

**Toxic Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Justice and Employee Job Performance in
Selected Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria**

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**DOCTORAL THESIS WRITTEN IN THE DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE
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BENIN, BENINCITY, EDOSTATE, NIGERIA.**

December, 2025

DECLARATION

I, **Mary Shadrach OMOFOWA**, hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis is a genuine work done originally by me and has not been submitted elsewhere for the award of any degree. All sources of information referred to in this work are acknowledged with reference to the respective authors.

Mary Shadrach OMOFOWA
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Date

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This is to certify that this thesis titled “**Toxic Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Justice and Employee Job Performance in Selected Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria**” was carried out by **Mary Shadrach OMOFOWA** in the Department of Human Resource Management, faculty of Management Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to God Almighty my creator, my strong pillar, my source of inspiration, wisdom, knowledge and understanding. He has been the source of strength throughout this program and on His wings only I have soared. I also extend a special dedication to my dearly beloved parents, my husband, whose exceptional love, steadfast support, and constant mentorship, encouragement have been invaluable throughout this academic journey.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between toxic workplace behaviours, organisational justice, and employee performance among academics in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria. The study examined how workplace ostracism, harassment, bullying, and abusive supervision influence teaching quality, research productivity, and community service, as well as the mediating role of organisational justice.

Using a survey design, data were collected from 373 distributed questionnaires, out of which 305 valid responses (81.8%) were analysed through descriptive statistics, correlation, regression, and structural equation modeling (SEM).

The findings revealed that harassment significantly reduced all dimensions of employee performance, while workplace ostracism and bullying showed weaker effects. Interestingly, abusive supervision had a mixed outcome, with non-significant or positive effects on certain aspects of performance. Organisational justice was found to play both full and partial mediating roles, reinforcing its importance in mitigating the negative consequences of toxic workplace behaviours. In addition, demographic factors such as marital status, institution type, and state of origin were found to significantly shape the relationship between toxic behaviours and employee performance, while gender, age, and qualification showed no significant influence.

The study concludes that toxic workplace behaviours undermine psychological resources, weaken academic performance, and threaten institutional effectiveness, while organisational justice offers a protective buffer against these negative effects. Based on the findings, the study recommends that universities strengthen fair grievance-handling mechanisms, implement policies that discourage toxic behaviours, promote supportive leadership practices, build awareness and training on workplace civility, and institutionalise transparent reward and recognition systems to sustain employee performance and academic excellence.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Employee performance within the university setting is a critical determinant of institutional success, encompassing the effectiveness of teaching, the quality and quantity of research output, active community engagement, and meaningful student interactions (Ebeloku, Adeoduy, & Akinbode, 2024; Namutebi, 2019). Academic staff is the backbone of higher education institutions, and their performance directly impacts the university's reputation, national development goals, and global competitiveness (Edobor&Akenzua, 2023). Given their centrality, understanding the factors that enable or hinder academic staff performance is essential for university administrators and policymakers seeking to enhance overall institutional productivity.

A conducive work environment plays a pivotal role in enabling academic staff to perform optimally. Such an environment is characterised by mutual respect, psychological safety, organisational support, and equitable resource distribution. When academic staff operate in a positive workplace climate, they are more likely to exhibit motivation, commitment, creativity, and engagement all of which contribute to improved teaching and research outcomes. Conversely, when the work environment is marred by toxicity, morale declines, collaboration diminishes, and burnout increases, ultimately hampering productivity and innovation.

Toxic workplace behaviour refers to a pattern of harmful interpersonal conduct within the work environment that undermines the psychological and professional wellbeing of employees. These behaviours are often perpetuated by organisational members themselves and range from subtle exclusion to overt harassment (Solomon, Chidi & Fabian, 2024). The academic workplace, particularly in Nigerian universities, is increasingly confronted with such toxic behaviours,

which researchers term "the dark side of organisations" (Akenzua & Dania, 2024). Studies show that toxic workplace not only disrupts interpersonal relations but also erodes trust, intensifies stress, and contributes to job dissatisfaction (Samnani & Singh, 2022; Oluwatosin, Ojo, & Ogunleye, 2023). This phenomenon is especially problematic in academic settings where teamwork, collegiality, and intellectual collaboration are central to success.

This study focuses on specific dimensions of toxic workplace behaviour including workplace ostracism, bullying, abusive supervision, and harassment. Workplace ostracism, defined as the exclusion from social or professional interactions, often leads to emotional isolation and reduced self-worth, sometimes having more lasting effects than open conflict (Ibrahim & Olaleye, 2025). Bullying entails repeated and health-harming mistreatment such as verbal abuse and humiliation (Samnani & Singh, 2022), while harassment involves unwanted conduct related to gender, race, religion, or other protected characteristics (Solomon et al., 2024). These dimensions interact to form a hostile work climate that adversely affects academic staff performance.

This study examines the relationship between toxic workplace behaviours and academic staff performance within Nigerian universities. The assumption is that exposure to toxic workplace negatively impacts the capacity of academic staff to meet their responsibilities in teaching, research, and service delivery. This research is contextualised within universities in Edo and Delta States, two regions that encapsulate the broader challenges faced by Nigerian tertiary institutions. These states were selected due to their diversity of public and private universities, the prevalence of traditional hierarchical structures, and reported concerns regarding policy enforcement and workplace culture (Okeke, Oluyemi & Adeyemi, 2024). Investigating this phenomenon in these locations provides rich insights into the complex interplay between organisational behaviour and academic productivity in Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

In an ideal university workplace, academic environments should foster intellectual freedom, mutual respect, equitable opportunities, and collaborative engagement among staff members. Universities are expected to operate as centres of excellence, where academic staff are supported through inclusive policies, fair leadership practices, and conducive organisational climates that promote teaching, research, and community development. Such environments enable academic staff to maximise their potential, contribute meaningfully to institutional goals, and drive innovation in knowledge production and societal transformation. However, this ideal scenario is often undermined by prevailing dysfunctional workplace behaviours in Nigerian universities.

Increasingly, toxic workplace behaviour is become a pressing concern within Nigerian academia, affecting both public and private institutions. The toxic behaviour often manifest in form of workplace ostracism, bullying, harassment, and abusive supervision disrupt collegial relationships and professional advancement. Academics, particularly junior and female staff, are frequently being excluded from decision-making processes, intimidation, and gender-based harassment (Adebayo & Oladele, 2023; Okonkwo & Chukwu, 2023). These behaviours are compounded by rigid hierarchies and weak accountability structures, which limit redress mechanisms and create an environment conducive to abuse. Consequently, toxic workplace behaviour has far-reaching effects not only on individual well-being and performance but also on institutional credibility, output, and retention.

The consequences of toxic workplace are severe, as they hinder teaching effectiveness, reduce research productivity, and contribute to high levels of stress and burnout among academic staff. Organisational justice, who refers to employees' perceptions of fairness in decision-making

processes, resource allocation, interpersonal treatment, and communication within the workplace, may serve as a buffer against the harmful effects of toxic workplace behaviour. When staff members perceive fairness in how they are treated and how organisational procedures are carried out, they are more likely to remain committed, motivated, and resilient even in the face of adversity.

However, within the Nigerian university context, the role of organisational justice in mitigating the impact of toxic behaviours such as bullying, harassment, exclusion, and abusive supervision seems to be poorly understood. Existing research has not adequately explored whether perceptions of fairness can influence how staff respond to or recover from toxic workplace, nor has it examined whether organisational justice practices vary across different institutional types or demographic groups. This gap underscores the need for further empirical inquiry to determine whether enhancing organisational justice could serve as a viable strategy for reducing the negative consequences of toxic workplace environments in Nigerian universities. Moreover, the prevalence of toxic behaviours undermines trust in leadership and erodes the university's capacity to function as a meritocratic institution (Fagbemi, 2022; Akinyele et al., 2021). These dysfunctional dynamics diminish employee morale and hinder universities' ability to attract and retain high-performing academics, threatening the quality and sustainability of higher education in Nigeria.

The demographic factors such as gender, age, tribal origin, educational level, and marital status of the academics influence on toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance raises further concerns. For instance, female academics may experience higher levels of harassment and bullying that can exacerbate the negative effects on their performance (Akinyemi & Ojo, 2023). Similarly, academics from minority tribal origins may face ostracism and exclusion, which can

limit their access to career advancement opportunities (Okafor & Nwachukwu, 2022). These demographic factors may intersect with toxic workplace behaviour, creating unique challenges for certain groups of academics.

Despite increasing awareness, significant knowledge and research gaps persist. While some studies have explored workplace stress and general employee dissatisfaction in Nigeria (Ajibade & Fashina, 2023; Akenzua & Dania, 2024), few have specifically examined toxic workplace behaviour in relation to academic staff performance. Even fewer have investigated how organisational justice may influence this relationship. This limited empirical evidence hinders the development of context-specific policies and interventions. Particularly lacking are studies focusing on universities in Edo and Delta States, where a combination of traditional administrative structures and evolving workplace expectations may create unique dynamics of toxic workplace that remain underexplored.

This study therefore seeks to fill this empirical gap by examining the effect of toxic workplace behaviour, organisational justice on employee performance in selected public and private universities in Edo and Delta States. It further investigates the potential moderating role of organisational justice, thereby offering insight into whether such toxicity is primarily a systemic organisational issue or a broader industry-wide problem. By contextualising the research within these states known for their diversity of institutions and longstanding educational reputations the study aims to generate findings that are both locally grounded and nationally relevant. The insights derived will support more effective interventions to promote healthier academic environments and enhance university performance.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to act as a guide during this study of interest.

1. What is the effect of workplace ostracism on employees' performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?
2. What is the relationship between bullying and employees' performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?
3. What is the influence of harassment on employees' performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?
4. What is the relationship between abusive supervision and employee' performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?
5. To what extent does organisational justice moderate the relationship between toxic work behaviour and employee performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?
6. Are there differences or variation in demographic factors such as gender, age, tribal origin, educational level, and marital status in relation to the effect of toxic work behaviour on employee performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this study is to examine the effects of toxic workplace and employee performance in public and private universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria. The specific objectives are to:

1. determine the effect of workplace ostracism on employees' performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria;
2. examine the relationship between bullying on employees' performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria;
3. evaluate the influence of harassment on employees' performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria;
4. determine the relationship between abusive supervision and employee' performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria;
5. ascertain whether organisational justice moderates the relationship between toxic work behaviour and employee performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria; and
6. evaluate the differences in demographic factors such as gender, age, tribal origin, educational level, and marital status in relation to the effect of toxic work behaviour on employee performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses are formulated in to guide the study

Ho₁ There is no significant relationship between workplace ostracism and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.

Ho₂ There is no significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.

- Ho₃ There is no significant relationship between employee harassment and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.
- Ho₄ There is no significant relationship between abusive supervision and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.
- Ho₅ Organisational justice does not mediate the relationship between toxic workplace, behaviour and employee' performance in selected Private and Public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.
- Ho₆ There are no significant differences in demographic factors such as gender, age, tribal origin, educational level, and marital status in relation to the effect of toxic work behaviour on employee performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study examined the effect of toxic workplace behaviours, workplace ostracism, bullying, harassment, and abusive supervision on employee performance in university settings, with organisational justice serving as a mediating variable and demographic factors as contextual influences. Employee performance was assessed in terms of teaching quality, research output, and community service. The study is limited to selected public and private universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria, chosen for their diverse higher education structures. such as University of Benin, Ambrose Alii University, Igbinedion University, Wellspring University in Edo State. Other institutions are Delta State University, Federal University of Petroleum Resources, Edwin Clark University, Noneva University in Delta State. Data were drawn from recent workplace

experiences and collected during the October-November 2025 academic period to capture current workplace dynamics within the selected institutions.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study will be beneficial to the following category of stakeholders: University management, academic staff, government and educational regulatory bodies, human resource practitioners, students, and research scholars. The following constitute how they will benefit:

University management: The study will help university administrators in both public and private universities understand the impact of toxic workplace behaviours on employee performance. A comprehensive report containing key findings, implications, and recommendations will be shared directly with university governing councils and senior management teams through official correspondence and stakeholder engagement forums. Presentations will also be made at university senate meetings and strategic planning retreats. It will provide recommendations on fostering a healthier work environment, improving employee well-being, and enhancing institutional effectiveness.

Academic staff: This category of employees will benefit from the study as it highlights workplace challenges such as ostracism, bullying, harassment, and abusive supervision. Summarised findings will be communicated through academic seminars, workshops, and faculty meetings. Brief policy briefs and infographics highlighting the impact of toxic workplace behaviours and proposed interventions will also be distributed within academic communities. The findings can serve as a basis for advocating better workplace policies, improved support systems, and enhanced job satisfaction.

Government and educational regulatory bodies: Agencies such as the National Universities Commission (NUC) and Ministries of Education can use the findings to implement policies that promote workplace harmony and prevent toxic behaviours. Policy recommendations will be compiled into a formal submission to relevant bodies such as the National Universities Commission (NUC) and the Federal Ministry of Education. These will be presented during educational policy roundtables and national stakeholder summits. They will aid in developing regulations to enhance employee well-being in higher education institutions.

Human resource practitioners: HR professionals in universities will benefit from insights into toxic workplace behaviours and their effects on employee performance. Findings will be disseminated through professional HR networks, newsletters, and workshops aimed at enhancing workplace culture and performance in the higher education sector. The study can guide HR departments in designing better workplace policies, implementing training programs, and developing intervention strategies to mitigate toxicity.

Students: The students will benefit from this study because healthier work environment leads to more motivated and engaged employees, resulting in better teaching quality, timely administrative support, and overall improved academic experiences for students. Reduced toxic workplace ensures that lecturers are more available, productive, and willing to mentor students, ultimately enhancing learning outcomes and student satisfaction. Student-friendly summaries will be created and shared through university student unions, campus bulletins, and social media platforms to raise awareness of workplace issues that indirectly affect their learning environment.

Researchers and scholars: The study will serve as a reference material for future research on toxic workplace and its impact on employee performance in educational institutions. It contributes to the growing body of knowledge in organisational behaviour, human resource

management, and workplace psychology. The study will be published in peer-reviewed journals and presented at academic conferences, ensuring that it contributes to the body of knowledge and stimulates further research in this area. Copies of the dissertation or report will also be made available in institutional repositories and libraries.

1.8 Definitions of Key Terms

- 1. Toxic Workplace Behaviour:** Persistent negative actions or practices that create a hostile work environment and harm employees' well-being and performance.
- 2. Ostracism:** The experience of being ignored, excluded, or socially isolated at work.
- 3. Harassment:** Suggests a pattern of behaviour that is harmful to the organisation and its workers on a regular basis.
- 4. Bullying:** Negative actions taken against workers that humiliate or intimidate them by calling into question their work standards.
- 5. Abusive Supervision:** Sustained hostile verbal or non-verbal behaviour by supervisors toward subordinates.
- 6. Organisational Justice:** perceived fairness and procedural justice within an organisation
- 7. Demographic variables:** Population data about socio-economic factors such as age, sex, marital status, income, occupation, and education.
- 8. Employee Performance:** The effectiveness with which employees carry out their job roles, including teaching, research, and community service.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The chapter deals with three main parts namely conceptual, theoretical and empirical reviews. The conceptual review begins by discussing the dependent variable, employee performance, then it proceeds to discussing the independent variable, toxic workplace behaviour. The chapter concludes by presenting the conceptual framework of the study. The theoretical review presents theories that are related to the discourse, while the empirical review presents prior empirical studies on the discourse. The section concludes by presenting the research gaps.

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Employee Performance

Performance can be understood as the results achieved when employees complete tasks based on their abilities, experience, ethics, and time investment (Edobor & Akenzua, 2023; Robbins & Coulter, 2017). In contrast to this outcome-focused definition, Retnowati, Mardapi, Kartowagiran, and Hamdi (2021) conceptualize performance as a process. They specifically define academic staff performance as the completion of responsibilities according to their competence, experience, and dedication over specific periods. This perspective aligns with Ebeloku *et al.* (2024), who describe academic staff performance as how effectively faculty members fulfill their core responsibilities in research, teaching, and community engagement.

Performance thus represents the cumulative outcome of completed tasks, where even small achievements contribute to greater results. Academic staff job performance specifically refers to

how effectively they fulfill their teaching responsibilities to transform students into valuable members of society who can contribute to both their personal development and community progress (Owan, 2019). Performance serves as a measure of an organisation's functionality by comparing actual output to expected output (Ebeloku *et al.*, 2024). At the individual level, performance can be defined as the degree to which a person completes their assigned responsibilities (Manzoor, Wei & Asif, 2021). Within university settings, staff members have specific duties, and their performance is evaluated based on how thoroughly they accomplish these assigned tasks.

2.1.2 Dimensions of Employee Performance

Academic faculty are required to fulfill various responsibilities spanning research, teaching, and community engagement, with positions ranging from lecturer to instructor levels (Aliyu & Kabiru, 2014; Blankenau, Dorhout, & Mason, 2014; Akinbode & Abimbola, 2022; Ebeloku *et al.*, 2024). This suggests that evaluation of academic staff performance typically includes assessment of their teaching activities, research productivity, and community contributions.

This perspective aligns with Edobor and Akenzua (2023), who point out that academic staff job performance is measured by their teaching effectiveness, research contributions, community impact, and attitude toward students. These perspectives highlight the essential performance metrics for academic personnel. Based on these criteria, staff performance can be categorised as excellent, good, or poor in relation to how successfully they complete their assigned duties (Namutebi, 2019; Ebeloku *et al.*, 2024). Consequently, to assess academic staff performance levels, institutions have established key performance indicators focused on research productivity, teaching quality, and engagement in community service activities.

2.1.2.1 Teaching Quality

Teaching quality forms a core performance indicator for academics in Nigerian universities. It encompasses instructional effectiveness, curriculum development, mentoring of students, and the application of appropriate pedagogical approaches. Akinbode and Abimbola (2022) reveal that teaching quality in Nigerian universities is typically evaluated through student evaluations, peer reviews, and teaching portfolios.

Nigerian universities assess teaching quality through various parameters including course content development, teaching methodology, student engagement, and assessment practices. Olaleye (2021) notes that effective classroom management, clarity of instruction, and responsiveness to student needs are key aspects of teaching quality evaluation in Nigerian universities.

The integration of technology in teaching has become increasingly important in evaluating teaching quality, especially following the COVID-19 pandemic. Adedoyin and Soykan (2020) highlight that Nigerian academics are now expected to demonstrate competence in using digital tools and platforms for teaching, although infrastructural challenges persist in many institutions.

Student learning outcomes and graduate employability are also emerging as important metrics for evaluating teaching quality. Obunadike and Nwankwo (2019) argue that the ability of academics to produce graduates with relevant skills for the labor market is increasingly being considered in teaching performance evaluations.

2.1.2.2 Research Productivity

Research productivity is a critical performance indicator for academic staff in Nigerian universities. It encompasses the quantity and quality of research outputs that contribute to knowledge advancement in their respective fields. Nigerian universities evaluate research productivity through various metrics, including the number of publications in peer-reviewed journals, citation indices, research grants secured, and participation in academic conferences (Okoduwa *et al.*, 2018).

The Nigerian university system places significant emphasis on publication as a measure of research productivity. Ifijeh, Iwu-James, and Adebayo (2018) states that the publication requirements for promotion vary across universities, with federal universities generally requiring more publications than state universities. The quality of publications is increasingly assessed through journal rankings and impact factors, although access to high-impact international journals remains challenging for many Nigerian academics due to resource constraints (Ezenwoke *et al.*, 2019).

Research collaboration, both local and international, is another important dimension of research productivity. Onyancha (2020) found that Nigerian academics who engage in international collaborations tend to have higher research visibility and impact. However, limited funding for research remains a significant impediment to research productivity in Nigerian universities (Madu *et al.*, 2018).

2.1.2.3 Community Service Activities

Community service represents the third pillar of employee performance evaluation in Nigerian universities. It reflects the university's commitment to societal development through academic engagement with communities. As noted by (2015), community service activities include

consultancy services, public lectures, community development projects, and service on committees both within and outside the university.

Nigerian universities assess community service through various metrics including participation in community development initiatives, contribution to policy formulation, and engagement with industry and civil society organisations. Adekalu *et al.* (2018) note that community service enables academics to translate research findings into practical solutions for societal challenges.

Extension services, which involve the application of research knowledge to solve community problems, are particularly valued in Nigerian university performance evaluation systems. Egwu (2022) points out that agricultural extension activities, health outreach programs, and educational services to underserved communities are common forms of academic community service in Nigeria.

The engagement of academics with professional bodies and their contributions to national development initiatives also form part of community service evaluation. According to Ogbiji and Ekot (2020), service as resource persons for government agencies, participation in public discourse on national issues, and contributions to professional practice guidelines are recognized as valuable community service activities for academic staff.

2.1.3 Toxic Workplace Behaviour

Toxic workplace behaviour, otherwise called toxic workplace refers to an organisational environment that is characterised by harmful behaviours, negative interpersonal interactions, and organisational dysfunction (Kusy & Holloway, 2019; Nwachukwu & Chikwendu, 2019). Kusy and Holloway (2019) view a toxic workplace as one where persistent negative behaviours such as hostility, exclusion, and bullying create an unhealthy work environment. This suggests that

toxic workplace behaviour encompasses a workplace environment where destructive leadership, unethical behaviours, and interpersonal conflicts are paramount. Mehta and Maheshwari (2013) argue that toxic workplaces are marked by manipulative power structures, favouritism, and emotional abuse that can deteriorate employee morale. In the view of Gill and Sypher (2021) toxic workplace behaviour is a setting where incivility, discrimination, and psychological harassment become normalised, leading to high turnover and burnout. According to Adeoye and Iyiola (2021: 84), toxicity in the workplace encompasses "persistent negative interpersonal behaviours including harassment, bullying, incivility, and manipulation that create psychological distress and impede productivity". Similarly, Nwachukwu and Chikwendu (2019: 217) define toxic workplace behaviour as "a constellation of dysfunctional organisational characteristics and leadership practices that foster employee disengagement, excessive stress, and systematic undermining of individual and collective performance".

The above descriptions of toxic workplace behaviour suggests that a work environment that is characterised by toxicity fosters a culture where negative behaviours are not only present but also accepted as part of the organisational norm. It manifests through specific harmful behaviours among colleagues while simultaneously reflecting broader systemic issues within organisational culture and leadership structures (Nwachukwu & Chikwendu, 2019; Adeoye & Iyiola, 2021; Adebayo et al., 2022). As these harmful practices become ingrained in the work environment, the tendency is that it can create environments where employee wellbeing is compromised (Nwankwo, 2018).

2.1.4 Elements of Toxic workplace Behaviour

Toxic workplace behaviour manifests through several distinct elements that collectively create harmful work environments. They include ostracism, bullying, harassment, and abusive supervision. They are discussed below.

2.1.4.1 Ostracism

Workplace ostracism refers to the exclusion or rejection of an individual by others within the organisation (Ibrahim & Olaleye, 2025). Williams (2019) views ostracism being ignored and excluded, typically without excessive explanation or explicit negative attention. This conceptualisation emphasises the passive nature of ostracism, where harm occurs through omission rather than commission. Complementing this view, Ferris, Chen, and Lim (2017) describe workplace ostracism as the extent to which an individual perceives that he or she is ignored or excluded by others in the workplace. This perspective highlights the subjective nature of ostracism, suggesting that an individual's perception of being excluded is central to the experience, regardless of the perpetrators' intentions.

Studies agree that workplace ostracism manifests in various forms across the organisation (Nwankwo, 2018; Okonkwo & Ezeh, 2019). It can occur through deliberate exclusion from formal work-related activities such as meetings, decision-making processes, and information sharing (Okonkwo & Ezeh, 2019). Such exclusionary practices and information withholding can systematically isolate targeted individuals from important organisational processes. Nwankwo (2018) note that toxic workplaces frequently exhibit patterns where certain employees are deliberately excluded from meetings, denied access to crucial information, or removed from

communication channels necessary for job performance. This exclusion serves both to undermine the victim's effectiveness and to consolidate the perpetrator's power within the organisation's social structure, creating performance disparities that can later be used to justify further mistreatment (Okonkwo & Ezeh, 2019; Nwachukwu & Chughtai 2022).

More subtle manifestations include being ignored in casual workplace conversations, exclusion from social gatherings, avoidance of eye contact, and the silent treatment (Jones & Kelly, 2018; Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang 2013; Scott, Sagencyk, Schippers, Purvis, & Cruz, 2017; Williams & Sommer, 2021). Digital ostracism has also emerged as a contemporary form, involving exclusion from email threads, digital communication platforms, or virtual team activities (Riva & Eck, 2016; Hitlan & Noel, 2019). These behaviours create a sense of invisibility and insignificance for the targeted individual, leading to psychological distress and reduced organisational commitment (Waldeck, Tyndall, & Chmiel, 2018; Adebayo & Ogunsina, 2020).

2.1.4.2 Bullying

Workplace bullying represents persistent mistreatment directed at employees. Okonkwo and Ezeh (2019) describe bullying as behaviours that often occur within power imbalances, where perpetrators exploit hierarchical advantages to target subordinates with limited recourse.

According to Einarsen *et al.* (2021:9),

“Bullying at work is about repeated action and practices that are directed against one or more workers that are unwanted by the victim, that may be carried out deliberately or unconsciously but clearly cause humiliation, offence, and distress”...

This definition indicates that for there to be workplace bullying, there must be a set of repeated behaviours and actions targeted at one or more employees, which the victim perceives as

unwelcome. These actions, whether intentional or unintentional, create a hostile work environment by causing humiliation, distress, or offense.

Complementing this perspective, Nielsen and Einarsen (2018) emphasize on the persistent nature of the harmful behaviour that characterise bullying. They note that the action occurs over time and creates an imbalance of power, which makes it difficult for the victim to defend themselves. This can include verbal abuse, exclusion, intimidation, or any other behaviour that undermines the individual's well-being and professional standing. The inability of the victim to stop or counteract these actions highlights the seriousness of workplace bullying and its damaging effects.

Also, bullying behaviour is directed at an employee regardless of protected characteristics such as age or sex and may stem from power struggles, jealousy, or organisational culture (Einarsen et al., 2011). Omotayo and Oladele (2018) reveal that power imbalances facilitate harassment in Nigerian higher education institutions. Moreover, bullying may be either intentional or unintentional and entails persistent psychological aggression that humiliates or intimidates the victim, often unrelated to legally protected traits (Salin, 2021).

Bullying can take various forms, such as verbal abuse, exclusion, spreading rumors, excessive criticism, social exclusion, or assigning impossible workloads, creating a toxic work environment, or undermining a person's work performance (Adebayo *et al.*, 2022). Regardless of whether the perpetrator is aware of their actions, the negative impact on the victim remains significant, often leading to emotional, psychological, and professional consequences. Adebayo *et al.* (2022) observe that bullying is often an aggressive interaction that typically involve public humiliation, excessive criticism, and threatening language that creates psychological distress among victims

Workplace bullying is also been noted to manifests through various actions across organisational contexts. They include direct, task-related, person-related, and internet-related which is otherwise referred to as cyber-bullying (Gardner, O'Driscoll, Cooper-Thomas, Roche, Bentley, Catley, Teo, & Trenberth, 2016; Kowalski, Toth, & Morgan, 2018; Reknes, Notelaers, Magerøy, Pallesen, Bjorvatn, Moen, & Einarsen, 2019). Direct forms include verbal aggression such as shouting, insulting remarks, excessive criticism, and humiliation in front of colleagues (Reknes *et al.*, 2019). Task-related bullying involves unreasonable workloads, impossible deadlines, meaningless tasks, or withholding necessary information (Gardner *et al.*, 2016). Person-related bullying includes spreading rumors, social isolation, and personal attacks on one's private life or personal characteristics (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2021). More recently, cyber bullying has emerged as a significant manifestation, involving harassment through digital channels such as email, social media, or messaging platforms (Kowalski *et al.*, 2018).

2.1.4.3 Harassment

Workplace harassment involves deliberately undermining an individual or group of employees through relentless, vindictive, harsh, or demeaning actions (Solomon *et al.*, 2024). Unlike bullying, workplace harassment is often legally defined to involve discrimination based on protected characteristics such as gender, race, age, disability, religion, or nationality (Duffy & Sperry, 2021; Solomon *et al.*, 2024). Hence workplace harassment is illegal under various labour laws and human rights regulations. Pilch and Turska (2017) agree that psychological contract violations are precursors to harassment behaviours. Like bullying, workplace harassment can also take the form of a persistent negative interpersonal behaviour that is directed to an individual either from supervisors, coworkers, or subordinates regardless of protected characteristics (Branch & Murray, 2021).

It follows that workplace harassment occurs when someone in the workplace engages in actions or makes statements that create discomfort or put another person at risk and the perpetrators of workplace harassment may target their victims based on their demographics to cause distress (Obi, Ewuim, & Obi, 2021; Solomon *et al.*, 2024).

Nwosu and Uzochukwu (2022) highlight unique manifestations of workplace harassment in Nigerian corporate settings including verbal abuse (such as insults, mockery, threats), physical intimidation (such as blocking movement and invading personal space), social isolation (exclusion from meetings or activities), professional sabotage (such as withholding resources, and setting impossible deadlines), cyber harassment (such as demeaning emails, social media harassment), and status-based harassment (such as targeting based on gender, ethnicity, and religion). Adeniji *et al.* (2020) observe that gender-based harassment occur in the work place but some people and there is significant underreporting due to fear of retaliation and cultural normalisation of certain behaviours. These manifestations create environments where trust is eroded, collaboration is impaired, and psychological safety is compromised. The persistence of these behaviours often leads to significant psychological distress, decreased productivity, increased absenteeism, and ultimately higher turnover rates (Ogungbade, 2021; Adebayo *et al.*, 2022).

2.1.4.4 Abusive supervision

Abusive Supervision

Abusive supervision has been widely recognised in organisational studies as a destructive leadership behaviour that erodes employee well-being and undermines workplace outcomes. Gabriel (2016) defines abusive supervision as the display of toxic behaviours by supervisors that predict and provoke counterproductive work behaviours among subordinates, particularly within

Nigerian public hospitals. Wolor, Ardiansyah, Rofada, Nurkhin, and Rababah (2022) view abusive supervision as a pattern of sustained hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviour by supervisors, which negatively affects employees' psychological state and job performance. Khalid et al. (2022), applying the conservation of resources (COR) theory, describe abusive supervision as supervisor incivility, reflecting a continuous exhibition of disrespectful, belittling, and demeaning behaviours that drain employees' emotional resources, ultimately leading to work withdrawal behaviours.

In practice, abusive supervision manifests in organisations through actions such as public humiliation, constant criticism, and undermining subordinates' efforts, withholding critical information, and displaying favouritism. Dhali *et al.* (2023) observe that employees often experience a lack of psychological safety when subjected to abusive supervision, which is demonstrated by their reluctance to engage openly in discussions, fear of reprimand, and avoidance of supervisors. Within healthcare settings, Cao et al. (2023) highlight how verbal violence such as shouting at or insulting healthcare workers leads to decreased job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement from work, making it clear that such supervisory behaviours have tangible and harmful organisational consequences.

Researchers have consistently highlighted the destructive consequences of abusive supervision on individual and organisational outcomes. Gabriel (2016) argues that toxic supervisory behaviour not only provokes counterproductive work behaviours, such as sabotage or intentional inefficiency, but also fosters a culture of resentment and hostility among employees. Similarly, Wolor *et al.* (2022) stress that toxic leadership reduces employee morale and performance, impairing innovation and collaboration in teams. Khalid *et al.* (2022) further show that employees under abusive supervisors tend to withdraw psychologically, reducing discretionary

effort, lowering commitment, and increasing absenteeism, all of which are detrimental to organisational effectiveness.

Abusive supervision is not only harmful on an individual psychological level but also poses systemic risks to the organisational climate. Dhali *et al.* (2023) argue that persistent abusive behaviours create a toxic organisational culture, where fear and silence dominate, hindering open communication, teamwork, and trust. This toxic environment undermines the core values of the organisation and increases turnover intentions among employees. In healthcare environments, Cao *et al.* (2023) demonstrate that abusive supervision contributes to burnout and emotional exhaustion among healthcare workers, which not only affects their well-being but also compromises patient care and service delivery.

2.1.5 Factors that Contribute to Toxic workplace Behaviour

The factors that contribute to toxic workplace behaviour are classified as personal and organisational factors. They are discussed below.

Personal factors

Personal factors refer to individual attributes, personality traits, and psychological conditions that predispose certain employees to engage in toxic behaviours. Employees with high levels of narcissism, low emotional intelligence, or poor conflict resolution skills often exhibit toxic tendencies such as bullying, gossiping, or manipulative behaviours (Furnham, 2010). Additionally, unresolved personal issues like stress from home, mental health challenges, or substance abuse may spill into workplace interactions, resulting in negative behaviours towards colleagues. Such individuals may react impulsively, lack empathy, or struggle with cooperation,

which diminishes team cohesion and workplace morale (Judge, Rodell, Klinger, Simon, & Crawford, 2013).

Moreover, personality disorders such as antisocial or borderline personality traits have also been linked to chronic toxic behaviours in the workplace, including aggression, lying, and blame-shifting. Some individuals may possess a natural inclination towards competitiveness or hostility, especially in high-stress environments, leading to antagonistic behaviours (Boddy, 2014). Inadequate coping mechanisms and a lack of self-awareness can further exacerbate the problem, making it difficult for affected individuals to recognize the harm they cause or take corrective action.

Organisational factors

Organisational factors encompass the structural, cultural, and managerial aspects of a workplace that either directly or indirectly encourage toxic behaviour. A lack of clear policies, weak leadership, or inadequate conflict resolution mechanisms can allow toxic behaviour to flourish unchecked (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007). When leaders model aggressive or unethical behaviour, it often trickles down the hierarchy, normalizing such conduct and signaling to employees that toxic practices are acceptable. In organisations where productivity is prioritized over employee well-being, unhealthy competition and stress can drive individuals to act destructively.

Additionally, poor communication, lack of recognition, and limited career growth opportunities can lead to frustration and disengagement, which may manifest in toxic behaviours such as passive aggression or sabotage (Kusy & Holloway, 2009). Toxic cultures often breed fear,

mistrust, and insecurity, fostering environments where backstabbing, favoritism, and bullying thrive. Without deliberate efforts to cultivate psychological safety, fairness, and inclusiveness, organisational structures may inadvertently sustain or even reward toxic behaviours.

2.1.6 Organisational Justice

Organisational justice represents a fundamental aspect of workplace dynamics that significantly influences employee attitudes, behaviours, and overall institutional performance (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2015; Al-Zu'bi, 2021). Within the context of higher education, understanding and implementing principles of organisational justice becomes particularly crucial given the complex nature of academic work, the diversity of stakeholders, and the intricate power structures inherent in university environments (Nazim & Ahmad, 2018; Aslam, 2022). Organisational justice reflects how employees perceive fairness in the workplace, encompassing not merely the outcomes of decisions but also the processes through which these decisions are made and communicated (Owolabi, 2020; Colquitt, LePine, Wesson, & Porter, 2021). The concept has gained considerable attention in recent years as universities increasingly recognise the need to create more equitable and supportive work environments for their academic and administrative staff (Okpara & Wynn, 2019; Tetteh, 2023).

Three prominent definitions illuminate the multifaceted nature of organisational justice. Firstly, organisational justice can be understood as the extent to which employees perceive workplace procedures, interactions, and outcomes as fair and equitable (Colquitt et al., 2019). This definition emphasises the perceptual nature of justice, highlighting that fairness is largely subjective and based on individual interpretation of organisational actions. Secondly, organisational justice encompasses the psychological processes through which individuals

evaluate the fairness of treatment they receive from their organisation, including distributive aspects (fairness of outcomes), procedural elements (fairness of decision-making processes), and interactional components (fairness of interpersonal treatment) (Greenberg, 2020). This tripartite conceptualisation provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how different dimensions of fairness operate simultaneously within organisational contexts. Thirdly, organisational justice represents a social psychological construct that captures employees' perceptions of fairness regarding organisational decisions, procedures, and interpersonal treatment, which subsequently influences their attitudes, behaviours, and commitment to the organisation (Cropanzano & Molina, 2021).

In the academic setting, organisational justice manifests through various mechanisms that are unique to higher education environments (Owolabi, 2020; Tetteh, 2023). Universities operate as complex organisations where academic freedom, collegial governance, and hierarchical structures often coexist in tension (Al-Zu'bi, 2021; Aslam, 2022). Academic staff members evaluate fairness through multiple lenses: the allocation of teaching loads, research opportunities, and administrative responsibilities (distributive justice); the transparency and consistency of promotion and tenure processes (procedural justice); and the quality of interactions with supervisors, colleagues, and institutional leadership (interactional justice) (Colquitt *et al.*, 2021; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2015). The collegial nature of academia means that perceptions of justice are often scrutinised through peer comparison, with academic staff frequently assessing whether their treatment aligns with that of colleagues with similar qualifications and contributions (Nazim & Ahmad, 2018; Okpara & Wynn, 2019). Furthermore, the long-term nature of academic careers means that justice perceptions can significantly impact career trajectories, research productivity, and institutional loyalty (Tetteh, 2023; Aslam, 2022).

2.1.7 Demographic Characteristics

Demographic include variables such as age, location, gender, marital status, tribe, occupation and other element of the human population. They relate to the computable statistics of given population studies has shown that demographic variable (age, gender, tenure, education and marital status) plays a critical role in increasing employees performance in private and public universities in south-south, Nigeria. Some of the demographic variables considered in this study are discussed as follows;

Gender: Gender refers to the representation, participation, and experiences of individuals based on their gender identity within university settings (Burke & Mattis, 2021). It influences faculty composition, student enrollment, career progression, and research opportunities. Gender disparities in academia have been widely studied, highlighting challenges such as the underrepresentation of women in STEM fields, gender biases in hiring and promotion, and differences in publication rates (Burke & Mattis, 2021). Furthermore, gender diversity fosters inclusive academic environments, improving innovation and institutional performance (Morley, 2020). Despite progress, systemic barriers continue to hinder gender equity in universities, necessitating policy reforms and institutional support (UNESCO, 2021).

Tribal origin: Tribal origin or ethnicity as a demographic factor in academia refers to the cultural, linguistic, and ancestral backgrounds of students and faculty within universities. It influences representation, access to education, career advancement, and social interactions in academic institutions. Ethnic diversity enriches learning environments by fostering cross-cultural understanding and innovative perspectives (Altbach, 2020). However, disparities persist, with some ethnic groups facing systemic barriers such as discrimination, limited access to higher education, and underrepresentation in faculty positions (Bhopal, 2018). Universities worldwide

are implementing policies to promote ethnic inclusivity, yet challenges remain in ensuring equal opportunities for all groups (Hurtado, 2019).

Educational background/Seniority: Educational background as a demographic factor in academia refers to the varying levels and types of formal education attained by individuals within universities, influencing faculty composition, student diversity, and institutional structures. It encompasses factors such as prior degrees, academic disciplines, and institutional prestige, which affect career progression and knowledge dissemination (Marginson, 2018). Variations in educational background contribute to disparities in research opportunities, networking, and professional development, often reinforcing institutional hierarchies (Altbach, 2020). Universities strive to create inclusive policies that accommodate diverse educational trajectories to enhance academic excellence and innovation (Teichler, 2019).

Age: Age as a demographic factor among academics in universities plays a crucial role in shaping teaching approaches, research output, and institutional development. Younger academics are often more adaptable to emerging technologies and innovative teaching methods, while older faculty members provide valuable mentorship and institutional memory (Altbach, 2020; Okebukola, 2018). The age distribution within academic institutions also influences career progression, job satisfaction, and retirement policies, which can impact faculty retention and performance (Teichler, 2019; Adeyemi & Uko, 2016). Additionally, generational differences in work attitudes and expectations may create challenges in faculty collaboration and administrative policies (Marginson, 2018).

Marital status: Marital status is an important demographic factor among academics in universities, influencing work-life balance, job satisfaction, and career progression. Married academics often face challenges in balancing family responsibilities with professional commitments, which can affect productivity and research output (Adeyemo & Olanrewaju,

2017). Conversely, single academics may have more flexibility to engage in academic activities such as conferences and international collaborations, though they may also experience social pressures related to their marital status (Okeke, 2019). Institutional policies on leave, childcare support, and spousal employment opportunities can also impact the career trajectories of married and single academics differently (Marginson, 2018).

Tenure: Tenure is a significant demographic factor among academics in universities, as it determines job security, career progression, and academic freedom. Academics on tenure track typically experience greater stability, allowing them to focus on research and long-term projects without fear of job loss (Eze & Adeyemi, 2018). In contrast, non-tenured academics, such as adjunct lecturers, often face job insecurity, limited benefits, and fewer opportunities for professional development (Okafor, 2019; Teichler, 2019). The tenure system also influences institutional policies, as universities with strong tenure structures tend to attract and retain highly qualified faculty who contribute significantly to knowledge production and student mentorship (Marginson, 2018)

2.1.8 Overview of University System in Nigeria

The Nigerian university system traces its origins to 1948 with the establishment of University College Ibadan as an affiliate of the University of London. Following independence in 1960, Nigeria experienced three distinct waves of university development: the first generation (1960-1970) established by regional governments, the second generation (1975-1980) created during the oil boom to promote technological advancement, and the third generation from the 1980s onward reflecting both public and private sector participation (Fagbemi, 2022). The system expanded dramatically from a single institution in 1948 to over 170 universities by 2022, comprising federal, state, and private institutions (NUC, 2021). This exponential growth, while improving access, has created significant governance challenges. University governance in

Nigeria follows a hierarchical structure with the Federal Ministry of Education at the apex, followed by the National Universities Commission (NUC) as the regulatory body responsible for quality assurance, accreditation, and funding coordination. Individual universities operate under a bicameral system comprising the Governing Council (responsible for policy and financial matters) and the Senate (overseeing academic affairs), with the Vice-Chancellor serving as the chief executive (Okebukola, 2018). Recent reform efforts have attempted to increase institutional autonomy while maintaining regulatory oversight, particularly regarding financial management and academic standards.

2.1.8.1 Performance rating

The rating and performance evaluation system for Nigerian universities has evolved significantly over time. The NUC serves as the primary evaluative body through its accreditation exercises that assess academic programs based on staffing, infrastructure, curriculum relevance, and learning outcomes (NUC, 2021). These accreditation results (full, interim, or denied) significantly impact institutional reputation and student enrollment. Beyond program-specific accreditation, the Nigerian university ranking system incorporates criteria including research output, citation impact, internationalisation, industry linkage, and teaching quality (Okebukola, 2018). Adeyemo (2019) notes that international ranking systems like Times Higher Education and Webometrics have catalyzed increased attention to publication metrics and global visibility among Nigerian universities. Performance measurement for academic staff typically comprises teaching load, research productivity, community service, and administrative responsibilities, with increasing emphasis on publication in high-impact journals and external grant acquisition. Fagbemi (2022) observes that this heightened focus on quantifiable metrics has transformed the traditional academic work environment, creating new pressures within the university system

particularly related to promotion criteria that increasingly emphasize international benchmarks despite constrained resources.

2.1.8.2 Nature of work environment

Work environment in Nigerian universities encompass teaching, research, community service, and administration, though the balance between these responsibilities varies considerably across institutions. Teaching loads are typically heavy, with Okoduwa *et al.* (2018) reporting average teaching hours of 15-18 per week for many faculties, significantly higher than international norms. Research expectations have intensified despite inadequate infrastructure and funding constraints, creating what Akinyele *et al.* (2021) describe as "performance pressure without proportionate resource provision." Administrative burdens have similarly increased through expanding documentation requirements, committee participation, and student supervision responsibilities. Community service obligations include consultancy services, public lectures, and developmental activities. Collectively, these demands create a challenging work environment characterized by role overload and work-life imbalance. These conditions, combined with inadequate remuneration, provide fertile ground for toxic workplace as documented by several researchers (Adeoye et al., 2019; Fagbemi, 2022; Okoduwa *et al.*, 2018).

2.1.8.3 Toxic behaviour matters

The Nigerian university system exhibits various manifestations of toxic workplace behaviour including harassment, bullying, nepotism, and exclusionary practices. Adeoye et al. (2019) found that 62% of surveyed academics reported experiencing at least one form of workplace bullying within the previous year, with power imbalances between senior and junior faculty facilitating such behaviour. Sexual harassment represents another significant concern, with Omotayo and

Oladele (2018) documenting both student-directed and colleague-directed harassment patterns. The hierarchical structure of Nigerian universities often exacerbates these issues by creating dependency relationships and limiting reporting avenues. Akinyele et al. (2021) identified particularly high levels of toxic leadership behaviours within certain administrative positions, noting that organisational structures that concentrate power without proportionate accountability mechanisms facilitate abusive practices. Additionally, ethnic and religious tensions sometimes manifest within department politics, particularly regarding resource allocation and promotion decisions (Fagbemi, 2022). These toxic workplace factors contribute significantly to burnout among Nigerian academics, with reported rates exceeding 40% in some institutions (Akinyele *et al.*, 2021).

2.1.8.4 Existing initiatives that address toxicity

Nigerian universities have implemented various interventions to address toxic workplace, though effectiveness remains inconsistent. Most institutions have established anti-harassment policies and ethics committees, though implementation often suffers from procedural inadequacies and power dynamics that discourage reporting (Omotayo & Oladele, 2018). Several universities have introduced ombudsperson offices as alternative reporting mechanisms meant to reduce fear of retaliation. Staff development programmes increasingly incorporate components addressing workplace relationships and conflict resolution, though these initiatives typically remain peripheral rather than central to institutional priorities. The University of Benin for instance has implemented approaches including anonymous reporting systems, the servicom, and regular workplace climate assessments. Most significantly, the NUC has incorporated workplace environment metrics into its institutional assessment framework, creating external accountability

for addressing toxic behaviours (NUC, 2021). Despite these initiatives, Akinyele et al. (2021) argue that meaningful progress requires more substantial structural reforms addressing workload distribution, promotion criteria, leadership selection, and power dynamics within the Nigerian university system. Until such foundational issues are addressed, interventions targeting symptoms rather than causes may produce limited sustainable improvement.

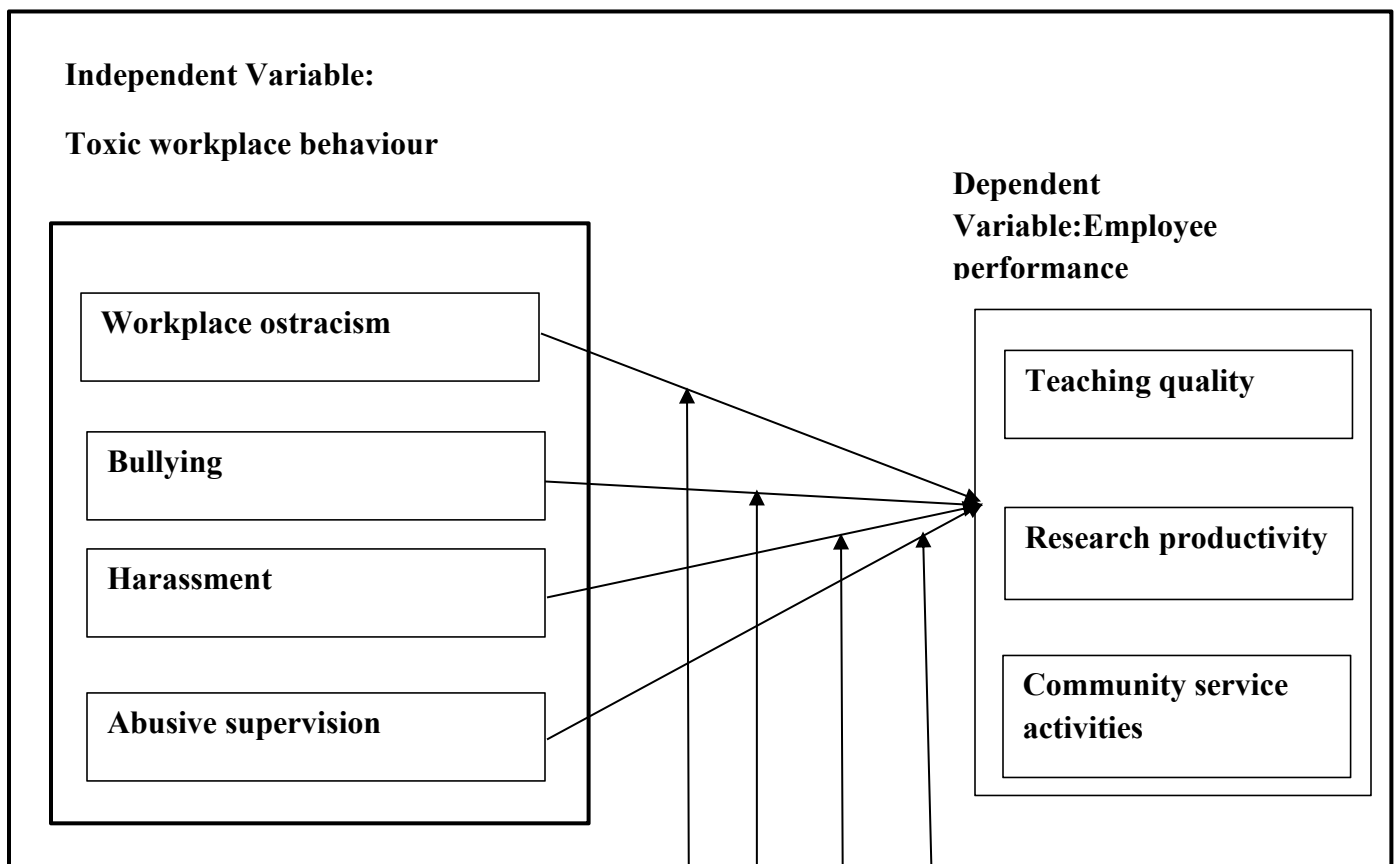
2.1.9 Relationship among Toxic Workplace Behaviour, Organisational Justice, and Employee Performance

The relationship between organisational justice and workplace toxicity reduction in universities operates through several interconnected pathways. When academic staff perceives fair treatment across distributive, procedural, and interactional dimensions, it creates a positive organisational climate that discourages toxic behaviours. Organisational justice perceptions have consequences for the employee and the organisation: increasing job satisfaction, commitment, and trust; and decreasing turnover, counterproductive work behaviours. Fair procedures for addressing grievances, transparent decision-making processes, and respectful interpersonal interactions establish clear behavioural expectations and accountability mechanisms. This creates an environment where toxic behaviours are less likely to emerge or persist because they violate established norms of fairness and respect. Moreover, when university leadership demonstrates consistent commitment to justice principles, it signals organisational values that prioritise dignity, respect, and equitable treatment, thereby creating social pressure against toxic behaviours and encouraging positive workplace relationships.

The performance enhancement effects of organisational justice in university settings are multifaceted and substantial. The job performance of academics in the higher education context has transcended from the prime focus of teaching to the concurrence of learning facilitation,

research and publication, indicating that modern academic performance encompasses diverse and complex responsibilities. When academic staff perceive fair treatment, they are more likely to engage in discretionary behaviours that benefit the institution, such as collaborative research, mentoring junior colleagues, and contributing to service activities beyond minimum requirements. Justice perceptions enhance intrinsic motivation by satisfying fundamental psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness within the academic context. Furthermore, fair treatment reduces the psychological stress and cognitive load associated with workplace uncertainty and conflict, allowing academic staff to direct their intellectual resources towards core academic activities. The resultant increase in job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and psychological well-being creates a positive feedback loop that sustains high performance levels whilst fostering an environment conducive to innovation, collaboration, and academic excellence.

2.1.10 Conceptual Framework



Organisational justice

Mediating Variable

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Researcher's conceptualisation (2025)

The conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 2.1 above delineates the interrelationships among the study variables. The independent variable, toxic workplace behaviour is operationalised through ostracism, bullying, harassment, and abusive supervision. Job performance serves as the dependent variable, reflecting the outcome under investigation. Introducing burnout syndrome as a mediating variable suggests that these stresses emanating from toxicity in the organisation play a role in the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance.

Hypotheses 1 to 4 propose the various facets of toxic workplace behaviour that can significantly impact job performance. This implies that how individuals are exposed to ostracism, bullying, harassment, and burnout can have a direct influence on their overall performance. Hypothesis 5 introduces the idea that organisational justice mediates the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and job performance. In other words, the impact of toxic workplace behaviour on job performance may be influenced or moderated by organisational justice. This provides a

framework for empirical testing and to explore and validate these relationships in the specific context of the study.

2.2 Theoretical Review

In this section, related studies were reviewed. This includes theories on toxic workplace behaviour and theories on performance. They are discussed below.

2.2.1 Theories Underpinning Toxic Workplace Behaviour

2.2.1.1 Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) was first proposed by George Homans in 1958 (Homans, 1958). The theory's central proposition is that social behaviour is the result of an exchange process, where individuals seek to maximize their benefits while minimizing their costs. According to SET, individuals engage in social interactions because they expect to receive rewards or benefits in return. These rewards can be tangible, such as money or material goods, or intangible, such as praise, recognition, or emotional support (Emerson, 1976). In essence, SET views social relationships as a series of transactions, where individuals weigh the costs and benefits of their interactions.

Social Exchange Theory has been widely applied in various fields, including organisational behaviour, sociology, and psychology. In the context of toxic workplace behaviour, SET can help explain why some employees may tolerate or even perpetuate toxic behaviours. For instance, an employee may tolerate a bullying supervisor because they believe the benefits of keeping their job outweigh the costs of enduring the toxic behaviour (Harrison, 2018). Similarly, SET can help explain why some employees may engage in counterproductive work behaviours, such as absenteeism or sabotage, as a way to retaliate against perceived injustices or to restore a sense of balance in their social exchanges (Fox, 2018).

One of the strengths of Social Exchange Theory is its ability to explain a wide range of social behaviours, from cooperation to conflict. SET also provides a useful framework for understanding the dynamics of social relationships and the motivations behind individual behaviour (Molm, 2003). Additionally, SET has been widely tested and supported through empirical research, making it a well-established theory in the social sciences. One of the limitations of Social Exchange Theory is its assumption that individuals are rational actors who always seek to maximize their benefits. In reality, individuals may not always act rationally, and their behaviour may be influenced by emotions, norms, and other factors (Molm, 2003). Additionally, SET has been criticized for its focus on individual-level exchanges, which may overlook the role of structural and institutional factors in shaping social behaviour.

2.2.1.2 Stressor-emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behaviour

The Stressor-Emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB) was proposed by Spector and Fox in 2005 (Spector & Fox, 2005). The theory's central proposition is that stressors in the workplace can lead to negative emotions, which in turn can result in counterproductive work behaviours. According to this model, stressors such as job demands, lack of control, and interpersonal conflict can trigger negative emotions like anger, frustration, and anxiety. These emotions can then motivate employees to engage in CWB, such as absenteeism, sabotage, or workplace aggression (Spector & Fox, 2005).

The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB has been widely applied in organisational behaviour research to understand the causes and consequences of counterproductive work behaviours. For instance, researchers have used this model to examine the impact of workplace stressors on employee behaviour, including the effects of bullying, harassment, and workload on CWB (Fox,

2018). This model has also been used to develop interventions aimed at reducing CWB, such as stress management training and workplace conflict resolution programs (Penney, 2017).

One of the strengths of the Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB is its ability to explain the underlying mechanisms that drive counterproductive work behaviours. This model highlights the importance of considering the emotional experiences of employees in understanding their behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2005). Additionally, this model has been supported by empirical research, which has shown that stressors and negative emotions are indeed associated with CWB (Fox, 2018). One of the limitations of the Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB is its focus on individual-level factors, which may overlook the role of organisational-level factors in shaping CWB. For instance, this model may not fully capture the impact of organisational culture, leadership, or policies on CWB (Penney, 2017). Additionally, this model assumes a linear relationship between stressors, emotions, and CWB, which may not always be the case in reality.

2.2.1.3 Conservation of Resources Theory

Conservation of Resources (COR) theory was proposed by Stevan Hobfoll (1989), who posited that individuals strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster valued resources and that stress occurs when these resources are threatened, lost, or when individuals fail to gain resources after investing in them. According to this theory, resources can be objects (e.g., home, car), personal characteristics (e.g., self-esteem, optimism), conditions (e.g., marriage, employment), or energies (e.g., time, knowledge). Hobfoll argued that people with greater resources are less vulnerable to resource loss and more capable of resource gain, while those with fewer resources are more vulnerable to resource loss and less capable of resource gain, creating what he termed "loss spirals" and "gain spirals" (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001).

The COR theory has been widely applied in organisational psychology, particularly in understanding workplace stress, burnout, and work-family conflict. For example, Halbesleben et al. (2014) demonstrated how resource loss through job demands can lead to burnout, while resource gain through job resources can lead to engagement. The theory has also been applied to understand how individuals cope with traumatic events, natural disasters, and other stressors by examining how they manage their resources during and after these events. In educational settings, COR theory helps explain how faculty members manage their resources across teaching, research, and service responsibilities.

A key strength of COR theory is its cross-cultural applicability and its ability to integrate various stress theories under a unified framework. Its emphasis on both environmental and personal factors makes it more comprehensive than theories focusing solely on individual appraisals or environmental demands. Additionally, the theory's recognition of both resource loss and gain processes provides a dynamic understanding of stress and coping mechanisms. As Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) note, the theory's flexibility allows it to be applied across various domains of human functioning, from individual psychological well-being to organisational behaviour.

However, COR theory has been criticized for its broad definition of resources, which some argue makes it difficult to operationalize and test empirically. Critics suggest that the theory sometimes lacks specificity about which resources are most important in different contexts and how exactly resources interact with each other. Additionally, the theory has been criticized for not fully accounting for individual differences in resource valuation and preservation strategies. Despite these limitations, Thompson and Cooper (2001) acknowledge that COR theory remains one of

the most influential frameworks for understanding stress and coping processes in various life domains.

2.2.2 Theories Underpinning Employee performance

2.2.2.1 Self-determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) was developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (1985), who proposed that human motivation is driven by three fundamental psychological needs: autonomy (the need to feel in control of one's behaviours and goals), competence (the need to master tasks and learn different skills), and relatedness (the need to feel connected to others). SDT distinguishes between different types of motivation: intrinsic motivation (engaging in an activity because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable), extrinsic motivation (performing an activity to attain some separable outcome), and a motivation (lack of intention to act). According to Deci and Ryan (2000), these motivational types exist along a continuum from controlled to autonomous regulation, with intrinsic motivation representing the most autonomous form of motivation.

SDT has been widely applied in various domains including education, healthcare, sports, work, and relationships. In educational settings, teachers who support students' autonomy by providing choices and meaningful rationales foster greater intrinsic motivation and academic engagement (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). In workplace contexts, SDT helps explain how management practices that support employee autonomy, competence development, and workplace relationships enhance job satisfaction, performance, and well-being. The theory has also been applied to understanding patient motivation in healthcare settings, particularly in the treatment of chronic conditions that require sustained behaviour change.

A significant strength of SDT is its empirical foundation, with decades of research supporting its core tenets across diverse populations and cultural contexts. The theory offers a nuanced understanding of motivation that goes beyond simple intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomies, recognizing various forms of extrinsic motivation that differ in their degree of autonomy. Additionally, SDT provides clear practical implications for designing environments that support psychological need satisfaction. As Gagné and Deci (2005) note, the theory's emphasis on both social-contextual factors and individual differences makes it particularly useful for understanding how environments can either support or thwart motivation and well-being.

Despite its strengths, SDT has been criticized for potential Western cultural biases in its emphasis on individual autonomy, which may not resonate equally across all cultural contexts. Some researchers have questioned whether the three basic needs are truly universal or if their importance varies across different cultures. Additionally, the theory has been criticized for not fully accounting for how needs might interact or conflict with each other in certain situations. Critics also suggest that the theory's complex structure with multiple mini-theories can make it challenging to test comprehensively. Nevertheless, Van den Broeck et al. (2016) argue that SDT remains one of the most influential frameworks for understanding human motivation and its impact on psychological well-being and performance across various life domains.

2.2.2.2 Job Demands-resources (JD-R) Model

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model was proposed by Demerouti and Bakker in 2001 (Demerouti & Bakker, 2001). The theory's central proposition is that job demands and job resources are two distinct categories of workplace factors that can influence employee well-being and performance. According to the JD-R model, job demands refer to the physical, emotional, or cognitive efforts required by the job, whereas job resources refer to the physical, emotional, or

cognitive assets that help employees achieve their work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The model suggests that high job demands can lead to burnout and decreased performance, whereas high job resources can lead to engagement and improved performance.

The JD-R model has been widely applied in various fields, including organisational behaviour, psychology, and human resources management. In the context of employee performance, the JD-R model can help explain why some academics experience burnout and decreased performance, while others remain engaged and motivated. For instance, research has shown that academics who experience high job demands (e.g., heavy workload, time pressure) and low job resources (e.g., lack of autonomy, support) are more likely to experience burnout and decreased performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). On the other hand, academics that experience high job resources (e.g., autonomy, feedback, support) are more likely to experience engagement and improved performance (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

One of the strengths of the JD-R model is its ability to explain the complex relationships between job demands, job resources, and employee outcomes. The model provides a clear and logical framework for understanding how workplace factors can influence employee well-being and performance (Demerouti & Bakker, 2001). Additionally, the JD-R model has been widely tested and supported through empirical research, making it a well-established theory in the field of organisational behaviour. One of the limitations of the JD-R model is its assumption that job demands and job resources are distinct and separate categories. In reality, some job demands may also serve as job resources, and vice versa (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Additionally, the JD-R model may not fully account for the role of individual differences (e.g., personality, motivation) in shaping employee responses to job demands and resources.

2.2.2.3 Social Cognitive Theory

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) was proposed by Albert Bandura (1986), who posited that learning occurs in a social context with a dynamic and reciprocal interaction of the person, environment, and behaviour. The theory emphasizes that people learn by observing others, with these observations then being coded into memory to guide future actions. Bandura introduced several key concepts including reciprocal determinism (the interaction between person, behaviour, and environment), behavioural capability (knowledge and skills needed to perform a behaviour), observational learning (learning by watching others), reinforcements (responses to behaviour that increase or decrease the likelihood of recurrence), expectations (anticipated consequences of behaviour), and self-efficacy (confidence in one's ability to take action and overcome barriers). According to Bandura (2001), humans are not simply reactive organisms shaped by environmental forces or inner impulses but are proactive, self-organizing, self-reflecting, and self-regulating.

SCT has been widely applied across numerous domains including education, health behaviour, organisational psychology, and clinical interventions. In educational settings, teachers utilize modeling to demonstrate desired behaviours and skills, while providing opportunities for guided practice with feedback to enhance students' self-efficacy. In health behaviour change, SCT has formed the foundation for interventions addressing smoking cessation, physical activity promotion, and disease management by targeting self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and environmental supports (McAlister et al., 2008). Within organisational contexts, the theory informs training programs, leadership development, and performance management systems that recognize the importance of modeling, self-regulation, and environmental supports for behaviour change.

A significant strength of SCT is its comprehensive approach that accounts for both internal cognitive processes and external social influences, making it more complete than theories that focus exclusively on either environmental or intrapsychic determinants. The theory's emphasis on self-efficacy has proven particularly valuable, with substantial empirical evidence supporting its role in behaviour change across diverse domains. According to Schunk and DiBenedetto (2020), the theory's dynamic nature accommodates both immediate situational influences and broader sociocultural factors, making it applicable across various cultural contexts. Additionally, SCT offers clear practical implications for designing interventions that target multiple levels of influence simultaneously.

Despite its strengths, SCT has been criticized for potentially overemphasizing cognition at the expense of emotional and motivational factors that influence behaviour. Some researchers argue that the theory does not adequately explain how observations translate into behaviour in the absence of immediate reinforcement or how contradictory observations are reconciled. Critics also suggest that SCT may underestimate the importance of biological predispositions and automatic, unconscious processes in guiding behaviour. Furthermore, the theory's broad scope and multiple components can make it challenging to test comprehensively in any single study. Nevertheless, Pajares and Urdan (2006) note that SCT remains one of the most influential frameworks for understanding human learning and behaviour change in natural social contexts.

2.2.3 Theoretical Framework

Based on extensive review of relevant theories, this study strategically adopts Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory as its primary theoretical foundation for examining toxic workplace behaviour in academic settings. COR theory offers a particularly compelling framework because it elucidates the precise psychological mechanisms through which toxic behaviours

systematically strip employees of vital psychological resources. When faculty members encounter toxic behaviours such as bullying, harassment, or undermining, these experiences directly threaten their essential resources including self-efficacy, professional identity, and emotional energy. The theory's emphasis on loss spirals, where initial resource depletion increases vulnerability to further losses powerfully explains how even seemingly minor toxic encounters can cascade into severe psychological distress, burnout, and significantly impaired employee performance over time. COR theory thus provides not just descriptive but predictive power in understanding how resource depletion translates directly into measurable declines in research productivity, teaching effectiveness, and community engagement.

Employee performance is additionally anchored in the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, which offers complementary explanatory power through its nuanced approach to workplace dynamics. The JD-R model, unlike more simplistic frameworks, recognizes that toxic workplace behaviours constitute exceptionally demanding stressors that require disproportionate psychological resources to navigate. This model provides critical insights into why toxic behaviours are particularly devastating in academic environments where faculty already face intensive demands including research expectations, teaching responsibilities, and administrative burdens. The JD-R framework further illuminates how institutional resources such as supportive leadership, transparent promotion processes, and collegial departmental cultures can serve as critical buffers against toxic behaviours. Critically, this model allows for sophisticated analysis of how specific resources might counterbalance particular types of toxic behaviours, offering pathways for targeted interventions in Nigerian university settings.

The integration of COR theory with the JD-R model creates a robust theoretical framework that captures the multidimensional nature of toxic workplace behaviour and its impacts on employee

performance in Nigerian universities. This theoretical synthesis enables examination of both resource-depletion processes and resource-conservation strategies simultaneously, providing a comprehensive explanatory mechanism for observed outcomes. The combined framework reveals how toxic behaviours initially trigger resource losses (per COR theory), which then interact with existing job demands and available resources (per JD-R model) to determine ultimate performance outcomes. This integrated approach facilitates more precise identification of critical intervention points from reducing specific toxic behaviours to strategically enhancing particular resources that can protect employee performance in the unique socio-cultural context of universities in Edo and Delta States. Through this sophisticated theoretical lens, the study can offer both explanatory insights and actionable recommendations for preserving academic excellence amid challenging workplace dynamics.

2.3 Empirical Review

Ostracism and Employee Performance

Zhao, Xia, He, Sheard, and Wan (2016) investigated the relationship between workplace ostracism and knowledge hiding among employees in service organisations. The study aimed to understand how being socially excluded at work influences an individual's propensity to withhold knowledge from colleagues. The researchers employed a quantitative research design, collecting data from 214 employees across various service industries in China. Participants completed surveys measuring their experiences of workplace ostracism and their tendencies to hide knowledge. Data were analyzed using regression analysis to determine the impact of

ostracism on knowledge hiding behaviours. The study found that employees who experienced higher levels of workplace ostracism were more likely to engage in knowledge hiding, attributed to feelings of distrust and reduced organisational commitment.

Ugwu, Nwali, Ugwu, Okafor, Ozurumba, and Onyishi (2023) examined the relationship between perceived organisational politics and counterproductive work behaviour, mediated by employee cynicism and workplace ostracism. The study collected data from 794 university employees in Southeastern Nigeria at three points of measurement. Results of the Structural Equation Modeling showed that perceived organisational politics positively predicted counterproductive work behaviour targeted at individual coworkers, but did not predict counterproductive work behaviour targeted at the organisation directly. Perceived organisational politics positively predicted both employee cynicism and workplace ostracism. However, workplace ostracism partially mediated the relationship between perceived organisational politics and counterproductive work behaviour.

Brison and Caesen (2023) investigated the relationship between workplace ostracism and organisational dehumanisation, and examined the underlying mechanism. The study collected online survey data from 256 respondents in European countries. The results showed that workplace ostracism positively related to employee perception of organisational dehumanisation. Furthermore, workplace ostracism negatively impacted job satisfaction, leading to increased depression and turnover intentions. The study recommended a synergy for all workers and supervisors in the organisation to mitigate the negative effects of workplace ostracism.

Wang, Lu, Wu, and Luo (2023) conducted a study the effect of workplace ostracism on employee wellbeing. The study was carried out in mainland China, surveying 282 employees from 68 companies. The researchers employed a quantitative research design, using established

scales to measure workplace ostracism, emotional exhaustion, forgiveness climate, and wellbeing. Data were analyzed using SPSS 21.0 and Amos 21.0 for descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. The findings showed that workplace ostracism negatively affects employee wellbeing, leading to reduced employee performance, and highlighted the need to expand workplace ostracism research by clarifying the causes of employee wellbeing.

Bullying and Employee Performance

Merilainen *et al.* (2019) investigated the effects of bullying on performance and engagement among academics. The study aimed to examine the relationship between perceived bullying, work engagement, and work performance among Estonian academics. Data were collected from 864 Estonian university members through a private email with a link to the questionnaires. The questionnaires included the Negative Acts Questionnaires (NAQ-R) and other measures of bullying, work engagement, and performance. The findings showed that specific forms of bullying affected work engagement and performance among bullied academics.

Odunjo-Saka, Olaleye, Sarpong, Adedokun, and Ibrahim, (2023) conducted a study on the influence of workplace bullying on the performance of hotel employees, examining the mediating role of emotional intelligence and psychological resilience. The study aimed to determine the impact of bullying on workers' performance at hotels in North Cyprus. The study was carried out in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, with a sample of 147 hotel employees from 20 5-star and 127 4-star hotels. A well-structured survey was adapted and modified to collect data, using established scales to measure workplace bullying, emotional intelligence, psychological resilience, and employee performance. Descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, and partial least structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) were used to analyze the

data. The findings showed that workplace bullying significantly and negatively influenced employee performance, with emotional intelligence and psychological resilience playing a mediating role.

Ajayi, Fapohunda, and Bankole (2024) investigated the effect of gaslighting on employees' performance in a Nigerian private university. The study aimed to examine the impact of gaslighting, including abusive supervision and psychological abuse, on task and adaptive performance. The study was carried out at Bells University of Technology in Nigeria, with a sample of 130 selected employees. The study used a descriptive design, with data collected through a multi-stage sampling method. The findings revealed that abusive supervision and psychological abuse significantly affected task and adaptive performance, respectively. The study concluded that gaslighting is a harmful form of abuse with devastating consequences for individual targets and wider academic society, limiting opportunities for optimal performance.

Harassment and Employee Performance

Imonikhe, Aluede, and Idogho (2012) conducted a descriptive survey to examine the perceptions of sexual harassment among teachers and students in tertiary institutions in Edo State, Nigeria. The study sampled 400 participants (200 lecturers and 200 students) from tertiary institutions in Edo State, using a scale to gather data on perceptions of sexual harassment. The findings indicated that both lecturers and students perceived sexual harassment as a prevalent issue within these institutions. The study highlighted the need for policy implementation and awareness programs to address and mitigate sexual harassment in Nigerian tertiary institutions.

Hutagalung and Ishak (2012) conducted a study to examine the relationship between sexual harassment, job satisfaction, and work stress among women employees in public universities in Malaysia. The study aimed to contribute to the understanding of sexual harassment in the workplace. A total of 1423 questionnaires were completed by female employees in three higher learning institutions in the Klang Valley, Malaysia. The questionnaires assessed sexual harassment experiences, job satisfaction, work stress, and demographic characteristics. Data were analyzed using ANOVA, regression, and correlation analysis. The findings showed a significant negative relationship between sexual harassment experiences and employee job satisfaction. The study concluded that sexual harassment can be a predictor of job satisfaction and work stress.

Ngwane (2018) conducted a case study to explore the nature and extent of workplace harassment and its impact on staff performance at a higher education institution in South Africa. The study aimed to investigate the impact of workplace harassment on staff performance. A sample of 200 staff members was selected from a population of 1319, and data were collected using a purposefully designed questionnaire. Descriptive and inferential statistical tests were used to analyze the data. The findings revealed that workplace harassment exists in the institution and has a negative impact on performance, leading to absenteeism, turnover rate, and low productivity. The study concluded that workplace harassment is detrimental to individuals, organisations, and society, and that a united, supportive workforce is essential.

Maran, Varetto, and Civilotti (2022) carried out a study to investigate the consequences of indirect experience of sexual harassment in the workplace on employees' mental health. The study was conducted in 7 organisations in Torino, Italy, with a sample of 724 employees. Questionnaires were used to assess experiences of witnessing sexual harassment, burnout, work

engagement, general health, satisfaction with life, and emotional self-efficacy. Descriptive statistics, X2 tests, t-tests, and ANOVA were used to analyze the data. The findings showed that employees who witnessed sexual harassment suffered emotional and psychological consequences, including disengagement, negative feelings, and decreased performance. The study concluded that sexual harassment intervention in the workplace is crucial, as witnessing sexual harassment can have severe consequences for employees' mental health and well-being.

Bialowolska, Bialowolski, and McNeely (2019) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate the impact of workplace harassment and domestic violence on work outcomes in the garment industry in Mexico, Sri Lanka, China, and Cambodia. The study aimed to address the prevalence of workplace harassment and domestic violence and their impacts on work outcomes. A total of 5328 garment industry workers participated in the study, and data were collected using the Worker Wellbeing Survey (WWWS). Descriptive statistics, regression, and correlational analysis were used to analyze the data. The findings confirmed the negative effects of harassment and mistreatment on job satisfaction, work engagement, and work quality. The study concluded that international businesses should set minimum standards and develop policies to reduce workers' exposure to detrimental psychological work factors.

Solomon, Chidi, and Fabian (2024) investigated the relationship between organisational mobbing behaviour and employee performance in Nigerian universities in Anambra State. The study sampled 386 participants from three universities in Anambra State, using a questionnaire as the main instrument. Descriptive statistics and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient were used to analyze the data. The findings revealed a significant and positive relationship between rumour spreading and employee commitment, as well as harassment and the quality of work rendered by employees. The study concluded that there is a significant relationship

between organisational mobbing behaviour and employee performance in Nigerian universities in Anambra State.

Abusive supervision and Employee Performance

Gabriel (2016) investigated the relationship between supervisors' toxicity and subordinates' counterproductive work behaviour in Nigerian public hospitals. The study aimed to explore how toxic supervisory behaviours influence subordinates' actions. Conducted within the Nigerian healthcare sector, the research employed a cross-sectional survey design and gathered data through structured questionnaires. Out of an accessible population of 402 staff, 197 respondents including doctors, nurses, lab technicians, and administrative staff participated in the study. Data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistical methods to test five proposed hypotheses. The findings revealed significant associations between supervisors' toxicity and all forms of counterproductive work behaviour, suggesting that subordinates tend to retaliate against toxic supervisors by displaying harmful behaviours toward colleagues or organisational assets.

Wolor, et al (2022) examined the impact of toxic leadership on employee performance in Indonesia, aiming to explore how toxic leadership behaviours negatively affect job outcomes like satisfaction, motivation, and productivity. The study surveyed 400 employees across eight locations, using a structured questionnaire and analysing the data through structural equation modelling (SEM). The findings revealed that toxic leadership significantly reduces job satisfaction, motivation, and productivity levels. Based on these results, the researchers recommended that organisations adopt preventive measures such as careful leader selection, leadership screening, and providing employees with stress management and resilience training.

Khalid et al. (2022) investigated how supervisor incivility leads to work withdrawal behaviour, using the conservation of resources perspective to explore mediating and moderating factors. Conducted among 350 bank employees in Lahore, Gujranwala, and Sheikhpura, Pakistan, the study employed a survey method and analysed data using SPSS 24 and Hayes Process. The results showed a strong relationship between supervisor incivility and job insecurity but found no direct link between incivility and work withdrawal. However, dedication intelligence was found to moderate the relationship between job insecurity and work withdrawal. The study highlighted theoretical and practical implications and called for more empirical research on workplace incivility and its consequences.

Dhali et al. (2023) explored the effects of abusive supervision on employee behaviours such as cyberloafing and turnover intention in Bangladesh, focusing on both direct and indirect impacts through psychological well-being and dedication exhaustion. Drawing on social exchange theory (SET) and conservation of resources (COR) theory, the study gathered data from 402 employees across healthcare, banking, public-private schools, aviation, and consulting sectors, using survey methods and statistical analysis. The findings indicated that psychological well-being and dedication exhaustion play crucial roles in shaping how abusive supervision affects negative work behaviours. Moreover, employees' engagement in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was shown to reduce cyberloafing and turnover intentions, ultimately enhancing productivity.

Cao et al (2023) assessed the impact of verbal violence on job satisfaction, work engagement, and dedication exhaustion among healthcare workers in six tertiary public hospitals across three Chinese provinces. Using a cross-sectional survey design, the study analysed data from 1,567 participants. It applied descriptive, univariate, Pearson correlation, and mediated regression

analyses. The results revealed that nearly half of the healthcare workers had experienced verbal violence in the past year, which significantly increased dedication exhaustion and negatively affected job satisfaction and work engagement, although it did not significantly influence turnover intention. Dedication exhaustion was found to partially mediate the relationship between verbal violence, job satisfaction, and engagement, highlighting the need for interventions to reduce workplace verbal violence.

Organisational justice and employee performance

Teseema and Soeters (2006) explored how procedural and distributive justice influences the job performance of academic staff in Ethiopian public universities. The research employed a cross-sectional survey with a sample of 320 lecturers. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to test the hypothesized relationships. Results indicated that perceptions of fairness in procedures significantly affected job satisfaction and performance, while distributive justice had an indirect effect through organisational commitment.

Okpara and Wynn (2008) assessed the influence of organisational justice on job performance among academic staff in Nigerian universities. The study was conducted in southeastern Nigeria and used a sample of 250 academic employees from four public universities. The study utilized survey methodology and employed regression analysis to test the effect of perceived justice dimensions on employee performance. Findings revealed that both procedural and interactional justice had significant positive impacts on academic staff performance, while distributive justice showed a weaker but still positive effect.

Aslam (2011) investigated the relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and faculty performance in public sector universities in Pakistan. The study focused on institutions in

the Punjab province. A total of 200 academic staff members participated through purposive sampling. Data were analyzed using Pearson correlation and regression analysis. The findings showed a significant positive relationship between organisational justice (especially procedural and interactional) and faculty performance, indicating that fairness perceptions enhance motivation and effectiveness.

Owolabi (2012) examined the impact of organisational justice on the job performance of academic staff in Nigerian universities. The study was conducted across six federal universities in southwestern Nigeria. Using a survey research design, data were collected from 300 academic staff selected through stratified random sampling. The analysis employed multiple regression to determine the relationship between distributive, procedural, and interactional justice and job performance. Results revealed that all three dimensions of organisational justice significantly and positively predicted academic staff performance, with procedural justice having the strongest influence.

Nazim and Ahmad (2018) investigated the mediating role of organisational justice in the relationship between administrative practices and academic staff performance in Indian universities. The study targeted academic staff in five central universities located in northern India. Using a quantitative approach, data were gathered from 280 respondents and analyzed with path analysis using AMOS. The findings showed that organisational justice significantly mediated the effect of institutional policies on performance, highlighting the importance of fair procedures and respectful treatment in enhancing faculty effectiveness.

Toxic Work Behaviour, Demographics, and Employee Performance

Thakur (2015) investigated the influence of demographic characteristics on the performance of academic employees at Kenyatta University in Kenya. The study examined the impact of age, education level, marital status, tenure, and gender on employee performance. A descriptive survey design was used, and primary data were collected through a semi-structured questionnaire administered to academic staff. The data were analyzed using means, proportions, and Spearman correlation. The findings indicated that demographic characteristics influence employee performance, with variations in performance achievement among different demographic categories. The study recommended considering demographic factors when managing employee performance.

Sukirno (2018) explored the effects of demographics on lecturer performance in higher-education institutions in Indonesia. A total of 347 usable questionnaires were analyzed using descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The study found that the effect of demographics varies when viewed from the level of awards and performance of lecturers. The results provided insights into the relationship between demographic characteristics and lecturer performance, with recommendations for future research.

Ogundare and Olagoke (2024) investigated the influence of motivation and demographic factors on the productivity of language lecturers in Colleges of Education in Southwest Nigeria. A descriptive survey research design was used, with a sample of 120 respondents selected from 12 Colleges of Education. A researcher-developed instrument was employed to collect data, which were analyzed using simple percentages, mean, and Spearman ranking correlation. The findings revealed that salary, wages, and demographic variables such as gender, experience, and education can enhance the productivity of language lecturers. The study recommended

prioritizing lecturers' salaries and wages and ensuring attractive and conducive working environments.

Toxic Workplace Behaviour and Employee Performance

Wolor, Ardiansyah, Rofada, Nurkhin, and Rababah, (2022) investigated the impact of toxic leadership on employees' performance. The study aimed to examine the relationship between toxic leadership behaviours and unfavorable job outcomes. The study was conducted in Indonesia, with a population of 400 employees from 8 locations. A survey and structural equation modeling (SEM) were used to collect and analyze the data. The results showed that toxic leadership has a negative effect on job satisfaction, motivation, and productivity. The study recommended that organisations implement measures to prevent toxic leadership, such as screening and selecting leaders carefully and providing stress management and self-resilience training for employees.

Anjum *et al.* (2018) conducted an empirical study to analyze the impact of a toxic workplace environment on job productivity. The study aimed to determine the effects of ostracism, incivility, harassment, and bullying on job productivity. The study was conducted in 7 private universities in Lahore, Pakistan, with a sample of 267 employees. A cross-sectional research design and systematic sampling technique were used. The data were analyzed using Amos 22, SPSS, and the Hays mediation approach. The results showed that ostracism, incivility, harassment, and bullying have direct negative significant effects on job productivity. The study concluded that organisations need to eradicate toxic workplace environment factors to ensure prosperity and success.

Atalla and Mustafa (2023) investigated the relationship between toxic leadership and work outcomes in a hospital setting. The study aimed to examine the correlation between toxic leadership and work outcomes among nursing staff. The study was conducted in a general hospital in Egypt, with a sample of 475 nursing staff. A cross-sectional quantitative research design was used, and data were collected using a questionnaire. The data were analyzed using IBM SPSS software, and the results showed a statistically significant negative correlation between toxic leadership and work outcomes. The study recommended that healthcare organisations establish leadership training programs to provide nursing leaders with the necessary skills and practices to enhance work outcomes.

Akenzua and Dania (2024) investigated the relationship between procedural and interpersonal justice and dysfunctional work behaviour among employees in Oredo Local Government Council, Edo State, Nigeria. The study employed a survey research design, with a sample of 270 employees randomly selected. Data were analyzed using SPSS 20.0 to perform descriptive and inferential statistics. The results revealed a significant relationship between procedural and interpersonal justice and dysfunctional work behaviour, with a low p-value (<0.05). The study found that uneven and unfair procedures in allocation of rewards and lack of honesty from superiors contribute to counter-productive behaviour.

Ebeloku *et al.* (2024) examined the relationship between work environment and academic staff performance in Federal Polytechnics in South West, Nigeria. The study used a survey design, with a structured online questionnaire administered to 342 academic staff from 6 Federal Polytechnics. Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings revealed significant differences in research outputs and community service involvement among academic staff, but no significant difference in teaching effectiveness. The study also found that

physical and non-physical work environments contribute to academic staff performance. The study concluded that improvements are needed in the physical work environment to enhance academic staff performance.

Table 2.1: Summary of empirical review

S/N	Author (year)	Industry/Location	Methodology	Findings
Ostracism and employee performance				
1	Zhao et al. (2016)	Service organisations, China	Quantitative research design, survey, regression analysis	Workplace ostracism positively related to knowledge hiding behaviours, attributed to feelings of distrust and reduced organisational commitment.
2	Ugwu et al. (2023)	University employees, Southeastern Nigeria	Structural Equation Modeling, survey	Perceived organisational politics positively predicted counterproductive work behaviour, employee cynicism, and workplace ostracism, with workplace ostracism partially mediating the relationship.
3	Brisson and Caesen (2023)	European countries	Online survey, quantitative research design	Workplace ostracism positively related to organisational dehumanisation, negatively impacted job satisfaction, and increased depression and turnover intentions.
4	Wang et al. (2023)	Mainland China	Quantitative research design, survey, SPSS and Amos analysis	Workplace ostracism negatively affected employee wellbeing, leading to reduced employee performance, and highlighted the need to expand research on workplace ostracism and employee wellbeing.
Bullying and employee performance				
5	Merilainen et al. (2019)	Academics, Estonia	Email survey, Negative Acts Questionnaires (NAQ-R)	Specific forms of bullying affected work engagement and performance among bullied academics.
6	Ghumro et al. (2017)	Faculty members, Karachi, Pakistan	Quantitative approach, 5-point Likert scale questionnaire	Significant negative relationship between sarcasm and job performance among faculty members.

S/ N	Author (year)	Industry/Lo cation	Methodology	Findings
7	Odunjo-Saka et al. (2023)	Hotel employees, North Cyprus	Survey, partial least structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)	Workplace bullying negatively influenced employee performance, with emotional intelligence and psychological resilience playing a mediating role.
8	Ajayi et al. (2024)	Private university employees, Nigeria	Descriptive design, multi-stage sampling method	Abusive supervision and psychological abuse significantly affected task and adaptive performance among employees.
<i>Harassment and employee performance</i>				
9	Imonikhe et al. (2012)	Tertiary institutions, Edo State, Nigeria	Descriptive survey, questionnaire	Sexual harassment is a prevalent issue in tertiary institutions, with both lecturers and students perceiving it as a problem.
10	Solomon et al. (2024)	Universities, Anambra State, Nigeria	Questionnaire, descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation	Significant and positive relationship between rumour spreading and employee commitment, and harassment and quality of work rendered by employees.
<i>Abusive supervision and employee performance</i>				
11	Gabriel (2016)	Nigerian Public Hospitals	Cross-sectional survey, structured questionnaire	Significant relationship between supervisors' toxicity and subordinates' counter-productive work behaviour
12	Wolor et al. (2022)	Indonesia (various industries)	Survey, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	Toxic leadership negatively affects job satisfaction, motivation, and productivity
13	Khalid et al. (2022)	Banking Industry, Lahore, Pakistan	Survey, SPSS, Hayes Process	Supervisor incivility indirectly influences work withdrawal behaviour through job insecurity, moderated by dedication intelligence
14	Dhali et al. (2023)	Various industries, Bangladesh	Survey, Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Conservation of Resource (COR) theory	Abusive supervision affects cyberloafing and turnover intention, moderated by psychological well-being, dedication exhaustion, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)
15	Cao et al. (2023)	Chinese Tertiary Public Hospitals	Cross-sectional survey, descriptive and regression analyses	Verbal violence predicts dedication exhaustion, negatively affects job satisfaction and work engagement, with dedication exhaustion as a mediator

S/N	Author (year)	Industry/Location	Methodology	Findings
<i>Organisational justice and employee performance</i>				
16	Teseema and Soeters (2006)	Ethiopian public universities	Cross-sectional survey with a sample of 320 lecturers,	Perceptions of fairness in procedures significantly affected job satisfaction and performance, while distributive justice had an indirect effect through organisational commitment.
17	Okpara and Wynn (2008)	Southeastern Nigeria	250 academic employees from four public universities, employed regression analysis	Both procedural and interactional justice had significant positive impacts on academic staff performance, while distributive justice showed a weaker but still positive effect.
18	Owolabi (2012)	Federal universities in southwestern Nigeria.	Survey research design, data were collected from 300 academic staff selected through stratified random sampling. The analysis employed multiple regression	All three dimensions of organisational justice significantly and positively predicted academic staff performance, with procedural justice having the strongest influence.
19	Aslam (2011)	Public sector universities in Pakistan	200 academic staff members participated through purposive sampling; Pearson correlation and regression analysis	A significant positive relationship between organisational justice (especially procedural and interactional) and faculty performance
20	Nazim and Ahmad (2018)	Academic staff performance in Indian universities	Using a quantitative approach, data were gathered from 280 respondents and analyzed with path analysis using AMOS	Organisational justice significantly mediated the effect of institutional policies on performance
<i>Demographics and employee performance</i>				
21	Thakur (2015)	Academic employees, Kenyatta University, Kenya	Descriptive survey design, semi-structured questionnaire, Spearman correlation	Demographic characteristics (age, education level, marital status, tenure, and gender) influence employee performance.

S/ N	Author (year)	Industry/Lo cation	Methodology	Findings
22	Sukirno (2018)	Lecturers, higher- education institutions, Indonesia	Questionnaire, descriptive statistics, regression analysis	Demographic characteristics have varying effects on lecturer performance, depending on the level of awards and performance.
23	Ogundare and Olagoke (2024)	Language lecturers, Colleges of Education, Southwest Nigeria	Descriptive survey research design, researcher- developed instrument, simple percentages, mean, Spearman ranking correlation	Motivation and demographic factors (salary, wages, gender, experience, and education) can enhance the productivity of language lecturers.
<i>Toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance</i>				
24	Ikyanyon and Ucho (2013)	Federal hospital, Nigeria	Survey design, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)	Negative relationship between workplace bullying and job performance.
25	Haq (2014)	Public and private organisations , Lahore, Pakistan	Standardized scales, descriptive statistics	Workplace ostracism negatively related to job performance and positively related to job stress.
26	Anjum et al. (2018)	Private university employees, Lahore, Pakistan	Cross-sectional research design, systematic sampling, Amos 22, SPSS	Ostracism, incivility, harassment, and bullying negatively impact job productivity.
27	Mirsa et al. (2020)	Public universities, Islamabad and Rawalpindi, Pakistan	Cross-sectional and causal research design, simple random sampling, SPSS and Amos software	Negative relationship between workplace ostracism and employee performance, mediated by emotional exhaustion.
28	Wolor et al. (2022)	Employees, Indonesia	Survey, structural equation modeling (SEM)	Toxic leadership negatively affects job satisfaction, motivation, and productivity.
29	Atalla and Mustafa (2023)	Nursing staff, hospital, Egypt	Cross-sectional quantitative research design, questionnaire, IBM SPSS software	Toxic leadership negatively correlates with work outcomes among nursing staff.

S/N	Author (year)	Industry/Location	Methodology	Findings
30	Akenzua and Dania (2024)	Local government council employees, Edo State, Nigeria	Survey research design, SPSS 20.0	Procedural and interpersonal justice significantly relate to dysfunctional work behaviour.
31	Ebeloku et al. (2024)	Academic staff, Federal Polytechnics, South West, Nigeria	Survey design, online questionnaire, descriptive and inferential statistics	Physical and non-physical work environments contribute to academic staff performance, with significant differences in research outputs and community service involvement.
32	Ibrahim and Olaleye (2025)	Manufacturing sector, Jordan	Survey-based, two-tiered approach, partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)	Workplace ostracism leads to increased emotional exhaustion and lack of motivation, negatively affecting job productivity.

2.4. Research Gaps

Existing literature has explored various dimensions of negative behaviours in the workplace and their effects on employee outcomes, yet notable gaps remain concerning the academic sector in Edo and Delta states, Nigeria. For instance, workplace ostracism has been widely examined in relation to knowledge hiding, counterproductive work behaviour, and employee well-being. However, little is known about its direct impact on the employee performance of university staff within these Nigerian states, indicating a significant research gap that warrants attention. Similarly, while workplace bullying and harassment have been studied extensively across different regions and industries, including corporate and healthcare settings, their specific effects on employee performance in Edo and Delta states have not been thoroughly investigated.

Furthermore, abusive supervision, an occupational hazard linked has been studied in relation to employee performance across various international contexts. Despite this, no research has

focused specifically on how abusive supervision affects academic staff performance in Edo and Delta states. This omission points to the need for localised studies that reflect the unique experiences of academics in these areas. Additionally, while demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and educational background have been linked to performance outcomes in Kenya, Indonesia, and Southwest Nigeria, limited research exists examining these relationships among academic staff in Edo and Delta states. Finally, although toxic workplace behaviours and leadership styles have been shown to impact employee performance in several sectors, there remains a lack of research exploring how organisational justice mediates the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance in these specific Nigerian states. Collectively, these gaps highlight the necessity for context-specific investigations to enrich understanding and inform policy interventions in the academic environments of Edo and Delta states.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Preamble

The study focused on the procedures that was employed in examining the variables of interest. The methodology comprised seven main sections: the research design, population of the study, sample and sampling method, theoretical framework and model, operationalisation of variables, sources and method of data collection, and method of data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The study employed a survey research design, which was appropriate for identifying and analysing the relationships between toxic workplace behaviour (independent variable) and employee performance (dependent variable) among academics in selected universities. The design was particularly suitable when the objective was to determine the extent and direction of associations between variables without manipulating them (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.2 Population of the Study

The study's population consisted of 5,584 academic staff from eight accredited universities in Edo and Delta states, with a distribution outlined in Appendix II. The selection of these universities was based on the population strength of academic staff, resulting in four universities being chosen from each state, categorized into public and private institutions, out of a total of 22 universities (9 in Edo State and 13 in Delta State). Consequently, under the public school's category, the University of Benin (UNIBEN) and Ambrose Alli University (AAU) were selected for Edo State, while for Delta State, the selected public universities were Delta State University,

Abraka, and Federal University of Petroleum Resources. Under the private universities category in Edo State, Igbinedion University (IU) and Wellspring University were included, whereas in Delta State, Edwin Clark and Novena universities were selected. Table 3.1 showed the academic staff of the selected universities.

Table 3.1 Academic staff of selected universities

S/N	Edo state				Delta state			
	Public Universities	Academic staff	Private Universities	Academic staff	Public Universities	Academic staff	Private Universities	Academic staff
1	University of Benin	1854	Igbinedion university	248	Delta state university Abraka	1280	Novena University	100
2	Ambrose Alli university	1710	Wellspring University	118	Federal University of Petroleum Resources	185	Edwin Clark University	89
Total	3564		366		1465		189	
Grand total = 5584								

Source: Universities' registry (2025)

3.3 Sampling Technique and Sample size

The selected universities were based on the population of their academic staff. From the total of 22 universities in Edo and Delta states (9 in Edo State and 13 in Delta State), four universities were identified from each state. This selection was made across two categories: public and private universities.

The study focused on academic staff from the selected universities. The total population comprised 5,584 academic staff from the eight selected universities (four from each state). The study used random sampling to select a representative sample size. The selection of universities and academic staff was justified as it allowed for a representative sample of the population,

ensuring that the findings could be generalized across different types of universities (public and private) in Edo and Delta states. Focusing on academic staff enabled the researcher to gather insights into the subject of interest.

The Yamane, (1964) formula was used to determine the appropriate sample size as 373. The computation is as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where n = Sample size

N = population size

e = level of significance desired

Given that $n = 5584$ $e = 0.05$,

The sample size was calculated as:

$$n = \frac{5584}{1 + 5584(0.05)^2}$$

$$= \frac{5584}{14.96}$$

= 373

From the above formula, the sample size for the study is 373 academic staff.

Next, a stratified random sampling technique was performed to obtain proper representation of academic staff who were administered the questionnaire. In doing this, the Pandey and Verma (2008) formula for proportional allocation was used, which stated as follows:

$$ni = n \frac{Ni}{N}$$

Where ni = sample size estimate for stratum i , that is sample size for each university;

Ni = population size for stratum i , that is population for each university;

N = Total population of universities

The computation is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Sample size allocation

S/N	Universities	Population	Sample estimate $ni = n \frac{Ni}{N}$
1	University of Benin	1854	$\frac{1854}{5584} \times 373 = 124$
2	Ambrose Alli University	1710	$\frac{1710}{5584} \times 373 = 114$
3	Igbinedion University	248	$\frac{248}{5584} \times 373 = 17$
4	Wellspring University	118	$\frac{118}{5584} \times 373 = 9$
5	Delta state University Abraka	1280	$\frac{1280}{5584} \times 373 = 85$
6	Federal University of Petroleum Resources	185	$\frac{185}{5584} \times 373 = 12$
7	Novena University	100	$\frac{100}{5584} \times 373 = 6$
8	Edwin Clark University	89	$\frac{89}{5584} \times 373 = 6$
Total		5584	373

Source: Researcher's computation (2025)

Sampling Procedure

To select academic staff for questionnaire administration, a two-stage sampling approach was employed. Purposive sampling was used to select academic staff from three specific faculties that had the highest number of employees in the universities. They included:

- i. Faculty of Education**
- ii. Faculty of Engineering**
- iii. Faculty of Management Science**

Quota Sampling

Quota sampling was further applied to allocate a predetermined number of participants to each of the selected faculties. The allocation was based on the percentage distribution of academic staff in the various faculties. For example:

In the University of Benin, the faculty of Management Science had the highest staff population compared to Engineering and Education. The ratio was 40:34:26. This indicated that out of the 124 academic staff sampled in the University of Benin, the following were allocated to the respective faculties:

- **Management science = 40% of 124 = 50**
- **Education = 34% of 124 = 42**
- **Engineering = 26% of 124 = 32**

Therefore, 50, 42, and 32 copies of the questionnaire were administered to the academic staff in the faculties of Management Science, Education, and Engineering, respectively. A similar procedure was performed for the other universities.

Participant Selection

Within each faculty, participants were selected conveniently based on the allocated quota, ensuring that the predetermined number was met for each faculty.

3.4 Sources of Data

With the aim of solving specific problems in this research study, a set of questionnaires was used as primary data. Primary data was often authentic, credible, and objective at the point of and after collection. Moreover, the questionnaire method was a faster, cheaper, and more effective means of collecting data.

3.5 Data Collection Method

The study employed a questionnaire-based data collection method. Structured questionnaires were administered to academic staff in selected universities, using a combination of purposive and quota sampling techniques. The copies of the questionnaire were distributed either in person or online, depending on the preference of the participants and universities, to gather data on the research variables.

3.6 Model Specification

The model for this study was stated with the dependent variable and the independent variable (toxic workplace behaviour, proxy by workplace ostracism, bullying, harassment, and abusive supervision), mediated by organisational justice. The relationships were stated as follows:

Functional Form of the Model

Direct effect:

$$EMP=f(OST, BUL, HAR, ABS)$$

Mediation model:

$$OGJ = f(OST, BUL, HAR, ABS)$$

$$EMP= f(OST, BUL, HAR, ABS, OGJ)$$

Econometric form

Mediator model: Effect of toxic work behaviour on organisational justice

$$OGJ_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 OST_i + \alpha_2 BUL_i + \alpha_3 HAR_i + \alpha_4 ABS_i + u_i \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Outcome model: Effect of toxic work behaviour on employee performance

$$EMP_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OST_i + \beta_2 BUL_i + \beta_3 HAR_i + \beta_4 ABS_i + \beta_5 OGJ_i + e_i \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Where:

OST = Ostracism

BUL = Bullying

ABS = Abusive supervision

HAR = Harassment

OGJ = Organisational justice

A priori expectations

$$\alpha_1, < 0; \alpha_2, < 0; \alpha_3 < 0, \text{ and } \alpha_4 < 0 \beta_1, < 0; \beta_2, < 0; \beta_3 < 0, \beta_4 < 0, \beta_5 > 0 \quad (3)$$

3.7 Operationalisation and Measurement of Variables

The questionnaire was adapted from various sources. Toxic workplace behaviour (the independent variable) was measured using a 12-item, 5-point Likert scale from the following sources: Ostracism (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008), bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009), and harassment (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). Employee performance was measured based on Nwadiokwu (2023). Table 3.3 below showed the operationalisation and measurement of the variables.

Table 3.3: Operationalisation and Measurement of Variables

S/N	Variable	Operationalisation	Measurement	No. in Questionnaire
1	Gender	The sex of respondents	2-point categorical scale	Q.1
2	Age	How old a respondent is.	4-point interval scale	Q.2
3	Highest Qualification	The level of education the respondent has obtained	3-point categorical scale	Q.3
4	Status	Current position of the staff	7-point point categorical scale	Q.4
5	Institution	Whether the respondents are in public or private universities	2-point categorical scale	Q.5
6	State	Whether the respondents are from Edo or Delta State	2-point categorical scale	Q.6
5	Ostracism	The degree to which employees perceive being ignored, excluded, or socially isolated by colleagues and supervisors in the workplace.	Measured using the Workplace Ostracism Scale (WOS).5-point Likert scale	Q.7-Q.10

6	Bullying	Repeated negative actions such as verbal abuse, social exclusion, or work sabotage that create a hostile work environment.	Assessed using the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R).5-point Likert scale	Q.11-Q.14
7	Harassment	Any unwelcome behaviour, including verbal, physical, or non-verbal actions, that creates a hostile or offensive work environment.	5-point Likert scale	Q.15-Q.18
8	Abusive supervision	Employees' perception of sustained hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours from supervisors (e.g., public criticism, ridicule).	5-point Likert scale	Q.19-Q.22
9	Organisational justice	Employee perception of fairness in how workplace issues are resolved, including the consistency of procedures, equity in decision-making outcomes, and respectful interpersonal treatment within the university system.	5-point Likert scale	Q.23-Q.26
10	Employee performance	How well the lecturers are able to carry out pedagogical duties, carry out research, and contribute to community development	5-point Likert scale	Q.27-Q.30

Source: Researcher (2025)

3.8 Research Instrument

The adapted research instrument (that is, the questionnaire) was divided into two sections. Section A captured demographic characteristics, while Section B captured the independent and dependent variables. Section B was further subdivided into Part I and Part II. Part I contained statements on the independent variable (that is, toxic workplace behaviour), while Part II contained statements on the dependent variable (that is, employee performance).

3.8.1 Validity of Research Instrument

The questionnaire items were validated by the supervisors, other management scholars in the faculty and also in management consultant in the industries. The researcher presented a draft of the questionnaire to her supervisors to facilitate objective criticism for subsequent modification. Based on the objective of the study, the questionnaire was deemed to have both content and face validity.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Study

The reliability of my research instrument was established using the test–retest method. The questionnaire, which consisted of 20 items, was first administered to 20 academic staff who were not part of the main study but had similar characteristics to the target population. After a two-week interval, the same questionnaire was re-administered to the same respondents. The two sets of responses were correlated using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficient. The analysis produced a reliability coefficient above 0.70, indicating that the instrument was stable and reliable for the study. Second, the completed questionnaires were retrieved, coded, and subjected to the Cronbach alpha reliability test using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The results were displayed in Table 3.6 below. Cronbach alpha reliability values were deemed reliable at 70% or 0.7 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Table 3.4 Reliability Test Results

S/N	Variables	Number of items	Questions	Cronbach alpha value
1	Ostracism	4	Q.7-Q.10	0.802
2	Bullying	4	Q.11-Q.14	0.853
3	Harassment	4	Q.15-Q.18	0.791
4	Abusive supervision	4	Q.19-Q.22	0.866

5	Organisational justice	4	Q.23-Q.26	0.761
6	Employee performance	4	Q.27-Q.30	0.778

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025).

3.9 Method of Data Analysis

To analyse the data, a combination of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using AMOS and statistical analysis using SPSS was employed. SEM was used to examine the relationships between toxic workplace behaviour dimensions (ostracism, bullying, and harassment) and employee performance, as well as the mediating role of burnout. Specifically, the study assessed the reliability and validity of the latent constructs (ostracism, bullying, harassment, burnout, and employee performance) using factor loadings, composite reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE). Then, hypotheses concerning the relationships between toxic workplace behaviour dimensions, burnout, and employee performance were tested using path coefficients and their significance.

Using SPSS, descriptive statistics were conducted, which entailed calculating frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation to describe the variables. The demographic analysis involved the use of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and independent t-test to examine differences in demographic characteristics and their moderating effects on the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour dimensions and employee performance.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The results of the analysis of the information gathered from the questionnaires that were sent to respondents and successfully returned are presented in this chapter. Surveys that were successfully recovered using computer software (Statistical Packages for Social Sciences, SPSS version 25) were used to collect estimates. Before being examined and assessed, they were divided into headers and subheadings. This covers data presentation and interpretation, hypothesis testing, and a discussion of the outcomes.

4.1 Response Rate

Table 4.1: Response rate

Questionnaire administration	Frequency	Percentage %
Number issued	373	100
Number of Valid responses	305	81.8
Number of invalid responses	68	18.2

Source: Fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.1 shows that out of the 373 questionnaires administered to academics in selected universities in Edo and Delta States, 305 were returned and found valid, representing a high response rate of 81.8%, while 68 (18.2%) were considered invalid. This indicates a strong level of participation from the respondents, suggesting that the data collected is sufficiently representative and reliable for drawing meaningful conclusions on toxic workplace behaviour, organisational justice, and employee performance within the study area.

4.2 Description of the Demographics of the Respondents

Table 4.2: Demographic characteristics of respondents

S/N	Demographic Characteristics	Attributes	No	Percentages
1	Gender	Male	178	58.4
		Female	127	41.6
		Total	305	100.0
2	Age	Less than 35 years old	33	10.8
		36-55years old	224	73.4
		56 years old and above	48	15.7
		Total	305	100.0
3	Marital status	Married	252	82.6
		Single	35	11.5
		Divorce	18	5.9
		Total	305	100.0
4	Educational qualification	Bachelor's degree/equivalent	2	.7
		Masters' degree	10	3.3
		Doctorate degree	113	37.0
		Total	179	58.7
5	Status	Professor	20	6.6
		Associate professor	32	10.5
		Senior lecturer	61	20.0
		Lecturer 1	67	22.0
		Lecturer 2	47	15.4
		Assistant lecturer	78	25.6
		Total	305	100.0
6	Institution	Public university	145	47.5
		Private university	160	52.5
		Total	305	100.0
7	State of Origin	Delta	126	41.3
		Edo	179	58.7
		Total	305	100.0

Source: Fieldwork (2025)

Gender: The gender distribution indicates that 178 respondents, representing 58.4%, are male, while 127 respondents, or 41.6%, are female. This shows that although male academics slightly dominate the sample, there is still a fair level of female representation, reflecting the growing presence of women in academia within Edo and Delta States.

Age: The majority of the respondents (224; 73.4%) fall within the 36–55 years age range, indicating that mid-career academics make up the largest group in the study. Younger academics below 35 years represent 10.8% (33 respondents), while those aged 56 years and above account for 15.7% (48 respondents). This suggests that most of the sample is composed of experienced individuals in their prime academic years.

Marital Status: The data shows that most of the respondents are married (252; 82.6%), while 11.5% (35 respondents) are single, and 5.9% (18 respondents) are divorced. This highlights that the majority of academics surveyed have family responsibilities, which could influence their work experiences and perceptions of workplace behaviour and justice.

Educational Qualification: In terms of educational attainment, a very small fraction of respondents holds a bachelor's degree or equivalent (0.7%) and master's degree (3.3%). A considerable number, 113 (37.0%), possess doctorate degrees, which is consistent with academic career requirements. However, the table appears incomplete, as it does not sum up to the total of 305, suggesting a possible data reporting gap or truncation in this section.

Status: The distribution of academic status reveals that assistant lecturers form the largest group (25.6%), followed by lecturer I (22.0%) and senior lecturers (20.0%). Professors (6.6%) and

associate professors (10.5%) are fewer in number, which is expected given the rigorous promotion process in academia. This suggests that most respondents are in the early to mid-stages of their academic careers, where workplace dynamics may significantly shape their progression.

Institution: Institutional affiliation shows that 160 respondents (52.5%) are from private universities, while 145 (47.5%) are from public universities. This near balance indicates that the study reflects perspectives across both categories of institutions, allowing for comparative insights on workplace behaviour and justice in different organizational settings.

State of Origin: With respect to origin, 179 respondents (58.7%) are from Edo State, while 126 respondents (41.3%) are from Delta State. This distribution shows a stronger representation from Edo State academics, though both states are adequately covered, giving the study regional balance.

Table 4.3: Respondents' perception of ostracism

S/N	Statements	SA 5	A 4	U 3	D 2	SD 1	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
9	I feel ignored by my colleagues during departmental meetings and other academic discussions.	33 10.8%	91 29.8%	36 11.8 %	73 23.9 %	72 23.6%	2.80	1.37
10	Some colleagues deliberately withhold important information that affects my teaching and research.	30 9.8%	57 18.7%	53 17.4 %	85 27.9 %	80 26.2	2.58	1.32
11	I often experience subtle social exclusion from colleagues that makes me feel unwelcome or isolated in my department.	32 10.5%	60 19.7%	40 13.1 %	87 28.5 %	86 28.2%	2.56	1.36
12	I have been deliberately excluded from collaborative academic	34 11.1%	67 22.0%	30 9.8%	70 23.0	104 34.1%	2.53	1.43

	activities, such as research projects or grant applications.				%			
Grand mean and standard deviation							2.62	1.37

Source: Researcher’s fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.3 above is the perception of ostracism among respondents shows varying levels of agreement with the listed statements. On the statement “I feel ignored by my colleagues during departmental meetings and other academic discussions,” the mean score of 2.80 (SD = 1.37) falls below the cut-off of 3.0, indicating disagreement, though a notable proportion still reported experiencing such behaviour. Similarly, the statement “Some colleagues deliberately withhold important information that affects my teaching and research” recorded a mean of 2.58 (SD = 1.32), also reflecting disagreement. In the same vein, the statement “I often experience subtle social exclusion from colleagues that makes me feel unwelcome or isolated in my department” had a mean of 2.56 (SD = 1.36), and “I have been deliberately excluded from collaborative academic activities, such as research projects or grant applications” scored a mean of 2.53 (SD = 1.43), both indicating disagreement. Overall, the grand mean of the respondents’ perception of ostracism is 2.62 with a standard deviation of 1.37, suggesting that ostracism behaviours are present in some instances, on average, academics in the study do not strongly perceive ostracism as a dominant workplace behaviour.

Table 4.4: Respondents’ perception of harassment at work

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
13	I have experienced demeaning or insulting remarks from colleagues that undermine my professional competence.	15 4.9%	66 21.6 %	42 13.8 %	72 23.6 %	110 36.1%	2.36	1.30
14	I have been the target of persistent gossip, rumours, or character attacks by colleagues	26 8.5%	54 17.7 %	35 11.5 %	70 23.0 %	119 39.0%	2.33	1.38

15	I have received unwanted physical contact (e.g., touching or patting) that made me uncomfortable in the workplace.	27 8.9%	62 20.3 %	39 12.3 %	28 9.2%	149 48.9	2.31	1.46
16	I have been threatened with job consequences for rejecting advances.	23 7.5%	80 26.2 %	35 11.5 %	83 27.2 %	83 27.2%	2.59	1.34
Grand mean and standard deviation							2.40	1.37

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.4 shows the respondents' perception of harassment at work and reveals overall disagreement with the listed statements. For the statement "I have experienced demeaning or insulting remarks from colleagues that undermine my professional competence," the mean score is 2.36 (SD = 1.30), showing disagreement. Similarly, the statement "I have been the target of persistent gossip, rumours, or character attacks by colleagues" has a mean of 2.33 (SD = 1.38), also indicating disagreement. The statement "I have received unwanted physical contact (e.g., touching or patting) that made me uncomfortable in the workplace" recorded a mean of 2.31 (SD = 1.46), reflecting disagreement. Lastly, the statement "I have been threatened with job consequences for rejecting advances" produced a slightly higher mean of 2.59 (SD = 1.34), but still below the threshold of 3.0, suggesting disagreement overall. The grand mean of **2.40** with a standard deviation of **1.37** indicates that, on average, academics in the study do not strongly perceive harassment as a common workplace experience, even though a minority of respondents reported experiencing such behaviours.

Table 4.5: Respondents' perception of bullying

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
17	Someone at work has persistently criticized my work or performance.	22 7.2%	93 30.5 %	73 23.9 %	66 21.6 %	51 16.6%	2.89	1.21
18	I have been the subject of gossip or	16 5.2%	75 24.6	40 13.1	112 36.7	61	2.57	1.21

	rumors at work.		%	%	%	20.0%		
19	I have felt excluded from social activities at work.	23 7.5%	90 29.7 %	49 16.1 %	84 27.5 %	58 19.0%	2.78	1.27
20	I have been given unreasonable deadlines or workload pressures.	27 8.9%	74 24.3 %	55 18.0 %	86 28.2 %	63 20.7%	2.72	1.27
Grand mean and standard deviation							2.74	1.24

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.5 shows the perception of bullying among respondents shows mixed but generally negative experiences, though still falling below the agreement threshold. For the statement “Someone at work has persistently criticized my work or performance,” the mean score of 2.89 (SD = 1.21) is close to the cut-off but still indicates disagreement overall, despite a sizeable proportion acknowledging such experiences. The statement “I have been the subject of gossip or rumors at work” recorded a mean of 2.57 (SD = 1.21), reflecting disagreement. Similarly, “I have felt excluded from social activities at work” produced a mean of 2.78 (SD = 1.27), also indicating disagreement but leaning toward occasional occurrence. Finally, the statement “I have been given unreasonable deadlines or workload pressures” yielded a mean of 2.72 (SD = 1.27), showing disagreement. The grand mean of **2.74** with a standard deviation of **1.24** suggests that while some academics reported experiences of bullying, the overall perception is that bullying is not a prevalent workplace behaviour in the universities studied.

Table 4.6: Respondents' perception of abusive supervision

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
21	My supervisor ridicules me in front of others.	28 9.2%	58 19.0 %	47 15.4 %	92 30.0 %	79 25.9	2.54	1.31
22	My supervisor invades my privacy.	28 9.2%	62 20.3 %	42 13.3 %	90 29.5 %	82 26.6%	2.54	1.33

23	My supervisor reminds me of my past mistakes and failures.	30 9.8%	45 14.8 %	46 15.1 %	98 32.1 %	83 27.2%	2.45	1.32
24	My supervisor uses inappropriate language at me.	36 11.8 %	95 31.1 %	56 18.4 %	71 23.3 %	47 15.4%	3.01	1.28
Grand mean and standard deviation							2.64	1.31

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.6 shows the perception of abusive supervision among respondents shows mixed reactions, with most items falling below the agreement threshold except one. The statement “My supervisor ridicules me in front of others” recorded a mean of 2.54 (SD = 1.31), reflecting disagreement. Similarly, “My supervisor invades my privacy” also had a mean of 2.54 (SD = 1.33), indicating disagreement. The statement “My supervisor reminds me of my past mistakes and failures” produced a mean of 2.45 (SD = 1.32), further showing disagreement. However, the statement “My supervisor uses inappropriate language at me” scored a mean of 3.01 (SD = 1.28), which is slightly above the threshold, suggesting agreement that this behaviour is sometimes experienced. Overall, the grand mean of **2.64** with a standard deviation of **1.31** (not 3.6361 as appears in the table, likely a typographical error) indicates that, on average, respondents disagreed with most forms of abusive supervision, though occasional instances such as the use of inappropriate language were acknowledged.

Table 4.7: Respondents' perception of organisational justice

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
25	Established policies and procedures are consistently followed when addressing complaints or grievances.	1 3	62 20.3 %	133 43.6 %	53 17.4 %	46 15.1%	3.64	1.08
26	I believe that the outcomes of decisions (e.g., sanctions, recognitions) reflect a fair evaluation	73 23.9 %	122 40.0 %	38 12.5 %	48 15.3 %	24 7.9%	3.56	1.23

	of the situation.							
27	I am treated with dignity and respect when workplace issues are being addressed.	55 18.0 %	128 42.2 %	45 14.8 %	49 16.1 %	28 9.2%	3.44	1.22
28	Supervisors communicate decisions in a clear, honest, and considerate manner, even during conflict situations.	92 30.0 %	127 41.6 %	47 15.4 %	21 6.9%	18 5.9%	3.83	1.11
Grand mean and standard deviation							3.62	1.16

Source: Researcher’s fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.7 shows the respondents’ perception of organisational justice and indicates overall agreement with the listed statements. On the statement “Established policies and procedures are consistently followed when addressing complaints or grievances,” the mean score of 3.64 (SD = 1.08) shows agreement, suggesting that many academics believe due process is usually observed. Similarly, the statement “I believe that the outcomes of decisions (e.g., sanctions, recognitions) reflect a fair evaluation of the situation” recorded a mean of 3.56 (SD = 1.23), also reflecting agreement that decisions are generally perceived as fair. The statement “I am treated with dignity and respect when workplace issues are being addressed” had a mean of 3.44 (SD = 1.22), showing agreement, though with a slightly lower strength compared to the others. Lastly, “Supervisors communicate decisions in a clear, honest, and considerate manner, even during conflict situations” produced the highest mean of 3.83 (SD = 1.11), indicating strong agreement. The grand mean of **3.62** with a standard deviation of **1.16** suggests that academics generally perceive organisational justice to be present in their institutions, with fairness, respect, and transparent communication being relatively well-practiced.

Table 4.8: Respondents' perception of teaching quality

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
29	I design and deliver course content that aligns with the current academic standards and student learning needs.	109 35.7 %	125 41.0 %	28 9.2%	24 7.9%	19 6.2%	3.92	1.15
30	I employ diverse and appropriate teaching methodologies to enhance student understanding and engagement	3 1.0%	110 36.1 %	135 11.5 %	13 4.3%	9 3.0%	4.09	.97
31	I regularly assess student performance using fair and effective evaluation techniques	93 30.5 %	123 40.3 %	41 13.4 %	27 8.9%	21 6.9%	3.79	1.17
32	I am proficient in the use of digital tools and platforms for instructional delivery	87 28.8 %	133 43.3 %	37 12.1 %	23 7.5%	25 8.2%	3.77	1.18
Grand mean and standard deviation							3.89	1.12

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.8 indicates the respondents' perception of teaching quality. It reveals strong agreement across all measured items. For the statement "I design and deliver course content that aligns with the current academic standards and student learning needs," the mean score of 3.92 (SD = 1.15) indicates agreement, showing that most academics strive to ensure relevance and alignment in their teaching. Similarly, the statement "I employ diverse and appropriate teaching methodologies to enhance student understanding and engagement" recorded the highest mean of 4.09 (SD = 0.97), reflecting strong agreement that lecturers use varied teaching approaches to improve learning outcomes. The statement "I regularly assess student performance using fair and effective evaluation techniques" produced a mean of 3.79 (SD = 1.17), suggesting that respondents generally apply fair assessment methods. Lastly, "I am proficient in the use of digital tools and platforms for instructional delivery" had a mean of 3.77 (SD = 1.18), showing agreement that academics are competent in leveraging technology for teaching. The grand mean

of **3.89** with a standard deviation of **1.12** indicates that overall, academics perceive themselves as maintaining high teaching quality through relevant content delivery, diverse methodologies, fair evaluation, and digital proficiency.

Table 4.9: Respondents’ perception of research productivity

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
33	I consistently publish scholarly articles in peer-reviewed journals relevant to my area	54 17.7 %	105 34.4 %	64 21.0 %	49 16.1 %	32 10.5%	3.34	1.25
34	I actively seek and secure research grants to support my academic research grants	41 13.4 %	104 34.1 %	64 21.0 %	60 19.7 %	36 11.8%	3.18	1.23
35	I participate in academic conferences to present my research findings and network with peers	45 14.8 %	109 35.7 %	56 18.4 %	62 20.3 %	33 10.8%	3.23	1.24
36	I collaborate with national or international researchers to improve the quality and impact of my research outputs	43 14.1 %	119 39.0 %	62 20.3 %	48 15.9 %	33 10.8%	3.30	1.21
Grand mean and standard deviation							3.26	1.23

Source: Researcher’s fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.9 shows the respondents’ view of research productivity. It shows moderate agreement across all indicators. For the statement “I consistently publish scholarly articles in peer-reviewed journals relevant to my area,” the mean score of 3.34 (SD = 1.25) reflects agreement, suggesting that publishing remains a core part of their academic responsibilities. The statement “I actively seek and secure research grants to support my academic research” recorded a mean of 3.18 (SD = 1.23), indicating agreement, though with slightly lower intensity, pointing to challenges in grant acquisition. Similarly, “I participate in academic conferences to present my research findings and network with peers” produced a mean of 3.23 (SD = 1.24), showing agreement that academics engage in knowledge dissemination and networking activities. Finally, the statement

“I collaborate with national or international researchers to improve the quality and impact of my research outputs” yielded a mean of 3.30 (SD = 1.21), reflecting agreement that collaboration is part of their research practices. The grand mean of **3.26** with a standard deviation of **1.23** suggests that, overall, academics perceive themselves as moderately productive in research, with active engagement in publishing, grants, conferences, and collaborations, though challenges still exist in sustaining high-level productivity.

Table 4.10: Respondents’ perception of community service

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	Std. dev.
37	I am actively involved in university or community-based development projects aimed at solving societal problems	51 16.7 %	109 35.7 %	75 24.6 %	42 13.8 %	28 9.2%	3.37	1.18
38	I provide extension services based on my academic expertise to external communities	49 16.1 %	131 43.0 %	72 23.6 %	26 8.5%	26 8.5%	3.49	1.14
39	I contribute to national development initiatives through public lectures	61 20.0 %	130 42.6 %	66 21.6 %	31 10.2 %	17 5.6%	3.61	1.09
40	I actively participate in professional bodies and contribute to their activities or publications	23 7.5%	43 14.1 %	84 27.5 %	137 44.9 %	18 5.9	2.72	1.03
Grand mean and standard deviation							3.30	1.11

Source: Researcher’s fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.10 shows the perception of community service among respondents and it reflects mixed but generally positive engagement in activities that extend academic impact to society. For the statement “I am actively involved in university or community-based development projects aimed at solving societal problems,” the mean score of 3.37 (SD = 1.18) indicates agreement, showing that many academics contribute to developmental initiatives. Similarly, “I provide extension services based on my academic expertise to external communities” had a mean of 3.49 (SD =

1.14), reflecting agreement that respondents apply their knowledge to serve wider communities. The statement “I contribute to national development initiatives through public lectures” recorded the highest mean of 3.61 (SD = 1.09), suggesting strong agreement that academics play an active role in public enlightenment and knowledge dissemination at the national level. However, the statement “I actively participate in professional bodies and contribute to their activities or publications” scored a mean of 2.72 (SD = 1.03), which falls below the threshold, indicating disagreement and pointing to weaker involvement in professional associations. Overall, the grand mean of **3.30** with a standard deviation of **1.11** suggests that academics moderately engage in community service, with stronger participation in developmental projects, extension services, and public lectures than in professional body activities.

4.3 Differences in toxic work behaviour on employee performance based on Demographics

This section examines the differences that exist in the various toxic work behaviour and employee performance in relation to the demographic characteristics. Table 4.10 shows the differences.

Table 4.11: Differences in toxic work behaviour and employee performance based on Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Gender Male N = 178; Female N = 126,	Age	Marital status	Qualification	Status	Institution Public N = 145; Private N = 160	State of origin Delta N = 126 Edo N = 179
Ostracism	t = -.704, Sig. = 0.482	F = .378, Sig. = .686	F = 1.753, Sig. = .175	F = 1.010, Sig. = .402	F = .282, .923	t = -.108, Sig. = .914	t = 1.875, Sig. = .063
Harassmen	t = .975, Sig.	F = .605	F = 1.65	F = .449	F	t = .326, Sig.	t = .930

t	= .331	Sig = .547	5	Sig = .773	= .386	= .745	Sig = .354
Bullying	t = 1.545, Sig. = .123	F = 1.562, Sig. = .211	F = 7.921, Sig. = .000	F = 1.356, Sig. = .249	F = .627, Sig. = .679	t = 1.939, Sig. = .053,	t = -1.225, Sig. = .222
Abusive supervision	t = .491, Sig. = .624	F = .199, Sig. = .820	F = 1.193, Sig. = .305	F = .748, Sig. = .560	F = 1.009, Sig. = .412	t = -.316, Sig. = .753	t = 2.060, Sig. = .041
Teaching quality	t = -.047, Sig. = .962	F = .761, Sig. = .468	F = 5.507, Sig. = .004	F = 1.310, Sig. = .266	F = 2.260, Sig. = .049	t = .291, Sig. = .771	t = -.469, Sig. = .640
Research	t = -.605, Sig. = .545	F = 2.286, Sig. = .103	F = 10.805, Sig. = .000	F = 1.389, Sig. = .238	F = 3.411, Sig. = .005	t = -.608, Sig. = .543	t = .232, Sig. = .817
Community service	t = 1.161, Sig. = .247	F = .298, Sig. = .743	F = .497, Sig. = .609	F = .842, Sig. = .499	F = 2.125, Sig. = .062	t = 3.625, Sig. = .000	t = -2.490, Sig. = .014

The results in Table 4.11 reveal that most demographic characteristics (gender, age, marital status, and qualification) do not significantly influence toxic workplace behaviours or employee performance, as indicated by p-values greater than 0.05. However, certain exceptions emerge: bullying differs significantly across marital status ($F = 7.921$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that marital status shapes experiences of workplace bullying; abusive supervision varies significantly by state

of origin ($t = 2.060$, $p = 0.041$), implying that regional or cultural factors may affect supervisory behaviours. For employee performance, teaching quality differs significantly across marital status ($F = 5.507$, $p = 0.004$) and state of origin ($F = 2.260$, $p = 0.049$), research productivity varies by marital status ($F = 10.805$, $p < 0.001$) and institution type ($F = 3.411$, $p = 0.005$), while community service shows strong differences by institution type ($t = 3.625$, $p < 0.001$) and state of origin ($t = -2.490$, $p = 0.014$). These findings suggest that while toxic workplace behaviours are generally experienced across demographics, specific factors such as marital status, institutional setting, and cultural background exert notable influence on both the prevalence of toxic behaviours and the manifestation of employee performance outcomes.

4.4 Diagnostic Tests

To ascertain the relationship among the variables using the multiple regression analysis, three tests that align with the assumptions of multiple regression analysis were carried out. Two tests were carried out. They include the multicollinearity and autocorrelation tests. The outcomes are presented below.

4.4.1 Multicollinearity Tests

To assess whether the independent variables are highly correlated the following procedures were carried out: Variance inflation factor (VIF) and correlation matrix

Table 4.12 *Variance inflation factor (VIF)*

Independent variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Workplace ostracism	.327	3.055
Harassment	.349	2.864
Bullying	.527	1.897
Abusive supervision	.481	2.077

Source: SPSS Output (2025)

Table 4.11 presents the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) results, which test for multicollinearity among the independent variables. The VIF values for workplace ostracism (3.055), harassment (2.864), bullying (1.897), and abusive supervision (2.077) are all below the commonly accepted threshold of 10, while their tolerance values are above 0.1. This indicates that multicollinearity is not a concern in the model, and the independent variables are sufficiently distinct to be reliably used in the regression analysis without inflating standard errors or biasing the results.

Table 4.13 *Correlation matrix*

		Abusive supervision	Workplace ostracism	Harassment	Bullying
Abusive supervision	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	305			
Workplace ostracism	Pearson Correlation	.701**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	305	305		
Harassment	Pearson Correlation	.566**	.748**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	305	305	305	
Bullying	Pearson Correlation	.523**	.550**	.664**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	305	305	305	305

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.13 shows the correlation matrix among the independent variables. The results indicate that all the correlations are positive and statistically significant at the 0.05 level, with values ranging between 0.523 and 0.748. Since none of the correlation coefficients is up to 0.8, it suggests that there is no problem of multicollinearity among the variables. This means that abusive supervision, workplace ostracism, harassment, and bullying, while related, do not

overlap excessively and can therefore be retained together in the regression model without distorting the results.

4.4.2 Structural Path Estimates

The structural path estimates using the hierarchical regression are presented in Table 4.14. It presents the direct paths among the variables.

Table 4.14: Relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance

Path	Estimate β	S.E	CR	P
Workplace ostracism \rightarrow teaching quality	-.063	.067	-.943	.346
Harassment \rightarrow teaching quality	-.214	.066	-3.257	.001
Bullying \rightarrow teaching quality	-.088	.066	-1.335	.183
Abusive supervision \rightarrow teaching quality	.016	.066	.233	.816
Workplace ostracism \rightarrow research productivity	-.121	.076	-1.575	.116
Harassment \rightarrow research productivity	-.190	.075	-2.533	.012
Bullying \rightarrow research productivity	-.135	.075	-1.797	.073
Abusive supervision \rightarrow research productivity	.150	.076	1.980	.049
Workplace ostracism \rightarrow community service	.030	.062	.487	.627
Harassment \rightarrow community service	-.205	.061	-3.366	.001
Bullying \rightarrow community service	-.049	.061	-.808	.420
Abusive supervision \rightarrow community service	.163	.062	2.641	.009

Significant at ** $p < 0.05$

Table 4.14 presents the structural path estimates showing the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance dimensions (teaching quality, research productivity, and community service). The results reveal that workplace ostracism has no significant effect on teaching quality ($\beta = -.063$, $p = .346$), research productivity ($\beta = -.121$, $p = .116$), or community service ($\beta = .030$, $p = .627$). Harassment, on the other hand, shows a consistent and significant negative effect across all three performance indicators: teaching quality ($\beta = -.214$, $p = .001$), research productivity ($\beta = -.190$, $p = .012$), and community service ($\beta = -.205$, $p = .001$), indicating that harassment strongly undermines academic performance.

Bullying demonstrates negative but non-significant effects on teaching quality ($\beta = -.088$, $p = .183$), research productivity ($\beta = -.135$, $p = .073$), and community service ($\beta = -.049$, $p = .420$), suggesting that while it may influence performance, the effect is not strong enough to be statistically established in this study. Interestingly, abusive supervision shows non-significant relationships with teaching quality ($\beta = .016$, $p = .816$) but has a significant positive effect on research productivity ($\beta = .150$, $p = .049$) and community service ($\beta = .163$, $p = .009$). This counterintuitive result may imply that under pressure from abusive supervision, academics are compelled to increase research and community service outputs, possibly as coping or survival strategies. Overall, the findings highlight harassment as the most detrimental toxic workplace behaviour to academic performance, while the role of abusive supervision appears paradoxical, warranting deeper exploration.

4.4.3 Mediating Effect

Table 4.15 below presents the indirect parts among the variables of the study

Table 4.15: Mediating role of organisational justice

Path	β	S.E	CR	P
Workplace ostracism → organisational justice → teaching quality	-.231	.034	-6.884	.000
Workplace ostracism → organisational justice → research productivity	-.215	.041	-5.233	.000
Workplace ostracism → organisational justice → community service	-.030	.032	-.950	.343
Harassment → organisational justice → teaching quality	-.234	.035	-6.730	.000
Harassment → organisational justice → research productivity	-.224	.042	-5.267	.000
Harassment → organisational justice → community service	-.067	.033	-2.043	.042
Bullying → organisational justice → teaching quality	-.180	.046	-3.956	.000
Bullying → organisational justice → research productivity	-.191	.054	-3.507	.001
Bullying → organisational justice → community service	.006	.041	.158	.875
Abusive supervision → organisational justice → teaching quality	-.263	.041	-6.453	.000
Abusive supervision → organisational justice → research productivity	-.179	.051	-3.534	.000
Abusive supervision → organisational justice → community	-.005	.038	-.133	.895

service				
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Significant at **p<0.05

Table 4.15 presents the mediating role of organisational justice in the relationship between toxic workplace behaviours and employee performance indicators. The findings reveal that organisational justice significantly mediates the effects of workplace ostracism, harassment, bullying, and abusive supervision on teaching quality and research productivity, as indicated by the negative and statistically significant path coefficients (all $p < 0.05$). Specifically, workplace ostracism indirectly reduces teaching quality ($\beta = -.231, p = .000$) and research productivity ($\beta = -.215, p = .000$), while harassment also negatively influences teaching quality ($\beta = -.234, p = .000$) and research productivity ($\beta = -.224, p = .000$). Similarly, bullying indirectly impairs teaching quality ($\beta = -.180, p = .000$) and research productivity ($\beta = -.191, p = .001$), and abusive supervision exerts the strongest indirect negative effect on teaching quality ($\beta = -.263, p = .000$) and a significant negative effect on research productivity ($\beta = -.179, p = .000$). For community service, however, most toxic workplace behaviours show no significant indirect effect through organisational justice, except harassment ($\beta = -.067, p = .042$), which indicates a modest but significant reduction. The results suggest that organisational justice is a critical mechanism through which toxic workplace behaviours undermine academics' teaching and research performance, while its mediating role in community service is weak or absent. This underscores the importance of organisational justice as a buffer in mitigating the negative consequences of toxic behaviours, particularly in academic contexts where teaching and research are core performance indicators.

4.5 Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis One: There is no significant relationship between workplace ostracism and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.

The results show that workplace ostracism has no significant effect on teaching quality ($\beta = -.063$, $p = .346$), research productivity ($\beta = -.121$, $p = .116$), and community service ($\beta = .030$, $p = .627$). Since the p-values are greater than 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. Thus, workplace ostracism does not significantly predict employee performance in the sampled universities.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.

Bullying shows no significant effect on teaching quality ($\beta = -.088$, $p = .183$), research productivity ($\beta = -.135$, $p = .073$), and community service ($\beta = -.049$, $p = .420$). With all p-values above 0.05, the null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that bullying does not significantly affect employee performance among academics in Edo and Delta States.

Hypothesis Three: There is no significant relationship between employee harassment and employee performance.

Harassment has significant negative effects on teaching quality ($\beta = -.214$, $p = .001$), research productivity ($\beta = -.190$, $p = .012$), and community service ($\beta = -.205$, $p = .001$). Since p-values are below 0.05 across all performance indicators, the null hypothesis is rejected. This confirms that harassment significantly reduces employee performance.

Hypothesis Four: There is no significant relationship between abusive supervision and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.

Abusive supervision has no significant effect on teaching quality ($\beta = .016$, $p = .816$) but shows significant positive effects on research productivity ($\beta = .150$, $p = .049$) and community service ($\beta = .163$, $p = .009$). Therefore, the null hypothesis is partially rejected: abusive supervision does not significantly influence teaching quality but does significantly affect research productivity and community service.

Hypothesis Five: Organisational justice does not mediate the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria.

Based on the mediation analysis, the results show that organisational justice plays both full and partial mediation roles depending on the dimension of toxic workplace behaviour and the aspect of employee performance considered. Specifically, organisational justice fully mediated the effects of workplace ostracism on teaching quality and research productivity, and similarly fully mediated the effect of bullying on teaching quality and research productivity, as the direct effects were not significant while the indirect effects were significant. In contrast, organisational justice partially mediated the effect of harassment on all three dimensions of performance (teaching quality, research productivity, and community service), as both direct and indirect effects remained significant. For abusive supervision, organisational justice fully mediated its effect on teaching quality, partially mediated its effect on research productivity, but showed no mediation effect on community service. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that

organisational justice significantly mediates the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance, with the mediation varying between full and partial across contexts.

Hypothesis Six: There are no significant differences in demographic factors in relation to the effect of toxic work behaviour on employee performance in selected private and public Universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria?

The results in Table 4.12 provide mixed evidence. The analysis revealed that gender, age, and qualification did not yield statistically significant differences across the study variables, thereby supporting the null hypothesis in these dimensions. However, significant differences emerged with respect to marital status (notably in bullying, teaching quality, and research productivity), institution type (particularly in research productivity and community service), and state of origin (specifically in abusive supervision, teaching quality, and community service). Consequently, the null hypothesis is only partially upheld, as certain demographic factors were found to significantly shape the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

It was found that that workplace ostracism had no significant effect on teaching quality ($\beta = -0.063$, $p = 0.346$), research productivity ($\beta = -0.121$, $p = 0.116$), and community service ($\beta = 0.030$, $p = 0.627$), indicating that ostracism does not significantly reduce employee performance. This implies that while ostracism exists, it may not directly impair academics' teaching, research, or community engagement, perhaps because university staff are bound by professional obligations that require them to deliver regardless of interpersonal neglect. This finding aligns with Wu, Yim, Kwan, and Zhang (2012), who reported that ostracism did not always directly

predict performance but operated through mediators such as emotional exhaustion. Similarly, Ferris et al. (2017) found that although ostracism affected employees' well-being, its direct impact on task performance was weak, suggesting that contextual or coping factors may mitigate its effect. Contrary to expectations, this study finds that workplace ostracism does not significantly affect employee performance in the university system. This may be attributed to the high autonomy of academic work, objective performance metrics, and the strong professional identity of academic staff, which allow employees to maintain teaching, research, and publication output despite social exclusion. For example, a lecturer excluded from departmental meetings may still meet promotion requirements or publish independently. While ostracism may impact psychological well-being and job satisfaction, its influence on measurable performance indicators appears limited in the academic context. These findings highlight the context-specific nature of workplace ostracism effects in higher education.

It was also found that workplace bullying was not a significant predictor of teaching quality ($\beta = -0.088$, $p = 0.183$), research productivity ($\beta = -0.135$, $p = 0.073$), or community service ($\beta = -0.049$, $p = 0.420$). This suggests that despite experiencing bullying, academics still maintain performance, likely due to intrinsic motivation, career progression requirements, and institutional pressure to publish and teach. This finding is consistent with Rodriguez-Muñoz, Baillien, De Witte, Moreno-Jiménez, and Pastor (2009), who observed that bullying did not always result in reduced performance, especially in high-autonomy jobs. Similarly, Hoel, Glasø, Hetland, Cooper, and Einarsen (2010) found that academics often cope with bullying by compartmentalizing their tasks to preserve their professional output, thereby buffering its direct effect on performance. Bullying was found to have no significant impact on measurable employee performance. This may be due to the high autonomy of academic roles, objective performance metrics (publications,

teaching evaluations), and strong professional identity of academics, which allow staff to maintain output despite negative social behaviours. While performance remains unaffected, bullying adversely affects psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and long-term engagement, highlighting the need for inclusive management practices, ethical leadership, and effective grievance mechanisms in universities.

Additionally, harassment had a significant negative effect on teaching quality ($\beta = -0.214$, $p = 0.001$), research productivity ($\beta = -0.190$, $p = 0.012$), and community service ($\beta = -0.205$, $p = 0.001$). This indicates that harassment severely undermines employees' ability to teach effectively, produce quality research, and engage in community development activities. Harassment appears more damaging than ostracism or bullying because it directly attacks employees' dignity and security, leading to stress and disengagement. This finding is supported by McDonald (2012), who emphasized that workplace harassment erodes confidence and disrupts professional functioning. Similarly, Willness, Steel, and Lee (2007) in their meta-analysis found that harassment strongly predicts negative job outcomes, including reduced performance and organizational commitment. Harassment was found to negatively affect employee performance. Academics experiencing harassment such as verbal abuse, intimidation, or exclusion exhibit reduced teaching effectiveness, lower research productivity, and decreased engagement in institutional activities. This occurs because harassment induces stress, emotional exhaustion, and demotivation, which interfere with core academic responsibilities. Universities should implement anti-harassment policies, grievance mechanisms, and staff support systems to protect employee well-being, sustain performance, and improve institutional outcomes. Addressing harassment is critical for maintaining teaching quality, research output, and organizational commitment.

Another finding was that abusive supervision did not significantly influence teaching quality ($\beta = 0.016$, $p = 0.816$) but had a significant positive effect on research productivity ($\beta = 0.150$, $p = 0.049$) and community service ($\beta = 0.163$, $p = 0.009$). Interestingly, this suggests that while abusive supervision does not enhance teaching, it may inadvertently pressure academics to be more productive in research and community service, possibly as a way of protecting their reputation or securing career progression despite hostile supervisors. This finding resonates with Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, and Kacmar (2007), who observed that some employees channel the stress from abusive supervision into work effort as a coping strategy. It also partially aligns with Tepper (2000), who found that although abusive supervision is generally harmful, in certain performance-driven environments it may paradoxically stimulate output. Abusive supervision was found to have no significant impact on measurable employee performance. This is likely due to the high autonomy of academic work, objective performance metrics (e.g., publications, teaching evaluations), and the strong professional identity and intrinsic motivation of academic staff, which allow them to maintain performance despite negative supervisory behaviour. Although output remains unaffected, abusive supervision negatively affects psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and long-term engagement. Universities should implement ethical leadership training, grievance mechanisms, and supportive mentorship programs to ensure sustained staff welfare and institutional effectiveness.

Moreover, the mediation results (Table 4.15) showed that organisational justice significantly mediated the relationship between ostracism and teaching/research but not community service; between harassment and all performance dimensions; between bullying and teaching/research but not community service; and between abusive supervision and teaching/research but not community service. This suggests that organisational justice plays both full and partial mediating

roles, depending on the behaviour and performance dimension. Where direct effects were insignificant but indirect effects became significant (e.g., ostracism → justice → teaching/research), full mediation occurred; whereas where both direct and indirect effects were significant (e.g., harassment → performance), partial mediation was evident. This procedure is consistent with studies such as Baron and Kenny (1986) and Edobor and Akenzua (2023). They argue that mediation occurs when an intervening variable explains part or all of the relationship between predictor and outcome. Organisational justice was found to significantly mediate employee performance. When academic staff perceive fairness in decision-making (procedural justice), equitable distribution of resources (distributive justice), and respectful treatment (interactional justice), the negative effects of bullying, harassment, ostracism, and abusive supervision on performance are mitigated. Fair practices enhance motivation, engagement, and psychological safety, enabling staff to sustain high levels of teaching, research, and administrative performance. Universities should implement transparent policies, ethical leadership, and supportive grievance mechanisms to strengthen organisational justice. Doing so not only buffers the impact of toxic behaviours but also promotes employee well-being, productivity, and institutional effectiveness.

Furthermore, the results show that while gender, age, and qualification did not produce significant differences, marital status, type of institution, and state of origin demonstrated significant variations. Specifically, married academics reported higher susceptibility to bullying and its adverse effects on teaching quality and research productivity, while staff in private universities showed stronger differences in research productivity and community service. Similarly, state of origin significantly influenced perceptions of abusive supervision and its consequent impact on teaching and community service. These findings suggest that demographic

factors shape how academics perceive and respond to toxic workplace behaviours, with institutional and socio-cultural contexts playing a mediating role. This aligns with the findings of Ayoko, Callan, and Härtel (2022), who emphasized that cultural and social backgrounds influence how workplace conflict is perceived and managed, and with Olalekan (2021), who found that institutional type significantly conditions employees' experiences of workplace mistreatment in Nigerian universities. Together, these findings underscore that while toxic workplace behaviours are widespread, their impact on performance is not homogeneous but depends on demographics. The study finds that qualifications do not significantly affect employee performance in universities. Performance is more strongly influenced by individual motivation, teaching effectiveness, research skills, and institutional support rather than formal academic credentials. Key factors such as work ethic, experience, and autonomy in academic roles contribute more significantly to research output, teaching quality, and overall academic contribution than the level of qualification. Universities should prioritize faculty development programs, pedagogical training, and skill enhancement over simply emphasizing qualifications. Evaluating performance through a holistic approach that considers experience, teaching effectiveness, and institutional support will better reflect true employee performance.

4.7 Policy Implications

First, this study advances the application of Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory by demonstrating how toxic workplace behaviours such as ostracism, harassment, bullying, and abusive supervision erode critical psychological resources of academics. COR theory posits that individuals strive to acquire, retain, and protect valuable resources, and when these resources are threatened or lost, stress and diminished functioning follow. The findings show that harassment significantly undermines teaching, research, and community service, while organisational justice

serves as a protective mechanism that replenishes resources and buffers against further depletion. This underscores COR's explanatory power in higher education contexts by illustrating the cyclical process of resource loss and highlighting how fairness perceptions act as a resource reservoir that sustains performance despite adversity.

Second, the study contributes to the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model by situating toxic workplace behaviours within the "job demands" component, which places pressure on employees and drains their energy. Conversely, organisational justice functions as a critical "job resource" that enhances motivation and reduces strain, thereby promoting performance outcomes. The integration of JD-R into the analysis provides a richer understanding of how toxic behaviours, when unchecked, elevate job demands to unsustainable levels, while fairness interventions supply the necessary resources to maintain teaching quality, research productivity, and community service. This dual application of the JD-R framework adds nuance by showing that resources such as justice not only buffer demands but also enable employees to thrive even in challenging environments.

Finally, by bridging COR Theory and the JD-R model, this study offers a theoretical synergy that advances organisational behaviour literature. The joint framework illustrates that toxic behaviours operate as both resource-depleting stressors (COR lens) and excessive job demands (JD-R lens), while organisational justice provides both resource replenishment (COR lens) and motivational job resources (JD-R lens). This integrated perspective deepens theoretical understanding by showing that employee performance is not merely about avoiding resource loss but also about enabling continuous access to resources that support resilience and adaptability. The study therefore enriches theory by showing how resource-based and demand-resource

models complement one another in explaining the dynamics of toxic workplace behaviour and performance in academic settings.

4.8 Practical Implications

First, the findings have clear implications for university management and administrators, who must recognise the significant harm that harassment, bullying, ostracism, and abusive supervision inflict on employee performance. Since harassment emerged as the most consistent predictor of reduced teaching, research, and community service outcomes, management should prioritise proactive policies to detect, address, and eliminate such behaviours. Establishing confidential reporting systems, providing whistle-blower protection, and enforcing sanctions against perpetrators would help create a healthier academic environment. This will not only reduce the depletion of psychological resources but also enhance teaching quality and research productivity, thereby improving the overall institutional reputation.

Second, the results underscore the importance of organisational justice as a strategic resource. The fact that justice mediated the relationship between toxic workplace behaviours and performance implies that fairness perceptions in promotion, workload allocation, and conflict resolution can buffer the negative effects of toxicity. Universities should therefore invest in transparent governance structures, equitable workload distribution, and clear communication of performance expectations. By embedding fairness into institutional culture, management can strengthen employees' resilience, reduce turnover intentions, and foster sustained engagement in teaching, research, and community service.

Finally, the study has implications for policy makers and professional associations in the higher education sector. Regulatory bodies such as the National Universities Commission (NUC) can

adopt frameworks that mandate the implementation of workplace well-being and justice policies across both public and private universities. Furthermore, professional development programmes can be tailored to train academic leaders on inclusive leadership, conflict management, and supportive supervision. Such sector-wide interventions will not only safeguard employee well-being but also contribute to national goals of improving higher education quality, research outputs, and community impact.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the relationship among toxic workplace behaviour, organisational justice, and employee performance of academics in selected universities in Edo and Delta states. The study adopted a survey research design. This chapter section presents the summary of findings, conclusion, recommendations, and contributions to knowledge.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The following constitute the main findings of the study:

1. Workplace ostracism showed no significant direct effect on teaching quality, research productivity, or community service, suggesting that being ignored or excluded does not

independently undermine employee performance among academics in the sampled universities.

2. Workplace bullying had largely insignificant effects on employee performance dimensions, indicating that bullying behaviours, though harmful, did not directly predict reduced teaching, research, or service outcomes in this study's context.
3. Employee harassment significantly reduced teaching quality, research productivity, and community service, making it the most consistent and damaging toxic workplace behaviour affecting academic staff performance.
4. Abusive supervision had mixed effects: while it did not significantly reduce teaching quality, it significantly influenced research productivity and community service, suggesting that certain supervisory behaviours can paradoxically motivate or pressure staff toward output.
5. Organisational justice partially mediated the relationship between toxic workplace behaviours and employee performance, confirming that fairness in processes and treatment can buffer or reduce the negative impact of toxic behaviours on teaching, research, and service outcomes.
6. While marital status, institution type, and state of origin showed significant variations, gender, age, and qualification did not significantly influence the relationship between toxic workplace behaviour and employee performance, indicating that demographics factors shape how academics experience and respond to toxic workplace behaviours.

5.2 Limitations of the Study

The following pose as limitations of the study:

1. **Geographical scope limitation:** The study was limited to private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria, which may restrict the generalizability of findings to other regions or higher education systems. To reduce this limitation, the study ensured inclusion of both private and public universities within the two states, thereby capturing diverse institutional contexts that provide a balanced representation.
2. **Self-reported data bias:** The study relied heavily on self-administered questionnaires, which may be subject to social desirability bias or inaccurate self-assessment by respondents. To address this, the instrument was carefully designed to ensure anonymity and confidentiality, encouraging honest responses, while validated measurement scales were used to improve reliability and validity.
3. **Cross-sectional research design:** The study adopted a cross-sectional design, which limits the ability to establish causality between toxic workplace behaviours, organisational justice, and employee performance. To mitigate this limitation, robust statistical techniques such as Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) were employed to strengthen causal inferences, and findings were interpreted in line with existing theoretical and empirical evidence.

5.3 Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between toxic workplace behavioursnamely workplace ostracism, bullying, harassment, and abusive supervisionand employee performance among academics in selected private and public universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria, with organisational justice as a mediating variable. The findings revealed that while some toxic

behaviours had limited or non-significant direct effects on performance, harassment consistently emerged as the most damaging, significantly undermining teaching quality, research productivity, and community service. This underscores the pervasive and disruptive nature of harassment in academic environments.

Furthermore, the study found that workplace ostracism and bullying, though theoretically linked to performance decline, did not directly predict academic performance in this context. This suggests that these behaviours may manifest more subtly and require longer exposure to significantly erode productivity. Conversely, abusive supervision produced mixed effects, with results indicating that while it was detrimental in some cases, it appeared to motivate productivity in others, reflecting the complex nature of supervisor-subordinate dynamics within academic settings.

The introduction of organisational justice as a mediating variable provided deeper insights into the relationships. The results showed that organisational justice partially mediated the links between toxic behaviours and employee performance, particularly in cases of harassment and abusive supervision. This indicates that when employees perceive fairness in processes and decision-making, the harmful effects of toxic workplace behaviours on performance can be reduced. It reinforces the critical role of justice mechanisms in buffering against toxic cultures.

Furthermore, the finding demonstrates that the impact of toxic workplace behaviours on employee performance is not uniformly experienced but varies according to certain demographic and contextual factors such as marital status, institution type, and state of origin. This suggests that individual and institutional characteristics mediate how academics perceive and respond to workplace mistreatment, highlighting the need for context-sensitive interventions and policies

that address the unique vulnerabilities of different demographic groups within the university system.

Theoretically, this study contributes to the understanding of workplace dynamics by applying the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory and the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model to academic contexts. COR theory helps explain how toxic behaviours deplete vital psychological and emotional resources, while the JD-R model clarifies how resource availability and fairness can mitigate strain and sustain performance. Together, these frameworks offer a holistic explanation of why some toxic behaviours have direct impacts while others require mediating structures like justice to influence outcomes.

Hence, this study highlights that while not all forms of toxic workplace behaviour directly predict reduced performance, harassment remains a critical concern requiring urgent institutional intervention. Moreover, fostering organisational justice can significantly protect and sustain employee performance despite the presence of toxic behaviours. Therefore, universities must strategically implement fairness-enhancing policies, grievance mechanisms, and supportive leadership practices to mitigate the effects of toxic workplace behaviours and create an environment conducive to academic excellence.

5.4 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, the following are recommended:

1. **Implement strict anti-harassment policies and enforcement mechanisms:** Since harassment was found to significantly undermine teaching, research, and community service, universities should establish and enforce clear anti-harassment policies. This can be done by setting up independent grievance redress units, confidential reporting systems,

and disciplinary frameworks that ensure perpetrators are sanctioned and victims are protected.

2. **Promote organisational justice through transparent processes:** As organisational justice was shown to partially mediate the effects of toxic workplace behaviours, universities should strengthen fairness in decision-making, promotions, workload allocation, and resource distribution. This can be achieved through participatory governance structures, clear communication of policies, and impartial performance evaluations.
3. **Develop leadership training and accountability mechanisms:** Given the mixed role of abusive supervision in influencing performance, academic institutions should provide training for leaders and supervisors on ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and conflict management. Establishing accountability frameworks, such as 360-degree feedback and periodic leadership evaluations, will ensure supervisors foster supportive rather than toxic relationships.
4. **Establish workplace wellness and support programmes:** To counter the depletion of psychological resources explained by COR theory, universities should introduce employee assistance programmes (EAPs), mental health counselling, stress management workshops, and mentorship opportunities. These initiatives will help academics build resilience and cope with the effects of ostracism, bullying, and other toxic behaviours.
5. **Foster a culture of inclusivity and collegiality:** Since ostracism and bullying may exert long-term, subtle effects, institutions should actively promote collegial engagement through team-based projects, recognition of collaborative efforts, and structured mentoring for early-career academics. Encouraging a culture of mutual respect,

inclusivity, and shared academic goals will reduce toxic interactions and enhance collective productivity.

6. **Design and implementation of context-specific interventions:** Implementation of context-specific interventions such as targeted counselling, mentoring, and institutional policies that account for demographic differences (e.g., marital status, institution type, and state of origin) can help to ensure fair treatment and reduce the disproportionate impact of toxic workplace behaviours on certain groups of academics.

5.5 Contribution to Knowledge

This study advances organisational behaviour literature by extending the JD–R model through the integration of organisational justice as a key mediating mechanism linking toxic workplace behaviours to employee performance in academic settings. Using evidence from public and private universities in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria, it provides context-specific insights from an underrepresented higher education environment and demonstrates that the effects of toxic workplace behaviours vary across socio-demographic and institutional characteristics. The study further contributes theoretically by applying Conservation of Resources (COR) theory to academia, showing how toxic behaviours deplete academics' psychological resources and undermine teaching, research, and service performance. Practically, the findings emphasise the need for ethical workplace practices, fair allocation of responsibilities, and values-driven management aligned with universities' mission to enhance staff productivity and institutional effectiveness.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Department of Human Resource Management
Faculty of Management Sciences
University of Benin, Benin City

Dear Respondent,

REQUEST FOR QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION

I am Mary Shadrach Omofowa, a Ph.D. candidate in the above-mentioned department. I kindly request your cooperation in filling out this questionnaire related to the theme "Toxic workplace behaviour, Organisational Justice and Employee Performance of Academics in Selected Universities in Edo and Delta States." Please answer the statements by marking the provided spaces. Your name or identity is not necessary. Rest assured; the information provided will solely be utilised for this research. Thank you.

Mary Shadrach Omofowa,
 Researcher/Project student

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Gender: Male (); Female ()
2. Age: less than 35 years old (); 36-55years old (); 56 years old and above ()
3. Marital status: Married (), Single (), Divorce ()
4. Qualification: Bachelor's degree (), Masters' degree (), Doctorate degree ()
5. Status: Professor (); Associate professor (); Senior lecturer (); Lecturer 1 (); Lecturer 2 (); Assistant lecturer ()
6. Institution: Public University (), Private University ()
7. State of origin: Delta (), Edo ()
8. Tribe (please indicate)_____

SECTION B: Please kindly indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about you and your company. Indicate the extent at which you agree or disagree to the following statements. **Keys: Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), Strongly disagree (SD)**

S/N	Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
		5	4	3	2	1

<i>Ostracism</i>						
9	My colleagues ignore me at work.					
10	I notice that some information concerning my work are often hidden from me by my colleagues					
11	My greetings have gone unanswered at work.					
12	I am excluded from work-related activities.					
<i>Harassment</i>						
13	A colleague or superior has made unwanted sexual comments or jokes at me					
14	I have received unwanted touching, patting, or physical contact at work.					
15	I have felt pressured into a romantic or sexual relationship at work.					
16	I have been threatened with job consequences for rejecting advances.					
<i>Bullying</i>						
17	Someone at work has persistently criticized my work or performance.					
18	I have been the subject of gossip or rumors at work.					
19	I have felt excluded from social activities at work.					
20	I have been given unreasonable deadlines or workload pressures.					
<i>Abusive supervision</i>						
21	My supervisor ridicules me in front of others.					
22	My supervisor invades my privacy.					
23	My supervisor reminds me of my past mistakes and failures.					
24	My supervisor uses inappropriate language at me.					
<i>Organisational justice</i>						
25	Established policies and procedures are consistently followed when addressing complaints or grievances.					
26	I believe that the outcomes of decisions (e.g., sanctions, recognitions) reflect a fair evaluation of the situation.					
27	I am treated with dignity and respect when workplace issues are being addressed.					
28	Supervisors communicate decisions in a clear, honest, and considerate manner, even during conflict situations.					
<i>Teaching Quality</i>						
29	I design and deliver course content that aligns with current academic standards and student learning needs.					
23	I employ diverse and appropriate teaching methodologies to enhance student understanding and engagement.					
31	I regularly assess student performance using fair and					

	effective evaluation techniques.					
32	I am proficient in the use of digital tools and platforms for instructional delivery.					
<i>Research productivity</i>						
33	I consistently publish scholarly articles in peer-reviewed journals relevant to my field of study.					
34	I actively seek and secure research grants to support my academic research activities.					
35	I participate in academic conferences to present my research findings and network with peers.					
36	I collaborate with national or international researchers to improve the quality and impact of my research outputs.					
<i>Community service activities</i>						
37	I am involved in university or community-based development projects aimed at solving societal problems.					
38	I provide extension services based on my academic expertise to external communities.					
39	I contribute to national development initiatives through public lectures					
40	I actively participate in professional bodies and contribute to their activities or publications.					

Appendix II

Universities in Edo State Academic Staff

S/N	UNIVERSITIES	TOTAL
1	University of Benin	1854

2	Ambrose Alli University	1710
3	Edo University, Iyamoh	199
4	Benson Idahosa University	222
5	Igbinedion University, Okada	248
6	Well Spring University	118
7	Light House University	90
8	Glorious Vision Univeristy	50
9	Mudiamen University, Irrua	37

Universities in Delta State Academic Staff

S/N	UNIVERSITIES	TOTAL
1	Delta State University, Abraka	1280
2	Dennis Osadebe University	100
3	Federal University of Petroleum Resources	185
4	Novena University	100
5	Western Delta University	64
6	Edwin Clark University	89
7	Michael & Cecillia Ibru University	42
8	Nigeria Maritime University	34
9	Margret Lawrence University	22
10	Sport University	27
11	University of Delta, Agbor	140
12	Admiralty University	115
13	Delta State University of Science & Technology,	173

Appendix II: Reliability Results

Reliability

[DataSet0]

Scale: ALL VARIABLES
RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES= VAR00007 VAR00008 VAR00009 VAR00010

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.802	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00011 VAR00012 VAR00013 VAR00014

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.853	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00015 VAR00016 VAR00017 VAR00018

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items

.791	4
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RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00019 VAR00020 VAR00021 VAR00022

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.866	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00023 VAR00024 VAR00025 VAR00026

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.761	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00027 VAR00028 VAR00029 VAR00030

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.778	4

Frequencies

Frequency Table

VAR00001

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	1	.3	.3	.3
Valid 1.00	178	58.4	58.4	58.7
2.00	126	41.3	41.3	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00002

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	33	10.8	10.8	10.8
2.00	224	73.4	73.4	84.3
3.00	48	15.7	15.7	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00003

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	252	82.6	82.6	82.6
2.00	35	11.5	11.5	94.1
3.00	18	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00004

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.00	2	.7	.7	.7
Valid 1.00	10	3.3	3.3	3.9
2.00	113	37.0	37.0	41.0
3.00	179	58.7	58.7	99.7
6.00	1	.3	.3	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00005

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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	1.00	20	6.6	6.6	6.6
	2.00	32	10.5	10.5	17.0
	3.00	61	20.0	20.0	37.0
Valid	4.00	67	22.0	22.0	59.0
	5.00	47	15.4	15.4	74.4
	6.00	78	25.6	25.6	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00006

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	145	47.5	47.5	47.5
Valid	2.00	160	52.5	52.5	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00007

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	126	41.3	41.3	41.3
Valid	2.00	179	58.7	58.7	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00008

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	138	45.2	45.2	45.2
	2.00	99	32.5	32.5	77.7
	3.00	33	10.8	10.8	88.5
	4.00	14	4.6	4.6	93.1
	5.00	4	1.3	1.3	94.4
Valid	6.00	2	.7	.7	95.1
	7.00	6	2.0	2.0	97.0
	8.00	1	.3	.3	97.4
	10.00	2	.7	.7	98.0
	11.00	2	.7	.7	98.7
	12.00	1	.3	.3	99.0
	13.00	1	.3	.3	99.3

15.00	1	.3	.3	99.7
16.00	1	.3	.3	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00009

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	72	23.6	23.6	23.6
2.00	73	23.9	23.9	47.5
3.00	36	11.8	11.8	59.3
4.00	91	29.8	29.8	89.2
5.00	33	10.8	10.8	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00010

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	80	26.2	26.2	26.2
2.00	85	27.9	27.9	54.1
3.00	53	17.4	17.4	71.5
4.00	57	18.7	18.7	90.2
5.00	30	9.8	9.8	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00011

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	86	28.2	28.2	28.2
2.00	87	28.5	28.5	56.7
3.00	40	13.1	13.1	69.8
4.00	60	19.7	19.7	89.5
5.00	32	10.5	10.5	100.0
Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00012

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Valid	1.00	104	34.1	34.1	34.1
	2.00	70	23.0	23.0	57.0
	3.00	30	9.8	9.8	66.9
	4.00	67	22.0	22.0	88.9
	5.00	34	11.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00013

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	110	36.1	36.1
	2.00	72	23.6	59.7
	3.00	42	13.8	73.4
	4.00	66	21.6	95.1
	5.00	15	4.9	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00014

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	1	.3	.3
	1.00	119	39.0	39.3
	2.00	70	23.0	62.3
	3.00	35	11.5	73.8
	4.00	54	17.7	91.5
	5.00	26	8.5	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00015

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
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				Percent
Valid	1.00	149	48.9	48.9
	2.00	28	9.2	58.0
	3.00	39	12.8	70.8
	4.00	62	20.3	91.1
	5.00	27	8.9	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00016

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	1	.3	.3
	1.00	83	27.2	27.5
	2.00	83	27.2	54.8
	3.00	35	11.5	66.2
	4.00	80	26.2	92.5
	5.00	23	7.5	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00017

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	51	16.7	16.7
	2.00	66	21.6	38.4
	3.00	73	23.9	62.3
	4.00	93	30.5	92.8
	5.00	22	7.2	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00018

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
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				Percent
	.00	1	.3	.3
	1.00	61	20.0	20.3
	2.00	112	36.7	57.0
Valid	3.00	40	13.1	70.2
	4.00	75	24.6	94.8
	5.00	16	5.2	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00019

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	.00	1	.3	.3
	1.00	58	19.0	19.3
	2.00	84	27.5	46.9
Valid	3.00	49	16.1	63.0
	4.00	90	29.5	92.5
	5.00	23	7.5	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00020

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	63	20.7	20.7
	2.00	86	28.2	48.9
Valid	3.00	55	18.0	66.9
	4.00	74	24.3	91.1
	5.00	27	8.9	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00021

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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	.00	1	.3	.3	.3
	1.00	79	25.9	25.9	26.2
	2.00	92	30.2	30.2	56.4
Valid	3.00	47	15.4	15.4	71.8
	4.00	58	19.0	19.0	90.8
	5.00	28	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00022

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	.00	1	.3	.3	.3
	1.00	82	26.9	26.9	27.2
	2.00	90	29.5	29.5	56.7
Valid	3.00	42	13.8	13.8	70.5
	4.00	62	20.3	20.3	90.8
	5.00	28	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00023

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	.00	3	1.0	1.0	1.0
	1.00	83	27.2	27.2	28.2
	2.00	98	32.1	32.1	60.3
Valid	3.00	46	15.1	15.1	75.4
	4.00	45	14.8	14.8	90.2
	5.00	30	9.8	9.8	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00024

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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	1.00	47	15.4	15.4	15.4
	2.00	71	23.3	23.3	38.7
Valid	3.00	56	18.4	18.4	57.0
	4.00	95	31.1	31.1	88.2
	5.00	36	11.8	11.8	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00025

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	10	3.3	3.3	3.3
	2.00	46	15.1	15.1	18.4
	3.00	53	17.4	17.4	35.7
Valid	4.00	133	43.6	43.6	79.3
	5.00	62	20.3	20.3	99.7
	6.00	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00026

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	24	7.9	7.9	7.9
	2.00	48	15.7	15.7	23.6
Valid	3.00	38	12.5	12.5	36.1
	4.00	122	40.0	40.0	76.1
	5.00	73	23.9	23.9	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0	

VAR00027

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
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				Percent
Valid	1.00	28	9.2	9.2
	2.00	49	16.1	25.2
	3.00	45	14.8	40.0
	4.00	128	42.0	82.0
	5.00	55	18.0	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00028

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	18	5.9	5.9
	2.00	21	6.9	12.8
	3.00	47	15.4	28.2
	4.00	127	41.6	69.8
	5.00	92	30.2	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00029

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	19	6.2	6.2
	2.00	24	7.9	14.1
	3.00	28	9.2	23.3
	4.00	125	41.0	64.3
	5.00	109	35.7	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00030

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
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				Percent
	1.00	9	3.0	3.0
	2.00	13	4.3	7.2
	3.00	35	11.5	18.7
Valid	4.00	135	44.3	63.0
	5.00	110	36.1	99.0
	6.00	3	1.0	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00031

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	21	6.9	6.9
	2.00	27	8.9	15.7
Valid	3.00	41	13.4	29.2
	4.00	123	40.3	69.5
	5.00	93	30.5	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00032

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	25	8.2	8.2
	2.00	23	7.5	15.7
Valid	3.00	37	12.1	27.9
	4.00	133	43.6	71.5
	5.00	87	28.5	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00033

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
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				Percent
	1.00	32	10.5	10.5
	2.00	49	16.1	26.6
	3.00	64	21.0	47.5
Valid	4.00	105	34.4	82.0
	5.00	54	17.7	99.7
	6.00	1	.3	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00034

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	36	11.8	11.8
	2.00	60	19.7	31.5
Valid	3.00	64	21.0	52.5
	4.00	104	34.1	86.6
	5.00	41	13.4	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00035

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1.00	33	10.8	10.8
	2.00	62	20.3	31.1
Valid	3.00	56	18.4	49.5
	4.00	109	35.7	85.2
	5.00	45	14.8	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00036

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
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				Percent
Valid	1.00	33	10.8	10.8
	2.00	48	15.7	26.6
	3.00	62	20.3	46.9
	4.00	119	39.0	85.9
	5.00	43	14.1	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00037

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	28	9.2	9.2
	2.00	42	13.8	23.0
	3.00	75	24.6	47.5
	4.00	109	35.7	83.3
	5.00	51	16.7	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00038

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	1	.3	.3
	1.00	26	8.5	8.9
	2.00	26	8.5	17.4
	3.00	72	23.6	41.0
	4.00	131	43.0	83.9
	5.00	49	16.1	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00039

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
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				Percent
Valid	1.00	17	5.6	5.6
	2.00	31	10.2	15.7
	3.00	66	21.6	37.4
	4.00	130	42.6	80.0
	5.00	61	20.0	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

VAR00040

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	18	5.9	5.9
	2.00	137	44.9	50.8
	3.00	84	27.5	78.4
	4.00	43	14.1	92.5
	5.00	23	7.5	100.0
	Total	305	100.0	100.0

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
VAR00001	305	.00	2.00	1.4098	.49924
VAR00002	305	1.00	3.00	2.0492	.51383
VAR00003	305	1.00	3.00	1.2328	.54553
VAR00004	305	.00	6.00	2.5541	.62660
VAR00005	305	1.00	6.00	4.0590	1.54636
VAR00006	305	1.00	2.00	1.5246	.50022
VAR00007	305	1.00	11.00	2.9180	2.58599
VAR00008	305	1.00	16.00	2.2000	2.10326
VAR00009	305	1.00	5.00	2.8033	1.37194
VAR00010	305	1.00	5.00	2.5803	1.31824
VAR00011	305	1.00	5.00	2.5574	1.35633
VAR00012	305	1.00	5.00	2.5311	1.43035
VAR00013	305	1.00	5.00	2.3574	1.29783
VAR00014	305	.00	5.00	2.3279	1.37555
VAR00015	305	1.00	5.00	2.3115	1.46158
VAR00016	305	.00	5.00	2.5869	1.33765
VAR00017	305	1.00	5.00	2.8984	1.21375

VAR00018	305	.00	5.00	2.5738	1.21475
VAR00019	305	.00	5.00	2.7803	1.27254
VAR00020	305	1.00	5.00	2.7246	1.27845
VAR00021	305	.00	5.00	2.5443	1.31246
VAR00022	305	.00	5.00	2.5443	1.32988
VAR00023	305	.00	5.00	2.4492	1.31972
VAR00024	305	1.00	5.00	3.0066	1.27989
VAR00025	305	1.00	6.00	3.6361	1.07698
VAR00026	305	1.00	5.00	3.5639	1.23145
VAR00027	305	1.00	5.00	3.4361	1.21802
VAR00028	305	1.00	5.00	3.8328	1.11283
VAR00029	305	1.00	5.00	3.9213	1.15010
VAR00030	305	1.00	6.00	4.0918	.97236
VAR00031	305	1.00	5.00	3.7869	1.17141
VAR00032	305	1.00	5.00	3.7672	1.18165
VAR00033	305	1.00	6.00	3.3377	1.24633
VAR00034	305	1.00	5.00	3.1770	1.23336
VAR00035	305	1.00	5.00	3.2328	1.23873
VAR00036	305	1.00	5.00	3.2984	1.20832
VAR00037	305	1.00	5.00	3.3705	1.18257
VAR00038	305	.00	5.00	3.4852	1.13871
VAR00039	305	1.00	5.00	3.6131	1.08571
VAR00040	305	1.00	5.00	2.7246	1.02737
OST	305	4.00	22.00	10.5016	3.77677
Valid N (listwise)	305				

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson

1	.418 ^a	.175	.164	3.15097	1.557
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a. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism

b. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	630.292	4	157.573	15.871	.000 ^b
	Residual	2978.580	300	9.929		
	Total	3608.872	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardize	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	d Coefficients Beta			Toleranc	VIF
1	(Constant)	19.084	.610		31.274	.000		
	Ostracism	-.063	.067	-.086	-.943	.346	.327	3.055
	Harassment	-.214	.066	-.289	-3.257	.001	.349	2.864
	Bullying	-.088	.066	-.096	-1.335	.183	.527	1.897
	Abusive_sup	.016	.066	.018	.233	.816	.481	2.077

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Abusive sup	Bullying	Harassment	ostracism	
1	Correlations	Abusive_sup	1.000	-.214	.019	-.499

Covariances	Bullying		1.000		
	Harassment	-.214	-.449		
	Ostracism	.019	-.540		
	Abusive_sup	-.499	8.198E-005		
	Bullying	.004	-.002		
	Harassment	-.001	.004		
	Ostracism	8.198E-005	-.002	6.665E-005	

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	12.1999	17.9013	15.5672	1.43991	305
Residual	-11.71752	7.15238	.00000	3.13017	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.339	1.621	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-3.719	2.270	.000	.993	305

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
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1	.369 ^a	.136	.125	3.59245	1.386
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a. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism

b. Dependent Variable: Research

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	609.658	4	152.414	11.810	.000 ^b
	Residual	3871.699	300	12.906		
	Total	4481.357	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	16.027	.696		23.036	.000		
	ostracism	-.121	.076	-.148	-1.575	.116	.327	3.055
	Harassment	-.190	.075	-.230	-2.533	.012	.349	2.864
	Bullying	-.135	.075	-.133	-1.797	.073	.527	1.897
	Abusive_sup	.150	.076	.153	1.980	.049	.481	2.077

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Abusive sup	Bullying	Harassment	ostracism	
1	Correlations	Abusive_sup	1.000	-.214	.019	-.499
		Bullying	-.214	1.000	-.449	.015
		Harassment	.019	-.449	1.000	-.540
		Ostracism	-.499	.015	-.540	1.000
1	Covariances	Abusive_sup	.006	-.001	.000	-.003
		Bullying	-.001	.006	-.003	8.664E-005
		Harassment	.000	-.003	.006	-.003
		Ostracism	-.003	8.664E-005	-.003	.006

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	9.7903	16.9442	13.0459	1.41614	305

Residual	-8.66441	8.85877	.00000	3.56873	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.299	2.753	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-2.412	2.466	.000	.993	305

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.275 ^a	.076	.063	2.92317	1.282

a. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism

b. Dependent Variable: Community_service

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	210.115	4	52.529	6.147	.000 ^b
	Residual	2563.472	300	8.545		
	Total	2773.587	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Bullying, Harassment, ostracism

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics
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	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	13.670	.566		24.148	.000		
1 ostracism	.030	.062	.047	.487	.627	.327	3.055
Harassment	-.205	.061	-.316	-3.366	.001	.349	2.864
Bullying	-.049	.061	-.062	-.808	.420	.527	1.897
Abusive_su p	.163	.062	.211	2.641	.009	.481	2.077

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Abusive_sup	Bullying	Harassment	ostracism	
1	Correlations	Abusive_sup	1.000	-.214	.019	-.499
		Bullying	-.214	1.000	-.449	.015
		Harassment	.019	-.449	1.000	-.540
		Ostracism	-.499	.015	-.540	1.000
1	Covariances	Abusive_sup	.004	-.001	7.055E-005	-.002
		Bullying	-.001	.004	-.002	5.736E-005
		Harassment	7.055E-005	-.002	.004	-.002
		Ostracism	-.002	5.736E-005	-.002	.004

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	10.3294	16.1940	13.1934	.83137	305
Residual	-8.07026	7.67061	.00000	2.90387	305
Std. Predicted Value	-3.445	3.609	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-2.761	2.624	.000	.993	305

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables	Variables	Method
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	Entered	Removed	
1	Organisation_justice, ostracism ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.605 ^a	.366	.362	2.75200	1.642

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organisation_justice, ostracism

b. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1321.678	2	660.839	87.257	.000 ^b
	Residual	2287.195	302	7.573		
	Total	3608.872	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organisation_justice, ostracism

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	11.295	.742		15.215	.000		
	Ostracism	-.231	.034	-.316	-6.884	.000	.997	1.003
	Organisation_justice	.463	.043	.499	10.877	.000	.997	1.003

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model	Organisation_justice	Ostracism

1	Correlations	Organisation_justice	1.000	.055
		Ostracism	.055	1.000
	Covariances	Organisation_justice	.002	7.906E-005
		Ostracism	7.906E-005	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	ostracism	Organisation_justice
1	1	2.840	1.000	.01	.02	.01
1	2	.133	4.625	.02	.82	.13
	3	.027	10.187	.97	.16	.86

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	9.9091	19.6218	15.5672	2.08510	305
Residual	-8.99718	6.85373	.00000	2.74293	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.714	1.945	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-3.269	2.490	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Organisation_justice, ostracism ^b	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
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1	.484 ^a	.234	.229	3.37194	1.494
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a. Predictors: (Constant), Organisation_justice, ostracism

b. Dependent Variable: Research

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1047.622	2	523.811	46.070	.000 ^b
	Residual	3433.735	302	11.370		
	Total	4481.357	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organisation_justice, ostracism

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	9.461	.910		10.402	.000		
	Ostracism	-.215	.041	-.264	-5.233	.000	.997	1.003
	Organisation_justice	.404	.052	.391	7.745	.000	.997	1.003

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Organisation_justice	ostracism
1	Correlations		
		Organisation_justice	1.000
		Ostracism	.055
	Covariances		
		Organisation_justice	.003
		Ostracism	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions
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				(Constant)	ostracism	Organisation_justice
1	1	2.840	1.000	.01	.02	.01
1	2	.133	4.625	.02	.82	.13
	3	.027	10.187	.97	.16	.86

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.0613	16.6717	13.0459	1.85637	305
Residual	-10.11501	9.03254	.00000	3.36083	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.685	1.953	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-3.000	2.679	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Organisation_justice, ostracism ^b	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.513 ^a	.263	.258	2.60148	1.527

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organisation_justice, ostracism

b. Dependent Variable: Community_service

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	729.744	2	364.872	53.914	.000 ^b

Residual	2043.843	302	6.768	
Total	2773.587	304		

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organisation_justice, ostracism

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	7.534	.702	10.736	.000		
	Ostracism	-.030	.032	-.950	.343	.997	1.003
	Organisation_justice	.413	.040	10.272	.000	.997	1.003

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Organisation_justice	ostracism
1	Correlations	Organisation_justice	1.000
		Ostracism	.055
	Covariances	Organisation_justice	.002
		Ostracism	7.065E-005

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	ostracism	Organisation_justice
1	1	2.840	1.000	.01	.02	.01
	2	.133	4.625	.02	.82	.13
	3	.027	10.187	.97	.16	.86

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.7637	15.6729	13.1934	1.54935	305

Residual	-7.04184	7.36875	.00000	2.59291	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.859	1.600	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-2.707	2.833	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Harassment, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.602 ^a	.362	.358	2.76030	1.660

a. Predictors: (Constant), Harassment, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1307.852	2	653.926	85.825	.000 ^b
	Residual	2301.020	302	7.619		
	Total	3608.872	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. Predictors: (Constant), Harassment, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	11.746	.786		14.944	.000		
	Organisation_justice	.419	.044	.452	9.635	.000	.959	1.043
	Harassment	-.234	.035	-.316	-6.730	.000	.959	1.043

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Harassment	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations	Harassment	.204
		Organisation_justice	1.000
1	Covariances	Harassment	.001
		Organisation_justice	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Harassment
1	1	2.813	1.000	.00	.01	.02
1	2	.162	4.165	.01	.11	.73
1	3	.025	10.688	.98	.88	.25

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	10.3301	19.1929	15.5672	2.07416	305
Residual	-9.28211	5.84831	.00000	2.75121	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.525	1.748	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-3.363	2.119	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Harassment, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.484 ^a	.235	.230	3.37014	1.482

a. Predictors: (Constant), Harassment, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Research

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1051.292	2	525.646	46.281	.000 ^b
	Residual	3430.065	302	11.358		
	Total	4481.357	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. Predictors: (Constant), Harassment, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	9.956	.960		10.375	.000		
	Organisation_justice	.362	.053	.350	6.810	.000	.959	1.043
	Harassment	-.224	.042	-.271	-5.267	.000	.959	1.043

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Harassment	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations	Harassment	1.000
		Organisation_justice	.204
	Covariances	Harassment	.002
		Organisation_justice	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Harassment
1	1	2.813	1.000	.00	.01	.02
	2	.162	4.165	.01	.11	.73
	3	.025	10.688	.98	.88	.25

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.4092	16.2957	13.0459	1.85962	305
Residual	-9.69692	8.04490	.00000	3.35903	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.493	1.748	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-2.877	2.387	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Harassment, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.521 ^a	.271	.266	2.58754	1.537

a. Predictors: (Constant), Harassment, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Community_service

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	751.588	2	375.794	56.127	.000 ^b
	Residual	2021.999	302	6.695		
	Total	2773.587	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. Predictors: (Constant), Harassment, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	8.072	.737		10.955	.000		
	Organisation_justice	.398	.041	.490	9.762	.000	.959	1.043
	Harassment	-.067	.033	-.103	-2.043	.042	.959	1.043

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Harassment	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations	Harassment	.204
		Organisation_justice	1.000
	Covariances	Harassment	.001
		Organisation_justice	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Harassment
1	1	2.813	1.000	.00	.01	.02
	2	.162	4.165	.01	.11	.73
	3	.025	10.688	.98	.88	.25

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.7980	15.7676	13.1934	1.57236	305
Residual	-7.30666	7.28195	.00000	2.57901	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.795	1.637	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-2.824	2.814	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Bullying, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.550 ^a	.303	.298	2.88621	1.485

a. Predictors: (Constant), Bullying, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1093.142	2	546.571	65.613	.000 ^b
	Residual	2515.731	302	8.330		
	Total	3608.872	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

b. Predictors: (Constant), Bullying, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	11.358	.956		11.875	.000		
	Organisation_justice	.427	.046	.461	9.216	.000	.922	1.085
	Bullying	-.180	.046	-.198	-3.956	.000	.922	1.085

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Bullying	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations	Bullying	1.000
		Organisation_justice	.280
	Covariances	Bullying	.002
		Organisation_justice	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Bullying
1	1	2.872	1.000	.00	.01	.01
	2	.109	5.138	.00	.21	.52
	3	.019	12.191	.99	.78	.47

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	9.8275	19.1878	15.5672	1.89628	305
Residual	-9.36265	6.85499	.00000	2.87670	305
Std. Predicted Value	-3.027	1.909	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-3.244	2.375	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Teach_Qual

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Bullying, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.444 ^a	.197	.192	3.45195	1.363

a. Predictors: (Constant), Bullying, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Research

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	882.738	2	441.369	37.040	.000 ^b
	Residual	3598.619	302	11.916		
	Total	4481.357	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. Predictors: (Constant), Bullying, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	9.870	1.144		8.628	.000		
Organisation_justice	.364	.055	.353	6.567	.000	.922	1.085
Bullying	-.191	.054	-.188	-3.507	.001	.922	1.085

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Bullying	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations		
		Bullying	Organisation_justice
1	Covariances		
		Bullying	Organisation_justice

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Bullying
1	1	2.872	1.000	.00	.01	.01
1	2	.109	5.138	.00	.21	.52
1	3	.019	12.191	.99	.78	.47

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	7.8917	16.3926	13.0459	1.70404	305
Residual	-10.70963	8.74245	.00000	3.44058	305
Std. Predicted Value	-3.025	1.964	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-3.102	2.533	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Regression

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.596 ^a	.356	.351	2.77492

a. Predictors: (Constant), organisational_justice, abusive

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1283.421	2	641.711	83.337	.000 ^b
	Residual	2325.451	302	7.700		
	Total	3608.872	304			

a. Dependent Variable: teaching

b. Predictors: (Constant), organisational_justice, abusive

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	11.099	.745		14.907	.000
	abusive	-.263	.041	-.299	-6.453	.000
	organisational_justice	.500	.043	.540	11.648	.000

a. Dependent Variable: teaching

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Bullying, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.511 ^a	.261	.256	2.60526	1.511

a. Predictors: (Constant), Bullying, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Community_service

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	723.803	2	361.901	53.320	.000 ^b
	Residual	2049.784	302	6.787		
	Total	2773.587	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. Predictors: (Constant), Bullying, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	7.090	.863		8.212	.000		
	Organisation_justice	.417	.042	.513	9.958	.000	.922	1.085
	Bullying	.006	.041	.008	.158	.875	.922	1.085

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Bullying	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations	Bullying	.280
		Organisation_justice	.280
	Covariances	Bullying	.002
		Organisation_justice	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Bullying
1	1	2.872	1.000	.00	.01	.01
	2	.109	5.138	.00	.21	.52
	3	.019	12.191	.99	.78	.47

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.8288	15.5581	13.1934	1.54303	305
Residual	-7.24242	7.43829	.00000	2.59667	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.829	1.532	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-2.780	2.855	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Abusive_sup, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.444 ^a	.197	.192	3.45088	1.419

a. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Research

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	884.976	2	442.488	37.157	.000 ^b
	Residual	3596.381	302	11.909		
	Total	4481.357	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Research

b. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	8.663	.926		9.357	.000		
	Organisation_justice	.433	.053	.419	8.113	.000	.994	1.006
	Abusive_sup	-.179	.051	-.183	-3.534	.000	.994	1.006

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Abusive_sup	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations	Abusive_sup	1.000
		Organisation_justice	-.077
	Covariances	Abusive_sup	.003
		Organisation_justice	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Abusive_sup
1	1	2.881	1.000	.01	.01	.01
	2	.091	5.632	.03	.20	.85
	3	.028	10.070	.97	.79	.14

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.9650	16.6136	13.0459	1.70620	305
Residual	-10.56982	8.58601	.00000	3.43951	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.392	2.091	.000	1.000	305
wStd. Residual	-3.063	2.488	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Research

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Abusive_sup, Organisation_justice ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.511 ^a	.261	.256	2.60529	1.514

a. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Organisation_justice

b. Dependent Variable: Community_service

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	723.753	2	361.876	53.315	.000 ^b
	Residual	2049.834	302	6.788		
	Total	2773.587	304			

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

b. Predictors: (Constant), Abusive_sup, Organisation_justice

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	7.235	.699		10.350	.000		
	Organisation_justice	.415	.040	.511	10.305	.000	.994	1.006
	Abusive_sup	-.005	.038	-.007	-.133	.895	.994	1.006

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		Abusive_sup	Organisation_justice
1	Correlations	Abusive_sup	1.000
		Organisation_justice	-.077
	Covariances	Abusive_sup	.001
		Organisation_justice	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Organisation_justice	Abusive_sup
1	1	2.881	1.000	.01	.01	.01
	2	.091	5.632	.03	.20	.85
	3	.028	10.070	.97	.79	.14

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.8565	15.5248	13.1934	1.54297	305
Residual	-7.27325	7.38368	.00000	2.59670	305
Std. Predicted Value	-2.811	1.511	.000	1.000	305
Std. Residual	-2.792	2.834	.000	.997	305

a. Dependent Variable: Community_service

Correlations

		abusive	ostracism	Harrassment	Bullying
Abusive	Pearson Correlation	1	.701**	.566**	.523**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	305	305	305	305
Ostracism	Pearson Correlation	.701**	1	.748**	.550**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	305	305	305	305
Harrassment	Pearson Correlation	.566**	.748**	1	.664**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	305	305	305	305
Bullying	Pearson Correlation	.523**	.550**	.664**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	305	305	305	305

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

T-Test

Group Statistics

	VAR00001	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Ostracism	1.00	178	10.3315	4.55068	.34109
	2.00	126	10.7222	4.91469	.43784
Harassment	1.00	178	9.8202	4.65793	.34913
	2.00	126	9.2937	4.62699	.41221
Bullying	1.00	178	11.2697	3.75602	.28153
	2.00	126	10.5873	3.81842	.34017
Abusive_sup	1.00	178	10.6461	3.90183	.29245
	2.00	126	10.4206	3.96858	.35355
Organisation_justice	1.00	178	14.4551	3.67473	.27543
	2.00	126	14.4444	3.77265	.33609
Teach_Qual	1.00	178	15.5449	3.64075	.27289
	2.00	126	15.5635	3.15340	.28093
Research	1.00	178	12.9270	4.09357	.30683
	2.00	126	13.1905	3.46575	.30875
Community_service	1.00	178	13.3539	3.14319	.23559
	2.00	126	12.9524	2.84213	.25320

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Ostracism	Equal variances assumed	.923	.337	-.713	302	.476	-.39076	.54775	-1.46864	.68712
	Equal variances not assumed			-.704	256.138	.482	-.39076	.55501	-1.48373	.70221
Harassment	Equal variances assumed	.284	.594	.974	302	.331	.52657	.54081	-.53765	1.59080
	Equal variances not assumed			.975	270.398	.331	.52657	.54019	-.53693	1.59008
Bullying	Equal variances assumed	.063	.801	1.550	302	.122	.68236	.44031	-.18410	1.54883
	Equal variances not assumed			1.545	266.559	.123	.68236	.44156	-.18702	1.55175
Abusive supervision	Equal variances assumed	.114	.736	.493	302	.623	.22543	.45750	-.67486	1.12572
	Equal variances not assumed			.491	266.478	.624	.22543	.45883	-.67797	1.12883
Organizational justice	Equal variances assumed	.227	.634	.025	302	.980	.01061	.43258	-.84064	.86187
	Equal variances not assumed			.024	264.900	.981	.01061	.43454	-.84497	.86620
Teaching quality	Equal variances assumed	1.480	.225	-.046	302	.963	-.01855	.40136	-.80836	.77127
	Equal variances not assumed			-.047	289.903	.962	-.01855	.39165	-.78938	.75228
Research	Equal variances assumed	5.127	.024	-.588	302	.557	-.26351	.44778	-1.14468	.61766
	Equal variances not assumed			-.605	292.404	.545	-.26351	.43528	-1.12019	.59317
Community service	Equal variances assumed	1.032	.311	1.141	302	.255	.40155	.35186	-.29085	1.09396
	Equal variances not assumed			1.161	284.525	.247	.40155	.34585	-.27920	1.08230

not assumed

Oneway

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ostracism	Between Groups	16.824	2	8.412	.378	.686
	Within Groups	6721.189	302	22.256		
	Total	6738.013	304			
Harassment	Between Groups	26.214	2	13.107	.605	.547
	Within Groups	6541.904	302	21.662		
	Total	6568.118	304			
Bullying	Between Groups	44.675	2	22.338	1.562	.211
	Within Groups	4318.164	302	14.299		
	Total	4362.839	304			
Abusive_sup	Between Groups	6.156	2	3.078	.199	.820
	Within Groups	4667.496	302	15.455		
	Total	4673.652	304			
Organisation_justice	Between Groups	14.177	2	7.088	.511	.600
	Within Groups	4185.778	302	13.860		
	Total	4199.954	304			
Teach_Qual	Between Groups	18.108	2	9.054	.761	.468
	Within Groups	3590.764	302	11.890		
	Total	3608.872	304			
Research	Between Groups	66.835	2	33.418	2.286	.103
	Within Groups	4414.522	302	14.618		
	Total	4481.357	304			
Community_service	Between Groups	5.454	2	2.727	.298	.743
	Within Groups	2768.133	302	9.166		
	Total	2773.587	304			

Oneway

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ostracism	Between Groups	77.327	2	38.664	1.753	.175
	Within Groups	6660.686	302	22.055		
	Total	6738.013	304			
Harassment	Between Groups	71.194	2	35.597	1.655	.193
	Within Groups	6496.924	302	21.513		
	Total	6568.118	304			
Bullying	Between Groups	217.443	2	108.722	7.921	.000
	Within Groups	4145.396	302	13.726		
	Total	4362.839	304			
Abusive_sup	Between Groups	36.645	2	18.323	1.193	.305
	Within Groups	4637.007	302	15.354		
	Total	4673.652	304			
Organisation_justice	Between Groups	116.406	2	58.203	4.304	.014
	Within Groups	4083.548	302	13.522		
	Total	4199.954	304			
Teach_Qual	Between Groups	126.994	2	63.497	5.507	.004
	Within Groups	3481.878	302	11.529		
	Total	3608.872	304			
Research	Between Groups	299.262	2	149.631	10.805	.000
	Within Groups	4182.095	302	13.848		
	Total	4481.357	304			
Community_service	Between Groups	9.094	2	4.547	.497	.609
	Within Groups	2764.493	302	9.154		
	Total	2773.587	304			

Oneway

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ostracism	Between Groups	89.526	4	22.381	1.010	.402
	Within Groups	6648.487	300	22.162		
	Total	6738.013	304			
Harassment	Between Groups	39.110	4	9.777	.449	.773
	Within Groups	6529.008	300	21.763		
	Total	6568.118	304			
Bullying	Between Groups	77.495	4	19.374	1.356	.249
	Within Groups	4285.344	300	14.284		
	Total	4362.839	304			
Abusive_sup	Between Groups	46.166	4	11.542	.748	.560
	Within Groups	4627.486	300	15.425		
	Total	4673.652	304			
Organisation_justice	Between Groups	72.082	4	18.021	1.310	.266
	Within Groups	4127.872	300	13.760		
	Total	4199.954	304			
Teach_Qual	Between Groups	46.264	4	11.566	.974	.422
	Within Groups	3562.608	300	11.875		
	Total	3608.872	304			
Research	Between Groups	81.510	4	20.378	1.389	.238
	Within Groups	4399.847	300	14.666		
	Total	4481.357	304			
Community_service	Between Groups	30.796	4	7.699	.842	.499
	Within Groups	2742.790	300	9.143		
	Total	2773.587	304			

Oneway

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ostracism	Between Groups	31.653	5	6.331	.282	.923
	Within Groups	6706.360	299	22.429		
	Total	6738.013	304			
Harassment	Between Groups	42.145	5	8.429	.386	.858
	Within Groups	6525.973	299	21.826		
	Total	6568.118	304			
Bullying	Between Groups	45.255	5	9.051	.627	.679
	Within Groups	4317.584	299	14.440		
	Total	4362.839	304			
Abusive_sup	Between Groups	77.565	5	15.513	1.009	.412
	Within Groups	4596.088	299	15.372		
	Total	4673.652	304			
Organisation_justice	Between Groups	88.980	5	17.796	1.294	.266
	Within Groups	4110.974	299	13.749		
	Total	4199.954	304			
Teach_Qual	Between Groups	131.415	5	26.283	2.260	.049
	Within Groups	3477.457	299	11.630		
	Total	3608.872	304			
Research	Between Groups	241.812	5	48.362	3.411	.005
	Within Groups	4239.546	299	14.179		
	Total	4481.357	304			
Community_service	Between Groups	95.177	5	19.035	2.125	.062
	Within Groups	2678.410	299	8.958		
	Total	2773.587	304			

T-Test

Group Statistics

	VAR00006	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ostracism	1.00	145	10.4414	5.02338	.41717
	2.00	160	10.5000	4.41837	.34930
Harassment	1.00	145	9.6759	5.15035	.42771
	2.00	160	9.5000	4.15577	.32854
Bullying	1.00	145	11.4207	4.10228	.34068
	2.00	160	10.5750	3.44325	.27221
Abusive_sup	1.00	145	10.4690	4.33823	.36027
	2.00	160	10.6125	3.51276	.27771
Organisation_justice	1.00	145	15.1172	3.29246	.27342
	2.00	160	13.8813	3.98325	.31490
Teach_Qual	1.00	145	15.6276	3.78767	.31455
	2.00	160	15.5125	3.11415	.24620
Research	1.00	145	12.9034	4.34505	.36084
	2.00	160	13.1750	3.32430	.26281
Community_service	1.00	145	13.8414	3.06793	.25478
	2.00	160	12.6063	2.86180	.22625

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
ostracism	5.718	.017	-.108	303	.914	-.05862	.54068	-	1.0053
								1.12259	5
Harassment	13.930	.000	.329	303	.742	.17586	.53374	-	1.2261
								.87444	6
			.326	276.79	.745	.17586	.53933	-	1.2375

	variances				1				.88585	8
	not									
	assumed									
	Equal									
	variances	5.903	.016	1.956	303	.051	.84569	.43236	-	1.6965
	assumed								.00512	0
Bullying	Equal									
	variances			1.939	282.34	.053	.84569	.43607	-	1.7040
	not				2				.01268	6
	assumed									
	Equal	13.55								
	variances	0	.000	-.319	303	.750	-	.45024	1.0295	.74245
	assumed						.14353			2
Abusive	Equal									
_sup	variances				277.29					
	not			-.316	9	.753	-	.45488	1.0389	.75192
	assumed						.14353			9
	Equal									
	variances	6.423	.012	2.936	303	.004	1.2359	.42093	.40767	2.0643
	assumed						9			2
Organis	Equal									
ation_ju	variances				300.51					
stice	not			2.964	6	.003	1.2359	.41704	.41530	2.0566
	assumed						9			9
	Equal									
	variances	7.387	.007	.291	303	.771	.11509	.39565	-	.89365
	assumed								.66348	
Teach_	Equal									
Qual	variances				279.48					
	not			.288	2	.773	.11509	.39944	-	.90138
	assumed								.67121	
	Equal									
	variances	13.27	.000	-.616	303	.538	-	.44067	1.1387	.59562
	assumed	9					.27155			2
Researc	Equal									
h	variances				268.79					
	not			-.608	3	.543	-	.44640	1.1504	.60733
	assumed						.27155			3
	Equal									
Commu	variances	.023	.881	3.637	303	.000	1.2351	.33957	.56692	1.9033
nity_ser							3			4

vice	assumed								
	Equal								
	variances								
	not								
	assumed								
		3.625	294.69	.000	1.2351	.34073	.56455	1.9057	
			0		3			1	

T-Test

Group Statistics

	VAR00007	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ostracism	1.00	126	11.1746	4.43455	.39506
	2.00	179	9.8824	5.20854	.56495
Harassment	1.00	126	10.0238	4.41899	.39367
	2.00	179	9.3882	5.14803	.55838
Bullying	1.00	126	10.8730	3.77356	.33618
	2.00	179	11.5529	4.07228	.44170
Abusive_sup	1.00	126	11.0794	3.74935	.33402
	2.00	179	9.9059	4.25559	.46158
Organisation_justice	1.00	126	14.0714	3.88264	.34589
	2.00	179	14.9882	3.42085	.37104
Teach_Qual	1.00	126	15.3571	3.27283	.29157
	2.00	179	15.6000	3.94667	.42808
Research	1.00	126	12.8016	3.74170	.33334
	2.00	179	12.6706	4.20710	.45632
Community_service	1.00	126	12.7857	2.66415	.23734
	2.00	179	13.8235	3.15918	.34266

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig.	Mean	Std.

						(2-tailed)	Difference	Error Difference	Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ostracism	Equal variances assumed	4.845	.029	1.934	209	.054	1.29225	.66823	-.02508	2.60958
	Equal variances not assumed			1.875	160.456	.063	1.29225	.68937	.06917	2.65367
Harassment	Equal variances assumed	5.142	.024	.958	209	.339	.63557	.66328	-.67200	1.94315
	Equal variances not assumed			.930	161.454	.354	.63557	.68321	-.71360	1.98475
Bullying	Equal variances assumed	1.093	.297	-1.243	209	.215	.67993	.54690	1.75807	.39822
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.225	170.954	.222	.67993	.55508	1.77562	.41577
Abusive_sup	Equal variances assumed	4.168	.042	2.111	209	.036	1.17348	.55591	.07756	2.26940
	Equal variances not assumed			2.060	164.664	.041	1.17348	.56976	.04850	2.29846
Organisation_justice	Equal variances assumed	3.116	.079	-1.763	209	.079	.91681	.51989	1.94171	.10810
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.807	194.649	.072	.91681	.50726	1.91724	.08363
Teach_Qual	Equal variances assumed	4.204	.042	-.486	209	.627	.24286	.49955	1.22766	.74194
	Equal variances not assumed			-.469	157.270	.640	.24286	.51794	1.26587	.78016
Research	Equal variances assumed	1.251	.265	.237	209	.813	.13100	.55237	-.95794	1.21994
	Equal variances not assumed			.232	165.833	.817	.13100	.56511	-.98473	1.24673
Community_s	Equal variances assumed	1.593	.208	-2.573	209	.011	1.037	.40331	1.8328	.24274

ervice						82		9		
Equal variances not assumed			-	159.2	.014	-	1.037	.41683	1.8610	-
			2.490	94		82			4	.21459