

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Crime detection and investigation which serve as the bedrock of every criminal case is the central point of the criminal justice system, particularly in an adversarial system of criminal justice which Nigeria operates. In this system of justice, evidences, including testimonial or confessional statements, and other facts are elicited through criminal investigation and documented prior to trial. Hence, criminal investigation is so important to the entire criminal justice system that its delay or careless implementation may lead to deferral in the administration of justice, conviction of the innocent, or setting notorious criminals and actual perpetrators free.

Indeed, report by a former Attorney-General of the Federation in 2006; Chief Bayo Ojo revealed that 17.1% of prison inmates in Nigeria were awaiting trial because investigations into the allegations levelled against them were yet to be completed, 3.7% were incarcerated 'by default' because their investigation case files could not be found, while 7.8% of the inmates' trials were stalled because of the absence in court of police investigators and relevant witnesses. These figures were reported to have doubled by 2010 (Ihenacho, 2010).

Observation has revealed that many police investigators resort to various forms of coercion or force to deliver on the demanding task of crime investigation, an act perceived to be one of the most disturbing/negative but worldwide practices that smear the image of the police and accrue dishonour to the law enforcement agency (Obi-Nwosu, 2016; Bello & Umoru, 2017). In the course of investigations, the police, especially in

developing countries like Nigeria, many a time torture crime suspects so as to elicit forensic information from them. Indeed, there have been speculations of suspects dying in police or prison custody due to complications from torture received in attempts to elicit confessional statements. Interestingly, torture and the use of coercion to extract forensic information has been prescribed in Nigeria, hence the courts order for trial within trial whenever the voluntariness of a confessional statement becomes a fact in issue or a subject for determination.

Investigation officers are expected to be law-abiding: they are expected to adhere to the rules that guide acceptable forensic depositions by suspects. Unfortunately, many a suspect do not confess to their crimes readily thereby inducing pressure on the officers that may motivate resort to 'short-cuts' which in the long run jeopardizes the entire criminal justice process (Ishaya&Ishaya, 2018). It is unequivocal therefore that one of the conditions precedent to the realization of the goals of the criminal justice system is eliciting correct and acceptable forensic information during interrogation of suspects.

It is then appealing to search for factors that inhibit police officers' adherence to the criminal investigation procedure, as well as seek ways to improve officers' adherence to set rules. In this regards, moderating effects of organizational climate on the relationships among occupational self-efficacy, hardiness, and adherence to criminal investigation procedure readily stand out, and command research allure.

Adherence refers to the quality or process of sticking fast to an object, surface, person, cause or belief. In law, adherence defines the behaviour of studious obedience to an agreement, a rule, or a law. Within criminal investigation parlance, adherence may best

be defined as devotion to the laid down processes of identifying or locating the guilty or establishing culpability of a person or persons. Adherence here denotes the extent to which one sticks to the criminal investigation procedure.

Criminal investigation procedure from this understanding depicts precise undertakings, often performed in reaction to unpredictable and still-evolving events with incomplete information to guide the process (Gehl&Plecas, 2016). It further describes a broad term encompassing a wide range of specialties that aim to determine how events occurred, and to establish an evidence-based fact pattern to prove the guilt or innocence of an accused person in a criminal event (Gehl&Plecas, 2016).

Criminal investigation procedure may also be defined as the application of science to answer questions as to 'if, how, where, when, why, and by whom' a crime was committed (Fahsing&Ask, 2013; Oxburgh, Myklebust& Grant, 2010). It involves the study of facts used to identify, locate and prove the guilt of an accused. It is often organized into two main parts: preliminary investigation conducted by uniformed police officers, and follow -up investigation performed by trained personnel (detectives or investigators) having investigative work as their main responsibility (Stelfox& Pease, 2005).

By this explanation, a complete criminal investigation procedure can involve exploration, conversations, questioning, material proof/evidence collection and preservation, and various methods of investigation (O'Hara & O'Hara, 1994), which can be either a complex or non-complex (equivocal or unequivocal) undertaking. Thus, in some cases, where a person is found committing the criminal act and apprehended at the scene, the

criminal investigation will not be a complex undertaking. However, in cases where the criminal event is discovered after the act, or when the culprit is not readily apparent, the process of criminal investigation becomes more complex and protracted. Although in both cases, the criminal investigator must follow practices of identifying, collecting, recording, and preserving evidence; in the case of the unknown suspect, additional thinking skills of analysis, theory development, and validation of facts must be put to work (Gehl&Plecas, 2016). Hence, a criminal investigation procedure is a process organized to meet the demands of a system of justice and, often, the more serious the crime, the more complex and demanding the investigation.

According to the UK Criminal Investigations and Procedures Act 1996, criminal investigation procedure is an inquiry to ascertain if an offence has been committed, to identify who is responsible, and to gather admissible evidence to be placed before a judicial authority. Same definition applies to Nigeria Criminal Investigation Procedure, where an investigator seeks to determine ‘who did what, when, where and how’ in a crime scenario, which forms the locus for extraction, admission and corroboration of evidence (Police Staff College, 2005). Thus, Nigerian Criminal Investigation procedure sets to collect information (or evidence) about a crime in order to: Determine if a crime has been committed; identify the perpetrator(s); apprehend the perpetrator(s); and provide evidence to support a conviction in court.

Criminal investigation procedure therefore requires: Reference to the statutes and laws in any particular jurisdiction and the defining criteria for an offence. It also requires gathering enough evidence in an acceptable manner to ensure that an offender’s involvement in the crime is proved beyond reasonable doubts, notwithstanding if or not

the offender was immediately identifiable. It holds however that one of the key assumptions in the portrayal of criminal investigation procedure is that there is a search for the truth within the process (Newburn, 2007; Hitchcock, 2015), which must follow a standard or set of procedures.

These procedures cover: (1) Intelligence gathering of information, complaint from a complainant, a petition, or police direct arrests in crime scene; (2) Obtaining the complainant's account/statement, which enables the police to know the next line of action; (3) Visiting the crime scene for inspection, observation and gathering of material evidence; (4) Possible search and seizure with the arrest of suspect(s); (5) Opening a case file, with diary of action on the first page; (6) Taking of statements and gathering expert opinion where necessary; (7) Making opinion of the case file based on the available evidence, and recommendation to seniors; (8) Presenting the file to the team leader or sectional head who may stimulate for directives. The directive of the team leader or sectional head helps the investigating officers to know the next line of action; either to expand horizon and continue the investigation or to transfer the case file to legal department for advice and possible prosecution.

The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, (1999, 2011) and Tong & Bowling, (2006) imply that the reasons for a comprehensive investigation are to: Ensure the detection and prosecution of crimes and suspects; determine criminal liabilities; enhance security; ensure respect for human rights such as the right to fair hearing; preserve law and order; protect establishments; certify a fair and efficient system of criminal law administration; establish the full facts and sequence of events that led to the adverse event, identify the concerns of families and the root cause of the omission, determine why

and how it happened and what can be learned, and identify the actions required to prevent recurrence.

However, the aims can be jeopardized if the investigative officer fails to strictly and successfully adhere to the laid down procedures during criminal investigation which failure may be resultant of personal or organizational factors. This study thus seeks to evaluate how personal factors of Occupational self-efficacy and hardiness interact with organizational factor of organizational climate to predict officers' adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

Self-efficacy is a psychological construct that defines an individual's belief that he or she can successfully carry out a course or an action. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is one's beliefs in own capabilities to carry out the courses of action needed for desired outcomes. It is a knowledge structure which reflects the degree to which people have control over the events that affect their lives (Avallone, Pepe & Farnese, 2007). It also refers to mastery expectations, individual competency and personal resource factors, which counterbalance taxing environmental demands in the stress appraisal process (Schwarzer, 2014; Skaalvik&Skaalvik, 2014).

However, extant literature explains that occupational self-efficacy relates to stressors at workplace and job performance, connoting the extent to which an employee believes he or she can successfully perform a given tasks in efficacious way (Avallone et al., 2007). From this explanation, occupational self-efficacy may be best seen as the belief of an employee or a worker in his/her capability to cope optimally and successfully with work stress while achieving results. It also refers to the capability of managing work related

issues such as interpersonal relationships (Pepe, Farnese, Avallone&Vecchione, 2010). Within the police, occupational self-efficacy may be assessed through the extent to which an operative is able to manage tasks irrespective of ‘obstacles’ with the aim of arriving at a better work outcome. It captures the officer’s belief in own capability to successfully carry out an assigned duty. When an officer believes that he or she can complete tasks, then it is more likely that he or she will put more effort and time in completing them, hence, achieving his or her goals. When the frequency of completing the tasks increases, it reinforces his or her self-efficacy. Having strong occupational self-efficacy therefore can lead to employees’ sense of accomplishment in performing work task and better work outcome (Idan, Braun-Lewensohn&Sagy, 2013).

By this, it is the thinking of the researcher that occupational self-efficacy may influence an investigating officer’s approach to interrogation, and extraction of confessional statements from suspects. Occupational self-efficacy must therefore be capable of influencing the amount of physical and psychological resources an officer could muster, and would be willing to expend in the execution of tasks, which includes the amount of task related challenges the officer would be willing and able to surmount (cope with).

Another variable of interest to this study is hardiness. This is a personality variable that indicates the manner in which a person might interpret a critical incident, life stress, or traumatic event (Michael, et al., 2008). It refers to the ability to perceive external conditions as desirable, and decision – making quality about self (Jomhori, 2002). It is an indicator of resilience and has been identified as a protective factor that reduces the probability of pathogenic psychological reactions (Frederickson, Tugade, Waugh & Larkin, 2003).

In the opinion of Kobasa, Maddi and Kahn (1982), hardiness is a personality structure comprising the three related general dispositions of commitment, control and challenge; that functions as a resistance resource in encounters with stressful conditions. They defined commitment disposition as a tendency to involve oneself in activities in life and as having a genuine interest in and curiosity about the surrounding world (activities, things, other people). Control disposition is a tendency to believe and act as if one can influence the events taking place around oneself through one's own efforts, while challenge disposition highlights the belief that change, rather than stability, is the normal mode of life and constitutes motivating opportunities for advancement rather than threats to security.

In line with Kobasa et al., (1982), Maddi (2004, 2006) characterized hardiness as a combination of three attitudes (commitment, control, and challenge) that together provide the courage and motivation needed to turn stressful circumstances from potential calamities into opportunities for personal growth. While acknowledging the importance of the three core dimensions, Bartone (2006) considers hardiness as something more global than mere attitudes. He conceives hardiness as a broad trait or generalized mode of functioning that includes cognitive, emotional, and behavioural qualities. This generalized style of functioning, which incorporates commitment, control, and challenge, is believed to affect how one views oneself and interacts with the world around.

However, the three interrelated hardiness attitudes of commitment, control, and challenge are thought to influence two underlying mechanisms that enhance the health and performance of persons experiencing stressful conditions (Maddi, 1999a). As a

psychological construct, these components of hardiness present the concept of hardiness as a buffer against stressors, which also enhances the performance, conduct, and morale of the individual (Maddi, 1999b). Specifically, hardy attitudes are believed to influence how individuals experience and cope with stressful life circumstances (Britt, Adler & Bartone, 2001). In the perception and evaluation of stressful life events (Bartone et al., 1989) had likened hardy persons to optimists who are apt to perceive challenges in a positive light. Therefore, hardy persons experience activities as interesting and enjoyable (i.e., commitment), as being a matter of personal choice (i.e., control), and as important stimuli for learning i.e., challenge. Thus, the tendency to find positive meaning in life is a defining feature of hardiness.

Hardiness, then, associates with aspects of mental health and (often but not always) physical health, with some studies showing concurrent relationships to both endpoints (Lambert, Petrini, Li & Zhang, 2007). Hardiness may influence physical health status via multiple interactive mechanisms (Maddi, 2007), such as subjective distress (Oliver, 2010); depression and psychological distress (Andrew, McCann, Burchfiel, Charles, Hartley & Fekedunle, 2008); wellbeing, burnout coping/appraisal (Korke, Farioli, Varvarigou, Sato & Kales, 2014); health practices (Sheard, 2009); and/or stress hormone profiles (Eschleman, Bowling & Alarcon, 2010); as well as selection program and performance (Johnsen, Bartone, Sandvik, Gjeldnes, Morken, Hystad & Stornæs, 2013).

Hardiness as it were is an extant factor that may play a role in determining how a police officer copes with work-related stresses, and also performs his duty efficiently. With regards to criminal investigation, police/investigative officers may be faced with enormous stress especially in cases involving eliciting information from

resistant/impermeable offender(s) or suspect(s). Being stressful, investigative incidents may create a sense of psychological disequilibrium that represents that period when the existing interpretive framework/procedure that guides the officer's expectations and actions loses its meaning. This may motivate the investigative officer to resort to shortcuts, which in most cases manifest in brutality or torture that readily jeopardize the aim of such endeavor and render the investigative process annulled. An empirical evaluation of whether this personality trait associates with adherence to criminal investigation procedure is thus very relevant.

A variable that may moderate the relationship among occupational self-efficacy, hardiness and adherence to criminal investigation procedure is organizational climate: described broadly as the recurring patterns of behavior, attitudes and feelings that characterize life in the organization (Isaksen, &Ekvall, 2007). According to Moran and Volkwein (1992), organizational climate is the relatively enduring characteristic that focuses on policies, practices, and procedures, which distinguish one organization from other organizations.

In line with the foregoing, Schneider, Erhart and Macey (2011); Kuenzi and Schminke (2009) explain that organizational climate is the shared perceptions regarding the policies, practices, and procedures that an organization expects, supports, and rewards. It is linked to individual attitudes (satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions), behaviors (absenteeism, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors), and job performance, as well as specific and broad unit-level outcomes like service, safety, innovation, performance, effectiveness (James, Choi, Ko, McNeil, Minton, Wright & Kim, 2008; Kuenzi&Schminke, 2009; Schneider, Ehrhart& Macey, 2013).

In the police force, supportive organizational climate (e.g., appraisal and recognition, role clarity, goal congruency, supportive leadership, decision-making, professional growth and interaction) has been shown to be the most important predictors of work stress and well-being (Hart & Cotton, 2003; Hassell&Brandl, 2009). Studies have also suggested that dimensions of the organizational climate (e.g. development opportunities) are related to job satisfaction, commitment, and work engagement and performance (Christian, Garza &Slaughter, 2011; Kuo, 2015; Nalla, Rydberg &Meško, 2011; Nima, Moradi, Archer, Garcia &Andersson, 2014). Additionally, a small number of studies in other types of police work than investigations indicate that dimensions of organizational climate (e.g. support, co-worker relations, and leadership) are related to work performance through mechanisms such as social exchange and reduced work stress (Shane, 2010).

Taken together, existing theory and research suggest that organizational climate could be related to and have implications for police investigation performance. Despite this proposition, the interference of this variable in the relationship between occupational self-efficacy and hardiness in relation to adherence to criminal investigation procedure is not yet well explored.

Statement of the Problem

Administration of criminal justice remains a cardinal component of the fundamental role of governments all over the world. In Nigeria, section 14(2) (b) of the 1999 Constitution as amended provides that security and welfare of the people shall be the primary duty of Government, implying that a Government is adjudged incompetent if criminal justice

administration is faulty. Proper administration of criminal justice is hinged on proper crime investigation, since justice is defined in terms of fair hearing to accused persons, fair conviction of the guilty or culpable, and fair treatment of the victim. Thus, in a sentence, justice is finding out who is actually involved in a crime, the extent of involvement, and dispensing appropriate sentences. All these in turn depend largely on eliciting acceptable forensic information from both the accused and witnesses.

Relating from experience, many a criminal proceeding has been stalled, and offenders set free due to faulty methods of eliciting forensic information. For the same reason, innocent persons have been reported variously punished. This undoubtedly jeopardizes the justice system as it negates the actualization of her objectives: defending human rights, and upholding the rule of law (Anigbogu, 2015).

Non adherence to the Criminal Investigation Procedure (CIP) is therefore a major problem in the criminal justice system, of which not many researchers (to the best of this researcher's knowledge) have averred their minds: there is research gap. Specifically, the factors that may facilitate or inhibit police officers' adherence to the CIP have not received adequate research attention in this Country, yet only when these factors are 'figured in' would the Criminal Justice System be able to discharge her mandate, which incidentally is the mandate of Forensic Psychology as well. In this regard, this researcher sets to examine the correlation among the variables of Hardiness, Occupational Self efficacy, and Adherence to the CIP, as well as the moderating effect of organizational climate on the relationships.

Accordingly, the following research questions are raised:

1. Will occupational self-efficacy correlate with adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria?
2. Will hardiness relate with adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria?
3. What kind of relationship exists between organizational climate and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria?
4. Will occupational self-efficacy and organizational climate interact to predict adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria?
5. Will hardiness and organizational climate interact to predict adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria?

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate if the relationship between occupational self-efficacy and Adherence to criminal investigation procedure, as well as that between hardiness and Adherence to criminal investigation procedure, are moderated by organizational climate among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

Specifically, the study shall:

1. Find out whether occupational self-efficacy will correlate with adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.
2. Investigate whether hardiness will correlate with adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

3. To examine the relationship between organizational climate and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.
4. Ascertain if organizational climate has a moderating effect on the relationship between occupational self-efficacy and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.
5. Ascertain if organizational climate has a moderating effect on the relationship between hardiness, and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

Operational Definition of Key Study Variables

Adherence to criminal investigation procedure: This refers to the extent to which an officer sticks to the laid down processes used to identify, locate and prove the guilt or culpability of an accused person, as measured by Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure Questionnaire (Umeoji & Ugwu-Oju, 2019).

Occupational self-efficacy: This is the level of competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job as measured by Occupational Self-efficacy Scale (Rigotti, Schyns and Mohr, 2008).

Hardiness: This is a personality structure comprising the three related general dispositions of commitment, control, and challenge; that functions as a resistance resource in encounters with stressful conditions as measured by the Dispositional Resilience Scale 15-R (Hystad, Eid, Johnsen, Laberg & Bartone, 2010).

Organizational Climate: This is the shared perceptions regarding the policies, practices, and procedures that an organization expects, supports, and rewards; as measured by Short

version of Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Pena-Suarez, Muniz, Campillo-Alvarez, Fonseca-Pedrero & Garcia-Cueeto, 2013).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, both theoretical and empirical literature related to the variables under study: Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure, Occupational Self-Efficacy, Hardiness and Organizational Climate are reviewed.

CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure

Adherence is a concept that generally refers to commitment and loyalty to a cause, philosophy, group, system, or person. It also refers to unfailingly remaining faithful to someone or something, and putting that loyalty into consistent practice regardless of extenuating circumstances. It can also mean keeping to one's promises no matter the prevailing circumstances. Literally, it is the state of being full of commitment in the sense of steady devotion to a person, thing or concept (Gerald, 2013). The legal and political science definition of adherence is the fidelity of an individual to a state, either one's nation of birth, or one's declared home nation by registration (Gerald, 2013).

Taken together, adherence symbolizes the quality or process of sticking fast to an object, or objective, or to a mutual understanding/agreement. Hence, in the context of

the Criminal Procedures Act 1996 which defines every method used to ascertain if an offence has been committed, to identify who is responsible, and to gather admissible evidence to be placed before a judicial authority, adherence connotes absolute loyalty to all the methods and accepted codes for criminal investigation, which includes but not limited to ethical ways of identifying, locating the guilty or culpability of a person or persons.

Adherence to criminal investigation procedure illustrates complete commitment and alignment to exact undertakings, performed in reaction to unpredictable and still-evolving crime-related events with incomplete information to guide the process (Gehl & Plecas, 2016). In other words, adherence to criminal investigation procedure is keeping faith with a set of processes organized to meet the demands of a system of justice. And, often, the more serious the crime, the more complex and demanding the degree of adherence to investigation procedure. In the opinion of Oxburgh, Myklebust and Grant (2010) and Fahsing (2013), adherence to criminal investigation procedure describes obedience to all the process adopted in answering questions as to if, how, where, when, why, and by whom a crime was committed. Thus, as Inne (2013) puts it, adherence to criminal investigation procedure captures compliance to the process required to identify, interpret and order information with the objective of ascertaining whether a crime has occurred, and if so, who was involved and how, as well as acquiring, transmitting and applying evidence gathered appropriately and effectively (Hald, 2011; 2013).

Derived from the Act's explanation are three distinct objectives, described thus: First, to ascertain if an offence has been committed – this will require reference to the statutes and laws in any particular jurisdiction and the defining criteria for an offence. Second, to

identify who committed the crime – this is the part of criminal investigation which is most often portrayed as the key task. The third objective is to gather admissible evidence. It is this part of the criminal investigation that is observable in crime scene processing, for example. There must be enough evidence that has been gathered in a manner acceptable to the requirements of criminal justice to prove ‘beyond reasonable doubt’, that the suspect committed the crime. Sometimes, however, an offender may be immediately identifiable, yet his or her involvement in the crime must still be proved to the standard required: beyond reasonable doubt.

In its completeness therefore, adherence to criminal investigation procedure is an officer’s total amenability to the scientific method that involves the study of facts used to identify, locate and prove the culpability of an accused person through questioning, dialogue/interrogations, and crime scene evidence collection and preservation, and various methods of investigation (O’Hara, 1994). Thus, an officer who adheres to criminal investigation procedure is expected to achieve the following:

- i. Detection and prosecution of crimes,
- ii. Aiding to resolve criminal case,
- iii. Helping to enhance national security,
- iv. Giving respect for human rights such as the right to fair hearing,
- v. Preserving the law and order,
- vi. Protection of establishment,
- vii. Certifying a fair and efficient system of criminal law that provides for offences that distinguish between major and minor wrongdoings,
- viii. Establishing full facts and sequence of events that led to the adverse event,

- ix. Identifying the concerns of families and the root cause of the omission, determine why and how it happened and what can be learned, identify the actions required to prevent recurrence (Ladapo, 2012).

From this understanding, adherence to criminal investigation procedure is very vital, as it leads to truth-finding, at the end of which crime is solved: offenders are caught (Maguire, 2008). Noteworthy is the criticism of the truth-finding claim of criminal investigation which has been largely because adherence seems utopian. Empirical probing of criminal investigations showed that instead of trying to uncover the ‘truth’ by focusing on the crime scene of each offense, detectives usually pursue a suspect-centred approach in which they try to construct a case against the suspects known by the police. Officers thus turn a search process to an interpretive activity in which they try to construct the truth by continuously collecting and analyzing available information – an act that portrays non-adherence to the laid down methods that must be followed in criminal investigation for truth-finding (Tong & Bowling, 2006).

Tong, Bryant, & Horvath, (2009) strongly suggest that non adherence to the CIP may lead to delay in the administration of justice, stalled trials, victimization of innocent citizens and encouraging the escape of offenders from paying for their misdeeds, which in general ultimately affects public perceptions of the police and the overall criminal justice system.

Occupational Self-Efficacy

In the context of the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1978), Self-efficacy has been widely established in literature as a critical construct. It describes an individual's belief in his or her innate ability to achieve goals; a personal judgment of how well one can

execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations (Bandura, 1982). It further defines an individual's perception of their skills and belief in their abilities to perform a specific task (Bandura, 1997). These efficacy beliefs play an essential role in the regulation of self-motivation, which in turn influences the actions, coping behavior and environments one chooses to access. Therefore, the level of effort and persistence one is willing to expend to perform a task to achieve a goal is influenced by one's self-efficacy.

In its generality, self-efficacy expectations are considered the primary cognitive determinant of whether or not an individual will attempt a given behavior. Self-efficacy is known to have considerable potential explanatory power over such behavior as: self-regulation, achievement strivings, academic persistence and success, coping, choice of career opportunities, and career competency (Lent & Hackett, 1987). Perhaps its most noteworthy contribution is its empirical relationship to subsequent performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Self-efficacy generally refers to one's confidence in executing courses of action in managing a wide array of situations, while occupational self-efficacy assesses workers' confidence in managing workplace experiences (especially for new or prospective workers, or new tasks). It further defines the set of employees' judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of work performances (Bandura, 1986). This is in relation to three main dimensions: level, strength, and generality. In line with the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997), significant differences among individuals are noted in the level of difficulty of tasks that they believe they can perform, in the strength of their beliefs about their ability to achieve

a given level of difficulty, and, lastly, in the generality, that is referred to the idea according to which efficacy beliefs associated with one activity can be generalized to similar ones within the same activity domain or across a range of activities (Holladay & Quinones, 2003).

Thus, the concept of occupational self-efficacy deals with self-efficacy as a domain-specific assessment. It refers to the competence that a person feels concerning self's ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job. It also refers to personal confidence in one's abilities for a successful accomplishment of a certain work-related task. These beliefs are significant influential factors of whether individuals will be able to expend effort on a task and continue to cope with a difficulty. Individuals with a high level of self-efficacy attempt tasks and keep up trying even though tasks might be difficult, while individuals with a low level of self-efficacy most of the times end up giving up easily.

Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) had stated that occupational self-efficacy defines a person's confidence in his or her abilities to congregate the motivation, cognitive resources and a way of acting necessary to effectively perform a specific task within a certain context. Building on the definition of Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), Pethe, Chaudhari and Dhar, (1999) added that occupational self-efficacy also reflects the belief in ability and competence to perform in an occupation. Rigotti, Schyns and Mohr (2008) assert that occupational self-efficacy is the perceptions of an individual about his/her abilities to effectively perform his/her work tasks.

From these descriptions, occupational self-efficacy maybe best conceptualized as perceived operative capability, concerned not with what one has but with belief in what

one can do with whatever resources one can muster – that is the conviction of a person that he/she can execute behaviours relevant to their own work (Schyns&Sczesny, 2010). The operative nature of self-efficacy is an integral feature of the procedure used to access people's efficacy beliefs. Individuals are not asked to rate the ability they possess, but rather the strength of their assurance they can execute given activities under designated situational demands (Bandura, 2007).

By this understanding, employees with high occupational self-efficacy are often characterized by their tenacity and determination and driven by their belief in future success (Breso, Schaufeli&Salanova, 2011). As a result, empirical research has greatly linked occupational self-efficacy with a wide range of attitudes, behaviours and work performance measures such as commitment (Schyns&Collani, 2002), professional performance, development of skills, job engagement, positive attitudes toward the organization, job satisfaction (Rigotti et al., 2008; Del Líbano, Llorens, Salanova&Schaufeli, 2012) and positive affect at work (Salanova, Llorens, &Schaufeli, 2011). On the other hand, low levels of occupational self-efficacy (OS) are associated with negative occupational outcomes, such as burnout (Guglielmi, Simbula, Schaufeli&Depolo, 2012), and job-related negative affect (Kafetsios&Zampetakis, 2008). Occupational self-efficacy may thus be interchangeably referred to as work self-efficacy.

Hardiness

The concept of Hardiness or Hardy Personality was first proposed by Suzanne Kobasa (Kobasa, 1979) as a personal resource against the effects of negative or stressful events on health and, specifically, as a buffer of occupational stress (Kobasa, 1982; Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982). Since then, the construct has aroused much interest and efforts to

clarify its content, assessment and possible effects (Beehr& Bowling, 2005; Ford-Gilboe& Cohen, 2000; Funk, 1992; Maddi, 2006; Maddi&Martínez, 2008).

Its formulation is grounded in three conceptual bases: the model of individual differences in responses to stress (Selye, 1956), Lazarus (1966)'s model about mechanisms of stress appraisal, and contributions of authors such as Allport (1955) about benefits of some personality dispositions in the process of stress (Kobasa, 1979). Kobasa uses hardiness as a personality variable and the term hardy personality (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa et al., 1982; Kobasa, Maddi, & Zola, 1983; Kobasa, Maddi, Puccetti, & Zola, 1985), underlining hardiness as a personality variable with all the corresponding features.

Besides, hardiness has been defined as a phenomenon that emerges as attitudes that transform potential threats in stressful situations into development prospects (Maddi, et al., 2011; Maddi, et al., 2013). Thereby, instead of the prejudiced ways of understanding life by holding onto the past, it provides continuum for creating new experiences and appreciating the meaning of experiences (Maddi, et al., 2011). Also, hardiness makes a contribution to resilience, not only in the sense of persevering, but also thriving under stress (Maddi, et al., 2013).

Literary documentation on hardiness indeed opined that hardiness is conceptualized through the combination of attitudes defined as; commitment, control and challenge (Maddi, 2006; Maddi, et al., 2013). Commitment which involves the belief that no matter how bad things get it is important to stay involved with whatever is happening rather than sink into detachment and alienation (Maddi, 2013). Hardiness-commitment provides a sense of internal balance and confidence, which is important for realistic assessment of stressful and threatening situations (Bartone, Kelly & Matthews, 2013).

Control, the second attitude in hardiness leads to the belief that no matter how bad things get, one needs to keep trying to turn the stresses from potential disasters into growth opportunities. It seems like a waste of time to let oneself sink into powerlessness and passivity (Maddi, 2013). Control also likewise leads to greater adaptability since people high in control approach novel situations with the belief they can respond well and influence outcomes (Bartone, Kelly & Matthews, 2013). People who are strong in the control attitude believe that trying to influence outcomes by the decisions they make is more likely to lead to meaningful outcomes than sinking into powerlessness in the face of stresses (Maddi, et. al., 2011).

Challenge talks about accepting that life is by its nature stressful, and see those stressful changes as an opportunity to grow in wisdom and capability by what one learns through trying to turn them to your advantage. In this, one thinks that he can learn from failures as well as successes. You do not think you are entitled to easy comfort and security. Instead, you feel that fulfillment can only be gained by having turned the stresses into growth opportunities (Maddi, 2013).

The second underlying mechanism, hardy coping, involves the mental feat of putting each stressful circumstance “in a broader perspective so that it does not seem so terrible after all and finding a deeper understanding that reveals what needs to be done. This leads to taking decisive rather than avoidant actions to resolve the problem so that it no longer involves stress” (Maddi, 1999a). For instance, Maddi and Kobasa (1984) noted high hardiness encourages persons to cope in a manner that transforms events into some less-stressful form for themselves. Furthermore, high hardiness involves the spinning of stressful events into opportunities for growth and development (Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983).

In ambiguous situations, hardiness equips individuals to draw upon a personal sense of commitment and control to find meaning in their tasks (Bartone et al., 1989) as well as exercise decision-making and goal-setting techniques (Kobasa&Puccetti, 1983).

From the foregoing, hardiness therefore is a multidimensional construct broadly characterized as a stable disposition (Maddi, 1999) and/or a pattern of attitudes and skills (Maddi, 2007) providing the courage to turn stressful circumstances into growth opportunities. Moreover, Bartone, et al. (2008)opined that hardiness can also be looked at as a psychological style associated with resilience, good health and performance under a range of stressful conditions.

In an earlier study, Wagnild and Young (1993) described hardiness in terms of a personality characteristic that moderates the negative effects of stress and promote adaptation, and consisted of the following five components:

- 1) Equanimity, that is, the balanced viewpoint of one's life and experiences;
- 2) Perseverance, that is, the persistence in spite of adversity and the willingness to continue the struggle to reconstruct one's life;
- 3) Self-reliance, that is, the ability to recognize personal strengths and limitations;
- 4) Meaningfulness, that is, the understanding that life has a purpose and the estimation of one's contributions;
- 5) Existential aloneness, that is, the awareness that each individual's life path is unique.

These five components have been grouped in two central factors, that is, personal competence (e.g., self-reliance, independence, invincibility, mastery, resourcefulness, and

perseverance) and acceptance of self and life (e.g., adaptability, flexibility, and balanced perspective of life).

Hardiness has been further considered as the ability to bounce back or recover from stressful circumstances in order to reach a whole adjustment to environment (Ahern, Kiehl, Sole & Byers, 2006; Smith, et al., 2008). While, de Terte and Stephens (2014) opined that hardiness is the ability to successfully cope with a crisis and to return to pre-crisis status quickly; Robertson, Cooper, Sarkar and Curran (2015) added that it exists when the person uses mental processes and behaviors in promoting personal assets and protecting self from the potential negative effects of stressors. In simpler terms, psychological hardiness exists in people who develop psychological and behavioral capabilities that allow them to remain calm during crises/chaos and to move on from the incident without long-term negative consequences.

Hence, hardiness is a combination of attitudes that provides the courage and motivation to do the hard, strategic work of turning stressful circumstances from potential disasters into growth opportunities (Maddi, 2006). Hardiness as such is a set of beliefs one holds regarding the self and interactions with the world, emphasizing the importance of involvement rather than isolation, control rather than powerlessness, and challenge rather than threat. It is being postulated that hardiness is one factor influencing effective coping that leads to good health and enhanced performance.

In addendum, Maddi (2004) further explains that the result of hardiness is existential courage. Existential courage comes from the field of existential psychology, which emphasizes the ongoing search for meaning in life that requires individuals to continually be involved in a decision making process, everything a person does in life involves

making a decision, whether the individual is aware of it or not. This un-avoidable decision making process is what existential psychologists believe characterizes human life. In order to turn the constant novel stressors into opportunities, an individual must choose to pursue the implications of a stressor rather than hiding from them and falling into the past to the already known.

However, individuals vary in their levels of hardiness along a continuum from low to high, with low hardy people being more vulnerable to the harmful factors in long-term in comparison to high hardy people who possess a natural security against stressful factors. From this instance, a psychologically hardy police officer is strong, chalks out a plan of action to cope up, faces the stressful situations (like criminal investigation etc.) instead of withdrawing and avoiding it, rather considers those stressful situations as opportunities for optimal performance. On the contrary, the police officer with low hardiness may find difficulties in dealing with the various ups and downs of his work. Such officer may be less committed, have less ability to control the situation and take novel situations as a threat to their comfort and safety, and thereby leading to ruthlessness or use of excessive force to elicit confessional statements from suspects.

From the above, it is obvious that hardiness acts as a protective factor in stressful situations predominantly through cognitive appraisal and coping behaviors. Namely, persons high on hardiness approach life demands actively and perceive that they can handle them successfully, view them as meaningful and useful, and experience less stress. Hardiness also plays a protective function as it impacts on the choice of actions that one will be involved in. According to Wiebe and Williams (1992), the effects of hardiness on cognitive appraisal and coping efforts refer only to the individual

differences in the reactions to actual stressful situations. However, hardiness does not influence only the appraisal of actual stressful situations, but also the evaluation of past experience, the appraisal of costs and benefits of various behaviors, and therefore, the choice of important, meaningful and challenging situations. Thus, hardiness does not influence only the reactions to the stressful stimuli, but can also lead to qualitatively different experiences

Factors that Contribute to Hardiness

Hardiness has been shown to be influenced by two specific factors: Individual and environmental factors, both of which have been empirically evaluated.

Individual Factors

Empirical studies on individual factors (or within-person resources) have identified the following contributing factors to hardiness:

- 1) Personality traits of adaptability, flexibility, agreeableness, extraversion, openness to experience (e.g., Dumont & Provost, 1999; Frederickson, 2001; Garmezy, 1991, Garmezy et al., 1984; Rutter, 1979; 1985; Werner & Smith, 1982),
- 2) Self-esteem (Benson, 1997; Garmezy, 1991, Garmezy et al., 1984; Howard, 1996; Werner, 1982; Werner & Smith 1992),
- 3) Self-mastery (Rutter, 1979; 1985),
- 4) Intelligence (Masten et al., 1999),
- 5) Problem focused coping strategies (Garmezy, 1991, Garmezy et al., 1984),
- 6) Internal locus of control (Benson, 1997; Garmezy, 1991, Garmezy et al., 1984),

- 7) Being achievement and goal-oriented (Benson, 1997; Werner, 1982; Werner & Smith 1992),
- 8) Higher intellectual functioning (Masten et al., 1988, 1999),
- 9) Ego-resiliency and ego-control (Flores et al., 2005), and
- 10) Cognitive appraisals about threat, safety, and adversity, such as benefit-finding cognitions (beliefs about benefits from adversity and using this knowledge as a coping strategy) (e.g., Affleck & Tennen, 1996).

The recent emergence of the “positive psychology field” has identified other individual variables shown to contribute to resiliency, such as optimism, hope, creativity, faith, and forgiveness (e.g., see Richardson, 2002, for a review). Other emerging constructs, such as a self-enhancing bias, or the tendency to have overly positive view of oneself, has also been implicated with resiliency (e.g., Bonanno et al., 2004, 2005) but this tendency appears to also result in negative consequences over time (e.g., being seen by others as less honest).

Environmental Factors

Early investigations also examined the role of single environmental factors contributing to hardiness. These studies showed the importance of relational features, specifically social support (e.g., a connection to other competent adults within and outside the immediate family) (Flores, et al., 2005; Garmezy, 1991; Garmezy et al., 1984; Rutter, 1979; 1985; Werner 1982; Werner & Smith, 1992), and positive parenting qualities (e.g., parental presence, emotional availability, and support) (Garmezy et al., 1984; Garmezy, 1985; Masten et al., 1988, 1999; Tiet et al., 1998), in hardiness.

Subsequent research findings on the role of social support in contributing to resiliency have been inconsistent, and the underlying processes between these two constructs are not clear. For example, researchers have speculated that opportunities for being able to talk about the trauma within one's social support system may facilitate cognitive processing and provide opportunities for corrective experiences, which, in turn, leads to resiliency, rather than social support as the primary contributing factor (e.g., Howard, 1996; Benson, 1997; Dumont & Provost, 1999; Yakim & McMahon, 2003).

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate is a multidimensional construct that has been conceptualized as the individual employee's perception of the psychological impact of the work environment on his or her own well-being (James & James, 1989). It is the relatively enduring characteristic of an organization which distinguishes it from other organizations: and (a) embodies members collective perceptions about their organizations with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness; (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organization's culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). West, Smith, Lu Feng and Lawthom (1998) opined that shared perceptions of the fundamental elements of individuals' particular organization is regarded as the organizational climate. Wallace, Hunt and Richards (1999), also emphasize collective perceptions of organizational members and define climate as the summary perception of how an organization deals with its members and environment.

Boeyens and Hutchinson (cited in Sempane, Rieger&Roodt, 2002) define organizational climate as the employees' description of organizational variables such as size, structure, policies and leadership styles, while Coetsee (cited in Gerber, 2003) postulates that organizational climate is representative of organizational members' collective perceptions and/or feelings (attitudes) about the organization. Coetsee goes on to say that the organization's climate reflects members' subjective attitudes and perceptions, regardless of whether it is or not an accurate description of reality in the organization. In line with these definitions, Garg and Rastogi (2006) describe the concept as a "feeling" that is the result of the physical layout of the organization, the way in which participants interact with one another and how they conduct themselves with other organizational members or outsiders. Thus, organizational climate describes the recurring patterns of behavior, attitudes and feelings that characterize life in the organization (Isaksen&Ekvall, 2007).

Furthermore, Haakonsson, Burton, Obel and Lauridsen (2008) suggest that organizational climate refers to affective an event that influences employees' emotions and consequent information-processing behaviours; while Schneider, Ehrhart& Macey (2013) added that the concept can be better seen as the shared perceptions of and the meaning attached to the policies, practices, and procedures employees' experience, and the behaviors they observe getting rewarded and that are supported and expected. Thus, it describes a set of measurable properties of the perceived work environment, directly or indirectly, created by individuals who live and work in this environment and that influence the motivation and behavior of these people (Chiavenato, 2014). The definition by Chiavenato (2014) portrays organizational climate as a concept "perceived" by employees – that is being greatly dependent on a value judgment which can vary greatly from person to person; it

also shows organizational climate as having effects on productivity, motivation and employee behavior.

Organizational climate could be understood as an organizational factor that is linked to individual attitudes (satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions), behaviors (absenteeism, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors), and job performance, as well as specific and broad unit-level outcomes (service, safety, innovation, performance, effectiveness) (James, Choi, Ko, McNeil, Minton, Wright & Kim, 2008; Kuenzi&Schminke, 2009; Schneider, Ehrhart&Macey, 2013).

Within the organizational climate literature, a central discussion has focused on the distinction between global climate and focused climate approaches. Global climate is defined as the shared perceptions regarding the policies, practices, and procedures that an organization expects, supports, and rewards (Schneider, Erhart& Macey, 2011; Kuenzi&Schminke, 2009), while focused climates are related to a specific strategic focus, such as climates for service (Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998), safety (Zohar & Luria, 2005), and innovation (Anderson & West, 1998). Focused climates are considered the best predictors for specific strategic outcomes such as safety and innovation, whereas global climate is assumed to be a better predictor of broad outcomes such as work-unit performance (Kuenzi, 2008).

Global climate also seems to work as a foundation on which focused climates are built (Kuenzi&Schminke, 2009; Schneider et al., 2013). Studies suggest that global climate could be conceptualized and measured through the Competing Values Framework (Kuenzi, 2008; Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis& Wallace,

2005). The Competing Values Framework (CVF) was originally developed by Quinn and colleagues (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) as a framework of organizational effectiveness, organized along two fundamental dimensions – flexibility versus control, and internal versus external orientation. Thus, the CVF consists of four quadrants, representing different climate types: The human relations approach (flexibility and internal focus) emphasizes the cohesion and morale of employees within an organization as means, and human resource development as an end. The open systems model (flexibility and external focus) emphasizes flexibility and readiness as means, and growth, resource acquisition, and external support as ends. The internal process approach (control and internal focus) emphasizes information management and communication as means, and stability and control as ends. Finally, the rational goal approach (control, external focus) emphasizes planning and goal setting as means, and productivity and efficiency as ends (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983).

From these definitions and explanations, the present study sees organizational climate as shared perceptions, feelings and attitudes police officers have about the fundamental elements of the police force, which reflect the established norms, values and attitudes of the police force's culture that may influence individual officer's behaviour either positively or negatively.

Dimensions of Organizational Climate

There are two perspectives /approaches to organizational climate: the objective and subjective perspectives that refers to the organizational factor as an objective element and to the individual factors as a subjective element (Silva, 1996). From the objective approach, it is mentioned that the climate is owed particularly to organizational factors

which constitute the internal environment of the individual in the organization, for example the culture, the behavior, the environment, the organizational structure, among others. On the other hand, the subjective approach states that the climate is an individual attribute by claiming that the climate basis is the individual perception of the organizational situation where they perform. Thus, the subjectivist approach regard organizational climate as a perceptual and cognitive structuring of the organizational situation common to the organizational members.

Accordingly, in the organization there is a continual flow of events and actions, of routines and processes. Individuals encounter those various phenomena and try to interpret them so that the surrounding world becomes comprehensible. They create a "cognitive map" for themselves; with its help they juxtapose what they see and hear, thus becoming able to see more meaning in it. When the members of the organization interact with one another, there is an exchange of experiences and apperceptions; their many personal cognitive maps confront one another and are modified. In this way, common ways of perceiving and interpreting what happens in organizational settings arise (Padaki, 1982).

An additional approach is the result of the interaction or union of the objective and subjective perspective, in other words, the interaction of the organizational factors with the individual ones. This approach corresponds to the perception of organizational factors derived from the interaction of the individuals (Dessler, 1979). Within this context, it is important to refer to the factors acting in the organizational climate, that is, elements which integrate and generate an impact upon the climate. Aspects such as leadership and the type of managers' supervision on their subordinates, the formal system and the

organization structure such as communication, promotions, incentives, payments, etc., are factors impact the organizational climate (Cascio, 1986).

These factors vary from organization to organization. Since every organization has unique characteristics, elements to be considered among the climate factors are: Attitude, the perception of the employees with their environment or the place where they work; engagement, commitment and dedication to their work and organization (Davis & Newstrom, 1999); motivation, the effort to contribute in the achievement of the goals and objectives established by the organization (Robbins, 2004).

Importance of Organizational Climate

The behavior of people is affected in many ways. Organizational climate provides a useful platform for understanding such characteristics of organizations as stability, creativity, innovation, communication and effectiveness (Prasad, 2003). Organizational climate is the manifestation of the attitudes of organizational members toward the organization itself. An organization tends to attract and keep people who fit its climate, so that its patterns are perpetuated at least to some extent (Prasad, 2003).

In order to bring about change in the behavior pattern of people in the organization, a change in the organizational climate will be enough. If the change in the climate is incongruent with the perceptual system of the individual in the organization, there may arise some resistance from the part of the people in the organizations first, and if the changed climate continues in the organizations (Harish & Mishra, 2006).

In order to maintain homeostatic condition people will start to change according to the changed climate. But when change in procedures and practices are such that it cannot be

incorporated into the perception of the individual in the organization, resistance may continue and finally that may lead to distress and dissatisfaction among employees. It is easy to bring about change in the climate of the organization. But we cannot aspire for a change in the behavior of the employees as speedily as that of the organizational change. His lag occurs because people first have to form new climate perceptions which serve as a frame of reference for coherent set of adaptive behavior. This observation is very much important for those who are concerned to bring about change in a work setting.

Organizational climate is essentially about 'what it's like to work here'. True to the climate metaphor, organizational climate is primarily about the perceptions of the climate rather than its absolute measures. While temperature is an important measure of geographic climate, it is not the temperature that is of interest, but our perception of it. What may be too cool for me may be too warm for you. To facilitate measurement and manipulation of organizational climate, researchers have dissected its characteristics and perceptions into categories such as the nature of interpersonal relationships, the nature of the hierarchy, the nature of work, and the focus of support and rewards. It is through those characteristics and perceptions that climate has a bi-directional relationship with everything the organization is and does - it affects everything, and is affected by everything. For example:

- i. Organizational literature describes climates of crisis, trust, cooperation, calm, trust, distrust, entrepreneurialism, innovation, fear, respect, collective learning, and openness.
- ii. Climates are also described as political, supportive, creative, strong, etc.

- iii. For each climate there is an opposite: climate of calm vs. crisis, and trust vs. distrust etc.
- iv. Climate relates strongly to performance measures. Before organization-wide strategic thinking and conversation can occur, employees must 'feel' they are in a safe climate that encourages their understanding of, and involvement in, strategic conversation.

It is even intuitively reasonable to expect a different climate report from within an organization that merely 'permits' strategic thinking, to one that proactively encourages it from within a climate of psychological safety. In support of this approach is empirical evidence that climate and culture do indeed impact strategic thinking.

Determinants of Organizational Climate

Organizational climate refers to the internal environment of an organization; the nature of organizational climate is determined by a variety of internal and external factors. One of the basic premises of organizational behavior is that outside environment forces influence events within the organizations. Here, the determinants which influence the organizational climate are presented in the following paragraphs:

a) Economic Conditions

Several dimensions of organizational climate are influenced by an organization's position on the economic cycle. The economic condition of any organization decides whether its budget should be 'tight' or 'loose'. In times of prosperity when budget is more loose than tight, the organization tends to be more adventuresome. On the other hand, tight budget would lead to an air of caution and conservatism within an organization.

Only a few managers suggest new programmes when the order from above is to exercise tight control over expenses. So dimensions like “risk taking,” “control”, “progressiveness,” and “development” etc., are directly controlled by economic conditions.

b) Leadership Style

The leadership style prevailing in an organization has a profound influence on determining several dimensions of organizational climate. Organizations characterized by authoritarian style of leadership with high power motivation influences the dimensions of organizational climate like high position structure, low individual autonomy, low reward orientation, high control, low warmth and support. Also democratic style of leadership with affiliation motivation influences the dimensions like high reward orientation, high warmth and support, and low conflict.

c) Organizational Policies

Specific organizational policies can influence a specific dimension of organization climate to a large extent. For example, if the company policy states that layoffs will be used only as a last resort to cope with business downturn, then it would, in general, foster an internal environment that is supportive and humanistic.

d) Managerial Values

The values held by executives have a strong influence on organizational climate because values lead to action and shape decision. Values add to perceptions of the organization as impersonal, paternalistic, formal, informal, hostile or friendly.

e) Organization Structure

The design or structure of an organization affects the perception of its environment.

Organization structure may be any one of the following: -

- a) Exploitative authoritative
- b) Benevolent authoritative
- c) Consultative
- d) Participative

Organizational climate differs from one particular structure to another.

f) Characteristics of Members

Personal characteristics of the members of an organization also affect the climate prevailing in it. For example, an organization with well-educated ambitious and younger employees is likely to have a different organizational climate than an organization with less educated, and less upwardly mobile, older employees. The former might generate an environment characterized by competitiveness, calculated risk-taking, and frankness of opinions.

g) Size of Organization

In a small sized organization, it is much easier to foster a climate for creativity and innovation or to establish a participative kind of management with greater stress on horizontal distribution of responsibilities. On the other hand, in a large organization it is easier to have a more authoritative kind of management with stress on vertical distribution of responsibilities. This, in turn, leads to distinct environments with distinct organizational climates.

h) Managerial Values and Ethos

Managerial values affect perceived characteristics of the internal environment of an organization. Ethos refers to habitual character and values of individuals, groups, races etc. Managerial ethos is concerned with the character and values of managers as a professional group. Contemporary managers hold some specific values, which affect work and some of these are: autonomy, equity, security and opportunity. These values serve as important dimensions of organizational climate.

i) Socialization Process and its Impact on Organizational Climate

Socialization is the process of adaptation by which new members come to understand the basic values, norms and customs for becoming accepted members of an organization. Though the most intense period of socialization is at the fresher stage of entry into an organization, the process continues throughout one's entire career in the organization. This is done to ensure tradition and to maintain uniformity. The people who do not learn to adjust to the culture of the organization become the targets of attack and are often rejected by the organization. Socialization process includes three stages:

i) Pre-Arrival

This stage tries to ensure that prospective members arrive at an organization with a certain set of values, attitudes and expectations.

ii) Encounter

There is always a possibility of difference between members' expectations of an organization and the organizational climate. If the expected image of an organizational climate matches, then this stage passes off smoothly leading to confirmation of the image.

If there is an imbalance between the two, then the person has two choices. One is to replace the previous expectation and get adjusted to the prevailing system. The Second is that he drops out due to disillusionment.

iii) Metamorphosis

People who had discovered an anomaly between their expectation and organizational climate but decided not to drop out, enter this stage. They sort out their problems and go through changes at this stage, then adapt.

j) External Factors

Organizational climate is not influenced by internal factors alone. Societal forces help shape organizational climate as well. Changes like rise in the educational level of employees of all categories, societal values towards recreational and leisure activities are becoming stronger. The effect of the first change is in the expectations of the employees. People want more satisfying and fulfilling work, which should match their qualifications and abilities. The impact of second change is that the passion for non-work is increasing: people feel less passionate about job performance. So, while one change is pushing towards increased professionalism, the other change is pulling towards leisure orientation. The interaction of societal forces influences the profiles of the employees, the content of jobs, and the organization process, thus determine organizational climate.

Organizational Climate in Police Work

A number of studies have been carried out on organizational climate in the police force. Many of these studies show that a supportive organizational climate (e.g., appraisal and recognition, role clarity, goal congruency, supportive leadership, participation in

decision-making,) is one of the most important predictors of low work stress and well-being in police work (Davey, Obst & Sheehan, 2001; Hart & Cotton, 2003; Hassell & Brandl, 2009). Second, studies have suggested that dimensions of the organizational climate (e.g. development opportunities) are related to job satisfaction, commitment, and work engagement (Nalla, Rydberg & Meško, 2011; Nima, Moradi, Archer, Garcia & Andersson Arntén, 2014; Kuo, 2015), as well as linked to work performance (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011). Third, a small number of studies in other types of police work than investigations indicate that dimensions of organizational climate (e.g. support, co-worker relations, and leadership) are related to work performance through mechanisms such as social exchange and reduced work stress (Armeli et al., 1998; Shane, 2010).

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Theories

Protection Motivation Theory and Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure

The Protection Motivation Theory was proposed by Rogers (1975) with the aim of clarifying fear appeals. It proposes that people protect themselves based on four factors: the perceived severity of a threatening event, the perceived probability of the occurrence, or vulnerability, the efficacy of the recommended preventive behavior, and the perceived self-efficacy (Rogers, 1975). Protection motivation stems from both the threat appraisal and the coping appraisal. The threat appraisal assesses the severity of the situation and examines the extent of seriousness of the situation. The threat appraisal process consists of both the severity and vulnerability of situation. It focuses on the source of the threat and factors that increase or decrease likelihood of maladaptive behaviours (Plotnikoff &

Trinh, 2010). Severity refers to the degree of harm from the unhealthy behavior. Vulnerability is the probability that one will experience harm.

Another aspect of the threat appraisal is rewards. Rewards refer to the positive aspects of starting or continuing the unhealthy behavior. To calculate the amount of threat experienced, take the combination of both the severity and vulnerability, and then subtract the rewards. Threat appraisal refers to one's evaluation of the degree to which an event has significant implications for their well-being. Theoretically, threat appraisal is related to Lazarus' concept of primary appraisal, particularly to the way in which the event threatens the one's commitments, goals, or values. Threat appraisal is differentiated from the evaluation of stressfulness or impact of the event in that it assesses what is threatened, rather than simply the degree of stress or negativity of an event. Threat appraisal is also differentiated from negative cognitive styles, because it assesses reported negative appraisals for specific events in life rather than their typical style of responding to stressful events. Theoretically, higher threat appraisals should lead to negative arousal and coping, and to increased psychological symptomatology.

The coping appraisal on the hand deals with how one responds to the situation. The coping appraisal consists of both efficacy and self-efficacy (Rogers, 1983). The coping appraisal consists of the response efficacy, self-efficacy, and the response costs. Response efficacy is the effectiveness of the recommended behavior in removing or preventing possible harm. Self-efficacy is the belief that one can successfully enact the recommended behavior. The response costs are the costs associated with the recommended behavior. The amount of coping ability that one experiences may be a combination of response efficacy and self-efficacy, minus the response costs.

The coping appraisal process focuses on the adaptive responses and one's ability to cope with and avert the threat. The coping appraisal is the sum of the appraisals of the responses efficacy and self-efficacy, minus any physical or psychological "costs" of adopting the recommended preventive response. Coping Appraisal involves the individual's assessment of the response efficacy of the recommended behavior (e.g. perceived effectiveness of sunscreen in preventing premature aging) as well as one's perceived self-efficacy in carrying out the recommended actions (Prentice-Dunn, Mcmath & Cramer, 2009) (i.e. confidence that one can use sunscreen consistently).

From the foregoing, Protection Motivation Theory is one theory that explains why people engage in unethical, corrupt or unhealthy practices, and offers suggestions for changing those behaviors (Pechmann, Goldberg & Reibling, 2003). It is a theory that deals with how people cope with and make decisions in times of stressful/harmful life events or engagements. It explains that one's behaviour towards a stimulus would depend on the person's appraisal of how problematic, how threatening the stimulus is, in juxtaposition with the person's evaluation of his/her resources to cope with the threat.

Thus, an investigating officer's decision to adhere to the criminal investigation procedure (by this theory) will be predicated on the officer's assessment of the consequences of non-adherence to criminal investigation procedure (CIP) to self, and possibly to the system: if the cost is viewed as very high and perhaps unbearable, then the officer will adhere; so a scale could be made such that the lower the risk/cost, the higher the likelihood not to adhere. But this is not a stand-alone feature since adherence is also affected by the competence, support and morality (personal coping resources) of the officer. Even where the risk of non-adherence could be obviously high, an officer may

still not comply (adhere to CIP) if he/she is incompetent, and lacks the tools to work with, or is morally bankrupt. Corruption, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are therefore the factors germane to the application/understanding of this theory as regards adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

Criticisms of Protection Motivation Theory (PMT)

Most criticisms of PMT concern its overemphasis on cognitive processes, and its lack of explanation of emotional response to fear appeals on attitude and behaviour. The other criticism of PMT concerns its lack of explanation of individual differences or individual influence on processing fear appeal and coping behaviours.

Despite these criticisms, Protection Motivation Theory is considered appropriate for review in relation to adherence to criminal investigation procedure because of its emphasis on how people cope and make decisions in times of stressful, harmful or threatening life events. And in this case, it seems suitable in understanding how an officer cope and makes decision during the times of eliciting confessional statement/s from suspects, especially those who seem impermeable.

Theory of Planned Behaviour and Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure

This theory as propounded by Ajzen (1991) states that attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, together shape an individual's behavioral intentions and behaviors. It was intended to explain all behaviors over which people have the ability to exert self-control. The key component to this model is behavioral intent; behavioral intentions are influenced by the attitude about the likelihood that the behavior will have the expected outcome and the subjective

evaluation of the risks and benefits of that outcome (<http://sphweb.bumc.bu.edu/otlt/Modules/SB/BehavioralChangeTheories/BehavioralChangeTheories3.html>).

This theory has been applied effectively to predict and explain a wide range of behaviours and intentions including smoking, drinking, health services utilization, breastfeeding, and substance use, among others. This theory states that behavioural achievement depends on both motivation (intention) and ability (behavioral control). It distinguishes between three types of beliefs - behavioural, normative, and control.

It is comprised of six constructs that collectively represent a person's actual control over the behavior.

1. Attitudes - This refers to the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the behaviour of interest. It entails a consideration of the outcomes of performing the behaviour.
2. Behavioural intention - This refers to the motivational factors that influence a given behaviour where the stronger the intention to perform the behaviour, the more likely the behaviour will be performed.
3. Subjective norms - This refers to the belief about whether most people approve or disapprove of the behaviour. It relates to a person's beliefs about whether peers and people of importance to the person think he or she should engage in the behaviour.
4. Social norms - This refers to the customary codes of behaviour in a group or people or larger cultural context. Social norms are considered normative, or standard, in a group of people.

5. Perceived power - This refers to the perceived presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of a behaviour. Perceived power contributes to a person's perceived behavioural control over each of those factors.
6. Perceived behavioural control - This refers to a person's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behavior of interest. Perceived behavioural control varies across situations and actions, which results in a person having varying perceptions of behavioural control depending on the situation. This construct of the theory was added later, and created the shift from the Theory of Reasoned Action to the Theory of Planned Behavior.

Taking together, the theory of planned behaviour basically explains that human actions and reactions to events or stimuli generally are dependent on the individual's belief of the extent to which he or she can exercise control over the events, as well as the person's standards and convictions.

From the foregoing explanations, the extent to which a person/an officer may adhere to the criminal investigation procedure depends on whether the h/she perceives him/herself as having enough ability to execute the task, as well as the officer's standards of behaviour: the officer's internalized ethical principles especially in respect of the processes of the criminal justice system, including whether or not the effort is worth the while.

The first two components are subjective, and maybe influenced by personality and learning, while the third is largely dependent on organizational climate. By this theory therefore, an officer may not adhere to the criminal investigation procedure if h/she feels

incompetent (lacks necessary skills), if h/she relies on pre-existing schemata that negates loyalty and ethical norms, and/or if the officer is convinced that the organization does not deserve the effort, perhaps because management (police or judicial authorities) had in the past not given due recognition to properly delivered investigations.

Criticisms of Theory of Planned Behaviour

Although popular and successful, the TPB has not escaped criticism. One type of critique has to do with the theory's sufficiency—the proposition that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioral control are sufficient to predict intentions and behavior. Investigators have suggested a number of variables that might be added to the theory to improve its predictive validity. Among the proposed additions are desire and need, affect and anticipated regret, personal and moral norms, past behavior, and self-identity (i.e., the extent to which people view themselves as the kind of person who would perform the behaviour in question).

A related critique of the TPB's reasoned action assumption relies on the well-known phenomenon that, with repeated performance, behaviour becomes routine and no longer requires much conscious control for its execution. Some have suggested that as a result of this process of habituation, initiation of the behaviour becomes automatic, and control over the behaviour is transferred from conscious intentions to critical stimulus cues. The finding that frequency of past behavior is often a good predictor of later behavior and, indeed, that it has a residual impact on later behavior over and above the influence of intention and perceived behavior control, has been taken as evidence for automaticity in social behavior.

Despite these critiques however, the theory of planned behaviour is considered related literature to adherence to criminal investigation procedure because of its emphasis on individual's belief of the extent to which he or she can exercise control over events, as well as the person's standards and convictions. This regards an officer's internalized ethical principles especially in respect of the process of the criminal justice system, including whether or not the effort is worth the while.

Expectancy Theory and Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure

The Expectancy theory was first proposed by Vroom in 1970, and later developed by Vroom, Deci and Penguin (1983). It proposes that an individual will behave or act in a certain way because they are motivated to select a specific behaviour over other behaviors due to what they expect the result of that selected behaviour will be. In essence, the motivation for the behaviour selection is determined by the desirability of the outcome. However, at the core of the theory is the cognitive process of how an individual processes the different motivational elements. This is done before making the ultimate choice.

Furthermore, the theory suggests that although individuals may have different sets of goals, they can be motivated if they believe that:

- i. There is a positive correlation between efforts and performance,
- ii. Favorable performance will result in a desirable reward,
- iii. The reward will satisfy an important need,
- iv. The desire to satisfy the need is strong enough to make the effort worthwhile.

Accordingly, the theory anchors on the following beliefs:

Valence

Valence refers to the emotional orientations people hold with respect to outcomes (rewards). The depth of the want of an employee for extrinsic (money, promotion, time-off, benefits) or intrinsic [satisfaction] rewards). Management must discover what employees' value.

Expectancy

Employees have different expectations and levels of confidence about what they are capable of doing. Management must discover what resources, training, or supervision employees need.

Instrumentality

The perception of employees as to whether they will actually get what they desire even if it has been promised by a manager. Management must ensure that promises of rewards are fulfilled and that employees are aware of that.

Vroom suggests that an employee's beliefs about Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valence interact psychologically to create a motivational force such that the employee acts in ways that bring pleasure and avoid pain.

In line with this theory, adherence to criminal investigation procedure should be determined by the officer's appraisal of the resources available, having right skills to do the job, and having necessary support to get the job done. An appraisal of these factors to the negative may suggest non-adherence to the criminal investigation procedure.

Rational Choice Theory

This theory has its roots in the classical school of criminology developed by Cesare Beccaria (Siegel, 2009). It assumes that the decisions to engage in behaviours, such as police brutality or non-adherence to criminal investigation procedure is conscious one, informed by both the costs and benefits associated with the act. The two principal branches of classicism are the deterrence principle and the econometrics paradigm. The deterrence principle states that the law is intended to protect the rights of both society and the citizens and its chief purpose is to deter criminal behaviour. Therefore, by extension, governments should enact laws requiring all police officers to purchase and maintain personal liability insurance as a conscious and unconscious deterrence mechanism against brutality or non-adherence to criminal investigation procedure. Punishment according to Bentham (cited in Bello & Umoru, 2017) should be used only to avoid some greater evil. The idea of requiring liability insurance for individual police officers and men is intended to apply just enough pain/accountability to offset the amount of 'pleasure' derived from the offence. The economic perspective views the decision to commit the act of corruption and engage in non-adherence to criminal investigation procedure (brutality) as essentially similar to any other decision. It is made on the basis of analysis of the costs and benefits of the crime. Both the deterrence and the economic perspective agree that punishment should not be inflicted if it is groundless, ineffective, unprofitable, or needless.

The police service is an honourable field in which any act of dishonor would bring shame to the individuals and organization. The emotion of shame brings forth a negative feeling about oneself and this causes the shamed individuals to feel dehumanized into persons of less dignity. Finding police officers and men guilty of non-adherence to criminal investigation procedure (brutality) in competent court is by itself shameful, not even

including the involvement, awareness and participation of an in-group audience (other police officers and men). It is assumed that would-be abusers are sensitive to the same shame and would be likewise deterred. Shame or the potential of it has an emotional bearing on the policemen's life, whereas financial liability remains a conscious and unconscious reminder to them that brutalizing citizens is a costly event.

The police subculture could be described as a 'blue fraternity' or 'brotherhood' that consists of informal rules and regulations, tactics and folklore passed on from one generation of officers to the next, hence the conscious and unconscious cost associated with non-adherence to criminal investigation procedure (brutalizing citizens) will also be passed on from one generation of officers to the next. According to Kwon (2012), police subculture is a crucial concept in the explanation of police behaviour and attitudes. If this holds true, then there is need to evaluate adherence to criminal investigation procedure, and its relationship with both organizational and individual factors.

THEORIES OF OCCUPATIONAL SELF-EFFICACY

Social Cognitive Theory and Occupational Self-Efficacy

The Social Cognitive Theory was proposed by Bandura (1977) on the assumption that most external influences affect behavior through cognitive processes – that is, human behaviour is guided by cognitions between the stimulus and response. Cognitive factors partly determine which environmental events will be observed, what meaning will be conferred on them, whether they leave any lasting effects, what emotional impact and motivating power they will have, and how the information they convey will be organized for future use (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 2002). Hence, people process and transform

passing experiences by means of verbal, imagery and other symbols into cognitive models of reality that serve as guides for judgment and action. It is through cognitive processes that people give meaning, form, and continuity to the experiences they have had. They serve as the vehicle of thought.

Cognitive representations of experiences in knowledge structures provide the substance for thinking and rules, and strategies provide the cognitive operations for manipulating knowledge for different purposes (Bandura, 1989). By manipulating the information derived from personal and vicarious experiences, people gain understanding of causal relationships and expand their knowledge. Knowledge and thinking skills provide the substance and tools for cognitive problem solving, which are tested in thought and either discarded or retained on the basis of estimated consequences before plunging into action (Bandura, 1989; Bem, 1981; Betz & Hackett, 1986). Thus, it is persuasive that human behaviour across situations are largely determined by interaction of memory, emotions, and extant environmental variables.

From this perspective, occupational self-efficacy depends mainly on both the functionality of the brain (and other physiological systems), the perceptual system and the socialization processes within the organization. Thus, the social cognitive theory can be used to explain occupational self-efficacy within the police force since an officer's conviction that he/she can execute behaviour relevant to their own work is born out of cogitation about the extent he has been skilled on the job, options available to perform his job-related task, possible gains and losses, and resources at his disposal – being operative must therefore be a decision just like any other behaviour except of course in cases of psychological insufficiency.

Criticisms of Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory has been criticized based on the following: (1) It focuses too much on the situation and not as much on a person's inner traits: emotions are left out of the equation, dimming personality. A situation does guide behavior, but unconscious motives and emotions also shine through and should not be left out. Personality traits have been shown to predict work ethic as well as how love and relationships will turn out; and (2) It places too much emphasis on cognitive aspects and abilities that it ignores biological and hormonal influences.

Despite these critiques, social cognitive theory is strong: cognition and cogitation are dependent on articulate biological systems, which in combination with environmental forces at relevant stages of life produce personality. It is therefore fitting and related to occupational self-efficacy as decision on whether or not to be an operative/ serve well maybe centrally linked to the officer's assessment of his own-capabilities to do the job and the consequences involved.

Social Learning theory and Occupational Self-Efficacy

Social Learning Theory was developed by Bandura (1977, 1986). This theory emphasizes the interaction between behavior and environment, focusing on behavior patterns the individual develops to deal with the environment instead of instinctual drives. Models of behavior can be developed through face to face experiences or through monitoring of the responses of others. This theory claims that we learn the way we behave by adapting ourselves to readymade models. Consequently, the child is able to learn how to adapt himself to new behavior by watching others do it, and through the rewards accrued from successful performance.

This theory is based on two fundamental elements that are assumed to be related to the fact that individuals make personal interpretations of their past achievements and failing experiences and consequently they set goals upon these interpretations. According to Bandura (1986), people tend to avoid situations they believe exceed their capacities, but they are willing to undertake and perform those tasks or activities they consider themselves to be capable of accomplishing successfully. The second fundamental refers to the fact that individuals set individual goals that become their personal standards for assessing their performance.

According to Mento, Locke and Klein (1992), internal rewards for goal attainment, in other words, the satisfaction one receives from performing a task successfully can drive stronger influences on effort and achievement than external rewards. As described by Bandura (1997), there are individual differences in self-efficacy, also it varies under different circumstances, undergoes transformations with time, and increases achievements as determined by the following factors: mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and emotional states. An individual's sense of self-efficacy is thus determined by a multitude of personal, social, and environmental factors.

With regards to occupational self-efficacy in the police, officers' performance especially in respect of criminal investigation is greatly influenced by these factors: mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and emotional states. These explain the routes through which occupational self-efficacy may influence adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

Achievement Goal Theory and Occupational Self-Efficacy

This theory was proposed by Brdar, Rijavec and Loncaric (2006), and it suggests that individuals hold a set of beliefs, emotions, perceptions, and attributions that inform the way they approach achievement activities. These set of beliefs, emotions, perceptions and attributions are their goal orientation. Goal orientation from this understanding is defined as the reasons individuals engage in achievement-related activities (Karabenick, 2003). In any situation, goal orientations are believed to be an integral and critical part of the experience, not only guiding cognitive processes, but influencing behaviour and emotions (Ames, (1992).

Theorists have identified complementary types of goals that form different goal frameworks (Pintrich, 2000b). First, they proposed a dichotomous goal framework that partitioned goal orientation into two main types of goals: mastery and performance goals (Dweck& Leggett, 1988; Elliot, 1997). Individuals with a mastery goal focus on developing competence and individuals under a performance goal aim to demonstrate competence or to avoid appearing incompetent. Given the inconsistent evidence about the relationship between the performance goal and achievement outcomes, the performance goal was bifurcated into approach and avoidance orientations resulting in a trichotomous goal framework with mastery, performance approach, and performance avoidance goal orientations (Elliot &Harackiewicz, 1996;Elliot, 1997). In this framework, the performance approach goal represents a focus on demonstrating competence and performance avoidance focuses on preventing the appearance of incompetence.

Presently, there is a four-construct model of goal orientation where the mastery approach goal entails engaging in achievement tasks to develop competence; performance approach involves completing achievement tasks to demonstrate ability or outperform others; performance avoidance entails disengaging in achievement tasks to not appear incompetent or avoid doing worst than others; and mastery avoidance involves engaging in achievement tasks to avoid misunderstanding (Elliot & Murayama, 2008).

There is a great deal of research linking all four achievement goal constructs to achievement outcomes. For instance, mastery approach goal orientation has been linked to positive outcomes including long-term retention of information (Elliot & McGregor, 1999), intrinsic motivation (Elliot & Church, 1997), help seeking (Newman, 1998; Ryan & Pintrich, 1998), high performance outcomes (Elliot & Church, 1997), persistence and effort (Elliot, McGregor & Gable, 1999; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990), help-seeking, better self-regulation (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990), attribution of success to effort (Ames & Archer, 1988), positive affect following successful effort (Jagacinski & Nicholls, 1987), preference for challenging tasks (Ames & Archer, 1988), adoption of deep learning strategies (Elliot & McGregor, 1999), positive attitudes (Ames & Archer, 1988), better retention of information (Elliot & McGregor, 1999), intrinsic interest in learning (Butler, 1987), and adaptive reading patterns and outcomes (Meece & Miller, 1999; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997; He, 2008). Mastery avoidance goal is consistently correlated with negative factors such as disorganized studying, state test anxiety, and worry (Elliot & McGregor, 2001), low levels of intrinsic motivation (Cury, Elliot, Da Fonseca & Moller, 2006), help seeking (Karabenick, 2003), and low semester GPA (Finney, Pieper, & Barron, 2004).

The findings are similar for performance avoidance goal orientation in that it is linked to low absorption during task engagement (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996), an unwillingness to seek help with schoolwork (Middleton & Midgley, 1997; Urdan, Ryan, Anderman & Gheen, 2002), reduced intrinsic motivation (Elliot & Church, 1997), low efficacy, low grades, and self-handicapping strategies (Urdan, Ryan, Anderman & Gheen, 2002). However, the findings regarding the effects of the performance approach goal show mixed patterns across studies. For example, the performance approach goal has been found to correlate with positive factors such as high performance outcomes (Elliot & Church, 1997), academic self-concept (Pajares, Britner & Valiante, 2000), performance and high expectations for success (Elliot & Church, 1997), and intrinsic motivation (Elliot & Church, 1997). Yet, it has also been linked to negative outcomes such as inability to retain information and disruptive behavior (Midgley, Kaplan & Middleton, 2001) and higher avoidant help seeking (Ryan & Pintrich, 1998).

With regards to occupational self-efficacy in police force, the achievement goal theory is considered related to this framework in that it suitably explains indications that determine task achievement (outcome) within the police force. Thus, an officer with the mastery approach goal orientation tends to engage in achievement tasks to develop competence; while an officer with performance approach tries completing his job tasks to demonstrate ability or outperform others. The officer with performance avoidance is inclined to disengaging in achievement tasks to not appear incompetent or avoid doing worst than others, while he with mastery avoidance engages in achievement tasks to avoid misunderstanding therefore may not excel. Theoretically then, the task of adhering to the

tedious criminal investigation procedure will have the same outcomes as described under the different orientations.

THEORIES OF HARDINESS

Metatheory of Hardiness

This theory was proposed by Richardson, Neiger, Jensen and Kumpfer, (1990), and Richardson (2002). It evolved through three different waves of hardiness inquiry. The first identified characteristics of people who effectively cope with and grow through disruptions. The second examined the processes in which people acquire these characteristics. The third was the recognition of innate hardiness and human capacity to grow and develop. From this line of research, hardiness was conceptualized as, “a force within everyone that drives them to seek self-actualization, altruism, wisdom, and be in harmony with a spiritual source of strength” (Richardson, 2002, p. 313).

A basic assumption of this theory is the idea of a biopsychospiritual balance (homeostasis), which allows one to adapt (body, mind, and spirit) to current life circumstances. Homeostasis is routinely bombarded by stressors, adverse events, and other expected and unexpected life events, or “life prompts.” Ability to adapt and cope with such life events are influenced by hardiness qualities and previous hardiness reintegration. The interaction between daily stresses and protective factors determines whether serious disruptions will impact the individual chronically while interaction between the life prompts and protective factors determines whether disruptions will occur.

Hardiness qualities are shown as up arrows effectively dealing with life prompts and maintaining homeostasis. Life disruption changes the individual's intact world paradigm. It may result in perceived negative or positive outcomes and a variety of emotional and appraisal responses in the immediate wake of disruption. The reintegration process leads to one of four outcomes:

- 1) Hardy reintegration, where adaptation leads to a higher level of homeostasis,
- 2) Return to baseline homeostasis, in an effort to move past the disruption,
- 3) Recovery with loss, establishing a lower level of homeostasis,
- 4) A dysfunctional state, where maladaptive strategies (e.g., self-destructive behaviour) are used to cope with stressors. Thus, hardiness may be viewed as an outcome of successful coping abilities.

Hardy reintegration involves experiencing insight or growth through disruptions. Reintegration results in the identification or strengthening of hardy qualities. In the hardiness model, it is visualized for clients as additional protective arrows dealing with life stressors. The essence of reintegrating to homeostasis is to heal and move past a disruption.

Reintegration to biopsychospiritual homeostasis in some cases may not be an option in situations such as some permanent physical loss, moving, or death of a loved one. Recovering with loss means that people give up some motivation, hope, or drive because of the demands from life prompts. Dysfunctional reintegration occurs when people resort to substances, destructive behaviors, or other means to deal with the stressors. Most

people who reintegrate dysfunctionally have “blind spots” in their introspective skills and may require therapy to gain some insight into their lives(Richardson, 2002).

When evaluating the Metatheory of hardiness, one must keep in mind that the simplistic linear model reflects one event as it pertains to a particular role, relationship, or experience. There are multiple simultaneous disruptive and reintegrative opportunities. There is no specific time frame within which these processes are expected to occur, and the process may take place in a matter of seconds, for minor new pieces of information, or take years, for traumatic events.

Hardiness reintegration may also be postponed. Some people may experience a stressor, such as abuse as a child, and reintegrate with a negative coping mechanism, such as anger and distrust. Years later, the individual’s coping pattern might be disrupted by therapy and reintegrate healthier coping skills. Richardson (2002) states that, according to the theory, disruption is required to access the components of hardiness because biopsychospiritual homeostasis alone does not make demands for improvement and growth.

However, this theory has received some empirical investigation, which has been primarily limited to using structural equation modeling of hardiness qualities in the hardiness model on samples of women (Dunn, 1994), adult children of alcoholics (Walker, 1996), and university students (Neiger, 1991).

With regards to hardiness among police officers, the metatheory is considered related in that it gives detailed explanation of: (1) The characteristics that enable officers to effectively cope with and grow through disruptions – and in this case, disruption that hinder the appropriate achievement of job related task like adverse organizational

climate. (2) The processes through which a police officer acquires these characteristics, and (3) The recognition of innate hardiness and capacity to grow and develop despite stresses or challenges involved in carrying job-related tasks. Officers could therefore develop capability to adhere to the CIP.

Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory of Hardiness

The Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory (CMRT) proposed by Lazarus (1999) puts equal emphasis on three processes involved in the generation of an emotion: a, appraisal (the cognitive process) b, the central role of the individual's strivings, intentions, and goals (the motivational process), and c, the relevance of external events to these strivings (the relational process). It highlights the role of distinct positive and negative emotions in the stress appraisal process. Essentially, the CMRT links emotion with motivation by arguing that emotions are reactions to the fate of active goal pursuit. Lazarus (1991) and Folkman (1984) viewed stress not as a stimulus or a response, but as a person-environment relationship that is perceived as taxing or exceeding a person's resources. When faced with a stressful situation, a person will evaluate its potential personal relevance and significance in terms of its impact on valued personal goals. This process is known as primary appraisal. Hardiness or resilience would therefore be a product of high motivation and low emotionality in the face of environmental stressors.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) distinguished among different types of primary appraisal: harm/loss, threat, challenge and benign. Harm/loss appraisals refer to an injury or damage that has already been done, such as being diagnosed with a terminal illness. Threat appraisals refer to a potential for harm or loss, fairly typical before health screening tests for example. Challenge appraisals refer to an opportunity for personal growth or mastery,

for example being involved in a weight loss program exercise programme. When a source of stress (stressor) is perceived as benign, no further appraisal or action is undertaken. Harm and threat appraisals are associated with negative emotional reactions, whereas challenge appraisals are linked to more pleasant emotions. Many factors have been identified as determinants of each of these appraisals, including generalized beliefs about control, goal commitment, and the novelty of the stressor (Folkman, 1984).

Folkman emphasized that the three appraisals are not independent and can occur simultaneously to a different extent during a stressful event. In addition to primary appraisals, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) also identified a secondary appraisal process. When a stressor is perceived as relevant and significant, an individual will evaluate the controllability of the stressor and his/her resources and options. Therefore, secondary appraisals involve situational appraisals of control.

Different stress appraisals can lead to different coping responses. Lazarus (1993) defined coping as the cognitive and behavioural efforts employed by an individual to deal with the demands that are created by the stressful person-environment transaction. A large number of coping strategies have been proposed and measured in the literature. Researchers have attempted to reduce these strategies into a smaller meaningful number of dimensions using a diverse array of classification systems. From Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) perspective, there are two main types of coping strategies: those aimed at resolving the stressful encounter (problem-focused) and those utilized to regulate the unpleasant emotions that arise during the encounter (emotion-focused). Examples of problem-focused coping strategies are planning, increasing effort and management of priorities. Examples of emotion-focused coping strategies are distancing, isolation and

wishful thinking. Problem- focused and emotion-focused strategies can be employed to a different extent in the same troubled person-environment relationship.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) emphasized that some coping strategies are not inherently better than others; in fact, effective coping requires a fit between situational appraisals and choice of coping responses (this notion is also known as the goodness of fit model). Specifically, perceptions of controllability of the situation should lead to the utilization of problem-focused strategies to a greater degree than emotion-focused strategies, which are more suitable for situations which are less controllable.

However, Lazarus (1991) emphasized that coping is a dynamic process with substantial intra-individual and inter-individual variability; individuals might have to utilize different coping strategies at different stages of the same stressful encounter or from one stressful encounter to another. Also, coping strategies that are effective for one individual might not be effective for another person in the same encounter. Nevertheless, Lazarus (1993) acknowledged that some coping strategies are more stable than others, although he did not subscribe to the trait approach on coping (e.g., Endler& Parker, 1990; Krohne, 1996). The latter approach views that individuals have a preferred coping repertoire (i.e., coping styles) which they employ across different situations and which are determined to a large extent by personality variables (e.g., optimism, extraversion).

This theory is considered related to the understanding of hardiness in this study because it emphasizes an individual's evaluation of the controllability of the stressor in juxtaposition with his/her resources, and goal. Thus, suggesting the appraisal processes that determine whether or not an officer will successfully carry out an investigative task as expected (that is within the tenets of the investigation procedure) could be based on

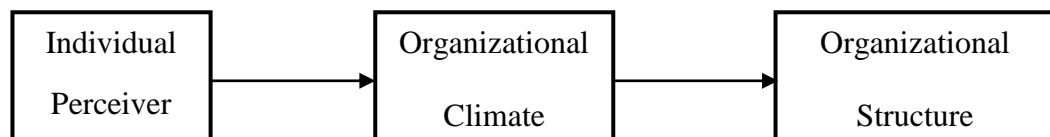
his/her perceived controllability of the stressor (maybe impermeability of some suspects, or the organizational odds), the strength of motivation, and options available to be adopted. Controllability and strength of motivation seem unequivocally related to hardiness.

THEORIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The Structural theory of Organizational Climate

This approach was proposed by Moran and Volkwein (1992), and it views organizational climate as characteristics or attributes of an organization, which are considered to be owned by the organization and exist independent of the perceptions of the individual members. This approach is equivalent to the perceptual measurement-organizational attribute approach proposed by James and Jones (1974) and to what Schneider and Reicher's (1983) referred to as the structural argument. As reflected in the figure that follows, Moran and Volkwein (1992) offer a visual representation of the above-mentioned approach. From the figure below, it is evident that the organization's structure gives rise to the organizational climate, which is then perceived by the members of the organization. Hence, organizational climate is formed as a result of the common perceptions members have of exposure to common organizational structure.

A Visual Representation of the Structural Approach



Source: Moran and Volkwein (1992, p. 24)

However, certain dilemmas are innate in this model (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Firstly, the structural approach does not take into account why studies have found different work group climates in one organization where the structural factors are common throughout the organization. A second criticism of the structural approach relates to an organization's climate demonstrating a significant and consistent relationship with its structural characteristic. However, studies conducted in this area show a high level of inconsistency between the factors. The third and final criticism suggests that there is a lack of consideration of the subjective role that structural variables have on an individual's reaction to a situation, and disregards the interpretive processes involved between individuals in groups.

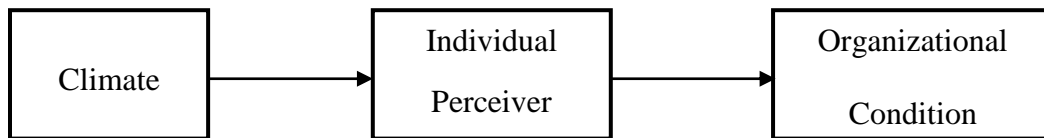
The Perceptual Theory of Organizational Climate

The perceptual approach is similar to the perceptual measurement-individual attribute approach of James and Jones (1974). This approach postulates that organizational climate originates in the individual, which is in direct contrast to the aforementioned approach which views organizational structure as the basis of organizational climate (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). According to this approach, the individual interprets and responds to the situation in a way that is psychologically meaningful to him/her.

The figure below illustrates how, in this approach, the individual perceives the organizational conditions and then creates a psychological representation of the climate. The term "organizational conditions" refers to the structural characteristics highlighted in the previous approach but is more encompassing in the sense that it includes organizational processes such as communication, influence, leadership and decision-making patterns (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). This is similar to what Schneider and Hall

(1972) referred to as summary or global perceptions. According to them, global perceptions of an organization emerge as the result of activities, interactions, reactions and a range of daily encounters the person has with the organization. Hence, climate is reflective of personal and organizational interaction.

A Visual Representation of how the individual perceives Organizational conditions creating a Representation of Climate



Source: Moran & Volkwein (1992, p. 24)

The perceptual approach can yield aggregate climates in two ways. In both instances, psychological traits form the basis of perceiving climate. The first way in which aggregate climates can develop is referred to as the selection-attraction-attrition (SAA) approach of Schneider and Reichers (1983). According to this perspective, the combination of organizational selection processes and individual processes of attraction to the organization and attrition from the organization leads to the development of a relatively homogenous membership in the organization. This similarity in membership results in similar climate perceptions.

The second way in which the perceptual approach can be used to produce aggregate climate, termed “collective climate” was proposed by Joyce & Slocum (1984). “Collective climates” are created by grouping together organizational members on the basis of their agreement of psychological climate perceptions. These groupings are made

post hoc, and include members from the total organization, but do not take into account the formal subunits in the organization.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) identify two key criticisms of the perceptual approach:

- i. By placing the source of climate mainly in individuals, the perceptual approach denounces the possibility of a composition theory, and as such, cannot be regarded as an organizational attribute.
- ii. It assumes that meaning is something that individuals bring to and force on organizational processes and events rather than as a result of the interaction of organizational members.

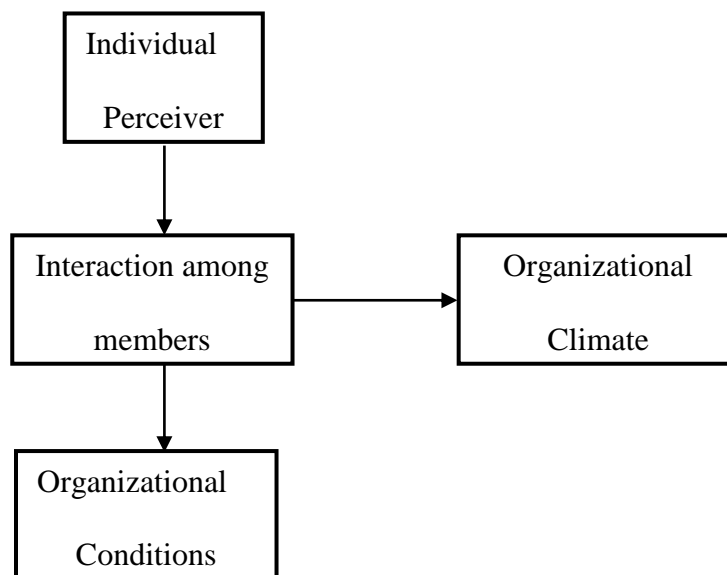
The Interactive Theory of Organizational Climate

This approach builds on the aforementioned approaches and combines the objectivism of the structural approach and the subjectivism of the perceptual approach (Ashforth, 1985). The underlying assumption of the interactive approach is that organizational climate is the result of the interaction of individuals in response to their situation which results in the shared agreement of organizational members (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

This approach identifies communication as a key contributor to organizational climate. Empirical studies conducted by O'Driscoll and Evans (cited in Moran & Volkwein, 1992) and Coetsee and PottasZyl (cited in Gerber, 2003) corroborate communication as a central element contributing to climate. The figure here under depicts the relationship between organizational conditions, the individual perceiver, the interactions of group members, and organizational climate. From this diagram it is evident that organizational

climate is the result of the members' interaction. This approach provides a link between the structural and the perceptual approaches because it acknowledges that meaning is generated by the individual intentionally interacting with objects and people because it provides meaning for them.

A Visual Representation of the Interactive Approach



Source: Moran & Volkwein (1992, p. 28)

Two sources explain the interactive approach to organizational climate, namely inter-subjectivity which is derived from the phenomenology of German philosopher Edmund Husserl and symbolic interactionism which is based on the work of an American philosopher, George Mead (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

Inter-subjectivity refers to the process whereby organizational members' perceptions, interpretations, values, beliefs and so on are mutually interlinked and in concurrence. Individuals become aware of others with similar experiences and then use these people as role models to establish themselves. Through awareness of others and by incorporating themselves into the "self", the experiences of others become part of the individual's consciousness.

Symbolic interactionism stresses that meaning arises from interactions between people (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). According to this view, primary importance is placed on the interactions that take place during the new comer's socialization period and the vital role that group membership plays as a determinant of climate is highlighted. It is clear from this approach that the climate emerges through the social interactions of individuals in a specific work context and the exposure to the same processes. A criticism of the interactive approach is that it does not explain the role that the social context or organizational culture plays in shaping interaction and only takes cognizance of the interactions among individuals.

The Cultural Model of Organizational Climate

The approaches discussed above do not take into consideration the influence of organizational culture on individuals' perceptions and on how exactly they interact. The

cultural approach does not focus on the formal properties of organizations or concern itself with the subjective psychological characteristics of individuals, nor with how individuals combine these two approaches. According to the cultural approach, organizational climate is shaped by individuals in a group who interact and who share the same abstract frame of reference; organizational culture, as they learn to deal with organizations' demands (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). This approach emphasizes the interaction of individuals as a source of climate, a view it shares with the interactive approach delineated above. However, the cultural approach includes the role of organizational culture as a key factor in the development of organizational climate.

From the model above, it is clear that organizational climate forms part of organizational culture. The model illustrates how the individual perceives organizational conditions, which is moderated by his/her personality, cognition and inter-subjectivity owing to interactions with other individuals.

Organizational climate in turn, is influenced by the culture in the organization, which influences the perceptions of individuals and inter-subjective processes. Hence, while climate has an influence on the interaction in an organization, the interaction shapes the organization's climate and can influence its culture (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). The cultural approach moves away from the structural approach of linking climate to formal organizational properties as well as the perceptual and interactive approaches that examine the subjective psychological processes. Instead, it emphasizes the social arrangements in which cultural features become meaningful.

In a nutshell, stemming from the cultural approach, organizational climate is the result of the interaction of individuals who have a common frame of reference (culture) based on their exposure to similar environmental situations (organizational conditions). Emphasis is no longer placed on the perceptions of individuals but on the interactions of members as well as on the role organizational culture plays in the formation of organizational climate.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework guiding the present study is the Expectancy Theory which fundamentally holds that: cognitive learning involves acquire expectancies to react to certain stimuli as signs of others previously associated with them, also as a motivational theory positing that the greater the likely hood of a particular activity having a positive outcome, the more likely the activity will occur. Vroom (1970, 1983), explains that behaviour results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain. It emphasizes that for an employee to perform optimally, various individual factors must come to play, such as personality, skills, knowledge, efforts, experience and abilities, which are greatly linked in a person's motivation.

Vroom posited that variables of

- a. **Expectancy:** The belief that increased effort will lead to increased performance, which is affected by such things as having the right resources available (e.g. raw materials, time), having the right skills to do the job, having the necessary support to get the job done (e.g. supervisor support, or correct information on the job;
- b. **Instrumentality:** the belief that if one performs well, a valued outcome will be received – that is the degree to which a first level outcome will lead to the second level

outcome, affected by such things as: Clear understanding of the relationship between performance and outcomes – e.g. the rules of the reward 'game', Trust in the people who will take the decisions on who gets what outcome, Transparency of the process that decides who gets what outcome; and c. **Valence:** The importance that the individual places upon the expected outcome, are important factors in choosing one element over another because they are clearly defined.

Adherence to criminal investigation procedure by this theory should be determined by:

- (a) The officers' appraisal of personal resources as adequate for the execution of the job, and the value assigned to criminal investigation procedure in relation to his/her job;
- (b) The appraisal of the costs including the value placed on professionalism and the image of the force;
- (c) The degree of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: the benefits accruable from adherence, (e.g. satisfaction for excellent performance; that is winning cases in court, awards, or promotion), and
- (d) What is on ground: How the organization reacts to particular performance, supervisors' behaviour; organizational climate.

It is logical that both the Social Cognitive Theory of Occupational Self-efficacy, Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory (CMRT) of Hardiness, and Structural Model of Organizational Climate could be condensed in Vroom's Expectancy Theory. The Vroom's Expectancy Theory suitably explains factors that account for employees' devotion/commitment to the laid down organizational procedures(adherence), and further holds that since behaviour results from conscious choices among alternatives, efforts on these choices inspired by beliefs and values of the outcomes will lead to success on the

job. Adherence to criminal investigation procedure must therefore be a post appraisal choice among available options, which choice must be greatly dependent on individual factors like self-efficacy and hardiness, as well as environmental factors like organizational climate.

EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Related Empirical Review on Occupational Self-efficacy

Eze and Ikebuaku (2018) examined occupational self-efficacy as antecedents of organizational commitment among Ajaokuta Steel Company workers in Ajaokuta, Kogi State were investigated in this study. One hundred and eighty-nine (189) participants were used in the study. The instruments used to collect data for the study were Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OSES) (Pethe, Chaudhari&Dhar, 1999) and Occupational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer and Allen, 1990). A cross sectional design was adopted for the study. Regression analysis was used to analyze the data and statistical package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 was employed in the data analysis. The finding indicated that occupational self-efficacy was a significant determinant of organizational commitment. This implies that an employee who has high self-efficacy is likely to have a high level of commitment towards his/her organization. It is recommended that organizations should give attention to workers' occupational self-efficacy.

The study of Eze and Ikebuaku (2018) is related to the present study because it is centered on occupational self-efficacy, but differed in terms of correlating variable and research population.

Kappagoda, (2018) investigated the impact of work self-efficacy on task performance and contextual performance of employees in the banking sector in Sri Lanka. The data were randomly collected from a sample of 176 managers and 357 non-managerial employees. A questionnaire was administered to the employees to measure their self-efficacy, task performance, and contextual performance. The collected data were analyzed using correlation coefficient and regression analysis. The results of the study indicated that self-efficacy significantly and positively correlated with task performance and contextual performance. According to the findings, the employees' trust on their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to accomplish tasks significantly and positively correlated with the behaviors that are directly related with the completion of the job and with the extra role supporting behaviors which are not directly related to the job.

The study by Kappagoda, (2018) is related to the present study in that it was focused on employees' task performance but differed from the present study in that it was carried out among bankers, and not on specific task such as criminal investigation.

Machmud (2018) aimed to know the influence of self-efficacy on satisfaction, work perception, and task performance. The total sample was 69 employees with purposive sampling technique adopted. Data analysis was a partial least squares approach (PLS). The result showed that there was a significant positive effect of self-efficacy on satisfaction and employee's job perception that impact on the work-related performance. The results of this study suggests that the self-efficacy improves satisfaction and work perception.

This study (Machmud, 2018) is related to the present study in that it captured impact of self-efficacy on task performance, but diverged from the present study in that it was not on specific task performance.

FatihandDuysal (2018) investigated the role of occupational self-efficacy on work performance through intrinsic motivation by using a longitudinal analysis. Design/methodology/approach: Participants were 76 employees from diverse organizations operating in an organized industrial region in Turkey. Participants filled in a weekly questionnaire during ten consecutive weeks. Findings: Results of multilevel analyses confirmed our hypotheses by showing that occupational self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation have a significant influential role over work performance, and intrinsic motivation serve as a partial mediator in this relationship. Originality/value: The study findings also reveal important information for organizational and managerial practices to improve employee motivation and performance.

The study of FatihandDuysal (2018) is related to the present study because it was on occupational self-efficacy, but differed in terms of scope, study participants and research interest.

Okechukwu and Ronald (2015) highlighted the extent of organizational commitment and self-efficacy possessed by the Nigerian Police personnel amidst their efforts to combat terrorism in the country. Participants numbering 112 were sampled for the study through probability (cluster) and non-probability (incidental) techniques among the Nigeria Police personnel in Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria. The average age of the participants was 35.7 years. “Self-Efficacy Scale” and “Organizational Commitment Inventory” were used to measure constructs of interest. The study had 6-groups field design. Pearson correlation

and multivariate statistics were used to analyze the collected data. The three hypotheses tested in the study at $p < .05$ were “organizational commitment and self-efficacy of the Nigerian Police personnel will not significantly influence each other”; “Nigerian Police personnel will not significantly possess high organizational commitment”, and; “self-efficacy of Nigerian Police personnel will not be significantly high”. The first hypothesis was accepted, while the second and third were rejected. Again, while some of the Nigerian Police personnel possessed “identification”, “job involvement”, and “loyalty” attributes of organizational commitment; as well as “social performance efficiency”, and “work performance competence” attributes of self-efficacy above the average, others possessed them below the average. There is therefore the need to conduct more studies on the organizational commitment, and self-efficacy of the Nigerian Police personnel, as a single study like this one will not suffice amidst the overwhelming terrorists’ attacks in Nigeria. Further studies have to increase the number of Police personnel participants, especially the senior personnel participants from the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Police (ASP).

The study by Okechukwu and Ronald (2015) is related to the present study in terms of the research participants and self-efficacy, but differ in terms of research interest.

Related Empirical Review on Hardiness

Recent research suggest that hardiness interact with work conditions producing effects on objective psychological health outcomes. For instance, an interaction was found among hardiness, job control, and psychological demands (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011). When demands were high, high job control was associated with more absence among employees lower on hardiness. Their results show that psychological demands in the

work environment had a stronger negative impact on employees with low levels of hardiness under conditions of high, as opposed to low job control.

Hardiness has also been investigated in the contexts of other work outcomes, such as attitudes towards work and organization, and work-related behaviors. Studies have found that hardiness is positively related to job satisfaction (Cash & Gardner, 2011). Employees high on hardiness have more responsible work behaviors and are more efficient in stressful tasks (Manning, Williams & Wolfe, 1988), see their job in better light, and are more committed to their organizations (Sezgin, 2009). Persons higher on hardiness use adaptive coping strategies more frequently (e.g. active and problem-focused strategies), and non-adaptive strategies (e.g. avoidance) less frequently (Cash & Gardner, 2011). McCalister, Dolbier, Webster, Mallon and Steinhardt, (2006) had found that they have better and wider social networks which provide them with support in the situations requiring coping with work stress, and they report higher levels of social support by co-workers and supervisors. All these indicate that persons higher on hardiness are better equipped to manage work stress.

Maddi, Matthews, Kelly, Villarreal and White (2012) examined the effectiveness of hardiness training on performance among 1,285 first-year cadets at the United States Military Academy (USMA). The 18-item Personal Views Survey III Revised (PVS III-R; Maddi et al., 2006) was used to assess participants' hardiness; while the 17-item grit scale developed by Duckworth and Quinn (2009) was used to assess participants' unswerving, sustained pursuit of a given interest or goal—that is, grit. Data was calculated using Pearson Moment Correlation Analysis. The results of the study revealed that hardiness had a positive influence on the performance of USMA cadets. The researchers proposed

that implementing hardiness assessment and training may help cadets in enhancing their performance.

This study (Maddi, Matthews, Kelly, Villarreal and White (2012) is related to the present study in that it focused on psychological hardiness. Also, focusing cadet's performance, is relevant since performance must have followed guide lines much the same way interrogation requires adherence to set rules it.

Lo Bue, Kintaert, Taverniers, Mylle, Delahaij and Euwema (2016) studied the impact of hardiness on behavioral persistence and physical performance of military trainees. The participants in the study were a group of 233 trainees involved in a 22-week long basic training program. Hardiness was measured at the start of the program. After two months, the researchers collected the data on participants, who continued with the program and those who had withdrawn. The results revealed that trainees who continued after two months of training were higher on hardiness than those who withdrew from the program. The findings of the study supported the hypothesis that hardiness improves behavioral persistence and performance.

The study is related to the present study in that it focused on performance within the force, importantly two, it evaluated the relationship between hardiness and behavioural persistence which is a step towards adherence. It differed though in that it was not on adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

A recent study by Janssens, van der Velden, Taris and van Veldhoven, (2017) examined the relationship between psychological hardiness and performance among police officers. One of the objectives of the study was to examine the moderating effect of psychological hardiness on the relationship between occupational self-efficacy and performance

satisfaction. All the 163 participants of the study were on occupational duties (such as investigation, patrol, organized crime matters). The findings revealed that for an individual with low levels of hardiness, the relationship between self-efficacy and performance was negative, whereas for those with high levels of hardiness the relationship between self-efficacy and performance was significantly positive.

This study is related to the present study in that it was carried out with a population similar to the population of the present study (police officers) and also on their performance, but it differed because it was not narrowed to specific performance just like the present study, which is interested in adherence to criminal investigation procedure among the police officers.

Pinar, Mehmet and Tebessum (2018) analyzed the participants' 3H levels and the relationships between those levels and specific variables. The Psychological Hardiness Scale (Psikolojik Dayanıklılık Ölçeği, PDO), the Oxford Happiness Questionnaire Short Form (OHQ-SF), and the Humor Styles Questionnaire (HSQ) were used. Students in pedagogical formation training during the 2016–2017 fall semester have participated in the study ($N = 211$). Significant differences were found regarding the levels of psychological hardiness in relation to gender, type of sport, and years of participation, and, in humor types regarding the variables of gender, age, residence and perceived income. There were significant differences in all instruments regarding gender. Negative relationships were found between the “aggressive humor” and “challenge” and “self-commitment” sub-dimensions of PDO, while the relationships were positive between “self-enhancing humor” and PDO and OHQ-SF, and between “affiliative humor” style and PDO and OHQ-SF. This study enhances the positive socio-psychological account in

the literature by incorporating the issues of 3H and provides an understanding of particularities that may help improve the practice of relevant experts and individuals.

The study of Pinar, Mehmet and Tebessum (2018) relates to the present study in that it was on hardiness, but differed in terms of research participant, scope and interest.

Related Empirical Review on Organizational Climate

Lone, Garnås, Myklebust, Bjørklund, Hoff and Bjørkli (2017) identified organizational climate dimensions that are salient for police investigation performance, and to explicate the mechanisms of the relationship between organizational climate and investigation performance. They conducted thirty-eight semi-structured interviews with participants at three job levels of police investigative work (Chiefs of Police, n = 11, Senior Investigating Officers, n = 14, Detectives, n = 13) in eleven Norwegian police districts. They analyzed the interview data by using a model of organizational climate based on the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Two types of climate, Human Relations climate and Rational Goal Climate were perceived to enhance investigation performance. The findings indicated that a Human Relations climate enhances investigation performance by developing collective human capital, and by supporting internal and external cooperation and coordination of resources. Moreover, the findings suggest that a Rational Goal climate increases investigation performance by encouraging planning, goal-setting, and task focus.

The foregoing is similar to the present study in that it captured police officers' investigation performance, but varies from the present study because it did not capture their adherence to criminal investigation procedure as they carried out their investigation.

Olibie, Uzoechina and Eziuzor (2015) aimed at determining the prevailing organizational climate types in public and private owned secondary schools in Delta North Senatorial zone of Delta State of Nigeria. Two research questions were stated. The study was a descriptive survey involving a sample of 768 respondents (48 principals and 720 teachers) selected through a simple random sampling technique. Data were collected through a 42-item researcher-developed questionnaire, structured on a four-point Mean scores of the obtained aggregate were used to answer the research questions. The findings indicated that autonomous, controlled, open and paternal school organizational climates were prevalent in public and private secondary schools in Delta North senatorial zone of Delta state. The major implication of the findings of this study is based on the fact that more than one and up to four school organizational climates prevail in secondary schools in Delta North Senatorial zone. The conclusion is that the principals are aware and have been ensuring balanced organizational climate as evident in the prevailing number of organizational climate types in the private and public schools.

Olibie, Uzoechina and Eziuzor (2015)' study is connected to the present study because it involved organizational climate, but varied in terms of research participants and interest.

Rui-Hsin (2015) examined the police's organization behavior and context effects of international harbor police organization in Taiwan with Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM). An organizational context of the international harbor police be explored, then tested using data collected from a survey of 704 police officers of 34 international harbor police stations in Taiwan. The findings not only show that transformational leadership (TL) and organizational commitment (OC) will positively influence the police's organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) but also the organizational climate (OCL)

possesses a context effect on OC, as well as OCB. Furthermore, the results also show that aggregated TL (ATL) has an interactive influence on the OCB. According to the research we have done. In order to reach successful leadership effectiveness, the leadership structure of the police organization must greatly reduce its authoritativeness and eliminate the unnecessary chain of command.

The study of Rui-Hsin (2015) is associated because they both focused on organizational climate and police officers, but differed in terms of research interest.

Umoh, Amah, & Wokocha, (2013) examined the relationship between organizational climate and corporate performance in the Nigerian oil industry. The sample for the study consisted of three hundred and eighty-two (382) employees from seven randomly selected major oil companies in Nigeria. The study utilized both quantitative data (questionnaire) and qualitative data (interview). The Spearman rank correlation coefficient and Multiple Regression Model using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17 were utilized for the analysis of data. Our findings revealed a positive and significant relationship between organizational climate and corporate performance. Specifically, recognition for achievement, organizational support and cohesion were revealed to have a positive and significant influence on corporate performance. Based on this finding, it was concluded that the prevailing organizational climate had a significant positive effect on corporate performance. The managerial implications of these findings were also discussed.

Umoh, Amah, & Wokocha, (2013) conducted a similar study to the present study because they were also interested in organizational climate, but their study differed from the present study in terms of scope, study participants, and research interest.

Summary of Reviewed Literature

This chapter included review of literature that suitably explain the topic: occupational self-efficacy and hardiness as correlates of adherence to criminal investigation procedure: the moderating effect of organizational climate. In doing this, conceptual review of each of the variables: Adherence to criminal investigation procedure, occupational self-efficacy, hardiness and organizational climate was captured. This was followed by the review of various theoretical assumptions underlying each variable under study. Theories for each of the variables were stated and explained with regards to criminal investigation procedure, after which the Vroom's Expectancy Theory (1970, 1983), which assumes that behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain was adopted as the theoretical framework guiding the study.

This was followed by the review of empirical findings related to each of the study, as they link to adherence to criminal investigation procedure. From the empirical findings reviewed however, it was discovered that although studies have been carried out on performance in the force (e.g. military) and particularly on investigation performance among the police officers, researchers neglect empirical evaluation of adherence to criminal investigation procedure among the police officers and to provide a thorough understanding of factors associated with same, and finally, to assess the moderating effect

of organizational climate in the relationship between occupational self-efficacy, hardiness and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among police officers.

This is surprising given that police brutality is skyrocketing to an alarming state, and causing nuisance to the entire society. The purpose of this study is thus to address these gaps in literature. This study however contributes to the empirical evaluations of the moderating effect of organizational climate in the relationship between occupational self-efficacy, hardiness and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among police officers by addressing the following hypotheses.

Hypotheses

1. Occupational self-efficacy will significantly and positively correlate with adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.
2. Hardiness will significantly and positively correlate with adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.
3. Organizational climate will significantly and positively correlate with adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.
4. The interaction between occupational self-efficacy and organizational climate will significantly predict adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.
5. The interaction between hardiness and organizational climate will significantly predict adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

This chapter shows details of the method used in the study. It is specifically divided into four subheads of: Participants, Instruments (including their Validity and Reliability), Procedure, and Design and Statistics.

Participants

Participants comprised four hundred and three (403) Officers of the Criminal Investigation and Intelligence Department (CIID) of the Nigeria Police Force, who were purposively selected from the Criminal Investigation and Intelligence Departments of the

police headquarters in each of the five states of the South Eastern Geopolitical Zone. The Criminal Investigation and Intelligence Department at the state headquarters host the largest number, and busiest set of crime investigation officers in the states. The participants comprised of two hundred and twenty-five (225) males, and one hundred and seventy-eight (178) females. Breakdown by states: Abia (Males: 43, Females: 38); Anambra (Males: 46, Females: 30); Ebonyi (Males: 43, Females: 35); Enugu (Males: 48, Females: 40); and Imo (Males: 45, Females: 35). Their ages ranged from 25 to 57 years old, with the mean age of 39.69 years, and standard deviation of 13.22.

Instruments

Four instruments were used for data collection:

Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure Questionnaire (ACIPQ):

This is a five-item (5) self-report measure, adapted from a fifteen item questionnaire used by the Police College (2015), cited in Umeoji and Ugwu-Oju (2019) to assess the extent to which an officer sticks to the laid down processes used to identify, locate and prove the guilt or culpability of an accused person/s. It is scored in a 5-point Likert format ranging from 1 = strongly disapprove to 5 = strongly approve. Two items (1 and 3) are reversed during scoring. Higher score in the test indicates better adherence to the criminal investigation procedure.

This instrument was subjected to pilot testing to ascertain the internal consistency and the reliability coefficient .82 was obtained.

Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale – Short form (OSS-SF):

The scale was adopted by Rigotti, Schyns and Mohr (2008), as a short version of the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OSS) by Schyns and von Collani (2002) which was

used to measure the competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job (occupational self-efficacy). The OSS-SF is composed of six items that are answered on a Likert scale of six points, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

The authors obtained a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.87. However, the scale was also subjected to pilot testing, and a reliability coefficient of .78 was obtained for the present study.

Dispositional Resilience Scale 15-R:

This was developed by Hystad, Eid, Johnsen, Laberg and Bartone(2010), to measures psychological hardiness. It consists of 15 items measuring the three factors of hardiness: Challenge, Commitment, and Control, scored on a 4-point likert scale ranging from not at all true = 0 to completely true =3. Original Cronbach's alpha for the scale was as follows: Total scale ($\alpha = 0.79$), Commitment ($\alpha = .70$), Challenge ($\alpha = .71$); and Control ($\alpha = .75$). The researcher subjected this scale to pilot testing, and obtained a reliability coefficient of .75 for the present study.

Organizational Climate Questionnaire – Short Version (OCQ-S):

This is a 15-item instrument developed by Pena-Suarez, Muniz, Campillo-Alvarez, Fonseca-Pedrero& Garcia-Cueeto (2013) to measure the shared perceptions regarding the policies, practices, and procedures that an organization expects, supports, and rewards. The questionnaire utilized a 5 –point Likert-type scale which ranged from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree.

Pena-Suarez et al., (2013) reported a Cronbach alpha co-efficient of .97, testing on Health Service workers. Equally, this scale was exposed to pilot testing employing 60 men of the

Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps, Awka Command, and a Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient of .77 was obtained for the present study.

Procedure

A letter of introduction signed by the Head of Department of Psychology, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, was taken to the Commissioner of Police in each of the Commands located in the State Capital through the Police Public Relation Officers (PPRO) to obtain approval. On approval, the researcher sought and gained the assistance of the PPRO, and the Head of the CIID of each of the states. They were consequently briefed on the nature of the research and assistance needed: to help distribute the instruments and collect them from officers/respondents. Informed consent was elicited from the participants through signing of consent form to show acceptance to participate in the study. Copies of the collapsed instrument (arranged in a form of five sections) was thereafter administered to crime investigation officers. All the investigative officers in the state headquarters who met the inclusion criterion were meant to participate in the study. The inclusion criteria were: Having worked in the State Criminal Investigation and Intelligence Department for at least two years.

Design and Statistics

This is a correlational design, and the moderated regression analysis was adopted as the appropriate statistic. This is because the study sought to analyze the strength of the relationship among the variables of interest.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter showed the result of the moderated regression analysis conducted on Occupational Self-efficacy and Hardiness as correlates of Adherence to Criminal Investigation Procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria: Moderating effect of Organizational Climate in the table below:

Table 1

Correlation Matrix of the relationships between occupational self-efficacy, hardiness, organizational climate and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

	1	2	3	4
1 Adherence	1			
2 Self-efficacy	.46**	1		
3 Hardiness	.29**	.15*	1	
4 Organizational Climate	.33**	.25**	.19*	1

**= $p < .01$, *= $P < .05$

The correlation table showed that there were significant relationships between occupational self-efficacy and adherence $r = .46$, $p < .01$, hardiness and adherence $r = .29$, $p < .01$, and organizational climate and adherence $r = .33$, $O < .01$.

Table 2

Showing the Moderator effects and independent effects of hardiness, occupational self-efficacy, and organizational climate (moderator variable) on adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

Outcome Adherence	R ²	Df	F	B	Std. Error
Model 1	.18	3(399)	29.76**		

Hardiness (x_1)				.10**	.02
Organizational Climate (x_2)				.06*	.01
$x^1 \times x^2$				-.03*	.001
Model 2	.26	3(399)	47.52**		
Occupational Self-efficacy (x_3)				-.24**	.12
Organizational climate (x_4)				.05*	.01
$x^3 \times x^4$				-.01	.01

**= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$

The result of Table 2 showed that the predictor variables in model 1 and model 2 significantly predicted Adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

The adjusted R^2 for Model 1 is .18(18%), the F. value of the model was significant $F(3,399) = 29.76, p < .01$. Specifically, the beta coefficient of the predictor variables were hardiness, $B = .10, p < .01$; organizational climate $B = .06, p < .05$, and the moderator coefficient of the interaction of Hardiness and organizational climate $B = -.03, p < .05$.

For model 2, the adjusted $R^2 = .26$ and the F-value was significant at $F(3,399) 47.52, p < .01$. While occupational efficacy and organizational climate predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure respectively $B = .24, p < .01$ and $B = .05, p < .05$.

The interaction of occupational self-efficacy and organizational climate was not significant.

Summary of Findings

1. Hardiness significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria

(Adherence to criminal investigation procedure increases with increase in hardiness).

2. Occupational self-efficacy significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria (Increase in occupational self-efficacy increases adherence to criminal investigation procedure).
3. Organizational climate significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria (As organizational climate becomes more favourable, adherence to criminal investigation procedure increases).
4. There was a significant interaction between hardiness and organizational climate on adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria (Officers adherence to investigation procedure increases with joint effect of increased hardiness and organizational climate).
5. There was no significant interaction effect of occupational self-efficacy and organizational climate on adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria (Officers adherence to criminal investigation procedure did not increase when organizational climate's effect was "imposed" on occupational self-efficacy).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to evaluate occupational self-efficacy and hardiness as correlates of adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers

in South-East Nigeria: moderating effect of Organizational Climate. From the findings, it was discovered that hardiness significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure. This suggests that investigating officers who adhere strictly to the criminal investigation procedure are imbued with the strength that characteristically enable effective coping with disruptions that hinder appropriate achievement of job related tasks such as stresses or challenges involved in carrying job-related tasks.

This finding indeed aligns with the assertion of Manning, Williams and Wolfe, (1988) and Sezgin, (2009) that employees high in hardiness have more responsible work behaviour and are more efficient in stressful tasks, see their jobs in better light, and are more committed to their organizations. It could again be associated with the finding of McCalister, Dolbier, Webster, Mallon and Steinhardt, (2006) who found that employees high in hardiness have better and wider social networks which provide them with support in situations requiring coping with work stress, and they report higher levels of social support by co-workers and supervisors. All these indicate that persons higher in hardiness are better equipped to manage work stress, and in this sense, the stress associated with eliciting confessional statements from hardened criminals while obeying the laid down rules of the procedure. This could be so considering that resilient people are characteristically less readily provoked than less resilient people, therefore are more likely to persist on a job so as to finish it well.

The study also found that occupational self-efficacy significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure. This suggests that the cognitive processes of an individual worker especially in relation to the work he or she does, actually has an influence on the job being done. That is, one's appraisal of one's job and job expectation,

to a great extent affect the person's performance on the job. By this finding, an officer's conviction that he/she can execute behaviour relevant to their own work is born out of cogitation about the extent he has been skilled on the job, options available to perform his job-related task, possible gains and losses, and resources at his disposal. Hence, adherence to criminal investigation procedure must therefore be a decision just like any other behaviour except of course in cases of psychological insufficiency.

This finding aligns with the studies by Kappagoda, (2018) who investigated the impact of work self-efficacy on task performance and contextual performance of employees, and found that self-efficacy significantly and positively correlated with task performance and contextual performance; and Machmud (2018) who aimed to know the influence of self-efficacy on satisfaction, work perception, and task performance, and found a significant positive effect of self-efficacy on work-related performance. It also relates to the study by FatihandDuysal (2018) who investigated the role of occupational self-efficacy on work performance through intrinsic motivation, and found that occupational self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation have a significant influential role over work performance.

Thirdly, organizational climate significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure. This suggests that the interaction of individuals in response to their situation which results in the shared agreement of organizational members plays a vital role in determining whether or not they would adhere to the guiding principle of any assignment so consigned (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Hence, good work social environment provokes to a greater extent, the propensity to respond positively to the principles and values of organizations, perhaps due to added psychological satisfaction of being in the workplace.

This finding somewhat agrees with the study by Lone, Garnås, Myklebust, Bjørklund, Hoff and Bjørkli (2017) who identified that organizational climate dimensions are salient for police investigation performance, and to explicate the mechanisms of the relationship between organizational climate and investigation performance, and found that a Human Relations climate enhances investigation performance by developing collective human capital, and by supporting internal and external cooperation and coordination of resources. The argument is completely agreeable to the researcher.

There was a significant interaction between hardiness and organizational climate on adherence to criminal investigation procedure. This suggests that the ability to perceive external conditions as desirable (Jomhori, 2002), interacts with the shared perceptions regarding the policies, practices, and procedures that an organization expects, supports, and rewards to give rise to the extent to which an officer sticks to the laid down processes used to identify, locate and prove the guilt or culpability of an accused person/s. It suggests however that adherence to criminal investigation procedure is determined by: the officers' appraisal of personal resources as adequate for the execution of the job, appraisal of the utility of the criminal investigation procedure to effective delivery of the job; the appraisal of the costs including the value placed on professionalism and the image of the force, the degree of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: the benefits accruable from adherence, e.g. satisfaction for excellent performance (like winning cases in court), praises, promotion, and what is on ground: How the organization reacts to particular performance, supervisors' behaviour and organizational climate.

The finding justified the theoretical framework of the study; Expectancy theory, which explains that behaviour results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose

it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain. Hence, justifying the link between factors within and outside a police officer and adherence to criminal investigation procedure, since certain behaviours are exhibited after due appraisal. Thus, personal and environmental factors modify the strength of motivation in determining whether or not particular behaviour will be exhibited; in this case, adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

Finally, there was no significant interaction effect of occupational self-efficacy and organizational climate on adherence to criminal investigation procedure. This submits that the level of competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job is a very strong factor that may not be early broken by subtle workplace factors in terms of adhering to the laid down rules or principle governing his or her job. The possible explanation for this could be that notwithstanding that criminal investigation maybe both stressful and boring, with the conscious awareness of responsibility and inner feeling of competence, one is more likely to overcome even possible cogs emanating from bureaucratic schemes and co-workers' idiosyncrasies.

Implications of the Study

The findings of this study have theoretical, practical and policy implications. Theoretically, this study serves as further validity endeavor for the interactive theory of organizational climate, but especially, Vroom's expectancy theory" since positive outcome has been shown to emanate from a combination of personal assessment of ability or self-perception of competence, and motivation.

In practical terms, the findings pointedly show the importance of personal characteristics that may not be part of professional training in the effective delivery of police investigation exercise. Specifically, the psychological factors of hardiness and occupational self-efficacy which are not taught in the police college have been found to be very useful for proper performance of the criminal investigation and intelligence officers.

Its police implication is that the police force should develop policies aimed at inculcating the variables examined in this study in the officers and in the organization. A police to involve Forensic Psychologists to participate in recruitment and placement of officers of the Force, as well as temper organization climate is cogent to proper delivery of the mandate/expectation of the Force in respect of criminal justice delivery.

Speaking from practical experience in the field, the findings from study in this setting could be used to develop a reliable and valid training guide for recruits who are yet to join the force. This means that, the Police Mobile training college, which is an institution charged with the responsibility of training police officers on the job, could borrow a leaf from these findings. This will help to augment for greater achievement and delivery on the job. This could so much help because training so giving in that institution is strongly tainted with toughness and rigidity, and has little or nothing to do with dexterity, diligence, resilient and patience required for proper crime investigation. Toughness and rigidity are more of tools for torture employed for armed robbery and anti-cult operations. Hence, findings such as this could be of greater or immense help when appropriated as it has shown the need to build hardiness, and occupational self-efficacy if police officers must deliver on the job following laid down principles guiding the job.

It also provides the force with the knowledge of the establishment and enactment of flexible organizational climate that will enable the officers to perform optimally especially in the area of crime/criminal investigation while appropriating adequately the laid down procedures.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends that:

1. The Police Management Team should develop and enhance conducive organizational climate that will enable police officers to perform their job less stressfully while observing laid down procedures.
2. Despite the fact that advance detective course for senior police officers on investigation focuses on ethics of adherence to proper investigation procedure, there is need to encompass training programme on personality factors that could moderate the effectiveness of such detective training and job delivery. Therefore, to ensure that square pegs are kept in square holes, proper psychological testing and profiling should be part of their training in order to enhance suitability of job placement and productivity (enhanced criminal justice administration). In other words, Police officers should be trained (by Psychologists) to develop required levels of Hardiness and Self-efficacy. Also psychological assessment should be used by the Police for proper placement of serving officers since some aspects of police work require particular characteristics (e.g. hardiness is required more in crime investigation) than others.
3. The Directing staff of the institution should employ more Forensic Psychologists and lawyers to help them in this field. That is to say that very important section

like the state criminal intelligence and investigation department should have Forensic Psychology section that will be charged with the duty of appraising cases and suspects, with a view to determine the suitability, credibility, competence and compellability of a suspect or witness during the course of investigation.

4. The National Legislature should amend the Police act to accommodate Psychologists in the right positions.
5. Further studies should:
 - a. Consider other variables not considered in this study for example embarrassability and money attitude.
 - b. Consider how to improve on the existing organizational climate, since it has been found to significantly moderate the relationship among the variables of occupational self-efficacy, hardiness and adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

Limitation of the Study

A possible limitation to the generalization of the findings of this study is that level of education was not considered since all the instruments were delivered in English language. Future researchers may consider this because if one fails to understand fully the meaning of any item in an instrument, it may affect response. However, all the officers had passed through the mandatory secondary education.

Conclusion

This study focuses on the evaluation of the moderating effect of organizational climate on the relationship among occupational self-efficacy, hardiness and adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

Accordingly, the study engaged Officers of the Criminal Investigation and Intelligence Department (CIID) of the Nigerian Police Force, who were purposively selected from the CIID of the police headquarters in each of the states of the South East. The reasons for this was because the CIID at the state headquarters host the largest number, and busiest set of crime investigation officers in the states.

The findings strongly showed that: (i) Hardiness significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria; (ii) Occupational self-efficacy significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria; (iii) Organizational climate significantly and positively predicted adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria; (iv) There was a significant interaction between hardiness and organizational climate on adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria; and (v) There was no significant interaction effect of occupational self-efficacy and organizational climate on adherence to criminal investigation procedure among investigating officers in South-East Nigeria.

It is therefore concluded that (i) Hardiness and Occupational self-efficacy are important qualities for officers' adherence to criminal investigation procedure; (ii) Also, a good organizational climate increased hardiness among officers, which culminated in better adherence to criminal investigation procedure.

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