

The Mediating Role of Counterproductive Work Behaviour in Exploring the Association between University Staff Work-related Expectancies, Procedural Fairness, Employee Voice and Job Satisfaction

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Author's contribution

The sole author designed, analysed, interpreted and prepared the manuscript.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the mediating role of counterproductive work behaviour in the association between University's staff work-related expectancies, procedural fairness, employee voice and job satisfaction. The study built on Social Attribution Theory and the Expectancy Theory to explain causal inferences when individuals' motivations for success and failure occur. The study consisted of a simple random survey among employees in a private university in North-Western Tanzania in 2014/15. The sample was made up of 187 respondents which was a 33% response rate. The study among other things established total effect and direct effect of employee voice and work-related expectancies on job satisfaction independent of mechanisms represented by counterproductive work behaviour. The results for the test of indirect effects of procedural fairness, employee voice and work-related expectancies on job satisfaction via counterproductive work behaviour showed no significant indirect effects. The study also showed a significant positive correlation between work-related expectancies and job satisfaction ($r = .25, p < .01$), with the implication that higher work-related expectancies (specifically pay raise and promotion) are positively related to job satisfaction.

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Overall, multiple regression analysis results show the study model accounted for about 47 per cent of the variance (Model R) in employee job satisfaction [$F(8,156) = 5.822, p < .001$]. Theoretical and practical implications for these findings are discussed.

Keywords: Work-related expectancies; procedural fairness; employee voice; job satisfaction; counterproductive work behaviour; Tanzania.

1. INTRODUCTION

Employee negative behaviour in the workplace is not uncommon [1]. Research shows that rudeness and incivility in the workplace can take many forms ranging from doing something to harm another individual physically or psychologically [2,3], to intentionally damaging the organization's property, theft, fraud, absenteeism, taking sick leave without being actually sick, physical and verbal aggression, substance use to mention just a few [4]. Regardless of their various forms and gravity, negative organizational relationships in the workplace are detrimental and counterproductive to the organization and to co-workers [5,6,7,8]. What makes the behaviours illegitimate is that they carry the connotation of wrongdoing and thus viewed as illegal, immoral, or deviant [5]. Likewise, negative work behaviours can take the form of aggressive or passive actions aimed at harming the organization and/or its employees [9]. Passive actions include withdrawal which is a passive and non-retaliatory type of CWB [10]. These behaviours have also been termed 'antisocial behaviours' [11] 'workplace deviance' [12] and 'organizational misbehaviour' [13]. There are various reasons or antecedents to counterproductive work behaviour (hereafter CWB) in the workplace. A study by [14] identified five specific causes which may make workplace relationship counterproductive. The causes include personality, distracting life events, conflicting expectations, promotion and betrayal. However, it suffices to say that, much as every counterproductive action can be explained differently in its own specificity, all actions of counterproductive behaviour share the common feature of violating the legitimate interests of an organization [7,6,4], and are potentially harmful to organizational members or to the organization as a whole [4]. [15] identified 11 categories of counterproductive behaviours. These categories are not meant to be an exhaustive list, but a guide in understanding the range of behaviours which are negative to the organization and interpersonal relations. These include; 1. Theft and related behaviour, 2. Destruction of property, 3. Misuse of information, 4. Misuse of time and

resources, 5. Unsafe behaviour, 6. Poor attendance, 7. Poor quality work, 8. Alcohol use, 9. Drug abuse, 10. Inappropriate verbal actions, and 11. Inappropriate physical actions [15,5].

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Most of the studies on antisocial behaviour or counterproductive behaviour in universities have focused on students or youngsters in the community which surrounds the university. Such studies are motivated by prevalence of criminal activities involved around the university community or socio-economic status of the neighbouring communities (refer Ground-breaking UL research focuses on tackling antisocial behaviour in Dublin South Central [16]. In the project, which is called Building Community Resilience, the University of Limerick academic identifies the nature and reach of key criminal networks within Dublin South Central and document the intimidation, stress and fear that pockets of communities living in the areas most connected to the networks experience. Similar studies have been carried out among high school or ordinary level school students. The purpose of studying antisocial behaviour in school setting includes assessing students' behaviour, predict when and how they can occur and control school violence which can erupt out of antisocial or counterproductive behaviour [17]. On the other hand, studies on antisocial behaviour among university staff (academic and administrative) are seldom. There is a feeling that, universities are institutions where antisocial behaviour among staff is not expected. Nevertheless, antisocial behaviour is prevalent and can take different forms including passive aggression which cannot easily be noticed, withdrawal of effort, working slowly in a specific task, gossiping, spreading rumours, avoiding work or assignment, littering and inappropriate intent or printer usage in the workplace [18]. These actions may appear harmless but still harmful to the university and its members [9,10]. In this regard, since research shows that there is an increase in universities' staff dissatisfaction on a number of things such as non-inclusion in decision making, job and pay dissatisfaction, unfair procedures in work

evaluation and promotion, and lack of proper employee voice channels [19], there is a need of exploring this phenomenon specifically in the African context which is an area less studied. This study is set to explore the association between self-reported university staff's perceptions of antisocial behaviours also known as CWB and their reactions to work-related expectancies, procedural fairness, employee voice and justification which in many studies have indicated mixed results [8]. Findings in this study will shed more light on the area and advise university management and staff on how they should handle or predict such behaviours among their employees when they occur.

2. METHODOLOGY

This section presents theoretical approach, hypothesis formulation, and research design.

2.1 Theoretical Approach

The Organizational Communication Perspective in SHRM suggests that HR practices can stimulate employees to adopt desired behaviours and ultimately contribute to achieving organizational performance, also called HRM system strength [20]. This perspective is explained through various theories such as HR attributions theory, social information processing theory, the signaling theory and HRM system strength [20]. This study employed the Attribution Theory [21] which is concerned with attributions which people make to understand their own and other's behaviour. Employee attributions can be defined as people's beliefs about motivations for success and failures that occur and affect their individual expectations and behaviours [20]. According to this theory people use causal explanations to make sense of their internal (disposition) and external (environment) surroundings; these attributions improve their ability to predict future events and attempt to control their lives [22]. In line with that perspective, research shows a wide range of theoretical perspectives which are used to explain the HR perceptions construct and the different roles that employee perceptions of HRM have in research models [23,24,25]. However, there is no single overall theory which can account for all the relationships that are of interest [26,27,20]. Being aware of this theoretical limitation in various studies [26,23] this study opted to examine employees' attitudes and behaviours from an employee perspective of HRM practices which explicates causal and

associative explanations of success or failures in the workplace. This approach is also called HRM process approach since its attention is on the micro and meso levels of analysis rather than macro levels of analysis. Its focal point is on employees' perceptions rather than capturing information from single actors in the organization or management team [23]. Proponents of the process-based approach see in it 'the importance of the psychological processes through which employees attach meaning to HRM in explaining the relationship between HRM and performance' [23]. In this regard, understanding employee attributions and involvement in negative work behaviour and other work-related HR practices, will hopefully enrich our understanding of employee HR perceptions construct and whether the organizational management is doing enough to ensure that these HR practices, i.e., procedural fairness, employee voice, justification are employed in the workplace.

The study also used [28] expectancy theory (another process theory) which provides an explanation of why individuals choose one behavioural option over others, with an assumption that individual's actions will lead to their desired outcomes [29]. This theory is used in explaining determinants of people's motivation and expectancies on the association between performance and outcomes in the workplace. Notably, employees use organizational politics, which consist of covert 'actions which are not officially approved by an organization to influence others to achieve one's personal goals' [30,31] over group or organizational goals. The logic behind the theory is that 'people will do what they can do when they want to' [32]. Succinctly, the theory has three expectancy factors which motivate people to do what they want to do. a) Expectancy: which explains a person's belief that working hard will result in a desired level of task performance being achieved (effort-performance expectancy). b) Instrumentality: which explains a person's belief that successful performance will be followed by rewards and other potential outcomes (performance-outcome expectancy). c) Valence: which denotes the value a person assigns to the possible rewards and other work-related outcomes (rewards-personal goal relationship) [32]. This study used expectancy theory to examine the association between employees' work-related expectancies (pay raise and promotion) and job satisfaction. The theory is relevant in this study because for over four decades researchers have raised questions on whether [28] expectancy theory is still

'promising,' and whether conclusions made by previous reviews which suggest that the theory is not firmly supported empirically are still valid. In response to such questions, studies suggest that in order to find empirical support for the theory, expectancy theory should be combined with other approaches [33]. This study is in line with the recommendation of exploring further the relevance of expectancy theory by combining it with other theories and approaches, namely the attribution theory. Thus, this study is responding to two main research questions: (1) What is the association between procedural fairness, employee voice, work-related expectancies and job satisfaction? (2) What is the role of CWB in the association between procedural fairness, employee voice, work-related expectancies and job satisfaction?

2.2 Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Employee Outcomes

2.2.1 CWB and job satisfaction

CWB can be exhibited by actions which do not lead to job performance nor achievement of organizational goals. Breaking rules deliberately, working slowly or incorrectly on purpose, and damaging property belonging to the employer [4] are actions which damage not only the organizational goals but also individuals' experience of work, career aspirations and motivation to work [34,1]. Scholars of employee attitudes and behaviours have traditionally focused on job performance as a productive behaviour and have positively viewed and examined factors which lead to employee productive behaviour as a way of achieving organizational goals [35,23,36,37]. However, not all behaviours at work are productive; no wonder, 'it is no less true that organizations and their members are often faced with acts that are clearly damaging to their goals' [4]. Scholars suggest that CWB is an employee's behavioural response to negative emotions, but also occur when there is a specific and meaningful unfair or unfavourable event such as a layoff decision [38]. Layoff decisions, for example, are decisions which terminate the relationship between the employer and the employee. In this regard, if they are not carried out with fairness or justice, there is a tendency for the employee to react with CWBs [10]. Research has delineated CWB based on the target to which the behaviour is directed, organization or interpersonal, and on gravity of the offense, whether it is minor or serious [8]. Conventionally, the association

between CWB and work satisfaction is expected to be negative, i.e., the more the job satisfaction, the less counterproductive behaviour [8,39]. A study by [8] for example, examined whether the fundamental cause for counter-productive work behaviour is work dissatisfaction and if CWB can be associated with relatively high work satisfaction? The expectation to find such an association was based on the view that CWB can occur in reaction to unpleasant incidents [40]. The study findings showed that Pearson correlation of work satisfaction and CWB was -0.22 , which is statistically significant ($p < .001$) but weak [8]. The implication of the findings included that inability to balance difficulties at work with personal inclinations increase the proclivity to CWB. Based on the theoretical and empirical literature review exposed in this study, the following hypothesis is proposed to be tested:

H1: There is an association between CWB and job satisfaction

2.2.2 CWB, procedural fairness, employee voice and justification

Studies show that injustice can have negative impact on employees' behaviour [41]. In this regard, employers are expected to provide justice whether distributive, procedural or interactional in order to gain positive behaviours of employees. It is especially important to note that organizations use methods or procedures in decision making which form the basis of procedural fairness [42]. In this regard, the presence of injustice in methods or procedures which are used in decision making can influence employees' reactions to work-related HR practices since leaders and managers are responsible not only with proper treatment of workers, but also with appropriate interpersonal treatment of workers; which forms the basis for interactional justice [43]. Additionally, employees' perceptions of decision-making processes in their organization may influence their behaviours and actions, including seeking for alternative employment in pursuit of equity [44]. Pursuit of procedural fairness goes hand in hand with pursuit of employee voice. When employees feel that their voice is not heard, they are likely going to look for alternative ways to get their voice heard. The concept of employee voice has been discussed from as early as 1980s especially its role in procedural fairness literature [45]. Among other things, the fundamental philosophy in employee voice is to enhance employee participation and affirm that employees have

democratic right to extend a degree of control over managerial decision-making within an organisation [46]. Employee voice has also been understood to imply that organizations must have formal mechanisms to give employees opportunities to get involved with decision making and also have 'a say' in what affects them and the organization [47,48]. Since employees' roles are not always managerial roles, employee voice has also been considered as 'an extra-role behaviour' [49] 'discretionary and individual behaviour' [50], and 'extra-role upward communication' [51]. As an extra role behaviour, employee voice is not required of the employee out of duty. Nevertheless, the behaviour can be useful in improving communication between the employees and the employer. In view of this, employees can remain silent; but when employees remain silent and withhold their voice, they are actually withholding input, in this way 'they are displaying silence and depriving their organization of potentially useful information' [49]. Consequently, 'while voice can be prosocial, in the sense that it can be used to benefit the organisation, it can also be a means through which employees challenge managerial behaviour, either individually or collectively' [52]. Notwithstanding, research has also indicated that managers identify a number of benefits to a firm from enabling voice such as increased organisational performance and decreased absenteeism [53]. Despite having some positive research findings on the impact of employee voice on organizational outcomes, this type of research has also faced some limitations; including focusing on organizational levels and emphasizing the role of managers as the main source of information 'while neglecting employees who have limited avenues to express their voice or feel they cannot freely do so' [52,54]. Nevertheless, 'research on procedural justice has shown that employees feel more valued and a greater sense of control when they are given the opportunity to express their views prior to a decision' [49,42]. In the same vein, a study by [55] showed a positive relationship between voice and performance appraisals among employees. A study by [56] on the other hand found a negative relationship between peer ratings of voice and promotions and salary increases. This suggests that engaging in voice can harm one's career success.

Another aspect of looking at procedural fairness and employee voice is examining the extent to which employees justify the decisions made by their employer. In this perspective, employees'

perceptions focus on legitimacy, which is the belief employees have on the authority, institutions, and social arrangements that they are appropriate, proper and ought to be voluntarily deferred to [57]. Justification of employer's actions depends on the extent to which management provides adequate justification for the decision [58]. Research shows that procedural fairness correlates positively with employee voice and justification [59]. In the same manner, employees who are conservative and highly motivated to justify the system were reported to have a greater overall satisfaction with the authority and 'showed a greater willingness to accept the decisions reached by the authority, even under conditions of injustice' [60]. Based on the theoretical and empirical review made in this study, the following hypotheses are proposed to be tested:

H2a: There is an association between procedural fairness, employee voice, justification and job satisfaction

H2b: CWB will mediate the association between procedural fairness, employee voice, justification and job satisfaction

2.2.3 Job satisfaction, CWB and work-related expectancies

Literature shows that expectancy has positively predicted work-related behaviour and attitude such as motivation in organizational setting [61]. The rationale behind this prediction is the link between behaviour and its outcomes [28]. Specifically, expectancy is based on what [62] termed 'effort-reward probability, which refers to an individual's perceptions of whether differential rewards are based on differential efforts' [63]. In this regard, an individual has 'a performance-reward belief' which is dependent on his 'effort-performance belief' [63]. Withholding job effort (in specific job tasks), for example, is a type of misbehaviour. This type of behaviour is counterproductive and can take various forms such as 'shirking (holding back full effort on the job), social loafing (reducing effort levels when others are around to do the job), and job neglect (withdrawal from job-related duties) [64]. There is research evidence that withholding job effort negatively affects co-workers since intentional actions to diminish effort can negatively affect co-workers' perceptions of equity and fairness [65]. Likewise, there is evidence that, 'individual effort-performance expectancy and individual job satisfaction were negatively related to

withholding effort' [64]. This finding implies that, when individuals withhold job effort which is a form of misbehaviour, the results are among other things job dissatisfaction [64]. A study by [66] showed a negative relationship between job satisfaction and deviant behaviour. [67] suggest that counterproductive behaviour is a response to emotional arousing situation in the organization. In this respect, it can be linked to emotional response to job dissatisfaction. Thus, less satisfied employees are more likely to put less effort at work and commit antisocial behaviours than employees who are more satisfied. Consequently, employees who have negative appraisal at work have more proclivity to engage in counterproductive behaviour [68,69] than positively appraised employees. Based on the review of theoretical and empirical research, this study hypothesizes that:

H3a: There is an association between work-related expectancies and job satisfaction

H3b: CWB will mediate the association between work-related expectancies and job satisfaction

2.3 Research Design

Based on the theoretical and empirical literature carried out in this study, Fig. 1 below is the proposed study model for testing the hypotheses. With this model procedural fairness, employee voice, and work-related expectancies are independent variables predicting job satisfaction - the dependent variable (path c). The independent variables also predict CWB which is hypothesized as a mediator in the association between independent variables and the dependent variable (path a). The mediator CWB is hypothesized to predict the dependent variable job satisfaction (path b). The model is adopted from the simple mediation model by [70] and [71]. Multiple regression analysis is used to test for the linear association between independent variables and the dependent variables. The mediation test is carried out using PROCESS in SPSS version 25 which allows the researcher to test for total effects, direct effects and indirect effects of an independent variable on a dependent variable in a regression-based approach [72,70]. Other analytical procedures used in this study include analyzing bivariate correlations (Pearson's *r*) and Crosstabulation for covariates.

2.3.1 Sample and sampling procedure

The study was based on a survey which was anonymous. In total 560 questionnaires were

distributed in simple random procedure among academic and administrative staff. The total population of the academic and administrative staff of the university was 610. Among them, 50 employees were not in the university during the study time. Either they were out on study leave or had engagements in other campuses of the university. In this regard, only academic and administrative staff who were present during the study time were given the questionnaires to complete. The respondents were handed the survey and asked to return the completed responses to a designated research assistant. After one month, a follow up was made by the research assistants to respondents who did not return the completed questionnaires. At the end of two months, 187 usable completed questionnaires were collected which made 33% response rate. This number was deemed enough for data analysis. The demographic profiles of the respondents are given in Table 1. It was found that male ($n = 102$) and female ($n = 87$) respondents were almost the same in number. Considering the education level of the respondents, it was found that the majority were MA graduates (61.7%). In terms of tenure, 74% had been in the workplace between 1 and 5 years. In terms of nature of the job, 93% were full time. With regard to age, it was found that 73% were below 40 years. About 92% of the respondents were Tanzanians.

2.3.2 Validity and reliability of measurement instruments

All multiple items measures were tested for sampling adequacy to ascertain suitability for factor analysis. Table 1 provides statistics for Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. Each of the scales was identified as suitable for factor analysis. Principal components analysis was used for Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) through Equamax rotation with Kaiser Normalization, which generated factor solutions relative to each measure. [73] recommendation was used as a rule for accepting a scale, (i.e., Total Variance Explained > 60%). Likewise, for factor loadings, the Kaiser-Guttman rule was used which recommends that factors with initial eigenvalues greater than 1 should be used to determine scale dimensions. Thus, when only one factor solution is loaded there is unidimensional latent structure. Items which had factor loadings greater than .50 met the recommendations by [74] and [75] and were used for computing the measures. All items in this sample study met this condition. In terms of

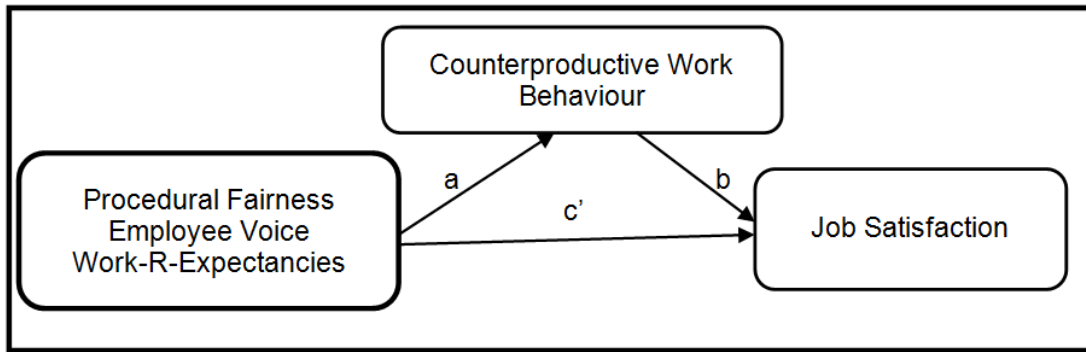


Fig. 1. Conceptual model depicting the mediating role of CWB on the association between procedural fairness, employee voice, work-related expectancies and job satisfaction
Proposed relationship in the Model - adopted from [70]

scale reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s Alpha) - all multiple item measures adopted in this study were computed. This study maintained [76] recommendations that reliabilities which are less than 0.6 are considered poor, those in the 0.7 range are acceptable, while those above 0.8 are good.

Table 1. KMO measure of sampling adequacy

Measure	Statistics	p-value
Job Satisfaction	.803	.000
CWB	.845	.000
Procedural Fairness/ Employee Voice/Justification	.489	.000
Work-related Expectancies	.760	.000

2.3.2.1 Job satisfaction

This was measured by adopting a 6-item measure of overall job satisfaction developed by [77]. The scale contained items such as: ‘How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?’ and ‘How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?’ Responses were obtained on a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = Very unsatisfied to 5 = Very satisfied, with high scores indicating high level of satisfaction. Total Variance Explained (TVE) was 73.47%. Previous studies showed the scale to be reliable with coefficient alpha ranging from .73 to .78 [78,79]. Reliability in this sample study was .80.

2.3.2.2 Counterproductive work behaviour

This was measured by adopting Antisocial Behaviours measure developed by [80]. ‘It

describes negative behaviours by employees that have the potential to harm individuals and/or the organization’ [58]. Respondents were asked to report how frequently they had engaged in each behaviour within the previous year. Sample items in this measure include: (1). ‘Damaged property belonging to my employer’ (2). ‘Did work badly, incorrectly, or slowly on purpose’ and (3). Said or did something to purposely hurt someone at work. Responses were obtained using a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = very infrequently and 5 = very frequently, with higher scores indicating high level of antisocial behaviours. Total Variance Explained (TVE) was 60%. Previous studies showed the scale to be reliable with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from .68 to .81 [80]. Reliability in this study sample was .89.

2.3.2.3 Work-related expectancies

The measure for work-related expectancies was adopted from [81]. It describes the extent to which employees believe that higher levels of job performance will be rewarded. In particular, the measure assesses employees’ expectancies for promotion and pay raise if there is better- or high-quality performance in their work. Respondents were instructed to report to what extent each statement was part of their job. Sample statements in this 4-item measure of work related expectancies were; ‘It is more likely that I will be given a pay raise or promotion at work if I finish a large amount of work’ and ‘Getting work done quickly at my organization increases my chances for a pay raise or promotion.’ Responses were obtained using a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = definitely not part of my job’ and 5 = extremely true of my job.’ Total Variance Explained was 75.89%. Previous

studies show the scale to be reliable with alpha ranging between .77 and .89 [81]. Cronbach's alpha for this study sample was .89.

2.3.2.4 Procedural fairness, employee voice and justification

This measure was adopted from [59]. 'It assesses the extent to which the employees perceive the organization to have used fair procedures and incorporating of employees' input when making decisions that affect employees [58]. The measure has subscales aimed at assessing procedural fairness, employee voice and justification. Respondents were instructed to report to what extent they agree or disagree with each of the statements. Sample items included: 'The organization was fair to me in the way that it made the decision to relocate' and 'People like myself had input into the decision to relocate.' Responses were obtained using a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree, with high scores indicating high levels of procedural fairness and employee voice/justification. Total Variance Explained (TVE) was 70.87%. Previous studies show procedural fairness subscale to be reliable, alpha = .88; and alpha for employee voice and justification = .77 [59]. Cronbach's alpha for this study sample was .80 for procedural fairness, and .53 for employee voice and for justification it was .72.

2.3.2.5 Covariates

The choice of control variables was based on theoretical perspectives and/or empirical findings. A study by [82] reported that CWB varies significantly across social demographic characteristics. With regard to age; meta-analyses confirmed that age consistently correlates negatively with CWB, regardless of category [8]. In this regard, older workers are less likely to indulge in aggression, absenteeism or negligence than are younger workers [83,84]. With regard to gender, studies show that males have a tendency to be more aggressive than females in interpersonal relations [85,67]. As far as occupation is concerned; a study by [86] indicated that jobs requiring less attention or involvement have higher rates of CWB than jobs which require more attention or high involvement. Notably, jobs which have high propensity for boredom are more likely to have a higher proclivity for CWB. In addition, employees in white colour jobs have lower rates of interpersonal conflicts and CWB than employees

in blue-colour jobs [87]. With regard to education; studies show that higher education levels are linked to lower CWB for the general index, but for partial indexes such as aggression and absenteeism the association results are constantly negative [83]. As far as length of tenure is concerned, research shows that work experience is associated with stronger organizational offenses than interpersonal offenses [88]. This implies that employees who have been in the workplace for a relatively longer period of time, have a higher proclivity to CWB compared to new employees. A study by [89], for example, showed that long-tenured employees engaged more in aggressive behaviours and minor thefts such as using company's phones or taking office supplies home. Some studies, however, show different results, high tenure has been related to less CWB [90].

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results of cross-tabulation for certain variables are provided in Table 2 as sample characteristics. Descriptive statistics, study Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), Sample Size (N), and Pearson Correlations (r) are presented in Table 3. In short, the study showed a significant positive correlation between work-related expectancies and job satisfaction ($r = .25$, $P = .001$). This correlation implies that higher work-related expectancies are positively related to job satisfaction. This means, the higher the expectation for pay raise and promotion the higher the job satisfaction. Similarly, there was a significant negative correlation between CWB and occupation ($r = -.22$, $P = .004$). This correlation implies that administrative staff are more likely to show negative behaviour than academic staff. Table 4 provides the multiple regression results for variance accounted for by employee perceptions of procedural fairness, employee voice, justification, CWB, and work-related expectancies on job satisfaction. Models 1 and 2 present results relating to the extent to which control variables (model 1) and independent variables (model 2) explain employee job satisfaction. Model 1 accounted for about 6.6 per cent of the variance in employee job satisfaction [$F(8,156) = 1.315$, $P = .240$]. An addition of independent variables in the regression (that is, procedural fairness, employee voice, justification, CWB, and work-related expectancies) accounted for about 15.2 per cent unique variance, that is, above the variance explained by the control model ($\Delta F = 5.582$, $P = .000$).

Table 2. Sample characteristics

		Female %	Male %	Total %
Age	20-29	20.2	12	32.2
	30-39	18	22.4	40.4
	40-49	4.4	12.6	16.9
	50-59	3.3	3.8	7.1
	60 and above	1.1	2.2	3.3
	Total within age	47	53	100
		Chi square = 12.06, P = .017, Phi & Cramer's V= .257, P = .017		
Occupation Type	Administrative staff	29.9	12.6	42.5
	Academic staff	17.8	39.7	57.5
	Total % within occupation type	47.7	52.3	100
		Chi Square = 26.29, P = .000, Phi, Cramer's V = .389, P = .000		
Country of Origin	Tanzania	44.9	47	91.9
	East Africa excl. Tanzania	1.6	3.2	4.9
	Other nationality	1.1	1.1	2.2
	Total within country of origin	47.6	52.4	100
		Chi square = 2.663, P = .447 Phi & Cramer's V = .12, P = .447		
Education	Certificate	3.3	2.2	5.5
	Bachelor Degree	15.3	11.5	26.8
	Master's Degree	28.4	33.3	61.7
	Doctorate	0.5	5.5	6.0
	Total % within Education	47.5	52.5	100
		Chi square = 9.06, P = .029 Phi & Cramer's V = .223, P = .029		
Tenure	Less than 1 year	2.2	3.2	5.4
	1-5 years	31.9	42.2	74.1
	6-10 years	9.7	3.2	13
	Over 10 years	3.8	3.8	7.6
	Total % within Tenure	47.6	52.4	100
		Chi square = 8.62, P = .035 Phi & Cramer's V = .216, P = .035		
Nature of the Job	Full Time	42.8	50	92.8
	Part Time	1.7	1.7	3.3
	Volunteer	1.1	00	1.1

	Female %	Male %	Total %
On Probation	1.7	1.1	2.8
Total % within Nature of the Job	47.2	52.8	100
Marital Status			
Single	24.3	13.8	38.1
Married	18.2	37.6	55.8
Non-marriage relationship	6.1	00	6.1
Total % in Marital Status	48.6	51.4	100
Chi square = 28.24, P = .000			
Phi & Cramer's V = .395, P = .000			

NB: P values for Nature of the Job – Chi square, Phi & Cramer's V not significant
All Asymptotic significance are 2-sided

Table 3. Means, SD and Pearson's correlations

Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	
Age	2.1	1.0	183														
Gender	1.5	.50	185	.20**													
Occupation	1.6	.50	174	.27**	.39**												
Nationality	1.1	.47	185	.01	.09	-.15*											
Educational	2.7	.67	183	.34**	.19*	.59**	-.17*										
Tenure	2.2	.66	185	.30**	-.13	-.03	-.34**	.06									
Nature of the Job	1.2	.74	180	.32**	-.09	-.07	-.07	-.32**	.24**								
Marital Status	1.8	.95	181	.03	-.08	.04	-.14	.20**	.06	-.07							
Job Satisfaction	2.4	.65	187	-.14	-.07	.08	-.07	-.04	.06	.12	-.01	.80					
Work-R-Expectancy	2.2	.96	181	.01	.03	-.01	-.09	-.16*	.13	.12	-.04	.25**	.89				
Procedural Fairness	2.5	.89	187	-.19**	-.13	-.10	-.10	.06	.05	-.02	.19*	-.07	-.14	.80			
Justification	3.0	1.1	187	-.15*	-.15*	-.09	.10	.06	.00	-.18*	.14	.04	-.23**	.25**	.72		
Employee Voice	2.5	.98	187	.23**	.13	.19*	-.10	.19**	.04	-.02	.10	-.21**	.13	.04	.04	.53	
CWB	1.6	.61	187	-.07	-.14	-.22**	-.08	-.16*	.09	.29**	.07	.04	-.07	.02	.11	-.06	.89

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Coefficient alpha for multiple-items measures are presented in the diagonal.
N varied from 174 to 187

Table 4. Multiple regression analysis to test for the variance accounted for by procedural fairness, employee voice, justification and CWB on job satisfaction

Variables	Model 1	Model 2
	Job Satisfaction	
	Unstandardized B	Unstandardized B
Step 1: Control Variables		
Age	-.15 [†]	-.10 [†]
Gender	-.09	-.09
Occupation	.23	.23 [†]
Country of Origin	.01	-.04
Education	.06	.13
Tenure	.04	-.04
Nature of Job	.08	.06
Marital Status	-.03	-.03
Step 2: Independent Variables		
Counterproductive Work Behaviour	-	.14
Employee Voice	-	-.15 ^{**}
Procedural Fairness	-	-.10
Justification	-	.10 [†]
Work-related Expectancies	-	.23 ^{***}
ΔR^2	.07	-
Model R ²	.07	.22 ^{***}
Adjusted R ²	.02	.15 ^{***}
Model F	1.315	5.582 ^{***}
N	157	157

Notes: *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < .01$, * $p < 0.05$, [†] $p < .10$; all tests are two-tailed Missing data and listwise deletion reduced sample size to 157

Overall, this model accounted for about 47 per cent of the variance (Model R) in employee job satisfaction [$F(8,156) = 5.582, P = .000$]. The multiple regression analysis examined the extent to which procedural fairness, employee voice, justification, CWB, and work-related expectancies predict job satisfaction. The results of the analysis indicate that CWB did not predict job satisfaction. Beta coefficient = .14, $t(156) = 1.609, P = .110$. This finding contradicts previous studies whose findings showed that counterproductive work behavior predicted job dissatisfaction [39]. One explanation for this finding might be reverse causality between job satisfaction and CWB constructs. In this regard, the question still remains on whether job satisfaction predicts counterproductive behavior or counterproductive behavior predicts job satisfaction, which [8] terms "rocky relationship". Thus, Hypothesis 1 which predicted that CWB will be associated with job satisfaction was not supported. However, work-related expectancies positively predicted job satisfaction $b = .23, t(156) = 4.339, P = .000$; this finding is consistent with previous studies [64]. Likewise, employee voice negatively predicted job satisfaction ($b = -.15, t(156) = -3.03, P = .003$). This finding implies that when employees are not given opportunities

to communicate with the top management, they may feel that they are neglected and thus the likelihood of job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, procedural fairness did not significantly predict job satisfaction. Justification positively predicted job satisfaction $b = .101, t(156) = 2.098, P = .038$. This finding implies that when employees are able to justify the decisions made by their employer, they are likely to be satisfied with their job. In this regard, a change in justification leads to a change in job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 2a which stated that there is an association between procedural fairness, employee voice, justification, and job satisfaction was supported with the exception of procedural fairness which was not significant.

Mediation analysis is carried out to assess whether a mediator carries the influence of an independent variable to a dependent variable. Specifically, this analysis allows researchers to focus not on individual paths in the mediation model (Fig. 1, paths a and b), but instead focus on the product term (ab), under the logic that this product is equal to the difference between the total and direct effect [91]. This study therefore used SPSS Version 25 and PROCESS Version 3.5 to test for total effects, direct effects and

Table 5. Results for mediation analysis

Variables	b(SE)	b(BootSE)	b(SE)
	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects CWB = M	Total Effects
DV = Job Satisfaction			
Independent Variables			
Procedural Fairness	-.097 (.0551) 95%CI [-.2053, .0121]	-.0008 (.0040) [BootLLCI, -.0049, BootULCI, .0120]	-.096 (.0549) 95%CI [-.2042, .0126]
Justification	.027 (.0457) 95%CI [-.063, .1175]	-.003 (.0057) BootLLCI, -.0146, BootULCI, .0097]	.0243 (.0452) 95%CI [-.0648, .1134]
Employee Voice	-.129** (.0491) 95%CI [-.2256, -.0318]	.0007 (.0039) [BootLLCI, -.0061, BootULCI, .0111]	-.128** (.0490) 95%CI [-.2246, -.0314]
Work-related Expectancies	.1689** (.0506) 95%CI [.0690, .2689]	-.001 (.0067) [BootLLCI, -.0182, BootULCI, .0101]	.1678** (.0501) 95%CI [.0690, .2667]
Covariates			
Total effect model	Procedural Fairness	Employee Voice	Work-r-expectancy
Age	.254*** (.0595)	.109* (.053)	.126* (.056)
Occupation	-.115 (.1199)	-.001(.114)	-.03 (.127)
Country of Origin	.046 (.108)	.065 (.105)	-.011 (.112)
Education	-.365*** (.106)	-.292 (.108)	-.21 (.105)
Tenure	-.044 (.0797)	.096 (.085)	-.034 (.081)
Nature of Job	-.154* (.0776)	.077 (.099)	-.032 (.078)
Marital Status	.175*** (.0510)	.168** (.049)	.055 (.049)

Notes: Level of Confidence for all confidence intervals = 95.00; Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals = 5000; M = Mediator Variable

indirect effects of study variables as portrayed in the model. The results showed a negative total effect of employee voice on job satisfaction. Total effect = -.129, SE = .049, $P = .0097$, 95% LLCI = -.2246 and ULCI = -.0314. This implies that employee voice is negatively related to job satisfaction independent of the mechanisms represented by CWB. Likewise, the results indicate that there is a negative direct effect of employee voice on job satisfaction. In other words, employee voice negatively affects job satisfaction independent of the effects of CWB. Direct effect = -.129, SE = .049, $P = .0095$, 95% CI = -.2256 and -.0318. These results are supportive of making an inference of direct effects since we are 95% confident that the effect of employee voice on job satisfaction lies (in the interval estimate) somewhere between -.2256 and -.0318, and there is no plausible reason not to rule out that the direct effect is not zero. However, the indirect effect test was not significant.

The results for total effects and direct effects of employee work-related expectancies on job satisfaction were positive and significant. Total effect for work-related expectancies = .168, SE =

.0501, $P = .0010$, 95% LLCI = .0690 and ULCI = .2667. Direct effect = .169, SE = .0500, $P = .0010$, 95% LLCI = .0690 and ULCI = .2689. However, the results for indirect effects of work-related expectancies on job satisfaction were not significant. The mediation results for justification and procedural fairness were not significant. Table 5 provides results for mediation results for variables hypothesized in this study. Overall, hypothesis 2b and 3b which stated that CWB will mediate the association between procedural fairness, employee voice, work-related expectancies and job satisfaction were not supported. However, the study established total effect and direct effect of employee voice and work-related expectancies on job satisfaction independent of mechanisms represented by CWB.

4. CONCLUSION

The findings in this study demonstrate that CWB does not have influence on employee job satisfaction. In as much as employees may wish to show their dissatisfaction in various ways including antisocial behaviors, employee voice and justification fairness are the recommended

routes of communication between the employer and the employees. Employers should not consider employees who are vocal to be counterproductive, rather they should take their inputs on board in order to enhance employee and organizational goals. Practical recommendations to employers include among other things, allowing transparency in decision making by making employee voice part of the culture of the university. On the other hand, the findings showed that employee work-related expectancies were positively correlated with job satisfaction. This correlate has practical implications to both employers and employees. Employees who have very high expectations in pay raise and promotion are more likely to be satisfied than employees who have low expectancies. Notably, expectancies go hand in hand with effort (effort - reward expectancies), thus, employers have to be aware that in order to meet employees' expectations, employee voice and justification should be considered since they mirror employees' expectancies. This study blended the attribution theory and expectancy theory, and both reflected causal explanations and inferences made by employees in exploring controversial perceptions such as expectancies for pay raise and promotion. This has both attributive explanations and causal explanations. These findings demonstrate to university management and practitioners that there is always a desire to increase employee job satisfaction, however, that desire can only be met if employee voice is given proper attention in the workplace. In this regard, this study's organization communication perspective is still relevant and valid in exploring employee interests and the possibility of minimizing CWB in the workplace.

5. PRACTICAL IMPLICATION AND RECOMMENDATION

These results have some practical implications: firstly, the study shows that in the relationship between employee voice, justification and work-related expectancies and job satisfaction CWB does not mediate the relationship. Each variable in its own right showed direct effect and total effect on job satisfaction. In this regard, CWB should not always be considered as a way of expressing dissatisfaction to the management, rather, it should be considered as an organizational aspect which stands on its own and can relate or not relate to employee job satisfaction. Previous studies have shown that CWB negatively predicted job satisfaction. Unlike

the previous studies, this study did not find significant results between CWB and job satisfaction. One plausible reason might be reverse causality between CWB and job satisfaction. Thus, this study recommends further studies to be carried out to examine whether job satisfaction predicts CWB or otherwise. These results can be used by university management to improve different ways of employee voice, work-related expectancies, and justification in order to enhance employees' perception of job satisfaction and possibly mitigate any counterproductive behaviour which might develop in the university setting. It should also be remembered that based on the attribution theory, people will always do what they want, in this regard, in order to improve the organizational outcomes, the management must have different ways of listening to their employees in order to improve communication between them. Likewise, based on the expectancy theory, employee effort is very important in determining individual performance. Thus, the management should always try to capture employees' work-related expectancies in order to keep up with their effort. Pay raise and promotion are among the expectancies which should always be reviewed.

6. LIMITATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

One research limitation that can be thought off in this study is the use of cross-sectional sampling design. Study variables such as CWB and job satisfaction need a longitudinal approach in order to capture variances explained in the population over a considerable period of time. In this view, making generalizations in the findings of this study should be done with caution since interpretations on cross-sectional design might differ from interpretations made over a considerable period of time. Likewise, much as the sample size in this study is equivalent to similar studies, larger samples are preferably desired. In this regard, future studies of this kind should attempt to collect data from a larger population and preferably involve more than one institution in order to compare managerial practices and employee perceptions among universities in Tanzania. As it stands, this research is a case study since it is based on one case.

CONSENT

As per international standard or university standard, respondents' written consent has been collected and preserved by the author(s).

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COMPETING INTERESTS

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

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