of the organization if they do not get decent returns on their investments. Furthermore, an organization's reward system is increasingly

viewed as a strategic tool in aligning the interests of workers and management and improving firm performance; that is, organizations may use their pay system to motivate strategic behaviours (Lawler, 1971, 1990; Milkovich and Newman, 2008), making it crucial that employees are satisfied with their pay.

### **2.2.3 Intent to Leave and Counterproductive Work Behaviour**

Intention to quit is intention to leave the present job and look forward to find another job in the near future (Masroor & Fakir, 2010). Although many researchers have tried to identify what determines an employee intention to quit, to date there has been little consistency in the findings of the researchers (Glissmeyer, Bishop & Fass, 2007). Empirical studies have linked job satisfaction, performance and job stress to an individual's intent to quit the organization. Heavy workload (which is a precursor to job stress) and burnout (which have also been linked to low job satisfaction) are related to intention to quit (Masroor & Fakir, 2010).

Deviant workplace behavior has become one of interesting topics to be observed by both academicians and practitioners. The sources of deviant workplace behavior include intent to quit, dissatisfaction, company contempt, absenteeism, substance abuse, privilege abuse, theft, and theft approval. While healthy turnover in an organization can be positive, refreshing, and helpful in introducing new ideas and techniques that can move the organization to greater levels of success, turnover among highly-productive, key employees is costly (Hellman, 1997). According to a number of researchers, typical turnover costs include exit costs (e.g., administrative time and pay for leave not taken), temporary replacement costs (e.g., agency fees and training); recruitment and selection costs (e.g., advertising costs, agency fees, lost time); decreased morale and productivity among retained workers; loss of future key talent (i.e., intellectual capital including knowledge, skills, and experience); and sharing of organizational processes, technology, and relationships (e.g.,

Fitz-enz, 2001; International Survey Research). Since, the long-term retention of a highly productive workforce is coveted, and a goal of human resources is to attract and maintain highly productive employees, it is imperative for human resources to better understand how to maximize the retention of productive employees.

Despite the fact that retention of highly-productive, key employees is certainly an important task for human resources, so is the creation and development of a workplace that not only encourages retention, but also high levels of productivity among all employees. Many researchers (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Seijts & Crim, 2006; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002) have used the term *engagement* to refer to employees who are involved in, enthusiastic about, and satisfied with his or her work. The Towers Perrin Talent Report (2003) found that approximately 81% of employees surveyed were engaged, but as many as 19% of employees surveyed were disengaged. Disengaged employees are more likely to perform poorly, actively look for another job, and say bad things about management or the organization for which they work (Gubman, 2004). Such counterproductive work behavior also has a documented relationship with a lack of organizational citizenship (Dalal, 2005). Sanford (2003) reported that disengaged employees cost their businesses financially via decreased profits, decreased sales, lower customer satisfaction, and lower productivity. Job satisfaction is known to have positive impact on employee turnover intentions. It means that dissatisfaction on the job increases or will increase the rate of employee turnover intention in organization. We can deduce from the above statement that when an employee is not satisfied with his/her job there prone to exhibit counter-productive work behavior such as turnover. Low absenteeism is associated with high job satisfaction while high turnover and absenteeism are said to be related to job dissatisfaction.

#### 2.2.4 Gender and Counterproductive Behaviour

Gender differences in counterproductive work behavior (CWB: behavior that harms organizations or people) have been understudied. We explored gender mean differences, and the moderating effect of gender on the relationship of personality (agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, trait anger, and hostile attribution bias) and stressors (interpersonal conflict and organizational constraints) with three forms of counterproductive work behaviour (directed toward organizations, directed toward persons, and relational aggression which are acts that damage relationships with other employees).

A survey was conducted of 915 employed individuals recruited from university classes. All worked at least 20 h per week (mean 26.3 h), and held a variety of jobs in many industries. Men reported more counterproductive work behaviour with correlations ranging from 0.12 to 0.18. Gender was found to moderate the relationship of job stressors and personality with counterproductive work behaviour. The tendency for males to report engaging in more counterproductive work behaviour was greater at high as opposed to low levels of interpersonal conflict, organizational constraints, trait anger and HAB and at low as opposed to high levels of agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability.

These results suggest that gender differences in overall counterproductive work behaviour are rather small, with men engaging in more than women only when they have certain personality characteristics or perceive high levels of job stressors. In other words men may be more reactive than women.

### 2.3 Statement of Hypotheses

- (I) Pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent to leave will independently and jointly predict counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti
- (II) Male non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti will significantly score higher in counterproductive work behaviour than female non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti
- (III) Younger non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti will significantly score higher in counterproductive work behaviour than older non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti

### 2.4 Operational Definition of Terms

**Counterproductive work behaviour:** This can be defined as any forms of behaviour which are done intentionally by employee which is detrimental to organisational growth and development. Counterproductive work behaviour is measured by counterproductive work behaviour scale, the higher the respondent score on the scale the higher their level of counterproductive work behaviour.

**Pay satisfaction:** This can be defined as the level of satisfaction of employee with their salary in their work place. Pay satisfaction is measured by pay satisfaction scale The higher the respondent score on the scale the higher their level of pay satisfaction.

**Psychological contract:** This is a form of agreement between an employer and an employee concerning individual responsibility. When either of the party fails to perform their duty base on the agreement then there is breach of contract. Psychological contract is measured by

psychological contract scale the higher the respondent score on the scale the higher their level of psychological contract.

**Intent to leave:** This can be defined as intention to leave one work place for another firm in near future. Intent-to leave is measured by intent-to leave scale the higher the respondent score on the scale the higher their level of intent to leave.

**Gender:** Is the range of characteristics used to distinguish between males and females.

**Age:** This was defined based on the actual age of respondents as indicated in the questionnaire. It was dichotomized into young and old based on the mean score.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHOD

This chapter represents the procedure and methodology employed in the collection of necessary data and relevant information pertinent to the study.

#### 3.1 Research Design

The research was a survey of non-academic staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti and Ikole Campuses using Ex post facto design. This research design was adopted because the event surveyed with the use of structured questionnaire had occurred before the research was conducted and no variable was manipulated. Therefore, the structured questionnaire was only used to collect data on events which occurrence had taken place. The independent variables were pay satisfaction; psychological contract and intent to leave which each were dichotomized using the mean scores of each variable. Counterproductive work behaviour was the dependent variable.

#### 3.2 Participants

The research adopted a non-probabilistic sampling method (accidental sampling method) to select two hundred (200) non-academic staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti and Ikole Campuses. The purposive sampling was used because the group of respondents had been identified and what the researcher did was to select all members of the group by giving them questionnaires to complete.

There were one hundred and seven (53.5%) men and ninety-three (46.5%) women who participated in the study. The participants distribution of religion showed that 180 (90.0%) of the respondents were from Christian background, 18 (9.0%) were from Islamic

background, 2 (1.0%) reported to be from religious background. Their level of education ranged from senior secondary certificate examination to postgraduate. Seventeen (8.5%) of the participants were holders of senior secondary certificate examination, forty-seven (23.5%) were holders of ordinary national diploma/national college of education, forty-two (21.0%) were holders of higher national diploma, six-eight (34.0%) were holders of first degree, twenty-six (13.0%) were post graduate holders.

Furthermore In terms of marital status, fifty-seven (28.5%) were singles: one hundred and forty-two (71.0%) indicated that they were married as at the period of this research. and one (.5%) indicated that he or she was a widow/widower.

### **3.3 Sampling Technique**

Accidental sampling technique was used in administering the questionnaires to all non-academic staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti and Ikole Campuses. The sampling was a non-probability sampling technique that does not give equal chances to participants to select; rather those who give their consents to complete the questionnaires.

### **3.4 Instrument**

Structure questionnaire was used to collect relevant information from the participants of the study. The questionnaire was divided into four different sections with each of the sections measuring the variables of concern as well as socio-demographic information of the participants of the study. These sections are described below:



#### **3.4.1 Section A: Demographic Information**

This section tapped the socio-demographic information of the participants which were age, gender, religion, marital status, highest educational level, Position in Organization and years of work experiences.

#### **3.4.2 Section B: Counterproductive Work Behaviour Scale**

Section B of the instrument consists of 32-items measuring counterproductive work behaviour. The scale was developed by Suzy fox and Paul E. Spector, (2002). The authors reported a reliability coefficient of cronbach's alpha .86, in this study the reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha is .90. The high score indicates higher level of counterproductive work behaviour while low score indicates low counterproductive work behaviour. It is a 5-point rating scale, ranging from Never (1), Once or Twice (2), Once or Twice Per month (3), Once or Twice per week (4) Everyday (5).

#### **3.4.3 Section C: Pay Satisfaction Scale**

Pay satisfaction instrument consists of 18 items. The scale was developed by Timothy A. Judge & Theresa M. Welbourne, (1993). The author(s) reported a validity/reliability coefficient of cronbach's alpha .96, This scale also has a reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha .97 in this study. and high score indicates higher level of pay satisfaction while low score indicates low pay satisfaction. It is a 5-point rating scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

#### **3.4.4 Section D: Psychological Contract Scale**

The scale was used to measure psychological contract of the respondents. The scale was developed by Rousseau, (1995) and Millward & Hopkins, (1998). The author(s) reported a validity /reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha range 0.73-0.89. This scale also has a reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha .90 in this study. The scoring procedure indicates that high scores on the scale imply high psychological contract and low scores reflect low psychological contract. It has about 17 items formatted in Likert manner. It is a 5-point rating scale. The response format ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree.

#### **3.4.5 Section E: Intent to Leave Scale**

Section E of the questionnaire consists of 8-item measuring intent to leave. This scale is a brief version developed by Olusegun (2013). The author reported a validity/reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha 0.86. This scale also has a reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha .67 in this study. It is a 5-point rating scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

### **3.5 Procedure**

The selection of the study sample was done in Federal University Oye-Ekiti and Ikole Campus, which comprises of non-academic staff of the institution. The procedure involved distributing the structured questionnaire which had four (4) sections were typed and distributed to 220 non-academic staff to answer to their personal view and only 200 were collected back. The administration of the questionnaire was done by meeting different heads of the department filling each questionnaire took a minimum of 10 minutes, some participants were allowed to take the questionnaire home, some of the questionnaires were misplaced.

Some staff helped in the distribution of the questionnaire, since they are more familiar with the system. 220 questionnaires were distributed and 200 was retrieved and used for the data analysis.

### **3.6 Statistical Tools**

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and software package. Demographic variables were analyzed with descriptive statistics such as percentage, mean, standard deviation. Hypotheses were tested with inferential statistics. Specifically, multiple regressions were used to test hypothesis one in order to determine the independent and joint predictor of the criterion variable in the study. Hypotheses two and three were tested using t-test for independent samples in order to determine group differences.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

The results presented in this chapter were based on the data collected to examine pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent-to leave as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti at both Oye and Ikole campuses.

**Hypothesis One:** stated that pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent to leave would independently and jointly predict counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff of FUOYE. Hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analyses. The result is presented in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Multiple Regression Table showing independent and joint prediction of counterproductive work behaviour**

Predictors	$\beta$	t	P	R	Adj R <sup>2</sup>	F	P
Pay Satisfaction	-.14	-1.98	< .05	.219	.034	3.30	<.05
Psychological Contract	-.00	-0.03	> .05				
Intent to Leave	.16	2.24	< .05				

Result in Table 4.1 shows that pay satisfaction and intent to leave independently predicted counterproductive behaviour ( $\beta = -.14$ ,  $t = -1.98$ ,  $p < .05$ ; and  $\beta = .16$ ,  $t = 2.24$ ,  $p < .05$ ) respectively. However, Psychological contract did not independently predict counterproductive behaviour ( $\beta = -.00$ ,  $t = -0.03$ ,  $p > .05$ ). All the predictor variables jointly predicted counterproductive work behaviour ( $F(3,196) = 3.30$ ,  $p < .05$ ) accounting for 3.4% ( $\text{Adj } R^2 = .034$ ) variation of counterproductive work behaviour. This suggests that pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent to leave could only explain 3.4% of the counterproductive work behaviour among the participants. Other variables not investigated in this study accounted for 96.6% of the criterion variable. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

**Hypothesis Two:** stated that male non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti would significantly score higher in counterproductive work behaviour than female non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: t-test Table showing influence of sex on counterproductive work behaviour**

DV	Sex	N	Mean	SD	df	t	P
Counterproductive behaviour	MALE	107	38.6822	9.40955	198	.56	>.05
	FEMALE	93	37.9355	9.26166			

The result in Table 4.2 showed that sex did not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviour ( $t= 0.56$ ;  $df= 198$ ;  $p>.05$ ). The result further shows that male non-teaching staff in Federal University Oye- Ekiti (mean=38.68) were not significantly different in counterproductive work behaviour from females non-teaching staff (mean=37.94). Hypothesis two was rejected

**Hypothesis Three:** stated that younger non-teaching staff would significantly report higher counterproductive work behaviour than older non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. The hypothesis was tested with t-test for independent samples. The result is presented in Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3t-test Table showing influence of age group on counterproductive work behaviour**

DV	Age	N	Mean	S D	df	t	P
Counter-productive Work behaviour	Old	74	36.5541	6.50425	188	-2.23	<.05
	Young	116	39.6724	10.85620			

Result in Table 4.3 showed that age has a significant influence on counterproductive work behaviour ( $t = -2.23$ ;  $df = 188$ ;  $p < .05$ ). The result further shows that younger non-teaching staff (mean=39.67) significantly scored higher in counterproductive work behaviour than older non-teaching staff (mean=36.55). Therefore, hypothesis three was accepted.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings of this investigation and drew support from past and recent literature to support or refute the findings. The implications of these findings to managerial and organizational practices were highlighted, while recommendations were made to management of organizations as well as non-academic staff of the university.

#### 5.1 Discussion

In the study, the researcher examined pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent-to leave as predictors of counterproductive behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. Three hypotheses were tested out of which two were supported. Hypotheses one examined the extent to which pay satisfaction, psychological contract, and intent-to leave independently and jointly predicted counterproductive behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti. The finding showed that pay satisfaction independently predicted counterproductive work behaviour. In order to support the result, past study has shown that pay satisfaction is related to absenteeism and employee turnover. Possible causes of pay satisfaction include perceived and actual job characteristics (e.g., autonomy), person characteristics (e.g., seniority), and pay plan characteristics (e.g., job evaluation methods, pay secrecy, merit pay, pay innovations, reward systems). It can be measured using the pay satisfaction questionnaire (PSQ), which is broken down into several pay dimensions toward which individuals have feelings (Heneman and Schwab, 1985).

Finding also revealed that psychological contract did not independently predict counterproductive work behavior. But previous research on psychological contract like Chao, Cheung and Wu (2011) justified the point above when they reported that psychological

contract breach is positively associated with counterproductive work behaviour. Employees respond to breach in contract by engaging in all forms of activities that is against the interest of the organisation. The employee may engage in absenteeism, withdrawal and some situation engage in embezzlement of firm's money to compensate their loss. Violation of the psychological contract has been linked to negative workplace behaviours (Sturges, Conway, Guest & Liefoghe, 2005). When this agreement between employee and employer is fulfilled, increased job performance results; however, when the contract is violated by the employer, the employee may engage in negative workplace behaviours (Sturges, Conway, Guest & Liefoghe, 2005).

Moreso, finding showed that intent to leave independently predict counterproductive work behavior. Many researchers (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Seijts & Crim, 2006; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002) have used the term *engagement* to refer to employees who are involved in, enthusiastic about, and satisfied with his or her work. The Towers Perrin Talent Report (2003) found that approximately 81% of employees surveyed were engaged, but as many as 19% of employees surveyed were disengaged. Disengaged employees are more likely to perform poorly, actively look for another job, and say bad things about management or the organization for which they work (Gubman, 2004). Such counterproductive work behavior also has a documented relationship with a lack of organizational citizenship (Dalal, 2005). Sanford (2003) reported that disengaged employees cost their businesses financially via decreased profits, decreased sales, lower customer satisfaction, and lower productivity. Finally, pay satisfaction, psychological contract, and intent-to leave jointly predict counterproductive behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti.

Hypotheses two examined the extent to which male non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti would significantly score higher in counterproductive work behavior



than female non-teaching staff. Finding showed that that sex did not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviour. Survey was conducted of 915 employed individuals recruited from university classes. All worked at least 20 hours per week (mean 26.3 h), and held a variety of jobs in many industries. Men reported more counterproductive work behaviour with correlations ranging from 0.12 to 0.18. Gender was found to moderate the relationship of job stressors and personality with counterproductive work behaviour. The tendency for males to report engaging in more counterproductive work behaviour was greater at high as opposed to low levels of interpersonal conflict, organizational constraints, trait anger and HAB and at low as opposed to high levels of agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability. These results suggest that gender differences in overall counterproductive work behaviour are rather small, with men engaging in more than women only when they have certain personality characteristics or perceive high levels of job stressors. In other words men may be more reactive than women.

Hypothesis three stated that younger non-teaching staff would significantly report higher counterproductive work behaviour than older non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti was confirmed in the study. Finding showed that age has a significant influence on counterproductive work behaviour. Age appears to be an important factor in predicting counterproductive work behaviours. While age does not appear to be strongly related to core task performance, creativity, or performance in training, it does appear to be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviours and negatively related to counterproductive work behaviours. Older employees seem to exhibit less aggression, tardiness, substance abuse, and voluntary absenteeism (although sickness related absenteeism is somewhat higher than younger employees). Some researchers argue that the lower rate of counterproductive work behaviours may be due to better self-regulation and self-control.

## 5.2 Conclusion

This study focused on gender, pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent-to leave as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti campus. Based on findings in the study, the following are the conclusions drawn:

- Pay Satisfaction and intent to leave independently predict counterproductive behaviour respectively. However, Psychological contract did not independently predict counterproductive behaviour. The predictor variables jointly predicted counterproductive behaviour accounting for 3.4% variation of counterproductive work behaviour. This suggests that pay satisfaction, psychological contract and intent to leave could only explain 3.4% of the counterproductive work behaviour among the participants. Other variable not investigated in this study accounted for 96.6% of the criterion variable.
- Sex did not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviour. The result further shows that males were not significantly score higher in counterproductive work behaviour than females.
- Age has a significant influence on counterproductive work behaviour. The result further shows that younger people significantly scored higher in counterproductive work behaviour than older people.

## 5.3 Implication and Recommendations

Given that this study is highly limited in the scope, strong intervention suggestions based on a sole understanding of the dynamics of counterproductive work behaviour. This study however provides information to organization about factors that determine

counterproductive work behaviour helping them to understand how employees are most likely to react in situation affecting their pay and intent-to leave. It is not surprising that salary or wages as measures of pay level consistently have been shown to influence pay satisfaction. Researcher should consider their ethnicity, race, socio-economic status and other related socio demographic factors. Personality of employees should also be considered, people who are low in conscientiousness are likely to exhibit counterproductive work behaviour. Personality like anger may determine how an employee will respond to stress being faced in the job.

I recommend that the university management should increase workers salary, in other to motivate its workers and curb counterproductive work behaviour.

#### **5.4 Limitations of Study**

The investigator acknowledges several important limitations to the current study. First, although it was conceptualized that counterproductive work behaviour was affected by gender pay satisfaction psychological contract intent-to leave. In the course of the research, there are some limitations being encountered which include: (i) time constraint, the study needed to be carried out and within a specified period which is too small as a student researcher, thus researcher can only go to non-teaching staff of Federal University Oye-Ekiti campus to obtain data; (ii) population shortage and financial constraints; and (iii) misplacement of questionnaires.

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**APPENDIX  
(QUESTIONNAIRE)**

**Federal University Oye-Ekiti  
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences  
Department of Psychology**

**Dear Respondent**

The questionnaire is designed to seek for information from you. Your name is not required, Rather you're honest and your open responses are needed. There is no right or wrong answer. All information given is assured utmost confidentiality and will be used only for the research purposes.  
Thanks for your co-operation.

**SECTION A**

**Age:** .....

**Sex:** Male ( ) Female ( )

**Religion:** Christianity ( ) Islam ( ) Other ( )

**Year(S) of Work Experience:**.....

**Highest Educational level:** SSCE ( ) OND/NCE ( ) HND ( ) FIRST DEGREE ( )  
POST GRADUATE ( )

**Marital Status:** Married ( ) Single ( ) Separated/Divorced ( ) Widow ( )  
Widower ( )

**Present Designation/Position:**.....

**SECTION B**

Please tick the following statement as they apply to you according to your degree of agreement to disagreement as follows:

**Never (N), Once or Twice (OT), Once or twice per Month (OTM), Once or Twice per Week(OTW), Everyday (ED).**

S/N	ITEMS	N	OT	OTM	OTW	ED
1	Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies					
2	Purposely did your work incorrectly					
3	Came to work late without permission					
4	Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't					
5	Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property					
6	Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work					
7	Stolen something belonging to your employer					
8	Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work					



9	Been nasty or rude to a client or customer						
10	Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done						
11	Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take						
12	Purposely failed to follow instructions						
13	Left work earlier than you were allowed to take						
14	Insulted someone about their job performance						
15	Made fun of someone's personal life						
16	Took supplies or tools home without permission						
17	Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked						
18	Took money from your employer without permission						
19	Ignored someone at work						
20	Blamed someone at work for error you made						
21	Started an argument with someone at work						
22	Stole something belonging to someone at work						
23	Verbally abused someone at work						
24	Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to someone at work						
25	Threatened someone at work with violence						
26	Threatened someone at work, at work, but not physically						
27	Said something obscene to someone at work to make them feel bad						
28	Did something to make someone at work look bad						
29	Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work						
30	Look at someone at work's private mail/property without permission						
31	Hit or pushed someone at work						
32	Insult or made fun of someone at work						

**SECTION C**

INSTRUCTION: Read each statement and tick among the alternative responses that best indicate how you feel about your job.

Strongly Agree(SA), Agree(A), Uncertain(U), Disagree(D), Strongly Disagree(SD).

S/ N	ITEM	SA	A	UN	D	SI
1	I am satisfied with my current salary					
2	I am satisfied with my overall level of pay					
3	I am satisfied with size of my current salary					
4	I am satisfied with my take-home pay					
5	I am satisfied with my benefit package					
6	I am satisfied with the value of my benefits					
7	I am satisfied with amount the company pays toward my benefits					
8	I am satisfied with the number of benefits I receive					
9	I am satisfied with my most recent raise					
10	I am satisfied with influence my supervisor has over my pay					
11	I am satisfied with the raises I have typically received in the past					
12	I am satisfied with how my raises are determined					
13	I am satisfied with the company's pay structure					
14	I am satisfied with information the company gives about pay issues of concern to me					
15	I am satisfied with pay of other jobs in the company					
16	I am satisfied with consistency of the company's pay policies					

17	I am satisfied with differences in pay among jobs in the company				
18	I am satisfied with how the company administers pay				

### SECTION D

INSTRUCTION: Tick the following statement as they apply to you according to your degree of agreement to disagreement as follows:

**STRONGLY AGREE (SA) AGREE (A) Uncertain (U), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD).**

S/N	ITEMS	SD	D	UN	A
1	I do this job just for the money				
2	I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours				
3	I expect to gain promotion in this company with length of service and effort to achieve goals				
4	It is important not to get too involved in your job				
5	I expect to grow in this organization				
6	I expect to be paid for any overtime I do				
7	I come to work purely to get the job done				
8	I feel part of a team in this organization				
9	My loyalty to the organization is defined by the terms of my contract				
10	I feel this company reciprocates the effort put in by its employees				
11	I only do what is necessary to get job done				
12	I am motivated to contribute 100% to this company in return for future employee benefits				
13	I have a reasonable chance of promotion if I work hard				
14	My career path in the organization is clearly mapped out				
15	I work to achieve the purely short term goals of my job				
16	I will work for this company in definitely				
17	I am heavily involved in my place of work				

### SECTION E

In this section you are therefore required to tick answer indicating your view on statement provided below.

**1=strongly disagree (SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Undecided (UD), 4=Agree (A), 5=Strongly Agree (SA).**

S/N	ITEMS	SD	D	UD	A
1	I would quit my present job for a similar position with better pay, in another organization at the least opportunity				
2	I continuation with my present employer will not fulfill my life expectation				
3	As soon as I can find a better job, I will quit this organization				
4	I often think about quitting my job				
5	I will probably look for a job outside of this organization within the next 3 years				
6	It is very unlikely that I would ever consider leaving organization				
7	I prefer very much not to continue working for this organization				
8	I will likely actively look for a new job in the next year				