USE OF VALUES CLARIFICATION AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TRAINING ON ZERO-TOLERANCE FOR CORRUPTION AMONG CUSTOMS OFFICERS IN THE SOUTH-WEST, NIGERIA

BY

AGOKEI STANLEY PETER

MATRIC NO: 174439

A thesis in the Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies in

Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

of the

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

NOVEMBER 2021

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this research work was carried out by AGOKEI STANLEY PETER of the Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, under my supervision.

PROFESSOR D .A. ADEYEMO

SUPERVISOR
Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ibadan,
Ibadan.

DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to the Almighty God and to my parents, Late Mr. W.S.O. AGOKEI and Mrs. B.N. AGOKEI.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Zero-tolerance for corruption is the propensity to reject the temptation to engage in corruption in one's own conducts and to consider the corrupt behaviour of other people as ethically unacceptable. Reports have shown that corruption in Nigeria, especially among Nigeria Customs Officers in the South-West, is endemic. Previous studies focused more on punitive and administrative measures than to psychological strategies. This study, therefore, was carried out to determine the effects of Values Clarification Training (VCT) and Emotional Intelligence Training (EIT) on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers in the South-West, Nigeria. The moderating effects of gender and adversity quotient were also examined. The Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic and Albert Bandura's Social Learning theories were adopted as the framework.

The pretest-posttest control group quasi-experimental design with a 3x2x2 factorial matrix was used. The multi-stage sampling procedure was used. The simple random sampling technique was used to select three Area Commands (Oyo/Osun, Ogun and Ondo/Ekiti) out of the 10 within the South-West. The participants were screened with Corruption Propensity Scale (α=0.77) and those who scored high against the threshold level of 55 were selected. The participants in the Area Commands were randomly assigned to VCT (28), EIT (30) and control (25) groups. The instruments used were Zero-tolerance for Corruption (α=0.78), Adversity Response Profile (α=0.77) scales and instructional guides. The intervention lasted eight weeks. Data were analysed using Analysis of covariance and Bonferonni Post-hoc test at 0.05 level of significance.

The participants' age was 25.00±0.82 years; 59.0% were male and 53.0% had high adversity quotient. There was a significant main effect of treatment on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers ($F_{(2;80)}$= 21.85, partial η^2= 0.38). The participants in the EIT displayed the highest mean score (45.42), followed by those in VCT (34.08) and the control (18.57) groups. There was a significant main effect of gender on zero-tolerance for corruption ($F_{(1;81)}$= 16.08, partial η^2= 0.19). The female participants, displayed a higher mean score (38.65) than their male counterparts (2.84). There was no significant main effect of adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption. There was a significant interaction effect of treatment and gender ($F_{(2;80)}$= 4.12, partial η^2= 0.10) in favour of female participants in EIT group. There was a significant interaction effect of treatment and adversity quotient ($F_{(2;80)}$= 4.56 partial η^2= 0.11) in favour of participants with high adversity quotient in EIT group. There was no significant interaction effect of gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption. The three-way interaction effect was not significant.

Values clarification and emotional intelligence training fostered zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers in the Nigeria Customs Service South-West, Nigeria with emphasis on gender and adversity quotient. These psychological interventions should be adopted for anti-corruption measures in Nigeria Customs Service.

Keywords: Values clarification and Emotional intelligence training, Adversity quotient, Zero-tolerance for corruption in Nigeria, Nigeria Custom Service

Word Count: 449

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background to the study

Corruption is a recurring theme in global discourse in contemporary times and it continues to feature prominently in government policy and academic circles. Although corruption is as old as mankind, it is only in the last two decades that serious efforts were made to tackle and criminalize it with the birth of numerous anti-corruption movements and the promulgation of anti-corruption laws. However, despite these efforts in the fight against corruption over the years, little or no progress has been made especially in many less developed nations where corruption is pathetically endemic (Marquette and Pfeiffer 2015; Rose-Ackermann and Palifka 2016; Heywood 2017). For instance, Nigeria, a nation endowed with abundant human and material resources, has continued to falter quite unnecessarily in virtually every sphere of development despite over five decades of nation building simply because its vast resources have not been converted into expected economic gains as a result of the rising spate of corruption in the nation. Worse still, the magnitude or scope of corrupt activities in most vital public establishments in Nigeria is so appalling that the nation will require a strong political will to win the war against corruption or to, at least, reduce it to the barest minimum.

A significant government security agency that is apparently vulnerable to unethical or corrupt practices which is of interest to this study is the Nigerian Customs Service (NCS). The customs service is one of the world's oldest government agencies saddled with several key roles as the steward and gatekeeper of trade and border management of a nation. While effectively performing these arduous obligations, the customs agency is expected to adopt minimal trade flow interruptions, because speed and volume of international trade is critical to open economies. Thus, corruption in its operations is a serious challenge. While corruption encapsulates the notion of a public office in breach of its governing rules for private advantage, corruption in the milieu of customs, would entail the abuse of authority for private gain by customs officials.

The abuse of authority by NCS officials somewhat includes, patronage, cronyism and nepotism, kickbacks and acts of extortion. The extent of this form of graft often ranges from simple 'turning a blind eye' to severe contraband-trafficking assistance. More often than not, such exercises are embraced for either reward given in kind or money. For instance, the media has reported instances where officers of the customs service collect bribes to assist smugglers drive in prohibited goods such as foreign parboiled rice and vehicles into Nigeria from neighbouring countries (*Leadership*, Feb, 2018). Also, a survey carried out by United Nations Office on drugs and Crimes (UNODC, 2017), revealed that NCS officers amongst other public officials, received the largest average cash bribes (NGN 88,587/$1,016-Power Purchasing Parity (PPP) and the overall amount of bribes paid out to this group of officials during the time in question was 26.5%. This high frequency indicates the disproportionate impact customs officials have on the lives of Nigerians.

The impact of corruption on Nigerian society and economy is undoubtedly immense. Corrupt practices within the milieu of customs have also heightened the overwhelming consequences. The consequences of corruption in customs on the potential of a country to profit from the growth of the global economy are evident. Corruption in customs opens the door for organized crime, drains national incomes and incurs additional taxes and revenue losses as corporations tend to avoid a corrupt customs agency (Lane, 1998). For instance, although the NCS, in 2017, was reported to have hit a record of N486 billion in six months (Adekunle, 2017), and N1.01 trillion at the end of the year (*Vanguard*, Dec, 2017), between 2006 and 2017, Nigeria lost N30 trillion in the import and export value chain, which was mainly attributed to organized corruption (Oyedele, 2017). Such an outcome could have detrimental impact on many economies and in part, be accountable for the present stalling of Nigerian economic development, since customs agency is a substantial contributor to the internal revenue the Nigerian government relies on for national development. Certainly, customs officials are expected to be efficacious and imbibe the culture of zero-tolerance for corruption as this is crucial to the nation's integrity and development.

The term zero-tolerance is employed mainly as a rhetorical measure in several fields to indicate the strict steps and clear response mandated for certain incidents of

offenses, irrespective of severity, to be investigated, prosecuted and punished (Newburn and Jones, 2007). Relating the construct to corruption, it is the inclination to discard the temptation of submitting self to corrupt behaviour and view corrupt demeanors of other persons as ethically unacceptable.

Zero-tolerance for corruption, according to Gong and Wang (2012) has observable characteristics. Attributes such as; no display of sympathy for corruption, promoting stringent law enforcement, willing to expose cases of corruption which comes to one's attention and tough on all offences including minor ones. In social environment where corruption occurs, tolerance of corruption is an essential factor that influences the way it is tackled. As such, the rise of corruption depends on how society as a whole treats it. According to Odo (2015), the intriguing peculiarity of corruption in Nigeria is evidenced in the citizens' display of high tolerance of an otherwise despicable conduct. Whether on account of scheme of silence, distortion of values or outright involvement with culprits of corruption, a larger part of Nigerians, undoubtedly, appears to regard corruption as a function of national life.

Anti-corruption has long been on the policy agenda of the World Custom Organization (WCO) for many years and that has kindled a plethora of studies in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption within the customs service. Zero-tolerance strategies such as outsourcing, single window system (automation or computerization), remuneration levels of officials, legal sanctions, establishments of a detailed and explicitly articulated code of conduct amongst others (WCO, 1993; WCO, 2003; WCO. 2010; Polner and Ireland, 2010; Ndonga, 2013;Widdowson, 2013), were then proposed from study outcomes. These series of stratagems present key tactics required to bring about change in administrative systems to eradicate monopoly control, discretion of officers, limited accountability and increased chance of detecting and prosecuting corrupt officers.

In the same vein, in Nigeria, quite often, government and custom managements have rolled out punitive and administrative policies such as demotion, dismissal, prosecution and jailing of corrupt custom officers in tackling corruption. For instance, 29 senior officers were fired from the NCS for offenses relating to corruption in October 2016 (*Pulse*, Oct. 2016). Subsequently, in January, 2017, 48 top officers were also sacked

for misconduct (*Pulse*, Jan, 2017). Despite these zero-tolerance measures that are being implemented, the clandestine nature of corruption has made it possible for it to evade the existing systematic, administrative and punitive measures aimed at combating it and, hence, its preponderance.

Anti-corruption initiatives are successful if they are supplemented by additional contextual considerations and are incorporated in a broader structural change package. As noted by McLinden (2005), tackling customs corruption, requires five steps that should be taken into cognizance; "(i) changing regulatory processes to eliminate monopoly power combined with limited accountability and the corruption-inducing mix of officer discretion, (ii) recruiting officers (i.e customs personnel) based on educational qualifications, job-specific skills and incorruptibility, (iii) adjust the incentives, fines or disciplinary actions confronting agents and clients, (iv) increasing the risk of detection, punishment, sanction, and prosecution and (v) modifying attitudes to corruption". It is imperative to recognize that, measures that have been taken by the NCS and WCO, following the aforementioned criteria to address corruption; most especially the fifth step, which is "*modifying attitudes to corruption*", can be classified as external factors in altering attitude towards corruption. In other words, constellations of factors resident within customs officers in service which may preempt the act of corrupt practices have not yet been extensively explored.

Psychologists describe corruption as a demonstration and manifestation of maladaptive, abnormal, unethical and/or social undesirable behaviour (Adedeji, Ogunleye and Adebayo, 2012; Chugh, 2012; Aremu, 2017). Also, within the purview of psychology, it is argued that corrupt behaviours are somewhat learned. Therefore, since corruption is a behaviour that is learned, to unlearn it may require the interplay of psychological intervention aimed at positively altering behavioural antecedents (cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains) in order to foster zero-tolerance for corruption.

Furthermore, numerous studies have advocated the integration of psychological approach to support the existing anti-corruption institutions in tackling corruption (Aremu, 2006; Aremu, Pakes and Johnson, 2009: Nnaemeka, Chukwuemeka, Tochukwu and Chiamaka, 2015). Initially, the focus was more on punitive and administrative

4

measures; however, there appears to be a lot of behavioural issues linked to corruption requiring psychological interventions. Thus, there is a heightened need for psychological interventions to be deployed to resolving issues relating to corruption and allied matters. Although psychological measures alone may not end corruption entirely, its absence in anti-corruption drives in private and public governance, especially in customs operations, may account for the preponderance of corrupt practices within the Nigerian sphere. In the light of this background, this study aims at using two psychological techniques namely Values Clarification and Emotional Intelligence in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers in South-West, Nigeria.

In the past few decades, Values Clarification (VC) has been an important subject of concern to a large community of educators, philosophers, counsellors and other 'helping' professionals as a tool for moral education, ethical principle and values. Values Clarification explores relationship between values and behaviour. Values Clarification intervention, consist of hypothetical choice scenarios and reasoning activities designed to enable people think or become aware of their personal values and assess its effect on decision making (Mosconi and Emmett, 2003; Kirschenbaum, 2013; Oliha and Audu, 2015). According to VC theory, individuals who are clear about their values in relation to society, display all of Maslow's self-actualized personal characteristics, such as self-confidence, purposeful and calm conduct, positivity, eagerness, and diligence, while those who are confused or unclear about their values will exhibit tendencies of negativity, immaturity, inconsistency, drifting and over-dissenting (Kinnier, 1995; Rai, 2014).

Researchers, clinicians, educators and therapists have applied the techniques of VC and recorded success in the management of various types of antisocial conducts including school dropout and truancy (Igborgbor, 1984; Oliha and Audu, 2015), frustration and faulty thinking (Bello, 2011), socially undesirable behaviour (Taffee, 2007), fostering vocational maturity and career decision making self-efficacy (Adeyemo, 1996; Adeyemo, 1998), and leadership learning (Cosgrove, 2016; Fritz, 2015; Fritz and Guthrie, 2017). Clarification of values is not only necessary for well-being and improving oneself, but also in dealings with others. Values Clarification is a way to educate people about ethical values and morality that contribute to a shared understanding and perspective on values. Since VC technique exposes and helps participants to consider the

relative existence of values (Barker, 1999), it would be especially useful when applied to intervention aimed at fostering cognitive and personality development, effective and efficient behavioural practices, and socially desirable behaviour such as zero-tolerance for corruption. The technique would most likely help to modify customs officials' values and beliefs in order to reduce their tolerance for corruption.

Emotional Intelligence Training (EIT), is another counselling technique in this study that has made a lot of gains in the past decades and it is also one of the most influential and contemporary psychological constructs that has attracted significant interest from researchers, educationists, psychologists, theorists and human resource personnel throughout the world. The connection between the construct of EI and corrupt behaviours, emanates from the view that emotion is a reaction to all kinds of social threat, opportunity or change that can impact one's selfhood (Haidt, 2001). According to Tangney, Stuewig and Mashek (2007), self-conscious emotions or moral emotions such as guilt and shame serve as moral barometers in negotiating unethical behaviour. In other words, the predictability of unethical behaviour is dependent on the degree of a person's moral internalization, which has a bearing on the anticipation of moral emotions (guilt and shame) for future moral transgressions. Therefore, an increase level of EI, which involves identifying, processing and managing emotions, has the potentials to regulate proneness to guilt and shame, in order to prevent corrupt behaviour. This analogy is supported by studies, suggesting that people with high EI tend to cope with negative emotional responses (such as guilt and shame) in ways that encourage a positive outcome and less deviant activities (Eisenberg, 2000; Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham, 2004; Aremu, 2006).

However, scholars have also observed that people differ in their capacity to interpret emotional information (Salovey and Grewal, 2005). This observation highlights that EI is not an evenly distributed trait and as such, while some people's EI are low, others are high. Fortunately, EI competencies, according to scholars, may be gained through therapy, or hereditary, which is a major distinction from IQ (Ciarochi, Scott, Deane, and Heaven, 2003). Emotional Intelligence Training (EIT) is a specific model of training underpinned on the Emotional Intelligence paradigm. It has been conceptualized by researchers as role play activity (Jaeger, 2003; Reilly, 2005) learner- centered

activities (Giaconia and Hedges 1982), and it helps in identifying the strengths and shortcomings of people (Sluijsmans, Dochy and Moerker, 1999).

Organizations, agencies, and businesses have come to value EI as a powerful instrument for effecting necessary change. Bennis (2011), while reiterating the importance of EI, stated that it is considered responsible for more than 85 percent of great performance in the workplace. Aremu (2017) also affirmed that it is a psychological intervention that can be effective in government and fields that involves frequent social interactions. Since EI can be developed, learned and fostered, and given the benefits aforementioned, which are essential within the purview of customs operations. Therefore, EIT will provide an ideal context to enable this study participants (customs officers) improve knowledge and skills related to emotional self-awareness, understand and regulate their emotions, empathize and utilize emotion to maximize mental processing. Emotional Intelligence training in the varieties of personal, emotional and social skills that can impact one's ability to handle environmental pressures and demands effectively holds promise as an essential mental apparatus for fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

Gender, is one of the moderating variables of interest in this study. It is part of the broader sociocultural context, described as social characteristics, relationship and prospects connected with being female or male (Ojalammi, 2014; Lawal, Ayoade, and Taiwo, 2016). These characteristics, relationship and opportunities are socially fashioned and are acquired through socialization. They are also subject to context, time-specific and change. In the last couple of decades, studies in social and behavioural sciences research have demonstrated different behaviour trends in men and women when it comes to criminal behaviour, social issues and risk-taking (Melnykovska and Michailova 2009; Esarey and Chirillo 2013; Jha and Sarangi, 2015).

With regards to the nexus between gender and corruption, a substantial body of literature has been able to evince gender disparities in the perception of experience and tolerance of corruption among women and men. Some pioneer studies found a significant connection between low rates of corruption and women in various times, social contexts, periods, corruption indices, and in a range of macro and micro-data (Swampy, Knack, Lee and Azfer, 2001; Sung. 2003; Alhassan-Alolo, 2007). Other recent studies that

utilized experimental methodologies, however, uncovered conflicting results, contending that, effect of gender on corruption depends on cultural and institutional context, and not necessarily inherent gender (Barr and Serra, 2010; Frank, Lambsdorff and Boehm, 2011; Armantier and Boly, 2011; Rivas, 2013).

Gender differences in relations to corruption, have been explicated by some scholars, to stem from the belief that women have better connectivity, higher ethical expectations and are less likely to risk the common good for personal benefit (Melnykovska and Michailova 2009; Barr and Serra, 2010; Esarey and Chirillo 2013). For instance, experimental studies focused on external factors such as "the risk of being caught", established that women are more concerned about fairness in their decision-making and are more likely to behave nobly and honestly than men (Croson and Gneezy, 2009; Rivas, 2012). According to these scholars, gender disparities result from high risk tendencies of men when compared to women and due to the position of women as caregivers which encourages a more socially involved and helpful conduct. More so, women seem more prone to punishment and risks associated with corruption as a result of overt or implied inequality between men and women. Consequently, they feel more responsibility to adhere to existing anti-corruption policies and norms. This study takes into consideration the contentions on gender disparity in relations to corruption in the literature, and deems it important to assess the moderating effect of gender in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption.

This study also employed Adversity Quotient (AQ) as a moderating factor in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption. Adversity quotient is an indicator of human endurance representing the ability to cope with adversity and frustration (Stoltz, 1997). In other words, AQ plays a critical role on how well one withstands challenges, difficulties, adversities, sorrows, or great losses and the potential for one to surpass it. As evidenced in the literature, all aspects of human ability and performance can be influenced and predicted by AQ. For instance, research findings indicated that AQ is a critical factor linked with leadership style (Haller, 2005; Canivel, 2010), job satisfaction (Ferrer, 2009), work stress (Dai, 2009), sales performance (Johnson, 2005), academic performance and achievement motivation (Deesom, 2011; Cornista, and Macasaet, 2012; Maiquez, Preolco, Sausa, and Talatagod, 2015). These findings support the potency of AQ in

understanding individuals' adaptation to pressures, as well as influence their capacity to cope with adversity and to excel in diverse goals.

Furthermore, AQ has become an important factor in the management of human resource as it has been discovered to be an indicator of occupational success. Stoltz (2000), for instance, found that workers with higher AQ ratings have improved professional and personal lives. Styrlund (2010) and Kanjanakaroon (2011) also reported that employees with high AQ show lower rates of turnover than employees with low AQ. These authors suggested further that employers can recruit high performing workers, achieve a greater organizational efficiency and high morale by hiring or training high AQ employees. Relating this construct to employees, such as customs officers, their sensitivity to adversities and frustrations may vary. Stoltz (2000) suggested that the amount of adversities faced by an individual has increased on average over the last decades from 7 to 23, and that it would continue to rise. Thus, it is most likely that customs officers are facing enormous number of challenges, difficulties, frustrations and adversities stemming from their families, homes, workplaces and society that may place them in susceptible positions to engage in corrupt activities in order to resolve them. Therefore, it will be helpful in this study to include this concept when examining the strength of both cognitive and affective responses to corruption.

1.2   Statement of the problem

It is an incontrovertible fact that the development of Nigeria has been negatively impacted by corruption. The high rate of corruption in Nigeria perpetuates the vicious cycle of poverty, unemployment, low saving rates resulting in low incomes, poor investments and less productivity, risen total public debt, capital flight, slow economic growth and development, insecurity of lives and property, decayed infrastructures and loss of institutions of national pride and significance, poor public health and educational outcomes, inflation, insufficient capacity to innovate and a host of other problems.

More so, the customs service around the world, which plays a key role as the nation's gatekeeper, chief revenue collector and the enforcer of trade policy, is not immune from this threat to society. In Nigeria, numerous research reports and media sources have highlighted the occurrence of corruption in customs. Corruption in customs operations is increasingly becoming an issue of national concern due to its grievous

consequences. The persistency of routine, fraudulent and criminal corruption in the Nigerian Customs Service is a major problem because it does not only hamper customs credibility, integrity, performance and efficiency but it further contributes to social and economic disruptions such as prohibitive costs of doing business, deter the involvement of local firms in international commerce, dissuade foreign direct investments, pose a threat to national security and wellbeing of the Nigerian populace and also decreases revenue collection amongst others.

Apparently, various anti-corruption measures have been taken by the government and customs managements in combating corruption in customs operations such as outsourcing, single window system (automation or computerization), remuneration levels of officials, establishment of a detailed and explicitly articulated code of conduct amongst others, yet, corruption still subsists in customs operations. The propensity of corruption to survive in custom operations accentuates the fact that the mechanisms put in place are either ineffective or insufficient and as such, heightens the need for probable solutions to ameliorate the issue of corruption in customs operations.

While prior focus in combating corruption have been majorly punitive and administrative, scholars (Aremu, Pakes and Johnson, 2009a; Rusch, 2016) have consistently advocated for the inclusion of psychological interventions in tackling corruption in governance and public corruption. This advocacy is drawn from the fact that there are behavioural antecedents to corrupt practices which requires behavioural interventions to resolve. As such, there is a heightened need for more behavioural interventions for enhancing zero-tolerance for corruption within the Nigerian society and perhaps in other climes. Studies on effect of psychological measures in fostering zero-tolerance are necessary to provide baseline information for tailored anti-corruption policies. Though clearly not a remedy for the wide spectrum of corrupt practices in both private and public services, this research aims to demonstrate that values clarification and emotional intelligence training nonetheless can be effective tools in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers in South-west Nigeria.

1.3   Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study is to examine the effect of values clarification and emotional intelligence training on zero-tolerance for corruption among custom officers in South-west, Nigeria. The study achieved the following specific objectives;

- investigated the main effect of treatments on zero-tolerance for corruption among the study participants
- assessed the main effect of gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among study participants.
- examined the main effect of adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among study participants.
- explored the interaction effect of treatments and gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among study participants.
- examined the interaction effect of treatments and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among study participants
- assessed the interaction effect of gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among study participants
- determined the interaction effect of treatments, gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among study participants.

1.4   Significance of the study

Corrupt practices and its attendant consequences to organizations and the nation are devastating. Thus, there is a need for a well-grounded and effective strategy, which will complement the existing zero-tolerance measures for curbing corruption. Discovering the effectiveness of values clarification and emotional intelligence training on zero-tolerance for corruption would provide new perspectives in approaching corruption related issues. It would increase public understanding of the behavioural components of corruption. Also, it would lead to a higher appreciation of the importance of psychological interventions by the Nigerian community and the adoption of psychological approaches such as values clarification and emotional intelligence training in fostering ethical and societal desirable/acceptable behaviours.

This study examines the effectiveness of values clarification and emotional intelligence training on zero-tolerance for corruption among officers of the Nigerian Customs Service. It is needless to state that if these counselling approaches are found effective, Nigerian Customs Service would benefit enormously, as it would expose and encourage the agency to utilize further these psychological techniques in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption amongst its officials. Moreover, if the moderating effect of gender and adversity quotient is found significant in this study, it would not be out of place if the management of the Nigerian Customs Service takes into consideration these two variables when recruiting or training personnel.

It is pertinent to note that corruption in customs service operation hampers its efficiency, dents its image and decreases its earnings which constitute significant domestic source of revenue that the Nigerian government uses for development. As such, the expected findings of this study will be of enormous benefits to the Nigerian government, society, stakeholders and policy makers, as the discourse the study will generate would enlighten them on the need to look beyond conventional training, administrative and punitive measures in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption within customs service. In addition, the baseline information that this study will provide, would be a sort of indispensable blue-print to all stakeholders in the search for plausible solutions to corruption in other vital public offices.

In line with the present government anti-corruption drive, the onus is on behavioural scientists, researchers and counselling psychologists, who are the most likely Behavioural Change Agents (BCA) in society to assist the government in arriving at plausible solutions to ameliorate the endemic and systemic problems of corruption that have infested every facet of the Nigerian society, including the customs authority. Thus, the outcome of this study would be of immense significance to professional counselling psychologists, as it would provide insight into the potency of values clarification and emotional intelligence training in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption. It will also provide a rich treatment package and increase the volume of therapies that can be used by counselling psychologists and other Behavioural Change Agents in dealing with the menace of corruption and allied matters.

Since both private and public organizations are not immune to corrupt practices, employers and employees in both private and public agencies will also directly benefit from this research as its outcome may encourage them to consider psychological interventions such as values clarification and emotional intelligence training to stem the tide of corruption within their organizations and enhance organizational ethical behaviours.

In addition, this study covers information involving values clarification and emotional intelligence training as an approach in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption while taking into consideration the moderating effect of gender and adversity quotient. Thus, the outcome of this study would expand empirical information already available in support of these two counselling interventions and the moderating factors. Lastly, the findings of this study would be beneficial to researchers and students working in this area as it would serve as a reference point.

1.5   Scope of the study

This study was restricted to investigating the effectiveness of values clarification and emotional intelligence training in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among custom officers in the South-west, Nigeria. Participants for this study were customs officers drawn from three area commands in the South-west, Nigeria. The moderating effect of participants' gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption was also evaluated.

1.6   Operational definition of Terms

To avoid misunderstanding and incongruity, this study attempts the definitions of some keywords as they are operationally used.

Zero-tolerance for corruption: refers to customs officers' propensity to reject the temptation to engage in corruption in their own conducts and to consider the corrupt behaviour of other people as ethically unacceptable.

Corruption: This is the misuse of power by customs officers for private or personal benefit.

Values clarification: A method of instruction designed to help customs officers become aware of the beliefs and behaviour they value and would be willing to stand up for, to

13

consider alternative modes of thinking and acting, to consider consequences and make choices.

Emotional intelligence training: This is a training programme designed to help customs officers understand and manage their emotions as well as the emotions of others

Adversity quotient: This is an indicator of custom officer's potentials to overcome adversities.

Customs Officers: refers to a law enforcement agent who works for the Custom Service to enforce customs laws and regulations at various ports of entry to a nation, on behalf of a government.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter focuses on the review of conceptual, theoretical and empirical literature pertinent to this study.

2.1   Conceptual review

2.1.1   Concept of corruption

Corruption, like cockroaches, has been around for quite a long time along with human culture and appears to be a concern with disastrous consequences in many developing economies. Literature on corruption abounds because of its fierce and persistent impact on social and economic development. Thus, the concept has attracted scholar's attention all over the globe. However, academic focus has not been able to shed light on its origin as the term persisitently proves to be a difficult and daunting venture (Faloore, 2010; Crowe, 2011; Mohammed, 2013). Scholars from diverse fields of study have, since Aristotle's days, sought to describe corruption in various areas such as political science, law, economics and religious studies. It has so far been found that the meaning of corruption is different for people in terms of cultural backgrounds, academic disciplines and political orientations (Okolo and Raymond, 2014; Bicchieri and Ganegonda, 2016). While some scholars aim at isolating specific behaviour, others focus on societal elements of corruption, and still, others envision the unethical behavior scenario. Consequently, the current concepts of corruption are considered questionable.

Waite and Allen (2003) cautioned that "the range of corruption descriptions varies from too broad to too narrow, and thus appeals also to rare, unique, well-defined cases." For example, the dictionary of Merriam-Webster (2013) describes corruption as lack of integrity, dignity and moral principle. In the same vein, Ngwube and Okoli (2013) identified corruption as a participation in illegal, unethical, or wicked conduct that undermines society's moral structure. While the moral dimensions of wrongdoing are the core component of these descriptions, other definitions are sector-based. Ngwakwe

(2009), for example, described corruption as a non-violent criminal and illegal activity for the unlawful obtaining of resources either individually or in group or in a coordinated fashion, thus disregarding existing laws regulating governmental and organizational economic activities. Chea (2015) also described corruption in the economic context as the use of public property for personal gain.

Corruption is defined by the International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2013) as abuse of public authority or trust for private benefit. Similarly, the World Bank (1996), Transparency International (2014), the United Nations Global Programme against Corruption (2012), also viewed corruption as "the abuse of entrusted power for private gain". These descriptions characterize corruption as a dispute between the obligation to exercise a public power for public good and an individual's self-interest in using or manipulating it for private purpose. It recognizes the sources of corruption in public authority and connects it with the state, its actions, and state intervention on the economy. In other words, the use of this definition removes the possibility of private sector corruption and focuses instead on public sector corruption.

Corruption, likewise, exists between and within private organizations as well as within non-governmental organisation, devoid of any official being or state office. Andvig and Fjeldstad (2001) claimed that there is collusion in organizations regarding bribing, swindling and mafia practices and disloyal personnel in private businesses, NGOs and affiliations. In reality, in the general monetary and political progress of a nation, the level of "private" corruption can be symptomatic. A wide range of "private" corruption can also ruin the morale of the public and weaken the confidence and trust in principles and control (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2001). Nevertheless, corruption in the public sector is considered more pervasive than corruption in the private sector. Controlling corruption in the public sector is seen as a necessity for controlling corruption in the private sector. For instance, Crowe (2011) noted that the government grants contracts for infrastructure building and maintenance to private firms. Private-public sectors corruption often converges through this procurement process. Corruption exchanges wealth from the government's treasury to the top business and political authorities. The author argues further that openness in procurement moderates corruption in this region and promotes fairer competition in the private sector.

Corruption analysis, from hypothetical models to comprehensive depictions of corruption scandals, has been multi-disciplinary and dispersed. It is regarded as a matter of political, economic, social or moral underdevelopment and is primarily perceived as a problem in between. The mind boggling and stealthy nature of corruption has made most observers concur that it pervades numerous societies and that there are no quick-fix solutions to it (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2001). Likewise, the "Source Book" of *Transparency International,* as cited in the works of Pope (1997) states that public services, political reform, regulation, public knowledge and the development of corruption agencies are all components of long-term mechanisms that must be upheld from above and below.

Corruption has consistently been divided up into three major scales in the literature; grand, systemic and petty. Petty corruption is the routine bribery in connection with the application of current policy, legislation, and regulations (Lo, 1993). This sort of corruption happens at low levels, for instance in the public sector where citizens seek services (Perry, 1997). Grand corruption occurs as politicians exploit their policy-making influence to retain power, status and resources. It takes place at the highest levels of political structure, such as the president, ministers and other top officials, and therefore large payouts are included (Moody-Stuart, 1997). Systemic corruption occurs as corruption is incorporated into the economic, social and political system and is maintained. Systematic corruption is a symptom of poor regulatory structures and the lack of supervisory authorities which are endangering the system (Johnston 1998).

There are also other scholars who categorize corruption in different forms. For Amundsen (2000), corruption is classified into five groups; monetary bribes in transitive ties, theft of government funding, economic swindles or fraud, extraction of capital or other services by way of bribery, intimidation or even abuse from vulnerable citizens, and the "natural human preference towards friends, family and others who are close to and trusted in the political process, resource and circulation. Alatas (1990), likewise, recognized seven forms of corruption: the actions taken to defend existing corruption (supportive corruption), profits from pre-knowledge of a given policy outcome (autogenic corruption), favouritism (nepotistic corruption), preventing harm being inflicted on a donor (excoriate corruption), reciprocated benefit through exchange

between a donor and a recipient (transactive corruption), a forced bribe for interest (defensive corruption), activities for a full-time reward in view (investive corruption).

Konie (2003), also highlighted two major sorts of corruption, which are; horizontal corruption (which includes the whole authorities, laymen, educated and informed groups in the nations) and vertical corruption (which includes administrators and decision makers). Corruption has also been categorized by The Transparency International, (TI, 1999) as follows: corruption with theft and corruption without theft; amateur and professional corruption; corruption against rule and corruption according to rule. Other classifications include primary and secondary corruption (Welin 2002), private and public corruption, redistributive corruption and extractive (Rose-Ackerman 1999) and political and bureaucratic corruption (Williams 2000). All these corruptions are characterized by their own unique features and specific scenarios which create a major challenge for having a generalized definition of the construct.

Transparency International (TI, 2015) acknowledged that there is no country free of corruption anywhere in the world. This means that corruption, as a global phenomenon, is not the sole preservation of any government, race or subset of the globe, but goes beyond national borders and is indicative of phenomenal universal political unwholesomeness (Aluko, 2009). It is a familiar occurrence, regardless of socioeconomic and cultural variations, both in developed and developing countries globally. For example, a 2012 study showed that 24% of executives in the finance sector in the United Kingdom and the United States of America believed that they needed to engage in unethical or illegal conduct to succeed (Sucharow, 2012). Similarly, Liu (2016) observed that the eight-point regulation in 2015 enabled the chastisement of 49 thousand people in China. These perpetrators were convicted for 37 thousand corruption cases. This therefore attests that corruption knows no culture, boundary, society, and no human profession is immune to its operations.

2.1.2 Concept of zero-tolerance for corruption

There is no consensus in the literature on the definition of the concept, zero-tolerance. However, existing blend of descriptions suggest an uncompromising and authoritative use of stringent discipline for breaches of a given law, in order to convey a message that certain conducts are not accepted. Though the concept was initially

associated mainly with policing strategy, it has influenced other areas to show clear resolve and firm measures (Newburn and Jones 2007). Various formal and informal institutions worldwide have undertaken zero-tolerance policies, for example, in the military, in the workplace, and in schools, in an effort to eliminate various kinds of illegal behaviour and misconducts. Advocates hope that zero-tolerance policies will accentuate the commitment of administrators to prevent such behavior. However, from the extensive studies of zero-tolerance policies in criminology, little evidence supports its supposed effectiveness (McAndrews 2001; van Rooij 2005; Mitchell 2011).

Scholars also argue that, even where a causal relation occurs between zero-tolerance policy and reduction in crime, those policies lack proportionality, deprive flexibility in law enforcement, discourage reporting, weaken or violate due process, and may have discriminatory effects (Rowe and Bendersky, 2002; Skiba and Knesting, 2002; Skiba and Rausch, 2006). For instance, studies on zero-tolerance policy in schools found clear evidence that zero-tolerance is associated with increased suspensions and expulsions for students of colour (National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), 2001; Skiba and Rausch, 2006). Similar observations on zero-tolerance within the workplace evinced that, stringent policy leads to reduced reports of illegal behaviour and misconduct (Kochan and Locke, 2002). The outcomes of these studies demonstrate that, broad application of zero-tolerance policies have resulted in a range of negative outcomes with few benefits.

The negative outcomes of zero-tolerance most likely, stem from the difficulty in defining a clear set of policy intervention that characterizes zero-tolerance, since the term is often operationalized as a rhetorical device (Newburn and Jones 2007). Recently, Wein (2014) proposed six characteristics which arguments for zero-tolerance policies must clearly meet to reflect a case of zero policy.

- Strict liability (no excuses or justifications)
- Strict constructivist interpretation (no room for narrow interpretation of the rule)
- Lack of prosecutorial discretion (for every plausibly accused person, it is determined whether the person has in fact violated the policy)
- Full enforcement (all those for whom there is adequate evidence that they have violated the rule are to be identified)

- Harsh punishment (mandatory minimum penalty is considered relatively harsh given the nature of the offence).

Relating the construct of zero-tolerance, to corruption, it will mean that no case of corruption will be tolerated and the corrupt person would be punished. The implementation of a zero-tolerance corruption policy apparently signals that all cases of corruption must be investigated, prosecuted and severely punished, no matter how minor. Several institutions have implemented anti-corruption policies to prevent corruption as well as guide employees in dealing with corruption, corrupt propositions or practices. However, for many corrupt practices to be addressed by zero-tolerance policies, more effective strategies are required.

2.1.3 Theories of corruption
Public choice theory

The public choice theory posits that, the corrupt conduct of an individual is a rational decision reached after weighing of options. The trigger chain is a (limited) logical decision by a person leading to a definite outcome (Graaf, 2007). The corrupt person attempts to optimize his utility by deciding to be corrupt if his usual yearnings go beyond normal evils (a blend of probable punishments and the likelihood to be caught). In other words, the person is represented as a rationally determined entity that chooses to be dishonest when anticipated rewards surpass expected pain. Rose-Ackerman (1978) expanded this set of causal hypotheses, suggesting that officials are motivated to partake in corrupt practices, as they believe the potential rewards of corruption may be greater than the probable cost of corruption.

Klitgaard (1988) argued that an individual rationally prefers to be corrupt when the proceeds of being corrupt minus the risk of being caught are more severe than the gains of not being caught. The theory will, of course, be expanded if factors impacting the analysis of cost-benefit are considered. For example, trust can play an important role. At the point when the state cannot be trusted to oversee private property transfers, corruption may turn out to be more appealing (Gambetta 1993). Also, trust within close individual connections increases the chance of getting the benefits from the delivered corrupt services or abates the likelihood of getting caught.

Relating this theory to corruption in customs service, activities of corrupt customs officers may be brought on by a rational conscious and deliberate weighing process of an individual. In its purest form, autonomous agents such as customs officers are assumed to make more or less rational means-end calculations. In other words, the causal chain in the case of customs officers, may be the officer weighing the advantages of the promised monetary or non-monetary bribes against the chances of being caught and the possible negative impact that would have for him, before making a rational conscious decision on whether to be corrupt or not.

According to Schinkel (2004), the merit of public choice theory is that it has relatively close focus. Rather than probing for general determining factors, it focuses on a particular circumstance of an agent (a corrupt official) who analyzes pros and cons (Graaf, 2007). In that sense, however, it is insensitive to the larger social context (which is something public choice in general has often been upbraided for). It cannot account for activating causes within the situation. The theory begins from the moment an official analyzes whether to end up corrupt or not. Nevertheless, public choice theory prompts a discourse on corruption control that maximizes the costs of corruption and minimizes the benefits. Since, the benefits of corruption are considerably harder to influence, majority of the emphasis is on the costs of corruption. This theoretical model implies that, these costs of corruption can be maximized, by improving the chances of getting caught and imposing steeper penalties. This can without much of a stretch prompt a discourse asking for a comprehensive system of control predicated on surveillance, massive information amassing, auditing, and aggressive implementation of a wide exhibit of criminal and administrative sanctions (Anechiarico and Jacobs 1996).

Bad apple theory

The theory principally looks at the level of the individual corrupt agent for the causes of corruption. According to this theory, the root cause of corruption is found in defective human character and predisposition toward criminal activity. Causes are rooted in human weaknesses such as greed (Graaf, 2007). The author emphasized that, when the focus is on the faulty character of an official, morality is assumed to determine behaviour. This assertion corroborates Punch's (2000) argument that, in most cases, morality decides

the conduct of an individual, hence, the reason for one to be corrupt is assumed to follow on the basis of wrong moral values. Using this sort of hypothesis, in the case of a corrupt custom officer, the causal chain would start with moral vices on the officer's part. Wrong moral values may most likely have a direct influence on a customs officers' behaviour towards corruption. However, such causal chain raises interesting questions such as; how do corrupt customs officers acquire these moral vices? Do they have a bad childhood, or does he have a genetic propensity towards corruption?

Over the years, Bad apple theories have become less popular than they used to be. While Bad apple theory represents an individualistic approach in criminology, systems failure theory represents a business approach in criminology (Heath, 2008). As stated by Gottschalk (2012), If the individualistic approach is correct, then one would expect to find a fairly random distribution of white collar misconduct/crimes throughout various sectors of the economy, depending upon where individuals suffering from poor character or excess greed wound up working. Yet, what one finds instead are very high concentrations of criminal activity in particular sectors of the economy. Furthermore, these pockets of crime often persist quite stubbornly over time, despite a complete changeover in the personnel involved (Gottschalk, 2012).

This assertion supports Punch's (2003) notion of "rotten orchard" which indicates that, it is sometimes not the apple, or even the barrel, that is rotten but the *system* (or significant parts of the system). This raises an interesting issue whether to view corruption, misconduct and crime as acts of individuals perceived as "bad apples" or "rotten apples" or as an indication of cultural deviance perceived as "rotten barrel", or an indication of system failure perceived as "rotten orchards" in the public or private sector or the society as a whole. Using this model, the task of corruption control would be, to examine the barrel, not just the apples, the organization, not just the individual in it, because corrupt customs officers are made, not born.

Nevertheless, just like Punch (2003) pointed out, "the police themselves often employ the "rotten apple" metaphor (the deviant cop who slips into bad ways and pollutes the other essentially good officers) which is an individualistic, human failure model of deviance". Similarly, the customs authority tends to use the bad or rotten apple theory, to minimize the public backlash against customs activities after every exposed act

of corruption. Hence, it follows according to this individualistic view of customs corruption that anti- corruption strategies should be targeted at finding the 'rotten apples' through measures like 'integrity testing' and putting policies and procedures in place to reduce the opportunity for engaging in misconduct and corrupt practices.

Organizational culture theory

The theory holds that culture and organizational systems under which a delegate works can advance corruption. The underlying posits seems to be that a causal path from a certain culture prompts a certain mental state and that mental state leads to corrupt behaviour. The theory proposes that, failure in the best apparatus" of government, not faulty character, drives public officials to act corruptly. Therefore, it accounts for the context in which the corrupt acts occur. For example, Punch (2000) pointed out (when discussing corruption within police departments around the globe) that: "If we scan these activities then it is plain that we are no longer dealing with individuals seeking solely personal gain but with group demeanor rooted in established arrangements and extreme practices that must be situated within the structures and culture of police work and the police organization." Punch (2000) concluded: "the suggestion is that in handling corruption and variant types of institutional malfeasance, it is crucial to concentrate on group changes, the heightening from petty to astringent abnormality, and on the adverse components in the organizational philosophy."

In these hypotheses, there is a fundamental way from a specific belief, a specific societal cluster that prompts a rational state. The rational state prompts corruption. As such, once a hierarchical culture is corrupt, each individual who interacts with it likewise runs the risk of being corrupt and not getting to be corrupt in certain authoritative societies implies betraying the group (Punch 2000). These models prompt a talk on corruption control which stresses the way of life of an institution by altering its leadership (Huberts, Kaptein et al. 2004)

Relating these principles to corruption within the customs authority, it infers that, the mental state of corrupt customs officers is not as a result of his or her faulty character, but the established arrangement and extreme practices located within the customs structure and culture of customs services.

Clashing moral values theory

This theory makes a qualification between public role and private commitments of corrupt officials. Corruption is considered on a macro level, more precisely, the level of society or general public. Since the culture of an organization is also influenced by society at large, there is an overlap between this group and organizational culture theories (Graaf, 2007). The causal chain in these theories believes that specific values and norms of society specifically impact the qualities and standards of people values. These values and norms influence the behaviour of individual officials, making them corrupt. In many societies no clear distinction subsists between one's private and one's public roles. For instance, Rose- Ackerman: (1999) holds that: "In the private sector, gift giving is prevalent and highly valued, and it appears to be normal to give employment and contract to one's friends and relations". No one sees any reason not to carry over such practices into the public realm. In fact, the very idea of a sharp distinction between private and public life seems alien to many people." These conflicts prompt corruption since an individual will want to satisfy his/her individual obligations at the expense of group needs

Private appropriation of the spoils of office is not regarded as morally reprehensible or illegitimate. As such, morality and value has an opportunity to cause behaviour and thereby cause corruption. Individuals make choices out of conflict of values connected to one's private and one's public role, and certain values lead to corruption. Out of obligations to friends or family (which can be very important in certain cultures), officials take bribes. Thus it is not so much selfish personal gain the corrupt official is after, but rather the agent feels a need to be corrupt to fulfill important personal (moral) duties, like ensuring loyalty to friends and family. This model with regards to corrupt customs officers, may infer that, customs officers may feel obliged to help clients due to personal ties with them. This personal affiliation with clients and the will to satisfy them may prompt corrupt behaviour.

Furthermore, key to this theory is the opposition between two value systems. Hoffling (2002) spoke of micro morality and macro morality. Micro morality on the one hand, has to do with connection to people in our social circles (family, friends). It is about values, norms and moral obligations in our daily personal and social lives.

Although obligations from the micro morality depend on informal norms, they are exceptionally solid, considerably more grounded than our moral obligations towards strangers. Moral obligations in one's personal lives are characterized by reciprocity; one avails friends and family just as one anticipates that one would be helped when in need. On the other hand, the macro morality, by contrast, emphasizes the universal. It is the outcome of the procedure, as portrayed by Nelson (1949), of universalizing morality and it hinges the authenticity of its norms on foundations of the law, on macrocosmic system of formal standards.

Corruption is most often observed (ethnocentrically) as a phase developing countries need to experience before achieving development. Instances of this group of hypotheses for explaining corruption are most common in studies of lower income countries. For example, certain patronage ties can be identified in Western countries as well as under-developing countries that are sometimes connected to the causes of individual corruption cases (Dohmen 1996). Think of 'old-boy networks', alumni networks, Rotary clubs, fraternities and the like (Perkin 1996). Also a hypothetical case, say, a sick child of a public official, in which large sums of money are needed, leading the public official to become corrupt can be identified in most developing countries or lower income countries.

2.1.4 Causes of corruption

The most critical step forward in discovering the cures is to recognize the underlying causes of a crisis. However, discussions on corruption have preferred to clarify, instead of discerning deterministic factors; how and why corruption happens. It is important to note that though the causes of corruption vary from context to context, nations to nations and sectors to sectors, studies generally have delivered a blend of circumstances, dispositions and processes which are best understood as facilitating conditions, factors or indicators that permit or encourage corruption (Osimen, Adenegan and Balogun, 2013; Dimant and Tosato, 2017).

According to Mills (2012), there are mixtures of situations, structures or procedures that can more easily be interpreted to enable, improve or support corruption. These factors are not purely causal such that if they exist in a given place, corruption will occur. Rather they are considered phenomena that may make the occurrence of

corruption more probable. In the literature, there are several causes, facilitators or risk factors for corruption, differing from country to country.

- **Institutional structure:** The bureaucratic framework that gives large amount of discretion to its officials would be prone to high levels of corruption. Since officials have the power to deviate from laws and procedures, they can extract rents by allocating public funds differently, as bribes are obtained. The degree to which an economy is corrupt is often believed to be influenced by its democratic age as an indicator for the integrity of the institutional system (Mohtadi, 2003).

- **Legal system:** Some reports have demonstrated that low levels of corruption in a nation is dependent on their rule of law (Gupta 2000; Dimant and Tosato, 2017). If the risk of being caught is high or if the punishment is rigid, corrupt officials would have less incentive to extract rents (Treisman 2000). This is especially applicable to nations which have formal anti-corruption regulations in effect.

- **Quality of the bureaucracy:** Gupta (2000) found that the low quality of bureaucracy is associated with high levels of corrupt practices. It was also pointed out that regulation appears to be less transparent (reduction in accountability) in inefficient bureaucracy and that authorizations are typically issued by specific persons (reducing completion), which all imply higher levels of corruption. This is further reinforced by empirical research, which uses multiple data to establish that government interference facilitates economic corruption, particularly in the area of regulation (Goel and Nelson, 2010). The bureaucracy level is a subjective measure of the quality of the administrative system, which includes corruption prospects, the possibility of being detected and the severity of sanctions.

- **Level of competition and trade openness:** Countries with higher levels of competitiveness in their manufacturing industries and a high degree of receptivity to trade are associated with decreased levels of corruption (Ades, 1999). The higher degree of corruption is correlated with countries that are comparatively closed and have more government interference, such as trade sanctions, subsidies, market caps, and foreign exchange limits and regulations (Mauro. 1997).

- **Public and private sector wage disparity:** Higher levels of corruption are correlated with countries with significant inequalities in public and private sector salaries (Van

Rijckeghem 1997; Mauro, 1997). It was hypothesized that while the government can only afford to pay low salaries to the public sector workers, employees of the public sector use rent extraction to compensate for the salary discrepancies. Overtime, the government found that it can continue to pay low wages to the public sector employees and public positions are desirable because of corruption opportunities.

- **Availability of natural resources:** Typically known as "resource curse," many academics argue that an increased natural resource convergence in a nation will increase the recurrence of corrupt behaviour, because of growing opportunities. An initial observational study found this association to be valid in countries with plenitude of natural resources and high degree of corruption (Leite and Weidmann, 1999). Further study across 124 countries using data from 1980-2004 affirmed the conclusion that, the impact level is determined by the regional political institutions (Bhattacharyya and Hodler, 2010). Furthermore, some researchers proposed that the resource type influences corruption levels. A 2004 survey found that nonfuel raw resources have the largest effects on corruption and on growth limitation (Korhonen, 2004). In comparison, the wealth of mineral resources was shown to have the greatest influence on the increasing corruption (Dimant Krieger, and Redlin, 2015).

- **Immigration:** As Dimant Krieger and Redlin (2015) emphasized, the level of corruption can be influenced by immigration from a highly corrupt country. Firstly, massive immigration by influential drivers does not apply only to certain decent people, but rather to the entire populace, both the corrupt and the non-corrupt. However, corruption will emigrate with them if it is part of their cultural beliefs. In addition, individuals will take some time to completely adjust to their host nation, and during this adjustment phase, they may be more likely to be corrupt as a result of increased need (Dimant et al., 2015). Typically, immigration does not have a substantial impact on levels of corruption. However, empirical reports between 1984 and 2008 from 207 countries suggest that immigration out of highly corrupt countries indeed raises the short-term corruption in the destination country, but the medium-term effect disappears (Dimant et al., 2015).

- **Cultural or social factors:** It is postulated that family-oriented cultures are more vulnerable to corruption when the representatives of the family support one another

(Mauro, 1997). Other scholars also observed that high ethno-linguistic fractionalization, which indicates social differences along ethnic and linguistic lines, correlates with corruption (Treisman 2000).

2.1.5   Effects of Corruption

In a review of causes and effect of corruption by Dimant and Tosato (2017), the following effects of corruption were identified;

- **Bureaucratic inefficiency:** those who take advantage of an inadequate structure by engaging in corrupt operations do not have motivation to streamline the system.

- **Weak business and (local) investment climate:** High levels of corruption have been contended to decrease the rates of growth in a nation by impacting business climate or quality. This can arise as a result of inadequate public spending, while investments in absolute terms may increase, actual productivity may decrease because of insufficient distributions of funds. Corruption can also contribute to low infrastructure levels, thereby weakening a country's investment climate.

- **Curtailment of civil and political rights:** Corruption in theory is assumed to have an impact on organizations in such a manner that promotion and security of civil rights is decreased. As such, a negative interaction between the two is anticipated. For instance, a study focusing on human rights and governance conducted by Kaufmann (2004) found low levels of political and civil liberties among countries with high levels of corruption.

- **Decreased economic growth:** Corruption has the potentials to hinder economic growth by lowering quality and levels of investment, misallocation of capital as a result of skewed opportunities and increased indirect taxation levels.

- **Limited foreign direct investment:** In order to apply for license for foreign investment in a nation, a public permit is required. The likelihood that obtaining this license may entail offering bribes in corrupt countries is higher, thus raising the cost of such operations and lowering FDI levels in general. Moreover, some citizens or companies actually opt to avoid those unethical activities and consequently, trading ties with those nations could simply be avoided and foreign direct investment levels limited once again in absolute terms.

- **Income Inequality/ poverty:** Corruption has the capacity to increase income inequality and poverty by decreasing levels of productivity, implementing bias tax structure, as well as asset ownership, educational inequalities and poor quality welfare services, (Gupta et al., 2002).

- **Negative impact on international Trade:** In international trade, some forms of publicly issued licence or permit is always required. The costs of securing the requisite permit or licence can be exceptionally high in countries with high corruption levels, owing to the need to pay bribes. Higher levels of corruption are theorized as having a negative impact on international markets. Also, the level of corruption in trade-related organizations has an impact on trade rates. This attestation has been strengthened observationally by an inquiry that revealed that the increasing perceptible vulnerability of a nation's trading establishments is negatively connected to world trading standards (Bugel, 2010).

- **Threatened political legitimacy:** It has been argued, from a theoretical point of view, that for a political framework to operate, it should be accepted as valid domestically and internationally. A theoretical assessment of researchers claims that political legitimacy is defined and valued by the absence of corruption, discrimination and governance standards (Rothstein, 2008). Corruption thus threatens this legitimacy.

- **Brain drain:** Theoretically, high corruption levels potentially increase the problem of brain drain in a nation. Corruption is related to a variety of negative effects that could contribute to future migrants. Returns on education have been argued to be especially impacted (slower economic growth, lack of socioeconomic change and development amongst others). Those who are particularly vulnerable to this driving force (highly qualified persons) are also more likely to emigrate (Dimant et al., 2013).

- **Fiscal deficit:** Corruption decreases public revenue (lower productivity rate, higher inequalities) and raises public spending (more inefficient), and therefore increases fiscal deficit.

- **Decreased human capital:** Increased corruption levels are correlated with decreased health and education levels, socio-economic growth and thus lower human resources levels.

2.1.6   Measuring Corruption

The latest interest in the study of corruption has culminated in indicators that have shown their usefulness in revealing certain knowledge about the prevalence and consequences of corruption. Nevertheless, it is important to note that varying meanings, types and the covert nature of corruption make it impossible to measure corruption. There are several indicators of corruption that have been used in the literature. For example, Corruptions Perceptions Index, Political Risk index, Global Corruption Barometer and Bribe Payers Index, have all employed public opinion polls to assess corruption attitudes. The World Bank's Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey (BEEPS) evaluate economic climate perspectives and the practical enforcement of government regulations, laws, and procedures. The Political Risk index from the International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) uses experts from countries to evaluate corporate corruption threats in a country by measuring the period during which a government stays in power. Yet, while all these measures exist, there is still no complete image of corruption, prevalence and how to remedy it in the newly developed nations. The effectiveness of current indicators differ depending on the methodology, the size and experience of the subject group and the factors taken into consideration.

Nevertheless, among the numerous aggregate indicators available in the literature, three indicators have been noteworthy for their complexity and widespread use by the practitioners of anti-corruption:

(1)   World Governance Indicators (WGI),

(2)   The Business Environment and Enterprise Survey (BEEPS) both built by the World Bank and (3) The Corruption Perception Index (CPI), annually published by Transparency International (Urra, 2007).

1.   World Bank's Control of Corruption Index (CCI)

The Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) was developed to gauge the Control of Corruption Index (CCI). The WGI is research dataset which summarizes the opinions of a large number of survey interviewees including citizens, experts and

enterprises in industrial and developing countries about the standard of governance. The data is obtained from numerous survey organizations, think tanks, NGOs, foreign associations and private sector enterprises. The CCI represents a mix of multiple indicators that evaluate how much public influence is exerted for private gain, both in grand and petty instances of corruption and the capture of the state by private interests and the elites. The Index covers from +2.5 (for excellent performance) to -2.5 (for very poor performance). Although the description is reasonably reliable, the data supplied by the WGI are based on any available polls; therefore, the questions are distinct and vary from "is corruption a serious problem?" to "how would you describe the public access to information?" Another challenge with this measure is that different questions are employed for different nations and therefore there is no coherence between the use of data and the country being evaluated. Despite these shortcomings, global coverage of these datasets, especially by the Millennium Challenge Corporation, has contributed to their widespread acceptance.

2.   Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI)

Transparency International rates nations on a scale ranging from 100 (very clean) to 0 (very corrupt) depending on perceived levels of corruption, based on expert reviews and opinion polls. That was one of the first indicators in which the problem of corruption was successfully uncovered and placed on the international policy agenda. CPI evaluates only corruption perception, which is a statistical proxy for actual corruption. The CPI is the first to establish a level playing field on which diverse and distinct nations are comparable on the same scale. The foreign embarrassment that results due to the comparative scale, encourage a race towards decreased levels of corruption. However, countries with varying levels of growth are not taken into account. For instance, the CPI does not take into account the impact of poverty on corruption level.

In addition, the target pool is business people and specialists, who are more likely than random population sample to possess first-hand information and reliable secondary knowledge about corrupt practices. While the index has a tremendous benefit, it also poses a problem with sample bias and selection. The scale is predominantly for men and the economically advantageous, lacking the perspectives and opinions of most women,

the poor and the marginalized. The scale has often been criticized that it is culturally partial and aligned with western morality, as its description of corruption is largely culturally subjective. The general limitations of this measure can be avoided, not with a broad cross-country survey, but with a more targeted group of countries either at regional level or growth levels.

3.   **Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey (BEEPS)**

The Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey (BEEPS) is an appraisal of corruption and other business issues in Europe and Central Asia (ECA). Almost every nation in the area is covered by the survey, every three years. The BEEPS depends on information offered by individuals operating local businesses to answer a number of basic issues, which apply to the business sector, public and legal services. In the survey, corruption is conceived as state capture and administrative corruption. The BEEPS offers insight into the division of power between state and economic interests, enabling new viewpoints of ties between state and business, such as the weak state captured by strong economic interests. However, the symbolic separation between state and community was criticized and viewed as unrealistic considering the fact that state officials and certain citizens of society frequently have mutual values and participate in cooperative ties, blurring the boundaries between them.

Nevertheless, it is a reliable indicator for multiple forms of corruption. Another significant attribute of BEEPS is that the test departs from pure perception and actually talks about different aspects of the business climate as they impact the business or related businesses It helps one to analyze trends over time and reflects on multiple forms of corruption, how often, which kinds of public officials and also which businesses are most affected. Because it is an original data source, there are several valuable features that are not found in other aggregate measures (such as the CPI and CCI).

2.1.7   Corruption in Nigeria

The rising risk associated with corruption is pervasive in Nigeria amid successive governments several attempts to mitigate the plague. Corruption has been the daily demand of young and old, politicians and non-politicians, lawmakers and the non-legislators and even the military and non-military. Interestingly, corruption has been

normalized with nicknames among most Nigerian ethnic groups, especially the three major dialects. It is called "*Egunje"* by the Yorubas*, "Chuachua"* by the Hausas and *"Igbuozu"* by the Igbos (Ndokwu, 2004). It is a familiar term used by both children and adults due to its widespread presence in the Nigerian society. As such, corruption is perceived as a cancer that has eaten deep into every fabric of the Nigerian polity.

Corruption in Nigeria cannot be comprehended without putting it into historical context. The colonial antecedent of Nigeria has profoundly altered its path today. As indicated by Crowe (2011), it is largely acknowledged that the underlying foundation of corruption in Nigeria exudes from its colonization historical record. Before colonization, there were over 250 separate tribes, clans and social classes in the area which now encompasses Nigeria (U.S. Department of State Bureau of Public Affairs 2011). These distinct groups had customs, institutions and social roles of their own. Pre-colonial Africa was known for showcasing good esteem and sound moral principles. This was noted in the 1947 Government Report (CGR) that African's background and view on public morality vary considerably from those of the Briton.

Colonialism, however, as argued by Okolo and Raymond (2014), destabilized the pre-colonial system, uprooted farmers to become houseboys, laborers, hired employees, and other menial capacities for the white man. The monetization of this exercises introduced a custom of greed that the culture of most pre-colonial African societies was unaccustomed to. With the perverted societal values, most Africans wanted to be like the colonial masters who were living in huge homes and driving big cars. More so, Storey (1953) as cited in the work of Ogbeidi (2012), noted that instance of official abuse of resources have been noted before independence. As such, it is logical to assert that the era of colonial rule is the starting point of obtaining alien preferences, deprivation of the less endowed, and an unquestionable acceptance of culture of consumerism rather than innovation which are rife among Africans, including Nigerians till today.

Furthermore, the British government established a federalist model of democracy around geographical ethnic separation, before Nigeria achieved independence in 1960; the Yoruba ethnic group was predominant in the west, the Igbo in the east, and the Hausa/Fulani in the north. Initially, the federalist system was intended to grant the South greater control while maintaining federal authority in the North. However, in the four

years between independence and the first democratic elections in Nigeria, democratic structural foundations had not had the chance to solidly develop. According to Mohammed (2013), the division and control of minorities by the dominant ethnic groups led to rivalry, worry and mutual mistrust for one another groups that make up the country. It was not long before more tensions emerged over the power sharing system and in 1966, the country had its first military coup..

At the time of Nigeria's independence in1960, corruption according to Odon (2015) was like a mustard seed that has now transformed into a very large tree with deep tap roots, branches and leaves. The reluctance of elected officials to deal decisively with corruption led to the fall of the first and second republics, and justified military coups. However, the military governments did not only perfect corruption, but made it into a state-of-the-art, rather than addressing its threat. Faboyede (2009) argued that the history of corruption in Nigeria is rooted in the nation's military regime that promoted wicked looters of public treasury, undermined rule of law, degraded national establishments and freedom of expression and brought government operations into the context of a secret and obscure culture. This further resulted into utter instability, weak economic management, human rights violations, ethnic disputes and capital flight amongst others

According to Ogbeidi (2012), it is impossible to always determine with precision the magnitude of corruption in the period of civil and military regimes because the trend and methods of illegal self-enrichment are not the same. Again, the military returned to power frequently citing corruptions and incompetency of the dethroned military/civil government. The ultimate outcome of the thirty-one years of military rule is the impoverished nation hopelessly struggling to maintain its balance. Nigeria thus became a pawn in the chessboard of the military adventurers who used their positions to plunder the wealth of the nation without any sense of restraint. As evidenced in literature, the consequences of imposition of colonial rule on Nigeria include ethnic rivalry, political instability and endemic corruption which the nation is still grappling with, till today.

With the ominous dark cloud constantly hovering the country, it is not surprising that fifty eight years after political independence (1960-2018), Nigeria is still wallowing in corruption which has critically hobbled and skewed development. Widespread corruption where money intended for national development is pocketed by a few and

where government officials loot public funds with reckless abandon amongst others has led to the absence or poor provision of social services like good roads, electricity and portable water. Corruption has undeniably slowed down the development and growth of the nation so much that it has to struggle to carry out even the most fundamental functions of protection of life and property, provision of social services and engendering national patriotism and consciousness of the people. National establishments of pride and significance such as Nigerian Telecommunication Limited, Nigerian Airways, car assembly plants, Steel Rolling Mills, National Shipping Lines amongst others have all gone into extinction. More significantly, wanton corruption has contributed to the nation's high levels of crime. Under this situation, foreign investors cannot be drawn to the region.

Corruption is prevalent in the various levels of government, including the private sector. It is represented through different ways and in several categories of transactions across government levels, between and within private enterprises of various types and sizes, between stakeholders in the public and private sectors, and even within the civil society organizations. The major aspects of corruption in Nigeria include misappropriation of funds, diversion of local government allocations, inflation of public expenditure, bribery and extortion, non-remittance or under-remittance of revenue, tax negotiation, embezzlement and fraud, crude oil theft, subsidy scandal and pension funds scandal amongst others.

It should be noted that after the country returned to democratic rule on 29th May 1999, the Nigerian government, recognizing the importance of addressing the country's high degree of corrupt practices introduced a series of zero tolerance initiatives. Some of these measures include reforms of the public sector (monetization for the reduction of waste and decrease of over-bloated staff, public procurement reforms), the formation of anti-corruption enforcement agencies (for example, Independent Corruption and other Practices Commission (ICPC), the Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC)) and the sanitization of Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) monetary administration division, all in a bid to tackle a wave of flagrant fraud and corruption in the national life.

On the one hand, in 2000, the ICPC was founded to combat public sector corruption, in particular, graft, gratification, bribery and misuse or abuse of government

offices (The Corrupt practices and other Related Offences Act, 2000). The EFCC, on the other hand, was founded in 2003, in part because of the pressure from the Money Laundering Financial Action Task force (FATF), which named Nigeria as one of 23 non-cooperative nations derailing the efforts of the global community to battle money laundering (EFCC (Establishment) Act, 2002). In comparison to the ICPC, the EFCC was empowered to combat corruption in both private and public life in the first place. They investigate individuals who seem to be operating above their own wealth in both sectors. In the same vein, after taking office in May 2015, President Muhammadu Buhari, in response to the corrupt state of the nation, initiated anti-corruption campaigns. Although these initiatives significantly contributed to fighting corruption, their effort has not yet eradicated the phenomenon. It suffices at this point, however, to recognize that the battle against corruption is evolving and that Nigerians are determined to ensure that corruption is totally stamped out of the country.

Aremu (2017) averred that, in Nigeria, corruption flourishes primarily because no government dedicated itself to tackling it credibly and honestly. This assertion emphasizes that, the Nigerian-state lacks the will power and courage to implement rules, practices and policies aimed at combating corruption, especially among the elite who often evade justice. Consequently, this trend has led to corrupt practices becoming common-place in the streets and highways, banks and other financial institutions, health and educational institutions; government ministries and agencies, markets and religious congregations with the result that no segment of the Nigerian economy and society is shielded and spared from the staggering impact of corruption.

2.1.8   Corruption in Nigerian public sector

Corruption within the public sector is a major issue in the effort to ensure transparency, integrity and accountability in Nigeria. Corruption is commonly characterized as "administrative" or "petty" corruption in the public administration. An analysis of corrupt agencies within Nigeria showed that the corrupt conduct most reported within the Nigerian public sector involves abuse of office, misuse of official information, nepotism, cronyism, favoritism, misuse of public resources (including fraud

and misappropriation) and exploiting conflicts of interest/personal interests (Odo, 2015; Osimen, Adenegan, and Balogun, 2013; UNODC, 2017).

Moreover, the magnitude of public sector bribery in Nigeria is even more palpable when factoring in the frequency of those payments. For example, the UNODC (2017) survey recorded that bribe givers pay an average of about six bribes in Nigeria every one year or about one bribe every two months. The cumulative amount of bribes paid to the Nigerian government in the 12 months preceding the survey was estimated to be 402 billion Nigerian Naira, which is equivalent to the purchasing power parity (PPP) of $4.6 billion. This is proportional to 39% of the 2016 consolidated budget allocations for federal and state education. Although paying public officials bribes is not the only type of corruption in Nigerian public sector, it is the most pervasive and far-reaching type of corruption affecting ordinary citizens.

Corruption takes numerous forms however, the way it impacts citizens is in their interactions with the public institutions. Cases of such contacts may include a meeting with a specialist or doctor in a public hospitals/clinic, a meeting to guarantee public service provision, an on-the-street or highway stoppage by a police officer, or other direct connections with different kinds of public authority. Table 2.1 evinces the prevalence rate of bribery in relation to public sectors or agencies in Nigeria as reported by UNODC (2017).

Table 2.1: Prevalence rates of bribery received by public officials in Nigeria in 2016

Public Sector	Prevalence rate in percentage
• Police	46.4
• Prosecutors	33.0
• Judges/ Magistrates	31.5
• Immigration Service Officers	30.7
• Car registration/ Driving License agency officers	28.5
• Tax/ revenue officers	27.3
• Customs officers	26.5
• Traffic management officials	25.6
• Public Utilities officers	22.4
• Land registry officers	20.9
• Members of the armed forces	19.3
• Embassy/ Consulate officers of foreign countries	16.4
• Teachers/ Lecturers	11.7
• Civil Servants/other public officials	9.0
• Members of Parliament/ Legislature	8.9
• Elected representatives from Local/State government	7.9
• Doctors	7.0
• Nurses	5.0

Source: *United Nation Office on Drugs and Crime, Nigerian Bureau of Statistics, 2016*

The global picture of Nigeria's public and private sector corrupt operation is not that different. The *Global Corruption Barometer* 2013 examined the prevalence of petty bribery in 12 months. Bribes were reported to have been paid by respondents to the following agencies; the police, political parties, parliament/ legislative members and other public officials/ civil servants, judiciary, education system, business/private sector, military, medical and health system, media, NGOs and religious bodies (TI, 2013).

Furthermore, as evidenced in reports with respect to level of corruption, which differs across nations, the level of corruption is observed to be low in some countries and high in other countries subject to tolerance level, corruption checks and balancing mechanisms. In the various indices used to measure and rank nations and regions on the basis of perception of corruption in their public and private sectors, Nigeria was ranked at the bottom among the countries evaluated (World Governance Indicator (WGI), 2018; Transparency International (TI), 2018). According to the reports on corruption perception index rankings from Transparency International in Table 2.2, Nigeria has been at the bottom of rankings among countries assessed on the basis of perceived public sector corrupt activities and has more than once been the most corrupt country in the world in the Corruption Perception Index. The recent Corruption Perception Index (CPI) of 2018, rated Nigeria as 33rd most corrupt country out of 180 countries evaluated, 19th most corrupt country out of 49 African countries rated, and the 18th most corrupt country in Sub-Saharan Africa (TI, 2018). These rankings are a reflection of current global perception about graft in Nigeria. It is not in doubt that corrupt activities are systemic and pervasive in all sectors, including private and public, profit and non-profit organizations in Nigeria. For instance, Nigeria was rated 152 among 157 nations surveyed by the World Bank Group (2018) in their Human Capital Index (HCI). Again, this low rating was attributed to poor health and educational outcomes in the nation, which is also a resultant effect of high incidence of corruption.

Table 2.2: Nigeria's Corruption Perception Index rankings: 1996-2018

Year	Corruption Perception Index Rankings
1996	54 out of 54
1997	52 out of 52
1998	81 out of 85
1999	98 out of 99
2000	90 out of 90
2001	100 out of 102
2002	90 out of 91
2003	132 out of 133
2004	144 out of 145
2005	152 out of 158
2006	150 out of 163
2007	132 out of 147
2008	121 out of 150
2009	130 out of 150
2010	134 out of 178
2011	143 out of 182
2012	139 out of 175
2013	144 out of 175
2014	136 out of 175
2015	136 out of 168
2016	136 out of 175
2017	148 out 0f 180
2018	148 out of 180

Source: Transparency International, CPI 1996-2018

2.1.9   Cost of corruption in Nigeria

The obvious spike in corruption in Nigeria poses moral concerns regarding individuals and national accountability and integrity. Osimen et al., (2013), opined that the effects of corruption include reduction in quality of goods and services, amassing wealth, easy fraud on large project, reduction in public education budget, poor road, poor state of infrastructure, economic growth waste skills, late payment of salaries, increased poverty, brain drain and disruption of government activities. More recently, a World Economic Forum executive opinion poll reported also that corruption is Nigeria's second most worrying element in the way it does business (World Economic Forum (WEF), 2017).

The cost of corruption in Nigeria according to Ngwube and Okoli (2013), encompasses four factors namely environmental, political, social and economic. On the political front, corruption has weakened good governance and democracy by disrupting governmental procedures and electoral process. Corruption has led to political instability in Nigeria. Corruption is documented as the most common cause of a series of military coups, religious and ethnic wars, including terrorism and militancy, in Nigeria's political history. Socioeconomic growth has been influenced by the political turmoil in the region. In fact, in a world of uncertainty and instability, national growth is handicapped, thus endangering the long-term planning process.

Economically, corruption has led to the depletion of the nation's wealth; it has contributed to economic distortions in the public sector, using scarce public resources to finance unfavorable projects of high profile, but with greater opportunities for bribery and kick-backs (Okolo and Raymond, 2014). The cost of doing business, owing to possibility of breach of deals, illegal payment costs amongst others have risen in the private sector (Odo, 2015). Socially, most of the Nigerian populace no longer trust the leadership, institutions and political system of the country. Most of its citizen have become unspoken and show lack of concern regarding government policies resulting in a weak patriotic society.

Another result of corrupt regimes is environmental degradation. Nigeria has been polluted by failing to implement environmental legislation and regulations. The reckless mining by domestic and foreign agents of natural resources has hurled the nation into the

destructive climate that threatens the wellbeing of its citizens. Most often, the preference for the financing of most environmental destructive programs stems from the basic aim of sifting federal money into private wallets (Ngwube and Okoli, 2013; Okolo and Raymond, 2014).

Corruption in its different forms as opined by Aremu (2014), demoralizes the populace, impedes the progress of a country towards prosperity and limits foreign investments. This view corroborates Bakare's (2011) argument that a vast majority of citizens would remain impoverished and stagnated where corruption exists, even in nations blessed with ample natural and human resources. Nigeria's experience in the years past is an incontrovertible reflection of these observations. Corruption seems to be increasing in magnitude and intensity from year to year, subsisting as one of the leading factor responsible for the present perceived economic stagnation, increasing national debt, poverty, social problems, insecurity, high rate of unemployment and decline in educational standard, poor infrastructural development ethnic and communal conflicts, insufficient capacity to innovate and a host of other national problems (NBS, 2018; World Economic Forum (WEF), 2018; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2018).

Customs Organizational Structure
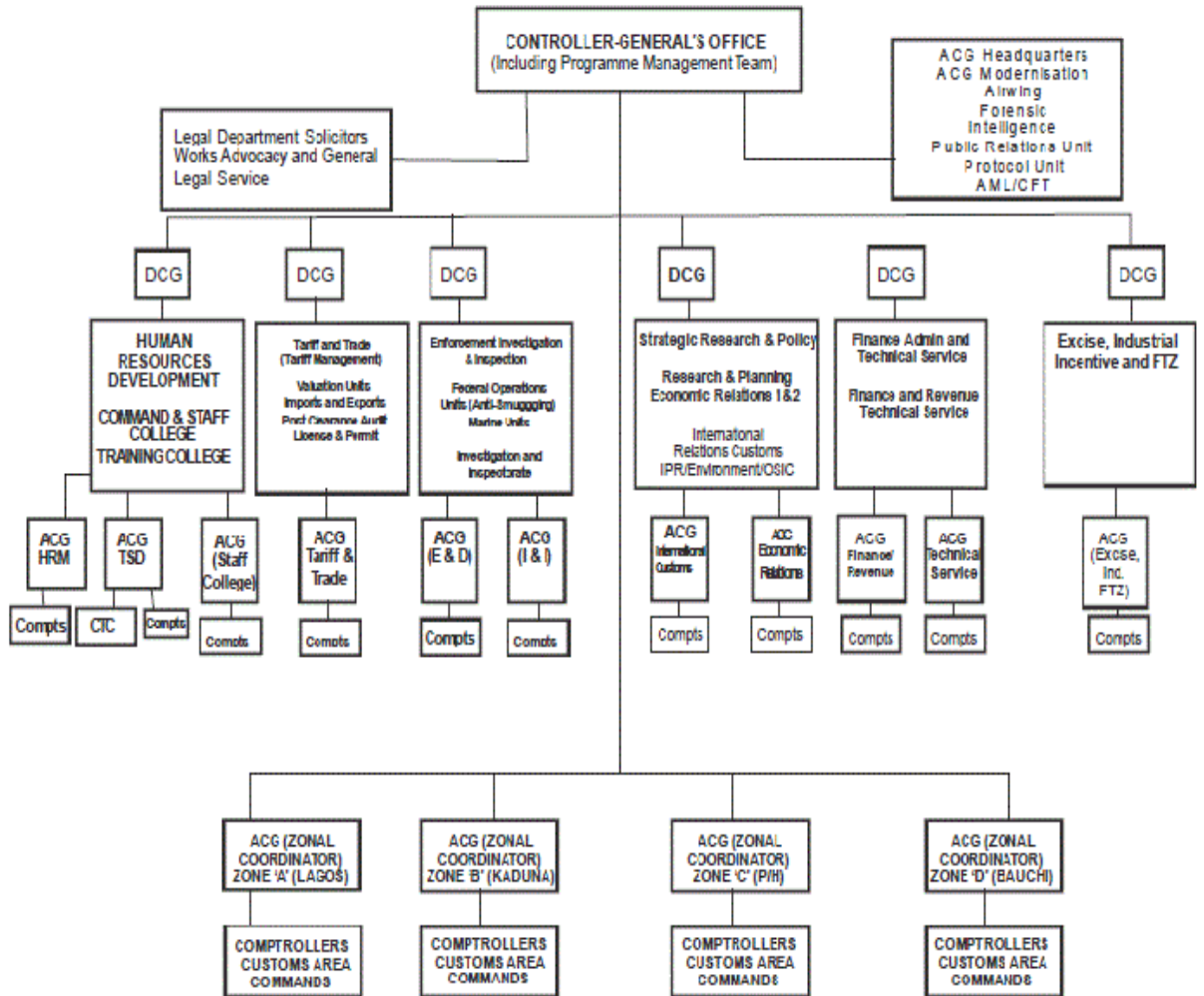
Figure 2.1 Source: www.customs.gov.ng, 2018

2.1.10 Nigerian Customs administration

The Nigerian Customs Service was established in 1891 and was first referred to as the Department of Customs and Excise Service. The department was placed in charge of Inland Revenue collection for the Niger Coast Protectorate. This arrangement formalized the department's roles which were carried out under the Royal Niger Company under the guidance of the former chief executives. However, over the past decades, the organization has witnessed several major structural changes ranging from organizational name, powers and functions, duties, rules and regulations amongst others. In 1992, the structural changes of the organization led to a change of name from the Department of Customs and Excise to the Nigeria Customs Service. Its status was also changed to a para-military organization

Fig 2.1 shows the customs organogram. The Customs Service of Nigeria is led by the General Comptroller and is aided by six (6) departments headed by Deputy General Comptrollers. The departments include the following;

- Tariff
- Trade
- Strategic Research and Policy
- Enforcement, Investigation, and Inspection
- Finance Administration and Technical Service
- Excise, FTZ and Industrial Incentives
- Human Resource Development

At the crossroads of domestic and the international markets, the Nigerian Customs Service (NCS) has a crucial position as the gatekeepers. The customs administration's core roles include the following;

- Collection of revenue (Import /Excise Duties and other Taxes /Levies) and accounting for same;
- Collection of levies and charges.
- Generation of statistical data for planning purpose
- Prevention and suppression of smuggling
- Trade Facilitation

- Collaborative functions with government Agencies including CBN, Police, NDLEA, SON, NAFDAC, FIRS
- Implementation of bilateral and multilateral agreements entered into by government
- Implementation of Government Fiscal Measures (NCS, 2018).

The agency also promotes the fight against:

i. Money laundering

ii. Infraction on Intellectual Property Rights

iii. Illegal trade in arms and ammunition

iv. Importation of toxic and hazardous substances.

v. Illegal commercial activities and trade in illicit goods, e.g. import of fake and sub-standard goods

vi. Illegal trade in cultural Artifacts.

vii. Traffic of illicit drugs

viii. Illegal international trade in endangered species

ix. Importation of pornographic materials (NCS, 2018).

Customs administration activities are of utmost social and national importance for the purpose stated above and to avoid any breakdown of the external trading flows that could be least likely. To this end, corruption is an exceedingly serious matter in its service.

The exponential progress of foreign trade has created new challenges for customs administration in recent decades. In order to benefit as entirely as possible from the positive influence of trade on global growth, it has, on the one hand, intensified the need to promote and accelerate trade. On the other hand, the opportunities for corruption and smuggling have risen considerably that if the customs regulations are not revamped corruption itself may present "the means" to encourage and speed up international trade. In addition, modern developments, technology and communications techniques though allowing customs agency to work through accelerated analysis of rapid data transmission, contribute to new security problems in terms of legal procedure and monitoring of crimes, as money and goods are exchanged internationally, by a click of a button. All these issues tend to jeopardize the legitimacy of the domestic political and economic

structures, threaten the rule of law, and raise the possibility of unfavorable effects from international influence (Begović, Mijatović, Sepi, Vasović, and Vuković, 2002).

2.1.11 Corruption in Nigeria Customs Service

Corruption is pervasive in most developing nations, including Nigeria. It is considered an integral part of the culture that society has learned to live with, especially in business transactions (Hors, 2000; Dahida and Akangbe, 2013; Okolo and Raymond, 2014). In practice, corruption is precipitated in the enclave in which private employees and public officials operate. The public sector of developing nations is often portrayed as inefficient and bureaucratic (Ndonga, 2013). The sector is beset by a substantial number of complicated, prohibitive regulations and inadequate controls to deter corruption. This condition is more evident in the customs administration serving as a significant barrier to trade growth especially in developing countries.

The Nigerian Custom Service (NCS) as an organization came into being in 1891, laden with the responsibilities of anti-smuggling activities, revenue collection and accounting for same. The agency, however, has been faced with challenges ranging from proactive handling of the seemingly conflicting task of enhancing the timely distribution of services, while retaining a coherent and efficient mechanism of action, required to address the demands of economic crime, money laundering, threatening weapons of mass destruction, menace of terrorism, dumping of toxic and hazardous waste. One major factor associated with these various challenges in NCS is corruption.

In the literature, regular depiction of corruption embody the notion of a public office in breach of its laws for personal gain either through acts of nepotism, bribery, redirection of state revenues or theft of public resources. However, corruption within the milieu of customs would entail Customs officials' misuse of authority for private benefit. Case studies from countries and regions around the continent offer a terrible image of the misuse of power among customs officers. According to the Bribe Payers Index of 2008, business executives view customs administration as one of the most corrupt administrations in many African nations. This is supported by the Afrobarometer survey of 18 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, which points out that police and tax administration, including customs, are the most discredited agencies.

Another survey by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) also reported on allegations of corrupt dealings between customs and foreign officials encouraging the smuggling of gold into Uganda from the Democratic Republic of Congo (OECD, 2015). In addition, the report showed that 12% of bribes paid were meant to gain customs clearance. Similarly, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Foreign Bribery Report for 2014 revealed that 11% of the officials who took bribes between 1999 and mid-2014 were customs officials (highest category of risk) and the total amount of bribes paid during that period for this category of government officials was 1.14%.

In Nigeria, the UNODC (2017) survey, listed the NCS as one of the most corrupt agencies, receiving the largest average cash bribes (NGN 88,587/$1,016-Power Purchasing Parity (PPP), and the total amount of bribes paid to this category of officials during the relevant period was 3.9%. The results supported Soyombo's observations in 2016 that different actions of corruption, by customs officials and other bodies, are intended to capitalize on the determination of the importer, in times of desperation, to abide by tight time-limits for the transportation of products from ports to prevent demurrage. More so, the survey has shown that some stakeholders appear to be so accustomed to corruption that they believe it is normal. Hence, customs efficiency could also be perceived to be impeded by "normalized" corruption in NCS. This creates a major disincentive and obstacle to trade expansion and also disproportionately impact on the lives of Nigerians.

2.1.12 Types of corruption in customs

Customs officials participate in diverse forms of corrupt activities which vary from nation to nation and cover acts of bribery and extortions, nepotism, cronyism patronage, embezzlement and kickbacks. It is therefore difficult to explain, in details, all forms of customs corruption. Hors (2001), specifically categorizes the various types of corrupt practices which customs officials may conduct. They are routine, fraudulent, and criminal corruption.

- **Routine corruption**

Corruption of this type happens where clients offer bribes to customs officials to expedite customs procedures (Hors 2001). Corruption of this nature would include officials of customs requesting bribes to execute their duties. A depiction of such illegal practices would involve officials of customs to postpone, pause or delay the implementation or completion of customs duties until they are granted bribes (Hors, 2001). Such delay tactics may include officials claiming to be inaccessible or occupied elsewhere if a demanded intervention is very important and can only be performed after a bribe has been paid or officials making other clients wait (non-bribe-paying operators) while attending quickly to records of clients who have offered bribes.

Another manifestation of routine corruption arises when, in the clearance process, customs officials establish or attempt to create unwarranted snags. This form of corruption also involves the decision of customs officials to carry out inspections in outrageous detail or a request for documentations which are hard to obtain or dispatch of cargo for more tests, such as quarantine or some other needless measures which could impede the clearance system.

Fraudulent corruption

This form of corruption arises when clients induce customs officials to "look the other way" during certain administrative requirements to minimize their import/export obligations and tax liabilities (Hors 2001). This sort of corruption is, in effect, instigated by clients requesting the assistance of customs officials in the execution of illegal acts on their behalf. It is generally characterized by misclassification, erroneous valuation of imports/export or misdeclaration, (Hors 2001). Clients often connive with officers of the customs by negotiating bribes, in order to disregard the details of imports/exports, the type, size, nature or origin of their goods. Yielding to the persuasions of operators necessitates customs personnel to engage in incorrect duty estimates, most often reducing the actual tax obligation of clients.

- **Criminal corruption**

This form of corruption occurs as criminal operators bribe customs officials in order to encourage them to smuggle contrabands (Hors 2001). This form of corruption also

covers the occurrence of collusion between drugs and weapons traffickers and customs officials.

2.1.13 Factors that promote corruption in Customs

The factors that encourage corruption differ from one situation to another. Corruption is most frequently rooted in the social culture, economic policies or institutional practices of a nation and is linked to the specific state of affairs (Ndonga, 2013). Corruption in customs thrives and relies on the willingness of customs officers to execute it. Of course, that willingness is itself controlled by various factors. klitgaard (1988), argued that corruption thrives "when accountability of agents to the principal is weak, when agents have great discretion, and when agents have monopoly power over clients'. The paradigm that sustains the by-product of corruption is as follows;

- **Monopoly**: The customs authority is a major government agency with an administrative monopoly, since it is usually the only office that has obligations in respect of certain regulatory, administrative and import-export related functions (McLinden 2005). The regulatory and administrative functions relating to procedures, charges and penalties they impose raise customs economic rent. As a result, customs operators are ready to pay a premium to circumvent the procedure of customs officials' controlling rights to clear their imports/exportations. A simple application of this is depicted in cases of fraudulent misconduct, whereby operators would readily bribe customs administrators, alluring them to abuse their controlling rights. Thus, to manipulate their clients, customs officials may use their monopoly status.

- **High discretionary powers:** The Customs administration is regulated in a way, whereby customs officers are left with extensive discretion in deciding various factors regarding customs services. For most customs agencies, trade policy is the basic and daily agenda which they regulate (Management Systems International [MSI] 2006), by setting a range of criteria as the chief executor such as quantitative and trade prohibitions, rules of origin, anti-dumping policies and differential tariffs (NCS, 2018). Such regulations are confusing and nuanced, regulating numerous facets of restrictions on imports and exports. When adapting regulations to particular or individual situations, the complexities are usually discretionary for customs officers.

Moreover, most customs codes are often redundant because they are continually altered by the changing circumstances (Tarar 2010). It makes it difficult for clients to understand them at given moments and thus allows customs officials to do their work with more discretion. Consistently, some officers of the customs do not have access to reference rates, which in turn enables them to exercise discretion to collect and determine taxes and duties (GTZ 2005).

- **Accountability/lack of efficient controls:** In most cases, the inadequate accountability systems has mostly been blamed for customs corruption. Two factors have often compromised efficient regulation and accountability: negligible rules of procedure and incapacity to enforce the rules correctly. First, laws are said to be meaningless if the penalties levied seem insignificant compared to the possible benefits of practicing corruption. Secondly, if officials lack the desire to enact disciplinary measures or the means to implement them, the incapacity to enforce accountability rules accurately emerges. In other words, laws are in effect, but they are not enforced to make corrupt customs officials responsible. As a result, corrupt customs perpetrators go unpunished.

Certainly, the three preconditions for corruption to thrive identified by klitgaard (1988) above have a particular impact on the customs climate. Also other factors, classified as external and internal factors, identified by other scholars include poor salaries, weak penal policy, insufficient supply of custom services, protectionism, high degree of regulations and complicated procedure, poor leadership, doubtful integrity in the public sector, society's uncaring attitude towards corruption, ineffective national anti-corruption institutions (Ombudsmen), weak organizational structure and poor strategic management (Begović, Mijatović, Sepi, Vasović, and Vuković, 2002; Ndonga, 2013). Most of all these factors are inherent within the NCS. For instance, some of the areas requiring immediate government intervention, as noted by the NCS in their website (*www.customs.gov.ng/About/function.php*) include review of current penalty regime lacking effective deterrents against infringement of Customs Laws, simplification and harmonization of Customs procedures, just-in-time delivery of goods and services by removal of non-tariff barriers, promotion of transparent and predictable business

environment (NCS, 2018). These areas undoubtedly are loopholes within the NCS that may promote corrupt activities in its operations.

Furthermore, just as individuals do not operate in vacuum, corruption in NCS does not exist in isolation. Thus, it is imperative not to focus on the 'bad apples' but also at possible 'bad barrels'. In other words, corruption is to a degree a sign of the prevailing public sector normative criteria. It is, thus, logical to argue that if senior civil servants and ruling politicians, who are expected to uphold integrity in the public sector are viewed as corrupt, where public offices are generally treated as an advantage for personal gain, where public servants do not have compunctions about the flaunting of ill-gotten wealth, it becomes very unlikely that employees (for example, customs officers) will resist the lure of illicit enrichment.

2.1.14 Consequences of Corruption in Customs

The effect of corruption in customs on the potential of a country to benefit from the expansion of the global economy is apparent. Corruption in customs has an adverse effect on the reputation and economy of a nation. It undermines customs agency's credibility by making it ineffective and seriously restricting its capacity to achieve the objectives of its government. Scholars have identified the following consequences of corruption in customs;

- Fraudulent corrupt activities which include schemed tax avoidance by clients and officers of the customs service, undervaluation of imports and misclassification, directly affect measures of revenue collected (Ndonga, 2013). Many developing and underdeveloped countries, including Nigeria, depend heavily on proceeds from customs as a key source of domestic growth revenue. Thus, a government may lack investment funds, when there is a reduction in the amount of duty collected, which invariably leads to slow growth and economic development.

- Foreign products escaping value added tax (VAT) can disrupt internal market flows causing importers and conforming manufacturers out of business and into the shadow economy (Ferreira, Engelschalk and Mayville 2007). This implies, too, that corrupt customs activities directly impact the scale of the informal economy of a region,

increase unemployment and thereby increase the fiscal pressure on a nation's prospects for growth.

- Delaying tactics utilized by officers of the customs service to ask for bribes in routine corruption situations directly affect the cost of doing business. This delay may result in the following;

    1. Economic losses, particularly in cases of perishable goods or product shipments which requires timing.

    2. Increased illicit traffic of prohibited and high risk goods, including explosives, weapons, and drugs.

    3. Unwarranted payment of extra costs such as storage expenditure by traders that are then passed to retail prices and thus reducing their market competitiveness,

    4. Discouragement of domestic enterprises from overseas trade which can also contribute to decrease in foreign direct investment (FDI). According to Mbekeani (DATE), more than 60 percent of the current global production chain has Just-in-time (JIT) trading systems that cannot cushion the flow of operations with unreliable customs administration. This could yield negative effect on economic growth in a region, because foreign trades as well as FDI are key development tools.

- Criminal corruption such as importing banned products makes the public vulnerable to serious public health, law and order problems. What is more worrisome is that such activities may be completely new to the global atmosphere in which protection of foreign trade is exacerbated. According to McLinden (2005), if criminals or contrabandists could have their way easily by bribing customs officers, the current system and steps, including quarantine, designed to classify weapons of mass destruction and bio-hazards would prove ineffective.

- Pervasive customs corruption can also directly impact a nation in form of a lower ranking in global investment climate evaluation. Because foreign trade also contributes to economic growth by increasing transfer of technologies, corruption in customs will dramatically lower this opportunity by inhibiting such transfers (Walsh, 2003).

- In Nigeria and most developing countries, customs revenues continue to serve as a major source of national income. Therefore delays in imports and exports processing may result in major losses, congestion at the borders and ports, and eventually to higher business costs, which in turn contribute to the costs of imported and exported products. In addition, customs corruption can open the door to organized crime and drain national income from duty loss leading to additional loss of taxation and revenue as companies escape corrupt customs.

These tragic implications further intensify the significance of solving the problem of customs corruption.

2.1.15 Combating Customs corruption

For several years, anti-corruption has been on the reform agenda of the World Customs Organisation (WCO). In scholarly literature and other studies, numerous methods to eliminate corruption have been extensively debated. Those studies explored diverse issues in the areas of corruption ranging from economic analysis, policy recommendations, case studies, legal framework and anti-corruption theoretical framework (Klitgaard, 1998; Anderson, James and Cheryl, 2007; Ferreira, Carlos, Michael, and William, 2007; Cantens, Thomas, Raballand and Bilangna, 2010). By way of case studies, for example, Klitgaard (1998) responded to more practical questions relevant to policy decisions to fight corruption, contending that, by adopting a correction plan composed of five different but connected steps corruption can be overcome. In the context of customs corruption, McLinden (2005) reiterated these steps in accordance with the ten principles of the Arusha Declarations:

- Altering attitudes towards corruption
- Selecting agents (in this case, customs officials) for incorruptibility as well as job-specific skills and educational qualifications.
- Changing the rewards and penalties mix facing agents and clients.
- Reform in regulatory structures to expel monopoly power which causes collusion, combined with constrained accountability and officer discretion.
- Raising the likelihood of detecting and condemning corruption.

These measures would be realistic to enforce in a variety of operations covering the administrative structure of the customs authority, governing processes, systems, practices, organizational culture and compliance power. Referring to the five strategy aforementioned, the implementation of the single window system (automation), legislative sanctions, outsourcing, code of ethics and official remuneration levels by the WCO come as part of the measures required to reform customs administrative processes in order to remove monopoly control, discretion of officials, limited accountability and increased likelihood that corrupt practices will be detected and punished (WCO, 2010; Widdowson, 2014). The success of these anti-corruption campaigns depends, however, on socioeconomic and cultural factors as well as strong political will.

Furthermore, McLinden (2005) concluded that a whole-of-government approach to tackling corruption is necessary and suggested that any anti-corruption strategy should address both motive and opportunity. Going by this contention, it is imperative to recognize that, within the purview of psychology, psychosocial underpinning factors that may preempt or motivate one to engage in social undesirable behaviour (such as corrupt behaviour) are well expounded in psychological theories. Moreover, from psychological standpoint, it is averred that behaviour can be learned and unlearned. Therefore, since corruption is a learned behaviour, it implies that measures in tackling corruption among customs officers should also incorporate psychological approach aimed at altering behavioural antecedents and attitudes towards corruption.

2.1.16 Concept of Values

It is imperative to understand the concept of values, in order to comprehend vividly the term values clarification. In the literature, definitions of values vary, with respect to context and to individual author. While some scholars accept that values constitute something significant in human life (Raths, Harmin, and Simon, 1966), others define values as an individual's role with regard to the environment and express them as emotions, thoughts, fantasies and behaviour. For instance, from Oustal's (1978) viewpoint, values form one's philosophy in which actions are underpinned and help in the comprehension of an individual's actions, ideas and relationships. In similar vein, Morrill (1980), described values as a source of an individual's choices and actions.

Neuman Allen and Friedman (2010) described values as principles or ideals, so important that they affect how people perceive others' views and interpret events.

However, a definition of values that seems to capture the main components of the many definitions found in the literature was formulated by Shwartz and Bilsky (1987). They defined values as beliefs concerning favourable conducts or actions that exceed special conditions, direct choices or behavioural assessment and activities, and are ordered by relative worth. This definition highlights values as an individuals' life philosophy which proceeds from set of chosen, strongly held beliefs and are manifested through feelings, behaviour, and decisions. In other words, values provide general guide for behaviour, choices and goal setting which an individual attempts to maintain throughout life.

2.1.17 Concept of Values Clarification

Values Clarification (VC) has been espoused in differing ways by scholars. As originally conceived by Raths Harmin, and Simon (1966), VC is both a theory and an intervention. However, due to the varying nature of values clarification, Unstal (1978) defined VC as a dynamic mechanism of transmitting values instead of a static process. It is a theory, catalogue and a process of techniques aimed to help people to find answers to various problems and concerns in their lives. The theory was influenced by humanistic scholars such as Maslow (1959) and Rogers (1961) who affirmed that people had to discern their own values through an open-minded quest for life-related truths and truthful self-examination processes. Dewey's (1939) claim was often motivated by theory that the valuing experience requires interdependent emoting, behaving and reasoning mechanisms. According to Dewey, values clarification "takes place as the head and heart unite towards action."

According to Hall (1973), the method for clarifying values is a mechanism which allows people to understand their choices which affect their behavior during their lives. VC is a system that allows individuals to clarify certain fundamental decisions. Similarly, Boone (2003) argued that the clarification of values means the identification of various values that are likely to affect their decision-making in relation to issues alike. VC is meant not to reflect psychotherapy or sensitivity training but simply to offer a training

framework that allows individuals to reflect on life experience while exploring thoughts, behavior, personal value and sensitivity (Hall, 1973).

As contended by Raths Harmin, and Simon (1966), values clarification results from the failure of a person to take decisions because of uncertainty or pressure that may hinder their quest for purposive live. Successful individual values clarification was assumed to foster improvement in the attitudes of the apathetic and indecisive individuals by increasing consciousness of their lives, embracing their values as well as the values of others non-judgmentally, continuing to focus on values, and encouraging individuals to guide their lives themselves. Raths, harmin and Simon (1966), stated that a cherished value, conviction, feeling, attitude or activity is arrived at by an individual through a sequence of seven steps. This method is now generally referred to as values clarification. The authors argued that, all seven of the criteria noted below must be satisfied before it can be considered a value.

- Choosing freely: If a person is to truly appreciate their values, it must be freely chosen.
- Choosing from among alternatives: The possibility of choosing a value can occur, only when there are options to choose from.
- Choosing after careful and due thoughts of the costs of each option: A value can only arise if the variety of alternatives and implications of a choice are carefully considered.
- Prizing and cherishing: People acknowledge and respect the life guidelines they call values.
- Affirming: People are eager to make their values known. They are also prepared to champion them.
- Acting upon choices: In short, life itself must be influenced if a value is to be present. Nothing can be a value which simply does not contribute to real life.
- Repeating: Values persists and usually make a life pattern (Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966).

Kirschenbaum (1976), an advocate of values clarification, pointed out faults in the sub-processes of values clarification as espoused by Raths, Harmin, and Simon. Kirschenbaum argued that the sub-processes were insufficient in addressing the entire valuing process, how values are explained and established, even though not being operational. He questioned; "How proud does anyone have to be of a belief before a value can be considered? How many options need to be deliberated before the alternative criterion is met?" Kirschenbaum developed his own value process model, owing to perceived flaws in Raths' et al model. Values clarification is an approach, according to Kirschenbaums (1976) that uses questions and exercises aimed at teaching the valuing process and enabling people to apply value processes in value-added areas of life. This definition implies that, values clarification increases the probability of good decisions rather than insure good decision-making. From the perspective of Kirschenbaum (1976), valuing process increases the likelihood that a person's decision will be constructive and beneficial to both self and society.

According to Kirschenbaum, there are five dimensions with sub processes which are not discrete psychological processes. One may participate in all or some processes simultaneously. However, when divided, it has more power to ensure that educational priorities are clear (Kirschenbaum, 1976). The five dimensions are as follows:

- **Feeling:** The feeling component encompasses recognizing one's feelings. Feelings can be beneficial or can impede successful thought, decision and life (Kirschenbaum, 1976). People who know their feelings exercise psychological maturity (Kirschenbaum, 1976). This maturity makes it easy for people to accomplish their goals. When an individual does not recognize or try to deny his/her feelings, those feelings often arise and hamper their conscious goals in surprising ways" (Kirschenbaum, 1976). Peoples' effort in this dimension, is channeled to discharging distressful feelings, experience positive self-concept and awareness of one's feelings (Kirschenbaum et al., 1977)

- **Thinking:** This covers moral, critical, creative and innovative thinking (Raths, Pancella and Van, 1967; Kohlberg, 1968; Kirschenbaum, 1976). Educators should specifically encourage students to think in this regard. Individuals are expected to

improve their moral reasoning and critical thinking skills (Kirschenbaum, Harmin, Howe, and Simon, 1977).

- **Choosing (or decision making):** There are five different areas in the choosing dimension. Choosing entails information/data gathering, goal-setting, considering the consequences, choosing freely and from alternatives.

- **Communicating**: Communicating is also an important dimension. This is based on the knowledge that life is not being lived by people in a bubble communicating with others constantly. As such, an important valuing skill which is of vital significance is the capacity to convey basic messages. It can have a clarifying impact to express one's feelings and thoughts. Empathy, active listening, or reference frames are another valuation process while the third valuing process is conflict resolution (Kirschenbaum, 1976).

- **Acting.** Acting which is the last component is considered a proactive concept. The theoretical perspective of this dimension posits that people act on values that they dearly hold repeatedly, reliable, skillfully and competently (Kirschenbaum et al., 1977). Acting on one's beliefs consistently and repeatedly, one's interest and set goals raise the possibility of a good value for one's life. Competence would increase the possibility that the method and result are satisfactory (Kirschenbaum, 1976).

Values Clarification was described by Oliha and Audu (2015) as the method of determining the influence values of an individual has on making decisions. The consequence of an event is decided by it. These authors noted that VC is a behavioral insight mechanism that stresses, recognizes, and shifts negative thinking and perceptions that are maladaptive. The use of value clarification as a therapeutic process, according to Oliha and Audu (2015), should involve leading the client through three steps. These are the three stages: the acceptance phase, the reclaiming phase, and awareness phase.

Kirschenbaum (2013) also defined values clarification as a counseling technique that benefits people in the area of goals recognition and establishment, priorities and directions; decisions or choices making, fulfillment of individuals' priorities, guidelines and goals as well as step taking to incorporate and accomplish goals, directions and

objectives by implementing choices and decisions. According to the author, "there are several value-rich laden areas that are sources of happiness, pleasure and sense in life; sources in which people accept and seek support or areas which are either unsatisfactory or unpleasant, but which can be used in the normal and unreflective fashion" (Kirschenbaum, 2013). These value-rich areas cover purpose and meaning in life, identity and diversity issues, death, aging, school, action, social and politics, leisure time, personal tastes, religion, sex and love (hairstyle, clothes and the like.), health, family, material success and money (exercise, drugs, and diet amongst others) work, relationships and friendship (Kirschenbaum, 2013).

Kirschenbaum (2013) identified elements that are used in incorporating values clarifications, whether in group guidance or therapy, or psycho-educative classes, individual counseling or psychotherapy,

- Identifying a values issue: In anyway, the challenge or the dilemma in need of address depends on the client. This is a general and consistent approach in counseling as well as values clarification. The areas of uncertainty and conflict that clients may be willing to address are often the value-rich areas.

- Using a question or more to engage clients or members of the group to focus on and work on the subject of concern. Contingent upon the setting, counselors and therapists typically utilize either clarifying interviews, questions and strategies or all the three of them.

- Fostering the seven valuing processes: The clarifying strategies, interviews or questions are not randomly employed by values clarification counsellor. Any strategy, interview or question is supposed to involve the client in one or more of the 7 processes of valuation. The seven processes are: (1) prizing and cherishing, (2) Affirming and Communicating, (3) Choosing (considering alternatives (4) Choosing (considering consequences) (5) Choosing freely (6) Acting (7) Acting consistently with a pattern

- Creating an atmosphere of safety, respect, and non-imposition of values: Both in personal or group environments, the counsellor must offers a healthy psychological space marked by respect for oneself and others.

2.1.18 Significance of Values Clarification

In character education, values clarification is a critical tool since it is relevant in the understanding of personal integrity. Established values and personal integrity assist an individual in making comfortable conclusion (Mackenzie Ruth Fritz, 2015). The underlisted are importance and benefits of values clarification;

- **Personal and social benefits**

Fritz (2015) stated that the clarification process has two aims; personal and societal benefits. Kirschenbaum and colleagues (1977) argue that values clarification within a group context is often beneficial to individuals. The process of valuing allows individuals and groups to clarify their values in order to make people live a happier life. In other words, when people behave according to their values, it benefits them and also make them active members of community.

- **Defining complicated concepts**

Values clarification courses allow individual to describe complex perceptions from their own perspective. A study of career development among high school students, for instance, indicated that students were best positioned to describe success in their own terms in specific values clarification curriculum which allows exploration of personal values (Mosconi and Emmett, 2003). The study also indicated that values clarification curriculum was beneficial for students in recognizing values, their future prospects and how they perceive achievement and success. This illustrates the benefits of values clarification exercises for students. Kirschenbaum (2000) advocated for values clarification stating that: "The theory of values clarification posit that the use of valuing processing in decision-making among young people, allows them to become less over-conforming, less apathetic and less flighty. On the better note, they are more consistent, more analytical in their thought and more enthusiastic and zestful.

- **Decision-making**

Mosconi and Emmett (2003) observed that making decision can be a complex course that leads to discontent if people are not even aware their own values. These scholars claimed that a person who can recognize his or her own values can assign meaning to circumstances and objects and therefore make personal choices that they are contented with. On the other hand, a dearth in knowledge regarding values or a conflict amid

choices and values results in poor decision-making, lack of motivation, dissatisfaction and frustration. The driving framework for decision-making practice is one's own established values. The values clarification process has encouraged a number of individuals to seek new order and purpose in their everyday lives (Simon and deSherbinin, 1975).

2.1.19 Emotional Intelligence training

Salovey and Grewal (2005) argued that people differ in their ability to handle emotional details. This argument suggests that emotional intelligence is not uniformly distributed, and while some individuals have high emotional intelligence, others have low emotional intelligence. Accordingly, scholars argue that competencies of emotional intelligence can either be acquired, inherited, learned, developed or improved in therapy which makes it distinct from Intelligent Quotient (Perkins, 1994; Sternberg, 1996; Dune, 2003; Ciarochi, Scott, Deane and Heaven, 2003). Over the past decades, researchers have conceptualized emotional intelligence therapy as role play activity (Jaeger, 2003; Reilly, 2005) learner-centered activity (Giaconia and Hedges 1982), identifying the strengths and shortcomings of people (Sluijsmans, Dochy and Moerker, 1999). Emotional intelligence therapy/training, however, is a structured counsellor training model developed from emotional intelligence paradigms, which aims at improving emotional ability or competence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997). The components of emotional intelligence therapy are highly drawn from the existing diverse theoretical models and measurements of emotional intelligence into a unified, empirically testable model. Emotional intelligence training is unique in that it focuses on variables that may relatively enhance individuals' emotional literacy, competence, creativity and empathic accuracy as well as application of emotional information to guide one's reasoning process and actions in all human endeavours.

There are distinctions in the strand of literature with regards to emotional intelligence models. On the one hand, emotional intelligence is modeled from mental skills that enable an individual to use knowledge generated by one's emotions to enhance cognitive functioning (called "skill models"). On the other hand, there are emotional intelligence models that combine mental capacity with personal qualities like persistence,

motivation and enthusiasm, (mixed models). While there are many criticisms of the theoretical, conceptual and evaluating concerns (van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004), broader skill-based models are more common in business environments (Bar-On, 2004). More recently, as seen in meta-analyses, popular (or "trait") models of Emotional Intelligence contribute to productivity and efficiency (O'Boyle et al., 2011). However, as observed by Thory (2016), the most frequently used model to design training programmes are Bar-On's (1997) and Goleman's (1998) mixed models of emotional intelligence, which are in tandem with the present research cognitive focus.

2.1.20 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a modern concept that has been tested and found to play a crucial part in people's lives. Emotional intelligence concept pertains more to understanding emotions as critical, since most inter and intrapersonal relationships engaged are triggered by emotions. Emotions represent the connection between an individual and a friend, a family, the condition, a community or more internally, between a person and a thought/memory. For instance, joy could signify the accomplishment of a friend; sorrow could imply dissatisfaction with the self. According to Salovey, Bracket and Mayer (2004), "the given view that emotions transmit knowledge about relationships indicates, however, that emotions and intelligence can work together".

Since the 1980s, however, the concept of emotional intelligence has been described and redefined so many times, that it is impossible to limit the definition of emotional intelligence to one specific phrase. For instance, some scholars described emotional Intelligence as a mental process which includes recognizing, utilizing, interpreting, and managing one's own emotional state and others' emotional states to solve and regulate behavior and problems (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). That is, they see emotional intelligence as being based on talent or abilities (Saarni, 1999), as distinct from being embedded in traits of personality (Brackett and Mayer, 2003). From this point of view, emotions refer to the ability of a person to understand emotions and interpret emotional knowledge for the purpose of improving cognitive reaction. It has also been seen as personality constructs, cornucopia (abundance) of competencies, and intra/interpersonal skills (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Petrides and Furnham, 2001).

Although the literature provides these various meanings, the explanations increase understanding of one's feelings and of others' feelings. Above all, emotional intelligence is an innate ability for feeling, using sharing, recognizing, recalling, describing, identifying, learning, controlling, interpreting, and expressing emotions.

2.1.21 Models of Emotional Intelligence

The various definitions of emotional intelligence (E.I.) have been applied to build models of emotional intelligence. Some of these models include ability- based emotional intelligence model, mixed emotional social intelligence model, and trait emotional intelligence model.

Ability model

The Mayer and Salovey theory (1997) considers emotional intelligence as an actual intelligence, a type of mental capacity. These authors described emotional intelligence as the ability to generate access and perceive emotions which aid thought, emotional understanding and significance, and manage emotions reflectively in order to promote simultaneously better cognitive and emotional development (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). When these scholars first coined the term emotional intelligence, they proposed that people varied in their information processing ability (emotionally based) and ability to correlate emotional process to a broader cognition. Hence, the authors' theory has been described as a paradigm of emotional intelligence based on ability.

The EI ability model was defined by Mayer and Salovey and Caruso (2000) as a unitary construct subdivided into four parts. It starts with the first branch of emotion perception and communication that includes recognition and emotional signals in oneself and in others. Assimilating emotion in thought is the second branch, which involves using emotions to enhance thinking. The third branch of emotion comprehension and interpretation includes the application of thinking to process emotions. The final branch of reflective emotion regulations deals with emotional self-control and emotional management of others.

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso's (2000) ability model theory avers that Emotional intelligence is like other intelligence. From this analytical viewpoint, emotional

intelligence refers specifically to the cooperative synthesis of emotion and intelligence (Ciaarrochi, Chan and Caputi, 2000; Roberts, Zeidner and Matthew, 2001). EI can also be assessed by accurate response to cognitive problems which include incorrect and correct answers. EI measurements correlate with other intelligence and are similar to the correlates of cognitive intelligence. Mayer and Salovey (1995) found that the EI ability model can predict people with high performance. For instance individuals with high EI levels can communicate regarding feelings, are non-defensive, select strong role models, are able to reframe situations and they develop expertise in emotional areas such as spirituality, leadership, or problem solving. Here, they found no unusual claim for the potency of emotional intelligence.

Mixed model of Emotional Intelligence

While remarkably popularizing the emotional intelligence construct, Goleman (1995) apparently enacted a divide in the field. He equate emotional intelligence with everything from zeal and persistence (Goleman, 1995) to general character. This conceptualization has since been termed the mixed model. Mixed emotional intelligence theory models, as advocated by Goleman (1995), vary considerably from those of Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso. His research examines the meanings and attributes of emotional intelligence that are twice as critical in determining the success of individuals as any cognitive or technical expertise. The model incorporates some similar principle of mental capacity model including emotional management as well as personal traits such as positivity and optimism.

Goleman preferred to characterize his emotional intelligence paradigm as "performance theory" rather than "personality theory." Goleman developed his emotional intelligence theory on the basis of "social and emotional skills," which he defines as "a learned skill based on emotional intelligence that leads to excellent performance at work" (Goleman, 1998). Emotional intelligence, as Goleman (1998) pointed out means "the ability to recognize our own and others feelings, to motivate ourselves and to manage emotions well within ourselves and our relationships." Goleman highlighted four categories of emotional abilities;

1. **Self-awareness**: capacity to know and understand one's feelings, shortcomings and strength.

2. **Self-management**: ability to manage one's motives efficiently and to regulate one's behaviour.

3. **Social awareness**: the ability to consider what people feel and say and why they feel and behave like that.

4. **Relationship management**: capacity to act to extract desired results from others and to accomplish personal objectives.

Emotional self-awareness, according to Goleman (1995), involves expertise in three capacities. First, it is to enhance the recognition and detection of one's own emotions. Secondly, it is to understand better the causes of one's emotions. Finally, emotional self-awareness also requires the capacity to recognize the disparity between actions and feelings (Goleman, 1995). Emotional management is the second category which encompasses less social anxiety and stress management, better anger management and frustration tolerance. The third category of Goleman's emotional intelligence paradigm is self-control and self-responsibility. The reduction of impulsive behaviour and delayed gratification are essential aspects of emotional intelligence

The fourth class of the paradigm is empathy, which entails the capacity to read others' feelings. This involves the ability to consider the viewpoints of others, greater sensitivity to the emotions of others and to better listen to others. The final category is relationships management which encompasses every aspect of interaction with others. This category covers cooperation in groups like sharing, teamwork and helpfulness; dispute management and diplomacy in dealing with others; and assertiveness in dealing with others.

Goleman reviewed numerous studies of the drivers of organizational outcomes and the variables separating best people from the average. He argued that the estimation of achievement on the workplace, especially of those in the top management, is dependent on emotional intelligence. Emotional competences signify how much a person can draw on emotional intelligence for particular abilities and skills that can improve individual productivity in the work environment. In principle, emotional intelligence is procedural from the first level to the fourth. Grasping the skills of self-awareness, self-

control, social awareness and management of relations will contribute to success in the workplace. Goleman argues that the capacity of a person to perceive, recognise, and regulate emotions indicates emotional and social competencies that are vital to success at work (Goleman, 1998, 2001).

The Bar-On model of Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI)

Psychologist Reuven Bar-On (2006) developed one of the first measures of EI that uses the term Emotion Quotient after fifteen years of consistent, rigorous research. Bar-On, (2002) conceptualized Emotional Intelligence as a multifactorial collection of social and emotional skills that dictate successful relationships with others and reaction to everyday stress and demands. According to the Bar on (1997), emotional intelligence means 'to understand oneself and others effectively, to relate well with people, to respond and to cope more effectively with the immediate environment in order to successfully confront environmental demands."

Bar-On (1997, 2002) used a hierarchal structure, to present a typified mixed model conceptualization of Emotional intelligence. In the model Emotional intelligence tends to be a model of a personality, involving classes of well-known personality characteristics (Matthews et al., 2002). Emotional-social intelligence is, as this paradigm indicates, a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social abilities and facilitators.

One of the first validated instruments for promoting emotional intelligence was the Bar-On EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997). The concept was operationalized by Bar-On (2002) with an overall composite factor of five key components. There are then a few sub-components in each section:

1. **Intrapersonal (self-expression and self-awareness)**: Self-regard is the ability to know, comprehend, and embrace one's self; Emotional self-awareness is the ability to know and understand one's emotions; Assertiveness is the ability communicate one's own opinions, values and ideas, and protect one's interests in a non-destructive way; Independence is the ability to be free from emotional dependency on others and to be self-reliant; Self-actualization pertains to the ability to set personal targets and achieve them.

2. **Interpersonal (social awareness and interpersonal relationship):** Empathy is the capacity to identify and be aware of others' emotions; Social responsibility is the ability to connect with and feel as a social group; Interpersonal relationship involves the ability to develop mutually satisfying relationships and interactions with others including interpersonal relationships.

3. **Stress management (emotional management and regulation)**: Stress tolerance is the ability to control one's feelings effectively and constructively; Impulse control is the ability to manage one's emotions efficiently and constructively.

4. **Adaptability (change management)**: Reality testing is the skill of validating one's emotions and cerebrating with outside reality; Flexibility is the ability of handling the difficulties and being accustomed to transmuting them in one's everyday existence; Problem solving is the ability to deliver constructive response to personal and societal issues.

5. **General Mood**: Optimism is the ability to have a good impression about life; happiness is the ability to be content with oneself, people and existence in general.

From this model, being emotionally and socially intelligent involves efficient control of personal, social and environmental shifts by managing the current situation in a realistic and flexible way, addressing challenges and making decisions. The Bar-On model exhibits how inescapable the role of emotionally intelligent deportment is in all parts of training, leadership, supervision, and management with a comprehensive understanding of emotional intelligence, emotional health, and potential achievement.

Trait Emotional Intelligence model

According to Petrides and Furnham's (2003), Trait Emotional Intelligence model applies to a set of mental behaviour and self-conception regarding the ability to sense, interpret and use knowledge that is charged with emotions. It includes behaviour and self-perceptive abilities measured by self-reporting, and are contrary to the model focused on ability that corresponds to actual ability as reflected in performance-based measures. The works of O'Connor and Little (2003) and Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004) empirically confirmed Petrides and Furnham's (2001) suggestion. The fundamental difference

between typical and maximum output in the quest for measurements of the emerging construction was easily overlooked by researchers and theorists (Ackerman and Heggestad, 1997; Hofstee, 2001). As such, while some researchers developed and utilized self-reporting questionnaires, others developed maximum-performance tests of Emotional intelligence. However, they all believed the same construct was operationalized. Unsurprisingly, this prompted contradictory observations and analytical inconsistencies.

In acknowledgment of this fundamental reality, Petrides and Furnham (2000a, 2000b, 2001) contrasted emotional intelligence on the basis of trait (or emotional self-efficacy) and ability (or cognitive-emotional ability). This emotional intelligence model is designed as a constellation of behavioral disposition and self-perception surrounding the capacity to perceive and use emotion laden information (Petrides and Furnham, 2000). It is worth noting that ability and trait emotional intelligence are two distinct constructs. The differentiation between ability and trait is dependent on the tool used for the assessment of the construct rather than on elements (facets) that the different models are hypothesized to include. As such it does not apply to the distinctness of mixed and ability model of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2000), which is predicated on whether or not a theoretical model combines cognitive ability and personality characteristics. In comparison, self-reporting questionnaires analyse the former, and can be assessed by maximum performance tests. These distinctive measures have extensive theoretical and functional implications. Although many existing emotional intelligence concepts are present, there is a substantial overlap between them (Druskat, Sala, and Mount, 2006).

Caruso (2004) argues that it would primarily rely on the thinker to find a concept of emotional intelligence. While each theory represents a unique collection of frameworks which reflect the theoretical orientation and environments in which each of these scholars chose to delineate their theory, they all share a similar desire to understand and quantify the capabilities and characteristics of emotional recognition and regulation both within themselves and among others (Goleman, 2001). As pointed out by some scholars, although definitions within the field of emotional intelligence vary, they have a tendency to be correlating as opposed to conflicting (Ciarrochi, Chan, and Caputi, 2000).

68

All theories within the paradigm of emotional intelligence aim to explain how people perceive, understand, use and regulate emotions in order to predict and enhance personal performance. Information of the origins and motives of any one of these hypotheses offers a further explanation of the discrepancies between the key theories and basic structures and methods used to tests them. The debate and controversy may likely continue within the field for quite a while, though the overall interest in the topic of emotional intelligence keeps on expanding. Studies have demonstrated that the controversial definitions and debates have no impact on the working proficiency of emotional intelligence (Cherniss, 2003; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Caruso and Salovey, 2004). Mayer and Salovey (1997) claimed that emotional intelligence training can enhance most competencies and felt that this extends to certain amount of competences that are emotionally understandable.

2.1.22 Concept of Adversity Quotient

Researchers have taken a significant interest in the last few decades in Emotional quotient (EQ), and Intelligence quotient (IQ) perceived to be an integral part of progress, success and excellent performance. However, the literature on another type of quotient termed Adversity Quotient (AQ,) has expanded in recent years. AQ is an incipient and fascinating form of astuteness, that reveals how well one endures adversity, affliction and the capacity to conquer it and a profoundly robust presage of success, productivity, learning, creativity, resilience, health, wealth and well-being (Stoltz, 1997; Stoltz and Weihenmayer, 2010; Venkatesh, Shivaranjani, Thenmozhi, Balasubramanie and Manjula Gandhi, 2014; Solis and Lopez, 2015). Tigchelaar and Bekhet (2015) reported that AQ is a critical part of what is now a great theory for unifying human behaviour, building on some of the world's great thinkers wisdom and scientific research for nearly four decades.

Adversity connotes a state of misery, distress, trouble, disaster, suffering and misfortune, challenges, hardship or difficulty that a person faces in a certain climate. The concept of Adversity Quotient, drawn up by California-based consultant Paul Stoltz (1997) was extracted from considerations of similar psychological models with a period of three decades of investigation such as locus of control, learned helplessness, resilience and hardiness. For 20 years, Stoltz studied how people respond to the adversities of the

day. He incorporated the findings of over 1,500 theoretical studies conducted by dozens of scholars worldwide, and proposed the concept, Adversity Quotient (AQ), describing the concept as "the science of resilience" (Stoltz, 2000).

AQ is a concept that explains why some individuals are more able to overcome adversity than others. Stoltz argued that universe is continually changing on the basis of daily risks. In his words, the pressure to remain abreast and readjust to unforeseen circumstances becomes an ever more important matter in order to meet day-to-day demands. Persons unable to deal with these demands are believed to lose hope and to become depressed. As stated by Stoltz (1997), despair is sucking the life from our societies, institutions, schools, children, families, our hearts and soul. Stoltz regards this situation as "crisis of hope".

Adversity Quotient draws from the ideas of three noteworthy sciences, cognitive psychology, mental and neurophysiological neuro-immunology. It therefore covers two main features of any practical concept (real world applications and scientific theory). From the strand of literature within the purview of cognitive psychology, studies suggest that those who assign losses to themselves appear to be tormented by adversity, while those who accept external underlying factors and advocate that efforts can change everything can strive on. Reactions to adversity influence individual efficiency, motivation, success and performance (Rotter, 1966; Seligman, 1995). Also, neuropsychology researches have shown that the brain system can establish patterns that can be disrupted and modified immediately. Once people have deliberately modified their habits, they may rid of their old habits and accept new ones (Marc, 1988). Also, a common consensus between mental and neuroimmunological research affirms that there is a causal connection between frustration reaction and physical and psychological wellbeing. As indicated by Bartifai and Schultzberg (1993), AQ can influence postoperative recuperation, immune functions and the potential torment of life-threatening illness. Integrating these inferences, Stoltz found out that individuals are always bad judges of these patterns, in reaction to adversity in hard wired pattern, though these patterns can be measured, re-patterned and strengthened.

The Adversity Quotient principle (AQ) offers a clearer explanation of how individuals react to difficulties and issues in all facets of their lives. This is a big step

forward in recognizing what is needed to excel. Stoltz argued that adversity quotient primarily affects achievement in work and life. In other words, how people react to adversity is a significant predictor of their potential to accomplish and achieve set goals. AQ reveals how easily one can resist adversity and conquer it. People who effectively apply AQ are excellent at coping with the adversities, large and small challenges encountered every day. In fact, people simply take advantage of these challenges and react to them better and more efficiently (Stoltz, 1997). Stoltz also noted that AQ predicts who overcomes difficulty, who is defeated, who surpasses potential, expectations and success standards, who gives up and who triumphs.

According to Stoltz (1997), AQ has three dimensions; it is, first of all, an original philosophical construct to grasp all forms of success and enhance it. It builds on an essential foundation of landmark research and provides realistic and new knowledge that redefines what is required for success. Secondly, AQ is a representation of how individuals deal with adversities. Finally, AQ is a scientifically founded toolkit to change how adversity is handled, thereby achieving both personal and professional performance. The coalescence (new knowledge, measure and practical tools) of these three elements is a complete set of measures to understand and enhance the basic aspect of the circadian and lifelong rising trend (Stoltz, 1997).
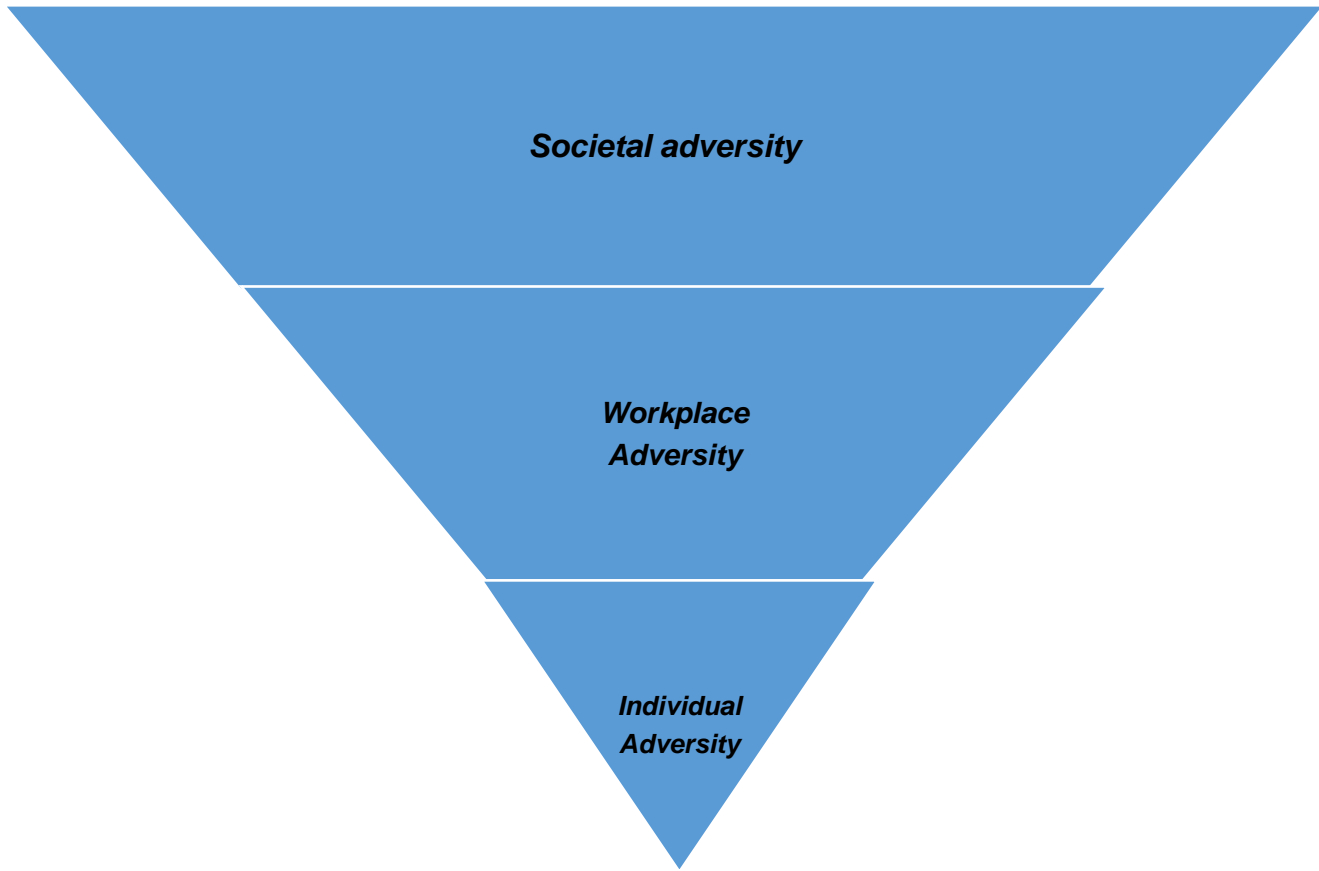
Figure 2.1: Pyramid –shaped model of the three levels of Adversity Quotient (Stoltz, 1997).

2.1.23 Levels of Adversity Quotient

As indicated by Stoltz (1997), there are three levels of adversity to help outline the challenges that one faces in life. The pyramid model starts at the top and works down to the person, describing two consequences. First, it explicates the social, working and personal drawbacks that people experience in their lives every day and, secondly, how a person positively manages, handles or improves and affects the workplace, the general community and the environment (Huijuan, 2009). The lowest portion of the pyramid is individual adversity, the central part is workplace adversity and the highest part is societal adversity (Stoltz, 1997).

Societal adversity includes profound changes in wealth, increasing crime and abuse, while the trust in the system and institutions declines, and a significant shift in the concept of families or households, and an uncertainty both in economic terms and in the future. At the same time, in the current millennia, the workplace demands increasingly from the workers to remain on top of the game. However, though more is needed to meet the desired objectives, less is accomplished. Furthermore, job fluctuation offers no guarantee of long-term employment, contributing in turn to intensified dissatisfaction, which all demonstrates what Stoltz called workplace adversity. The person ends up with pressure in the long run and the net effects of the combined weight of social and workplace adversity add to the individual adversity.

As Stoltz explains, people encounter these aforementioned difficulties every day and inevitably. When those hardships are not addressed with adequate capability in the form of higher level expertise and available wisdom, they will become too much to deal with. These everyday annoyances especially at work will lead to stress, making it impossible for individuals who conclude that they are not optimally able to succeed and severely affect the skill of a person and their willingness to meet difficulties. This can also contribute to the reluctance to change, vulnerability, and inertia in general, all of which, Stoltz said, reflect the everyday adversity experienced by individuals and organizations.

Adversity quotient does not demonstrate and identify either low or high but reflects potential competencies and benefits of a person's high AQ. Stoltz (1997) notes that humans are born with the core push to ascend. In other words, ascend does not entail

floating in the sky while singing your slogan methodically or climbing up the corporate ladder, owning a building on the hill, or piling up wealth. Ascend denotes, moving your purpose in your life forward regardless of your goals. Whether ascend implies winning market shares, boost grades, improve relationships, improve things, complete a course, raise stellar children, grow close to God, or make an important impact during one's short time on the planet, this push is impressive (Villagonzalo, 2016).

The fundamental push to ascend is one's instinctual race to satisfy as much of the task as possible with the little time one is given, whether written or tacit. Ascend is not only restricted to the individual. Each organisation and work team is attempting to advance and develop. Comprehensive quality programmes, growth strategies, rehabilitation, redevelopment, the capacity of a broader workforce, cycle reduction, waste removal and creativity are all attempts to ascend a mountain ravaged with avalanches, unsafe conditions and unexpected rifts (Stoltz, 1997; Huijuan, 2009; Cornista and Macasaet, 2012).

2.1.24 Types of personality

According to Stoltz (1997), there are three groups of individuals who have distinct response and reactions to adversities. Adversity defines three kinds of personalities namely the Quitters, the Campers and the Climbers.

The quitter

The AQ theory describes Quitters as individuals with little ambition and minimal drive. Seldom are they creative and they do not like risking but tent to circumvent obstacles. Quitters are said to be "the dead weight of any organization", investing only minimally in their work (Stoltz, 1997). Quitters simply abandon their ascent (a search of an enriching life) and are always angry (Stoltz, and Weihenmayer, 2010). They reject the chance the mountain gives. They overlook, shield, or neglect their central human urge to rise and deal with what life offers (Stoltz, 1997).

The Camper

By definition, campers are people who are no longer going forward as they are fatigued by the many barriers. They have thus opted on what they consider to be good enough, and hardly ever face significant obstacles. In other words, campers are people content with the present situation and evading greater opportunities. They will devote as much as is necessary to remain satisfied. As a result they will exhibit some ingenuity and even take some calculated risks. Therefore, campers are not entirely demotivated but they also exhibit certain amount of effort. However, this result only in adequate success at work; while organizations attempt to attain top class performance, average performance is typically not appropriate (Stoltz, 1997).

The climbers

Stoltz (1997), depicts climbers as opportunity cogitators, never permitting race, gender, age, mental or physical disability, or any other impediment or barrier to ascend. Shivaranjani (2014), describes climbers as individuals who have the mental and physical capacity to rise and make good use of their abilities and succeed even in the face of extreme adversity.

In sum, Quitters also become cynical, frustrated and emotionally clueless. They can even be angry and upset, striking around the world with anger towards those who go up. Campers are satisfied. Rather than aspire, they are contented. Only climbers live life entirely from these three kinds of individuals. They are highly passionate about what they are doing. Climbers never forget the strength and difficulty of the journey through their destination (Stoltz, 1999; Cornista and Macasaet, 2012).

2.1.25 Dimensions of Adversity Quotient

Stoltz, observed that whether a person is a Quitter, Camper or Climber depends on their adversity quotient (AQ). AQ consists, however, of four separate dimensions; Control, Openness, Reach and Endurance, known as "CORE". The inner CORE of a person tells how the person reacts to adversity. This is how he or she approaches all deadline, conflicts, injustice, setback, challenge and opportunity. These indicators will determine a person's overall AQ score.

Control (C): Control applies to the supposed degree of influence which one has over an unfavorable incident or circumstances. The individual intelligently sees unfavorable circumstances and has clearer perceptions of events. People who react favourably to burdens and adversity will undoubtedly exercise a more prominent execution more than one who takes unfavorable circumstances as a regrettable situation to experience. The higher the control, the more likely a constructive action is to be taken. As Stoltz (2010) pointed out, people with high AQs can note certain facets of their condition which they can influence or regulate, whereas people with low AQs are almost without control and always resign or give up most often.

Origin and Ownership (O₂): As opined by Canivel (2010), Origin is a matter of blame. There are two advantages of blame to individuals which enable one to learn from and acclimatize to conditions triggering growth. The strength of an individuals' action is accountability. Thus, the degree to which a person holds him/herself responsible for the enhancement of their circumstance or the extent of liability for the effects of the adversity is referred to as ownership (Stoltz, 2000). It makes the inquiry: "To what point do I hold the effects of adversity?" It is noted that individuals with high AQs feel responsible for managing circumstances, irrespective of its source, whereas persons with low AQs repel responsibility and express feelings of powerlessness and victimization (Canivel, 2010).

Reach (R): "Reach" represents the degree to which one sees adversity can extend to and influence different facets of one's condition (Stotlz, 2000). Reach dictates the stress, the burden, the energy, and the effort and it has cumulative effect tendencies. It seeks answers to: "How far adversity will extend to other areas of ones' life? Persons with high AQs fix misfortunes and difficulties and do not allow them the opportunity to enter the pleasant areas of their lives and jobs while individuals with low AQs tend to be catastrophic, allowing losses in one region to get in and wound up devastating in other unrelated regions (Stoltz, 2000).

Endurance (E): Stoltz (2011), alludes "endurance" as the time span an individual feels circumstance/adversity will endure or last. It defines optimism, hope and perseverance. It makes inquiry on two cognates: "How long will the adversity last?" and, "How long will the cause of adversity last?" Persons with high AQs are remarkable in their effort to face

countless struggles and retain confidence and hope, whereas persons with lower AQs regard adversity as endlessly or forever dragging (Stoltz, 2000).

2.2 Theoretical Framework

There are several theories explaining the different causes of corruption. Although they are logically elucidated, they are insufficient to be used individually to construct a theoretical framework for this study. This is because each of them either focuses on one set of causality of corruption to the exclusion of others, or is too generalized. Moreover, corruption is a behaviour, perceived to be a demonstration and expression of maladaptive, abnormal, unethical and socially undesirable behaviour. As such, it would not be sufficient to understand corruption in order to combat it without proper explanation of the construct within the purview of psychology. Ocheje (2001) noted also that, in discussing corruption, behavioral and environmental considerations are relevant because they decide whether anti-corruption efforts will fail or succeed. To this end, this study will be anchored on the bedrocks of Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytical Theory and Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory. These theories describe the behavioral and environmental determinants that precipitate corrupt behaviour and the social climate in which corruption occurs.

2.2.1 Psychoanalytic theory

At the end of the 19th century, psychoanalysis was birthed by a physician named Sigmund Freud. He pioneered the notion that behaviour is shaped by the conflict between internalized social sanctions and innate drives. His psychodynamic approach is anchored on this focal point. According to Freud (1933), one's mental life is characterized by conflict between desire and restraint. Freud argued that these impulses are split among three combatant personality components called the Id (the seat of man's instinctual striving and his source of behavioural motives and drives), the Ego (the seat of man's rationality and purposeful actions) and the superego (the seat of man's moral dispositions, that is, his conscience).

Id: According to Freud, the Id embraces the principle of gratification by finding instant relief for impulsive desires. The Id is often referred to as not being in contact with reality

but lives on fantasy principle, because it often acts on impulse that is often unrealistic. As Id functions according to the rule of pleasure, it often leads individuals to contravene the laws and to ensure their individual desires are satisfied without the thought of 'whose ox is being gored,' as long as survival is assured.

Ego: According to Freud, the Ego emerges from the diversion of psychic energies from the Id in order to stimulate cognitive functions such as logical reasoning, learning and perception. This personality structure is often defined as the personality executive because it is in touch with reality and thus controls and regulates the activities of the Id.

Super-ego: The super-ego is the Freudian personality's third construct. It is also regarded as the personality's judicial branch. It operates with the internalized moral values of people. According to Freud, the super-ego emerges from the ego and aims not for reality or pleasure but for perfection.

Weak Ego formation

In Freud's account, a person constantly faces an internal and mostly subconscious conflict between the "Id" (out to fulfil every desire immediately) and the "Superego" (a consciousness that motivates one to abide by the laws of the society). The "ego" (ones conscious mind), is basically the battleground between the "Superego" and the "Id" (Gross, 2005). Freud concluded that a dynamic equilibrium exists in a matured, balanced personality where in, the id signals for gratification and the ego regulates the impulsive id for sufficient time to explore realistic ways to satisfy these desires. In effect, the superego defines if the problem-solving technique of the ego is morally appropriate. However, the ego is said to be weak when it is incapable of fulfilling its vital integrative functions of bridling the Id impulses of supervising the injunctions of the superego and safely guiding the entire organism through the onslaughts of every day social demands and expectations.

It is Freud's assumption that a weak ego develops whenever there is confusion in the growing individual regarding which value options available in his society he should adopt. This situation arises only when the individual's social and family influences fail to present him with definite guidelines regarding the value orientations that are appropriate or that should be avoided.

Inadequate Super Ego formation

Inadequate superego formation arises from the situation under which the person has a non-viable ego system and in which parental and home training is quiet about equilibrium related to the social etiquettes and moral values and in which the parents, under whom the individual was raised, have little to inform the child about restraint, disciplines and the moral criteria or expectations of the society under which he/she is to live and work (Nwoye, 1988). The consequence is that the person is under a state of depravity, an experience that sets him/her against his/her people, especially those of them like moral adjudicators in his or her larger society. The outcome may be that the person is socially disowned, alienated, and in extreme cases anathematized and banned.

Furthermore, weak ego development is not only as a result of inadequate moral training or upbringing, but may occur as a result of a direct internalization by a child of very strict, harsh moral expectations and goals in his environment. Then, if his ego is equally weak, the person will find it difficult to practice these strict moral principles. According to Nwoye (1988), this situation encourages the development of a scrupulous conscience, a dangerous condition because a scrupulous conscience functions to direct all blames and guilt feelings towards its master (i.e, the individual who possesses it) as a result of the master's inability to measure up to all the moral expectation of his culture. Such an individual may most likely have a sad life and may constantly indulge in self-condemnation which can lead him to perceive his life as being in chains and an unbearable scourge.

Psychodynamic theories are well suited to explain misconduct, crime and antisocial behaviour. It views the human soul as an abode where sinister forces act beneath the thin veneer of civilization. Using this bird's eye view of man from Freudian's perspective regarding the origin and constant manifestation of various kinds of maladaptive, neurotic, abnormal and social undesirable behaviour in man, it is conceivable that the routine lies, deceptions and cheats of a corrupt customs officer to accomplish his goals could be due to his strong Id, weak Ego and an inadequate Super-ego (never learned to value other people's rights). This analogy somewhat relates with the bad apple theory which claims that the root cause of corruption is flawed human nature. The analogy similarly relates to public decision theory which maintains that a rational

decision is made by the corrupt to engage in corrupt activities after considering alternatives (pros and cons). These contentions according to Freud (1964) occur, when a person has an unevenly distributed amount of psychic energy among Super-ego, Ego and Id.

2.2.2 Social Learning theory

Albert Bandura (1969), influenced by the social learning perspectives of Hull and Skinner, propounded the Social Learning Theory (SLT). The theory is based on some underlying principles. The first principle notes that, "plasticity" is considered an exceptional characteristic of humans. Individuals have the flexibility under multiple situations to learn different behaviour. Bandura admits to Skinner's position that humans can and do learn from firsthand experience, but places even more emphasis on vicarious learning, that is, observational learning. He argued that a lot of complex behavior cannot be actually learned until people are exposed to other persons who display them. Observational learning thus allows people to respond in several different ways in scenarios in which their 'models' simply pursue their own desires and do not attempt to teach anything to anyone. Bandura likewise focused on the notion that reinforcement can be vicarious; people could be reinforced by observing someone else being compensated. This indirect reinforcement represents a substantial deal of human comprehension.

The second principle stresses that, individuals are able to regulate their lives by a triadic reciprocal paradigm that combines environmental, behavioural and personal factors. People are able to transmute short-term experiences into consistent strategies to assess and control their cultural and social environments. Without this capability, people will only be able to respond to sensory encounters and lack the potential to predict activities, to construct ideas, or to use internal expectations to evaluate current encounters. In the triadic model, fortuitous events and chance encounters are two key environmental forces.

Thirdly, SLT adopts an "agentic view," meaning people are able to control the quality and nature of their lives. Humans are both producers and products of societal systems. Self-efficacy is an important aspect of the triadic reciprocal paradigm. According to the SLT, having a high self-efficacy generally enhances one's performance.

In other words, they are assured that they will execute certain behaviour that yields desirable activities in a given situation. Besides self-efficacy, performance can be predicted by both collective efficacy and proxy agency. The proxy agent encourages people to rely on goods and services from other people, while collective efficacy refers to the mutual expectation that improvements will occur.

The fourth principle indicates that, human behaviour is controlled both by external and internal conditions. External variables include the social and physical environments of individuals, while internal factors cover judgmental prowess, self-reaction and self-observation. The underlying principle notes that, in moral uncertainty, people usually try to control their conduct by means of a moral agency that involves re-defining actions, distorting or disregarding its consequences, punishing or dehumanizing victims for their conducts, and diffusing or shifting liability for their conduct.

Criminal, deviant and corrupt forms of behaviour have also been described from the perspective of SLT by some researchers (Karimu, 2016; Ogunleye and Adebayo, 2012; Sandholtz and Taagepera, 2005). According to SLT, social behaviour is thought to be influenced by four variables: modelling, definitions, reinforcement and differential association. The relationship between these factors predicts deviant or conforming conducts (Singer and Hensley, 2004). Moreover, the theory aims to clarify the mechanisms of imitation learning where a model is absent but the elemental response involved in the models acts is gained. Bandura claimed that there are four interrelated processes which govern the acquisition of modeled behaviour. They are attention, retention, motivation and motoric reproduction. The theory is underpinned by the assumption that these interrelated processes of behavioural acquisition can produce both deviance and conformity.

For instance, as stated by Ogunleye and Adebayo (2012), there is no benefit to say that a lot of Nigerians witness corruption everywhere on a daily basis. The employees of both private and public agencies deal with the reality of 'kickback' from contracts won on a regular basis. Also, public officials are often seen living above their incomes, driving in sleek, luxury vehicles, acquiring and living in luxurious homes and sending their wards to expensive schools at all levels. From the perspective of SLT, behaviour is determined by negative or positive reinforcement, the standards of illegal and legal behaviour. A key

81

variable is differential association, or group/societal influence. In interaction with individuals in society, concepts of deviance are established and reinforced, negatively or positively, through incentives and penalties. In certain ways these descriptions influence behaviors and actions such as sexual misconduct, drug use, white-collar crime amongst others. Regarding the existence of corruption in Nigeria, it can be objectively debated that because corrupt government officials are not 'actually disciplined' for their corrupt activities, but instead they are more respected, exalted, and often given the titles of chieftaincy as prizes, it follows then that any other persons will learn about corruption and also recreate such acts when the opportunity offers itself. Thus, nearly all Nigerians are supposedly tainted.

In sum, SLT theorizes that learning requires interaction with environmental, behavioural, and cognitive influence and that behaviour is transmitted in a learning process (attention, retention, motoric reproduction and motivation). Also, SLT predicts that the possibility of penalty or of recompense would impact the choice of the citizen to engage in unethical practices. Using this model to explicate corrupt practices in customs service, it might be said that corrupt conducts among customs officers is partly due to the observation of its impacts on their colleagues and other people in society. Moreover, the theory suggests that corrupt practices among customs officers and Nigerians emerge from a misconduct subculture that offers a chance to imbibe deviant and corrupt activities. Furthermore, the theory insinuates that customs officers' preference for corruption is attributed to prevailing sociocultural orientations and immediate substantial inducements.

2.3   Empirical Review

2.3.1   Values Clarification and zero-tolerance for corruption

Values clarification exercises has been used for many reasons in classrooms, government institutions and organisations in every field of life. In addition, several contemporary behaviour therapies have incorporated its strategy (Linehan, 1993; Hayes, Kanter, Manos, Bowe, Baruch, Busch, and Rusch, 2010) and found it to be related to an increase in a variety of well-being outcomes affirming a conjecture for its effectiveness. Furthermore, value clarification was found to be successful in management of all types of antisocial behaviour, for instance, faulty thinking and frustration (Bello, 2011), truancy

(Igborgbor, 1997), low self-concept, depression, attribution behaviour, anxiety, aggression, unhappiness, and self-concept (Miller, Brownell and Smith, 1999) and reducing socially undesirable behaviour (Taffee, 2007). Although researchers have not examined the impact of values clarification intervention specifically among officials in customs authority, researchers have demonstrated the impact of values clarification within educational and religious settings, health, families, scout troops, and in other societal systems (Adeyemo, 1996; Adeyemo, 1998; Kirschenbaum, 2000; Mosconi and Emmett, 2003; Neuman Allen and Friedman, 2010).

Drug education, for instance, is a field where values clarification techniques have been applied throughout history. In the mid-1970s, there was an increased use of values clarification techniques by drug educators across the country (Simon and deSherbinin, 1975). A survey on the use of values clarification on drug use among 851 students from the 5th to the 10th grade demonstrated that young people decreased their use of drugs considerably (Simon and deSherbinin, 1975). Another research used a value-based exercise to enhance the probability of women with greater risk of breast cancer to take extra care in activities with an elevated breast cancer-risk (Harris and Napper, 2005). Precisely, the investigators focused on excessive drinking as an elevated breast cancer risk and the alcohol intake levels of the targeted participants. Multistage sampling procedure was used to select and assigned participants to groups and while a group received just health education the other received the value clarification exercise. The findings demonstrated that the group that was engaged with values exercise were more convinced by the health education and decreased their potential intake of alcohol.

Cohen, Garcia, Apfel and Maseter (2006), employed an in-class brief writing task to minimize negatively stereotype psychological threat. The method aimed to clarify and evaluate the values of participants. A list of values were presented to the participants and while the control group were required to choose one to three of their least significant values, one to three of values of most importance were requested of participants in the experimental group. The groups were further evaluated using values clarifying questions. The findings revealed though the brief exercise did not show significant effects on majority participants (i.e., European Americans). In the experimental group, the minorities (i.e., African Americans) achieved higher academic grades at the end of the

semester compared to the control group (Cohen et al., 2006). The researchers further conclude that, basic and small activities integrating values clarification will greatly influence academic success.

Fagerlin, Pignone, Abhyankar, Col, Feldman-stewart, Gavaruzzi, Kryworuchko, Levin, Pieterse, and Reyna (2012), examined the effect of values clarification methods on decision aids. Their evidence assessment revealed that existing methods of values clarification were utilized for a number of decisions that barely reference their underlying design theory, but were typically well represented with regards to development process. They observed that most popular approach employed was to list the benefits and drawbacks of a decision. Mixed outcomes were achieved from the 13 trials comparing decision support with or without values clarification method. Some reported that strategies for clarifying values enhanced certain decision-making and others found no significant impact.

Mosconi and Emmett (2003), examined the impact of values clarification on definition of success among students. The study aimed to explain how values clarification can broaden the principles of student success and not limit them. With the use of value clarification activities, the researchers aimed to give students the chance to define and explore their values, to establish future-oriented and realistic career and life interactions and, consequently, to enhance life satisfaction (Mosconi and Emmett, 2003). The findings of the study suggested that values clarification is critical for secondary school students' career development. The researchers further pointed out that clarification is not just an aspect of career development equation, but a vital one (Mosconi and Emmett, 2003).

Oliha and Audu (2015), examined the effect of value clarification (VC) and self-management (SM) techniques on dropout tendency among secondary school students in Edo state of Nigeria. Seventy- two students (both male and female) from four secondary schools participated in the study. In the treatment of dropping out tendency VC was established as more effective than SM. These findings indicate that values clarification has the potentials to increase the likelihood of improving one's behaviour or conduct. While values clarification has been stressed to be effective in myriads of issues requiring

interventions, not much of these studies has focused on its effectiveness in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption. This study would attempt to fill the gap.

2.3.2   Emotional Intelligence and zero-tolerance for corruption

Emotional intelligence has in the past decades been one of the most powerful modern psychological construct accounting for more than 80 per cent of life's success (Goleman, 1995; Bennis, 2001). While such estimates have been criticised as being somewhat overzealous, the concept has enjoyed unprecedented attention from scholars and corporate gurus, highlighting the importance of emotional intelligence for organisations (Woitaszewski, 2003; Romanelli, JeffCain and Smith, 2006; Aremu, 2006; Adeyemo and Agokei, 2009, Ogundokun and Adeyemo. 2010; Ofole and Ajibola, 2011). Murray (1998) on essentials to emotional intelligence at work, noted that not only are bosses and business leaders in need of a high dose of emotional intelligence, but that any job, like the customs, may require it too. This is because unlike Intelligent Quotient (IQ), emotional intelligence can be acquired, learned, developed and fostered (Ciarochi, Scott, Deane and Heaven, 2003).

Essentially, emotional intelligence has been widely applied and researched in organisations for training of workers and has been found to be very potent. For example, the role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the stress process was explored in Slaski and Cartwright (2003). A sample of managers from the UK (n = 60) obtained emotional intelligence training. Pre- and post-measures with matched control group was adopted with regards to EI, health, success improvement and stress. The training was reported to improve wellbeing, health and emotional intelligence. Similarly, Abel and Okoiye (2012) explored the effects of stress management and emotional intelligence training on job performance of non-academic staff of Lagos State University, Nigeria. 120 participants from various departments of Lagos State University in Nigeria were chosen using a simple random sampling technique. The participation in the treatment and control groups were randomly distributed. The researchers administered the training programmes, evaluated data for the analysis and found that emotional intelligence training was effective in increasing the level of work performance.

Effectiveness of Emotional Intelligence Training (EIT) in improving the perception of HIV risk among officers of the Federal road safety Commission (FRSC) in Imo State, Nigeria was examined by Ofole and Ajibola (2011). The study adopted a pre-test-post-test, control group experimental design with a 2x2 factorial matrix. The sample consists of 100 officers (50 male and 50 female) who were purposively drawn from two units of Imo Sector Command. The results indicated that the HIV risk perception of the EIT group varied substantially compared to that of their counterpart in the control group.

Thory (2013) investigated how regulation of emotion techniques are taught to managers using a three course training module for emotional intelligence, the activities related to their occupational usage and restrictions or any constraints. Based on qualitative evidence gathered from participant evaluations and interviews with trainers and managers, the survey indicated that managers employed emotion management techniques in circumstances of interpersonal conflict (decision-making conflict, job disputes, personality conflict), interpersonal engagement (day to day communication, business development, interactions with negative news) organizational change (down-sizing, plant closure, fear of job loss), to work overload and relieve boredom,.

In another study, Thory (2016), researched EI training in management populations and implementation of it at work, using a case study methodology. The analysis and techniques used were a 40 hour evaluation during training sessions where the researchers were thoroughly immersed as participants. Semi-structured interviews and examination of records of training (supplementary books, presentational documents hand-outs and other training manuals) were adopted. The participants came from a wide cross-sector of enterprises including transport and animal welfare, pharmaceutical/medical, education, energy, manufacturing, police, banking, local government, ICT and consultancy. The conclusion showed that the main component of EI training when common EI models were used, was effective.

Livingstone, Nadjiwon-Foster and Smithers (2002), advocate the use of emotional intelligence in the selection of military leaders in Canada. Similarly, scholars have reported the potency of emotional intelligence in influencing transformational leadership, career commitment, career aspirations, personality and attitude to corruption amongst police officers (Bellamy and Bellamy, 2003; Aremu. 2008; Aremu and Tejumola, 2008;

Aremu and Lawal, 2009; Aremu, Pakes and Johnson, 2011; Aremu, 2012). These researches underscore the significance of emotional intelligence even in the uniformed organisations. Although empirical research suggests that emotional intelligence-based interventions hold promise for a variety of outcome objectives in public and private sectors including uniformed organisations, there is a dearth in the literature of studies investigating the potency of emotional intelligence on various outcome objectives (especially zero-tolerance for corruption) in the customs establishment.

2.3.3 Gender and zero-tolerance for corruption

There has been a growing awareness in the past couple of decades on the nexus between gender and corruption. The gender and corruption debate was until recently, focused on the gender-specific origins of corruption and the association between the extent of societal corruption and gender equality in political and public life. In the early 2000s, several reports found that there was a link between more women in government and low levels of corruption. The relationship was explored in more depth by two seminal studies of Dollar et al. (2001) and Swamy et al. (2001). Dollars et al.(2001), evaluated statistics in more than 100 nations, using the corruption index of the International Country Risk Guide and the representation rate of women in politics (measured by the proportion of women's seats in both lower and upper chambers) of the countries chosen. Their findings revealed a significant inverse relationship between the corruption index and women involvement in governance. Swamy et al. (2001) also reached similar findings, examining gender disparities in political attitudes about the acceptability of multiple types of corruption. Both studies indicate that it would benefit society to allow more women to engage in politics.

Research has also reported gender disparities in acceptability attitudes to multiple types of corruption. For example, the Global Corruption Barometer of Transparency International regularly offers objective proof that women pay bribes less than men (UNIFEM, 2006). In most countries, these variations were statistically significant and consistent. Torgler and Valev (2006) have found, on the other hand, that men are more likely to participate in corrupt activity. Similar study, using data from Afrobarometer, indicated that males are more likely to pay bribes in general (Justesen and Bjørnskov

2014). A United Nations Drug and Crime Office (UNODC 2017) study revealed a significant difference in bribery prevalence among women and men: during interactions with at least one public official, 37.1 percent of men paid a bribe, compared to 26.6 percent of women.

Wane (2008) noted that women, in the course of corruption, are also considerably less aggressive in terms of their extraction than their male counterparts. Likewise, the role of women as both bribers and bribed was investigated by Rivas (2013). The study found that both the frequency of bribes and the amount offered are higher if a participant is male and they are assigned to a firm. Rivas further suggested that women bribe less often than men, but even when women bribe, the amount is lower than when men offer bribe.

In the literature, some scholars potential explanation for gender differences in connection with corruption, is based on the premise that women have a more relationship-based attitude, have a higher degree of integrity and ethical conduct, and are least likely to risk the greater good for their personal benefit (Dollar et al, 2001; Swamy et al, 2001; Barr and Serra, 2010; Melnykovska and Michailova 2009; Grove et al., 2011). In comparison, some scholars have questioned the concept that women inherently possess greater integrity than men and thus less corrupt. One is Anne Marie Goetz (2003), who criticized the opinion that more women are going to contribute to lower levels of corruption in government. She stated that the proponents of this idea neglected to consider the very specific way in which gender dynamics can minimize opportunities for corruption, particularly where corruption occurs through male networks and in platforms where women are excluded from society. Hung-en Sung (2003) offered a more alternative interpretation that the "fairer system" such as regulation, freedom of the press and the extent of democracy may be the common cause of both gender equality and lower corruption, rather than the integrity of women. Hung-en Sung also argued that women in leadership roles have far less of an effect on corruption than liberal democratic institutions, which had a much better explaining power of lower corruption levels.

This view has also been strengthened by Alatasa, Cameron, Chaudheuric, Erkalb, and Gangadharanb (2006), who performed an experimental analysis on the attitudes of gender differences to corruption and acknowledged that corruption attitudes play a

crucial part in its persistence. There were no notable variations between the attitudes of men and women towards corruption among the surveyed countries in the data collected in Australia (Melbourne), India (Delhi), Indonesia (Jakarta) and Singapore. The findings, however, revealed greater differences in the attitude of women toward corruption in various countries than men, suggesting a stronger cultural-based interpretation instead of gender-based. Their findings indicated, however, that the gender differences in previous research may not be as universal as claimed and that they might be more cultural.

Some researchers have used field and laboratory studies to investigate gender-bribery relations. In comparison, experimental analysis has skewed towards corrupt transactions rather than perceptions in various macro-studies. There have been contradictory reports on the impact of gender on corruption. For instance, Armantier and Boly (2011) performed an experiment in Burkina Faso, in which participants had no knowledge of their engagement. The research revealed that women would consider a bribe more likely, but only if they do not want to risk being exposed. This result is consistent with the observation of Schulze and Frank (2003), who found that women and men are similarly vulnerable to bribes where there are no controls; with controls, women demonstrate a much lower likelihood for collecting bribe. These studies concluded that women are more unwilling to take risk than men, and that controls tend to impact positively on women. Frank, Lambsdorff, and Boehm's (2011) results are similar in that women in the lab or field are not inherently more averse to corruption or honest. Alhassan-Alolo (2007) study on corrupt activities by public officials in Ghana's passport office also reported no gender disparity in terms of condoning gift acceptance.

In summary, the literature is divided among macro studies that generally report that women have a lower perceived corruption rate and field and laboratory studies that have mixed data. Despite these conflicting conclusions, these studies contain valuable insights about how to handle gender and corruption-related theoretical and analytical challenge. These studies take cognizance of these lessons and consider it important to assess the moderating role of gender in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

2.3.4   Adversity Quotient and zero-tolerance for corruption

As indicated by Stoltz (2000), in the past ten years, the number of challenges, difficulties or adversities an individual experiences daily, on an average has increased from 7 to 23, and it will keep on increasing. Advocates of AQ suggested that the human operating systems must first be strengthened in order to expand human capability and to develop its ability to assimilate and deploy new knowledge, thus enhancing and optimizing all areas (knowledge, skills, talents and experiences). For uniformed officials including customs officials, who are confronted with tremendous amount of adversities in the workplace, at home, with colleagues, and who experience financial difficulties, unstable socio-economic status, terror attacks, illnesses, and the like, the need to have a high AQ to face and overcome these adverse situations is imperative. Researches evincing seemingly influence of adversity quotient on corrupt behaviour, most especially within the customs service are sparse. However the existing strand of literature over the past decades have found consistent evidence on the important role of adversity quotient on a deluge of outcomes in various institutions and agencies, as well as factors that may predict AQ.

For instance, the research of Canivel (2010) concentrated on educational environment. The research explored the relationship between AQ, leadership style, practices and performance among the principals of private schools in the Rizal province. It was evident from the analysis that though the ownership scores of the principals were less than average they had similar average AQ (control, reach and endurance) values. The researcher also found that the principals blamed the origins and cause of their dilemma too much. In addition, a significant positive correlation was found between AQ, performance and practices of the principals. Finally, the analysis found no association between the leadership style and AQ of principals with their demographic profiles such as gender, age, length of service and civil rank.

Lazaro-Capones (2004) examined the AQ and performance levels of chosen middle managers of diverse departments of the city of Manila. The investigation found that the 360 degree feedback system showed a high association between AQ and the middle managers level of performance. The outcome revealed a good link between adversity quotient and performance in Manila. Similarly, Tripathi (2012), examined the

AQ of 131 top management professionals/leaders working to bring value to their staff and businesses. The research findings strongly supported the view that one's AQ is a reliable indicator for deciding leaders who can build 'sustainable hope' in their people and organizations and lead them towards overall success and growth.

Sachdev (2011), examined the effect of an intervention programme to foster Adversity Quotient of potential leaders. The investigation also concentrated on determining the relationship between age, gender, academic faculty, experience and achievement academic and AQ of potential leaders. The population of study was management and teacher educators of which 1053 sample was selected. The study demonstrated that respondents with low academic achievement and experience scored significantly higher than respondents with high academic achievement and experience on Control Dimension. In the Control dimension, the scores of female respondents were considerably higher than those of the male respondents. The post-test mean scores of the different sub-groups on ownership dimension showed no significant difference. On the Reach dimension, older and the experienced respondents had significant high scores. At the conclusion of the intervention programme, the experimental unit is seen to progress from a borderline low moderate to a moderate level on Control and Ownership, from a low to moderate level of Reach and Endurance and overall AQ. In addition, the results indicated that the intervention programme benefitted male participants in improving their Endurance dimension in contrast with female participants.

Enriquez (2009) examined the effect of a mentoring initiative on the AQs of college freshmen. The aim of the research was to establish a mentoring programme and to examine the potency of the programme on AQ. The study employed an experimental design using the one group pretest-posttest. 181 university students were recruited as sample from 17 college courses. The findings showed that most students improved on their AQ scores and that the intervention was effective. Deesom (2011) assessed the potential of positive thought on AQ of 6 grade learners and compared AQ among pupils enrolled in the programme with other pupils. Quasi experimental, pretest posttest design was employed. A total of 20 students in the 6th grade were selected as sample for the study, 10 in control group and 10 in experimental. The AQ level of the test group was

shown to be higher than that of the controlled group, thus the programme was shown to be successful.

Liu (2011), examined the relationship between personal characteristics, work pressure, work performance personality traits and AQ. The study employed a descriptive design. From amongst the population of office workers in Taiwan, a sample of 693 was selected for the study. Different gender roles were shown to have a significant difference in AQ. More so, AQ was positively influenced by personality trait. AQ had a positive influence on work stress and performance. Also, there was an indirect significant influence of personality trait on work performance via AQ.

Patdo (2011) examined comparatively, the Adversity Quotient of parents with normal children and Adversity Quotient of parents with special needs children. 90 parents of children with special needs and parents with normal children were selected for the study. A descriptive analysis was carried out. The results showed that the highest AQ level among the respondents was average. The total AQ mean for respondents with special children was 122.05, and for respondents with normal children, 147.48. Gender and age did not influence the Adversity Quotient of the respondents. The AQ level of parents with special children did not have any significant relationship with the AQ level of respondents of parents with normal children. .

Johnson (2005) undertook an analysis on performance, adversity and optimism. The study also examined the link between explanatory styles and AQ on sales performance. Multistage sampling procedure was used in selecting 112 employees of Fortune 500 Company for the study. The AQ model was found to be more comprehensive and reliable to define who is motivated and helpless. The study suggested that sales persons perform better when their AQ is high. Tigchelaar and Bekhet (2015) investigated the relationship of AQ and Personal demographic profile of private business leaders in Egypt. The study found no significant relationship between respondents' personal demographic profile, specifically, age, tenure, and educational attainment and their overall AQ. The study however found a significant correlation between the CORE control dimension and the educational attainment.

A research, undertaken by Zhi-hsien (2014), explored factors affecting AQs of enterprise workers in Taiwan. The population of the study was workers in Taiwan.

Convenience sampling technique was employed in the distribution of 500 copies of questionnaire, but only 307 copies were returned. The findings suggested that age and seniority have a major influence on AQ, while gender and education have no significant impact on AQ.

Solis and Lopez (2015) investigated stress level and AQ among single working mothers of students of Batangas State University. The research described the profile of the single mother as regards the number of infants, number of years as a single parent and explanation of their single parenthood. The sample for the study comprised twenty five (25) single working mothers. The findings showed that the majority of respondents were widows, single parents at an early age, with three children. Further, the result indicated that they had average adversity quotient and normal stress level. The study found also that stress levels had no significant impact on a single working mothers' adversity quotient. Lastly, the stress levels and adversity quotient of the participants were not considerably different when grouped by profile variables.

2.4   Conceptual model

In this study a conceptual model was developed around the interventions with a view to fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among custom officers. From the conceptual model, values clarification and emotional intelligence training are the packages to be used in the study. These packages are referred to as the independent variables in the conceptual model because they are the variables to be manipulated by the researcher in order to determine their effect on the dependent variable, which is zero-tolerance for corruption. The intervening variables are of two kinds, the primary and the secondary. The primary intervening variables are the organismic or internal variables that are associated internally with the individual participants in the study. These include, gender, adversity quotient, motivation, cognitive ability and attitude. The secondary intervening variables are environmental or external variables that include, leadership style, reward system, work environment and organizational structure. However, according to literature, gender and adversity quotient stands out as the most related to tolerance, decision-making, efficiency and effectiveness, which are vital aspects in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption. It is based on this premise that gender and adversity quotient were the only moderating variables considered in this study.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Independent Variables	Intervening Variables		Dependent Variable

	(1st Order) Primary intervening variables (Organismic) Internal Factors .	(2nd Order) Secondary intervening variables (Environmental) External factors	

Values Clarification Training	• Gender	• Leadership style,	Zero-tolerance for Corruption
Emotional Intelligence Training	• Adversity quotient • Motivation, • Cognitive ability • Attitude	• Reward system, • Work environment • Organisational Structure	

S (Stimulus) ⟶ O (Organism) ⟶ R (Response)

2.5   Research hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were tested for significance at 0.05 probability level

1. There is no significant main effect of treatments on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

2. There is no significant main effect of gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

3. There is no significant main effect of adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

4. There is no significant interaction effect of treatments and gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

5. There is no significant interaction effect of treatments and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

6. There is no significant interaction effect of gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

7. There is no significant three-way interaction effect of treatments, gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter focuses on the explanation of how the study was carried out. These include the description of the research design, the study population, the sample and sampling technique, instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments as well as the data analysis employed.

3.1   Design

The study adopted the pretest-posttest, control group quasi-experimental design with a 3x2x2 factorial matrix. In essence, there are three rows which consists of the two interventions which are Values Clarification Training (VCT) (A_1), Emotional Intelligence Training (EIT) (A_2) and the control group (A_3) while the columns have gender at two levels, female (B_1) and male (B_2), with adversity quotient at two levels, high (C_1), and low (C_2). This is represented in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: A Factorial Matrix for Fostering Zero-Tolerance for Corruption

TREATMENT	GENDER			
	FEMALE (B_1)		MALE (B_2)	
	ADVERSITY QUOTIENT			
	HIGH (C_1)	LOW (C_2)	HIGH (C_1)	LOW(C_2)
VCT (A_1)	5	6	7	10
EIT (A_2)	7	5	10	8
CG (A_3)	6	5	9	5

Key: VCT=Values Clarification Training, **EIT**= Emotional Intelligence Training, **CG**=Control Group,

A_1= VCT

A_2=EIT

A_3=CG

B_1= Female

B_2= Male

C_1= High Adversity Quotient

C_2= Low Adversity Quotient

3.2   Population

The population of this study consisted of all the customs officers in South-west Nigeria. The Nigerian Customs Service currently has four zones nationwide; Lagos (Zone A), Kaduna (Zone B), Port Harcourt (Zone C) and Bauchi (Zone D). Each of the zones has commands under it. Within the South west (Zone "A"), there are ten area commands namely Apapa, Tin-Can Island, Murtala Muhammed International Airport, Kirikiri Lighter Terminal, Lilypond, Lagos Industrial, Seme, Ogun, Oyo/Osun and Ondo/Ekiti. The number of personnel per area command as of September 2019 was estimated to be between 320 and 450.

3.3   Sample and sampling technique

A sample of eighty three (83) customs officers were selected for this study using multistage sampling procedure. In the first stage, a fish bowl method of random sampling technique was used in selecting three (Oyo/Osun, Ogun and Ondo/Ekiti area commands) out of the ten area commands within South-west (Zone "A"), Nigeria. A screening tool was administered to screen participants and afterwards, based on convenience and availability sampling technique, participants were selected for the study, from those who scored high against the threshold level in the screening measures, from each area command. Lastly, participants were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups: Experimental group 1 (Ogun area command) had twenty eight (28) participants, experimental group 2 (Oyo/Osun) thirty (30) participants, and twenty five (25) participants for the control group (Ondo/Ekiti). These procedures were used in order to ensure that experimental bias such as personal, motivational and observational attitudes that could contaminate the experiment was controlled.

3.4   Inclusion criteria

Only participants who met the following criteria were enlisted for participation:
- Customs officers of the selected area commands
- Customs officers that scored above the norm (55) in the screening measure
- Customs officers who agreed to attend the programme and signed consent forms
- Customs officers who were of the ranks of Assistant Superintendent of Customs I and II.

3.5   Instrumentation

1. Corruption Propensity Scale (CPS) adapted from Unethical Behaviour Scale by Newstroom and Ruchs' (1975)
2. Zero-tolerance for Corruption Scale (Appleby, Leadbeter, Lockett, Long, Oster, Turnbull, Williams and Zajac, 2014)
3. Adversity Response Profile (ARP) by Stoltz (1998).

Description of instruments

3.5.1   Corruption Propensity Scale (CPS)

The likelihood of respondents engaging in corrupt practices was screened using the Corruption Propensity Scale (CPS), adapted from a structured instrument developed by Newstroom and Ruchs (1975). This scale was used as the screening tool in this study. The scale consists of seventeen items measuring six factors; briber, personal use, falsification, passing blame, padding of expenses and deception, that apply to various forms of unethical practices in a business context. The seventeen items on this scale have been grouped and summed in a single cumulative score for the likelihood of engaging in unethical behaviour. The scale reported a Cronbach alpha of .81, thus indicating high internal reliability.

However, for the present study, the scale was adapted and modified to eleven items to assess the degree to which respondents are likely to engage in corrupt behaviour. A typical item on the scale reads "*.Pilfering company materials and supplies", Accepting gifts/favors in exchange for preferential treatment"*. These items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'extremely likely' (coded 7) to 'extremely unlikely' (coded 1) with lower scores indicating lower risks of engage in corrupt behaviour (or lower corrupt intentions) and higher scores on this scale indicating greater risks of engage in corrupt behaviour (or high corrupt intentions). For the current study, a pilot test was conducted to assess, before administration on the study's participants, the content validity of the instrument. The scale reported a reliability Cronbach alpha of .77

3.5.2 Zero-tolerance for Corruption Scale

Zero-tolerance for corruption scale, adapted from a structured instrument developed by Appleby, Leadbeter, Lockett, Long, Oster, Turnbull, Williams and Zajac (2014), was used as the pretest-postest measure to elicit response on attitudes towards corruption. The scale consists of 13 items structured on a five point Likert scale. Examples of items included on the scale are "*Conduct must be illegal for it to be called corrupt", "Avoiding procedure is sometimes justifiable to get past bureaucratic red tape*". Participants were asked to indicate their response to the statements on a scale from 'Strongly Agree (coded 5)' to 'Strongly Disagree (coded 1)'. High scores on this scale indicate a high tendency and lower scores indicate a lower tendency to engage in corrupt practices. The scale has been found to demonstrate a high internal consistency of Cronbach Alpha 0.80 to 0.83. However, for the current study, a pilot test was used to establish the content validity of the instrument before administration on the study's participants. The scale reported a reliability Cronbach Alpha of .78.

3.5.1 Adversity Response Profile (ARP)

The Adversity Response Profile (ARP) is a questionnaire designed by Stoltz (1997) to measure a person's reaction patterns when confronting difficulties, adversities or challenges. The ARP has four subscales; control, ownership, reach, and endurance otherwise known as CORE. The scale outlines fourteen scenarios, which are all trailed by four questions that are meant to represent the CORE dimensions. The response to each of the four questions is offered on a 5-point bipolar scale in each scenario. An example of items in the instrument includes, "You are overlooked for a promotion; *To what extent do you feel responsible for improving this situation?;* You accidentally delete a very important E-mail **;** *The consequences of this situation will be disastrous?* Scores range between 10 and 50 on each ARP scale. The cumulative score from the four subscales represents a person's Adversity Quotient (AQ). The AQ scores may range between 40 and 200. The AQ Profile and its dimensions have proven to be highly reliable. The scale has reported an overall reliability Cronbach Alpha of .91. However, in the current study, the scale was subjected to a pilot test to establish the psychometric properties of the instrument before the administration on the study's participants. The scale had a reliability Cronbach Alpha of .77

3.6   Procedure for data collection

The researcher, before conducting the study, obtained ethical approval from the University of Ibadan Ethical Committee (assigned number: UI/EC/21/0009). A letter of introduction was collected from the Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies, University of Ibadan to the participating area commands. The researcher also requested the permission of the Controller of the selected three area commands, namely Oyo/Osun, Ogun and Ondo/Ekiti, for the study. Preliminary visits were made to these area commands to familiarise self with the participants and solicit their willingness to participate in the study. Three research assistants were trained to assist in carrying out the study. The research assistants were post-graduate students from the Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies, University of Ibadan. Due to the sensitive nature of the dependent variable, the researcher approached the study using a covert data collection method to avoid biases on the criterion response measures. This was achieved by masking the dependent variable as "unethical behaviour". Although this approach does not fully respect participants' rights to autonomy and the associated informed consent process for research, the researcher meticulously obeyed the ethical principles of confidentiality, voluntariness, beneficence and nonmalificence.

The researcher conducted the experiment in four phases: pre-sessional activities, pre-test, treatment and post-test. In the pre-session phase, the task involved the screening, selection and assignment of participants to the three experimental conditions. During the pre-test stage, the participants were administered both the zero-tolerance for corruption scale and the adversity quotient scale (ARP). Participants of the two experimental groups completed a training (Values Clarification and Emotional Intelligence Training) which lasted for 8 weeks (eight sessions). The time frame for each session was 60 minutes. The control group was not subjected to any form of treatment. However, a lecture on Time Management was held. At the conclusion of the training programme, the post-test was administered to both the experimental and control groups.

Therapeutic/Training programmes

Values Clarification training

The therapeutic package for values clarification offers theoretical and empirical approaches to enhance knowledge of values that can affect one's actions and lifestyle decisions. Through lectures, demonstrations, participatory exercises, and small group discussion skills, the objectives of recognizing or establishing goals, setting priorities and directions, making choices and decisions and taking action to implement decisions to achieve goals will help proffer response to a multitude of concerns and issues throughout one's lives. This training was conducted within eight-sessions comprising 60 minutes per session. Homework was assigned to reinforce knowledge and skills taught during the lessons

Experimental group 1 (Values Clarification Training)

Session 1: General Orientation and Administration of pre-test measures

Session 2: Discussion of the meaning, causes and effect of unethical behaviour (corruption)

Session 3: Discussion of the nature of values, goals and importance of values clarification

Session 4: Examination and analysis of values, values conflicts and their far-reaching effects on life/work/relationships

Session 5: Group work on values clarification process; choosing, prizing and acting

Session 6: Identification of ethical behavioural patterns by personal values; reflection and self-analysis

Session 7: Training commitment to acting consistently with chosen values

Session 8: Overall review post-test and conclusion

Emotional Intelligence training

The EIT programme focused on self-awareness, which entails utilization of skill training strategy (i.e., instruction combined with coaching, group discussions, short lectures, role play, paired exercises involving relating and sharing of emotional experiences and feedbacks) to improve knowledge and skills related to emotion regulation, recognition and understanding the impact of one's own behaviour on the emotion of others. The programme was designed for meetings 60 minutes weekly over a

two-month period (eight sessions). Homework was assigned to reinforce knowledge and skills taught during the lessons.

Experimental group 2 (Emotional Intelligence training)

Session 1: General Orientation and Administration of Pre-test measures

Session 2: Briefing on the meaning of corruption, causes and effect

Session 3: Elucidating on the concept of emotional intelligence and its importance

Session 4: Emotional recognition (Self-awareness)

Session 5: Role play on how to practice self –regulation/management and motivation

Session 6: Building participants empathy and social skills

Session 7: Group work on relationship management

Session 8: Overall review post-testing and conclusion

Control group

The control group was not exposed to treatment. However the group were sensitized on Time management. The sessions and topic of instructions that were provided are as follows:

Session 1: Introduction and pre-testing

Session 2: Time management

Session 3: Post-test and conclusion.

3.7   Control of Extraneous Variables

Extraneous variables are those factors or attributes that may affect the outcome of the experimental study aside from the intervention strategies to be employed. The researcher guided against effects of extraneous variables by engaging in the following:

a. appropriate random selection of participants and randomization of treatment and control groups;

b. Strict adherence to the 3x2x2 factorial matrix; and

c. The utilization of the statistical package of Analysis of covariance.

3.8   Data Analysis

Statistical tool of Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was employed in this study. ANCOVA was used in this study for the following reasons:

- Elimination of confounds (confounds are unmeasured variables that distort results of study. However, it varies systematically with experimental manipulation).
- Adjustment of treatment means, interpretation of data, estimation of missing data, increasing precision in randomized experiment, and take into account correlation between pre- and post-test measures

The present study used a Bonferroni Post-hoc analysis in ascertaining the direction of differences and significance at 0.05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the statistical results of this study are presented, interpreted and discussed, revealing the outcome of the study. The outcome of the study further determined the acceptance or rejection of the stated hypotheses.

4.1 Demographic Profile of Participants

The purpose of this research is to examine the effectiveness of values clarification and emotional intelligence training on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers in South-West, Nigeria. However, certain indicators which may influence tolerance for corruption were also highlighted and incorporated into the study. The technique of this study is consistent with the many circumstances and scenarios that test people's moral convictions according to their reactions and socio-demography. The questionnaire that notes the responses was aimed at persons of various ages, gender and official ranks. The research comprised of 48 replies, all of which came from the customs officers in the South-West, Nigeria. Table 4.1 presents the frequency distribution of demographic characteristics of the respondents in this study.

Table 4.1   Socio-demographic distribution of respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	49	59
Female	34	41
Total	**83**	**100**
Age	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
25-29 years	11	13.2
30-34 years	29	34.9
35-39 years	33	39.8
40-44 years	10	12.1
Total	**83**	**100.0**
Mean 25		
SD 0.87		
Rank	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Assistant Superintendent of Customs I	32	38.6
Assistant Superintendent of Customs II	51	61.4
Total	**83**	**100.0**
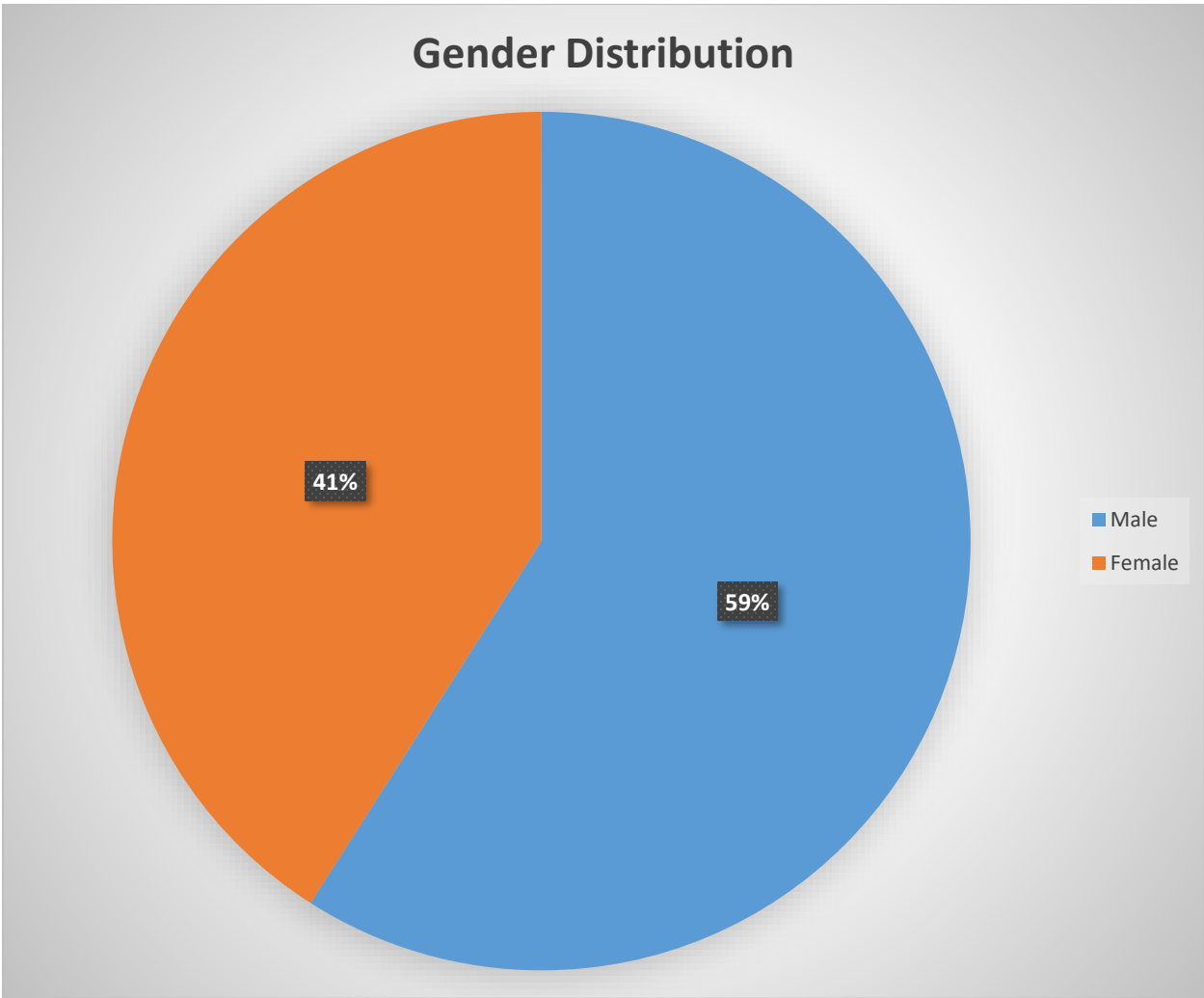
Figure 4.1: *Distribution of the sample according to gender*
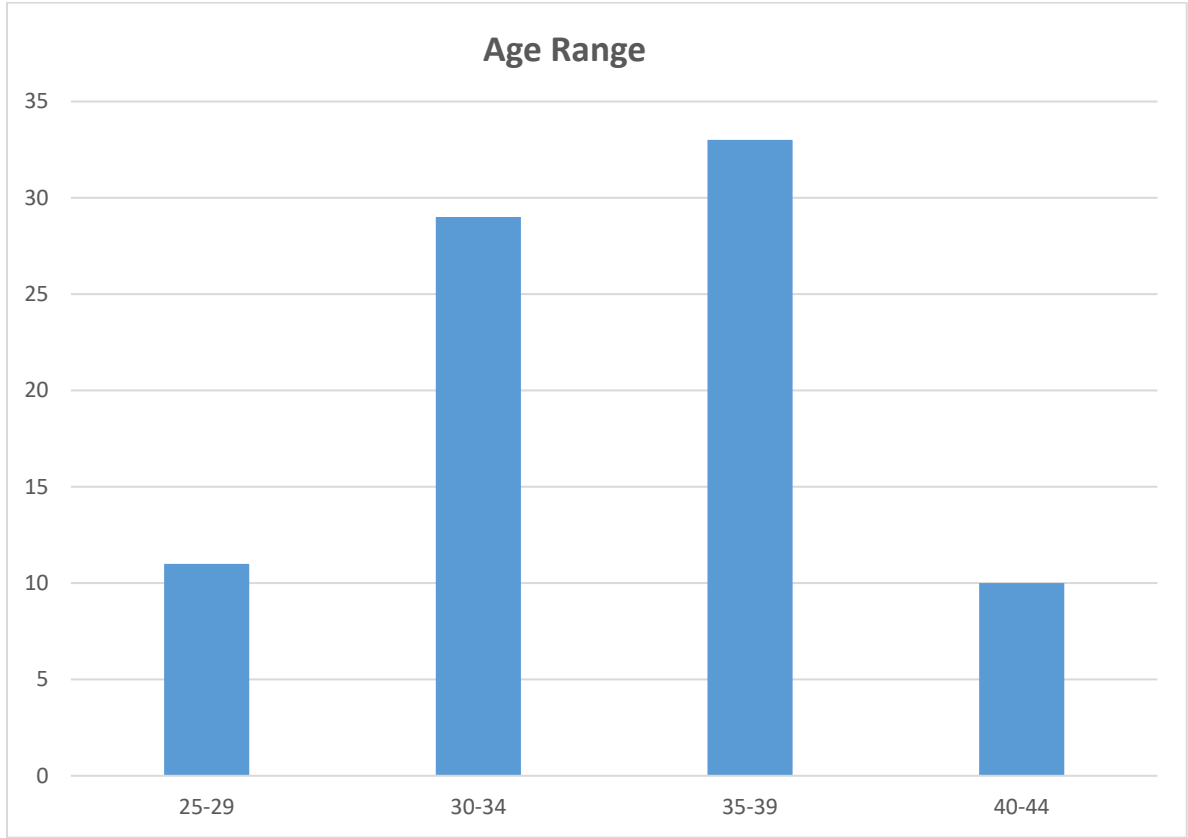
Figure 4.2: *Distribution of sample by age range*
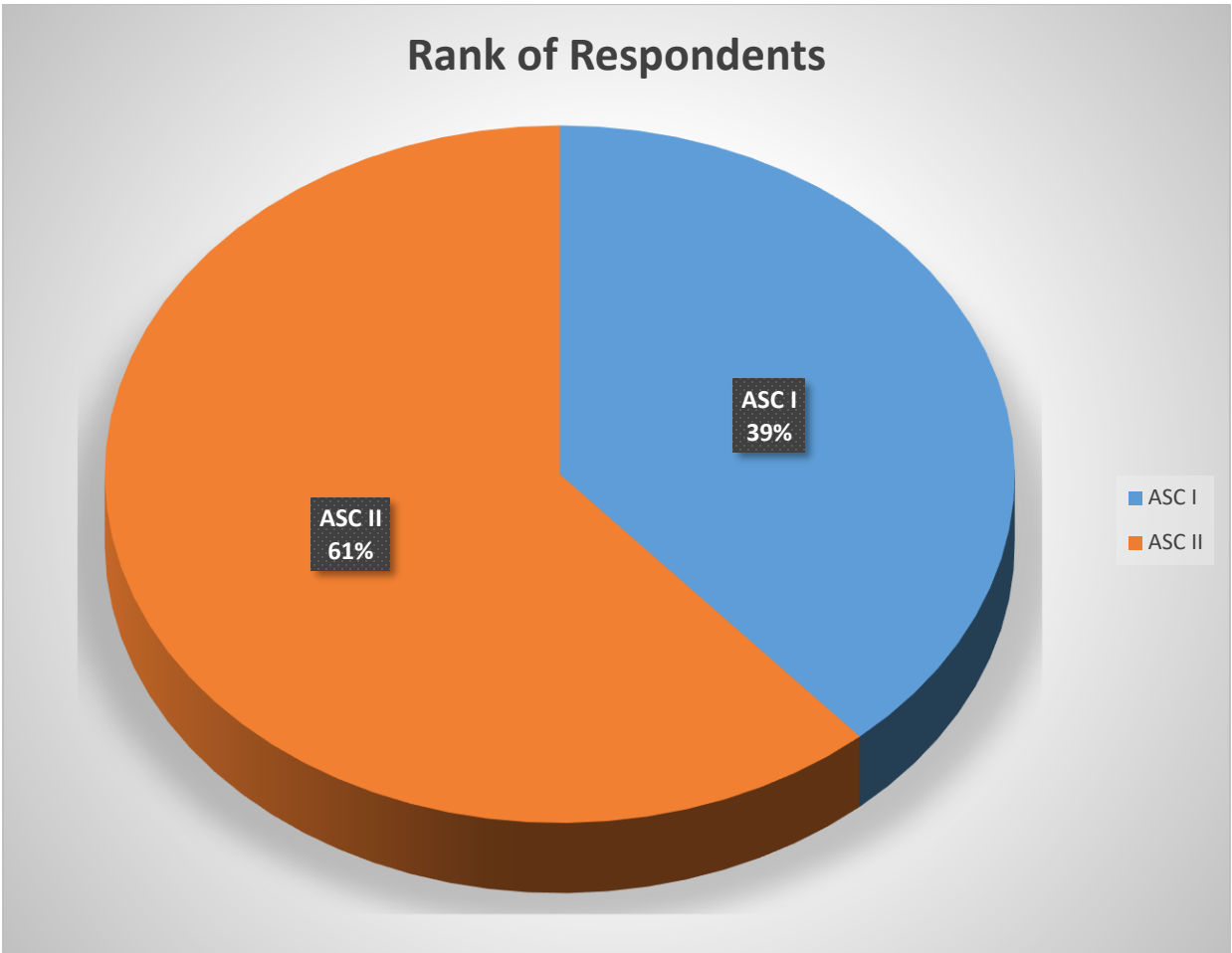
Figure 4.3: *Distribution of sample according to ranks*

Socio-Demographic Profile

A total of 83 respondents participated in the study. The result indicated in table 4.1 shows that out of 83 participants that took part in the study, forty-nine participants (59%) were males and thirty-four participants (41%) were females. This implies that male customs officers were more represented in the study. This distribution is also represented in figure 4.1. The participation of more males in this study, on the one hand, give support to the argument that, in the work environment, women are less involved in corrupt practices than men are. However, on the other hand, it can be argued that the gender representation in this study is attributed to existing gender inequality in employment and position of authority within the customs service. This contextual factor places more males in positions where tolerance for corruption is tested more often.

Table 4.1 further reveals that out of the 83 participants, 11(13.2%) were between 25 and 29 years of age, 29(34.9%) were between 30 and 34 years of age, 33(39.8%) were between the age of 35 and 39 years while 10(12.1%) were between 40 and 44 years of age. This means that majority of the respondents in this study were between the age of 35 and 39 years. The mean age of the study sample was 25 years with a standard deviation of 0.87. Figure 4.2 is also a depiction of this result. Also, Table 4.1 reveals that out of the 83 respondents in the study, thirty-two (38.6%) were of the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Customs I (ASC I) and fifty-one (61.4%) the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Customs II (ASC II). This implies that majority of the participants in the study were of the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Customs II. Figure 4.3 is a pictorial depiction of the ranks of respondents.

The age and rank of participants in this study are solely a reflection of the lack of recruitments that existed within the customs service prior to this research. As such, there has been a gap in terms of officers in service. As at the time of this research, those in the ranks of ASC 1 and ASC II were being placed in positions of authority as unit leaders, presenting scenarios whereby their ethical conducts are tested, daily.

Result

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant main effect of treatments on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

To test this hypothesis, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was adopted to analyze the post-test scores of the participants on their zero-tolerance for corruption using the pre-test scores as covariate to ascertain if the post experimental differences are statistically significant. The summary of the analysis is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Summary of ANCOVA showing the main and interaction effect of treatment, gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	10176.213[a]	11	925.110	19.489	.000	.751
Intercept	782.073	1	782.073	16.475	.000	.188
Pretest zero-tolerance for corruption	60.873	1	60.873	1.282	.261	.018
Treatment	2074.350	2	1037.175	21.850	.000	.381
Gender	763.358	1	763.358	16.081	.000	.185
Adversity Quotient	68.563	1	68.563	1.444	.233	.020
Treatment * Gender	391.074	2	195.537	4.119	.020	.104
Treatment * Adversity Quotient	433.287	2	216.644	4.564	.014	.114
Gender * Adversity Quotient	107.916	1	107.916	2.273	.136	.031
Treatment * Gender * Adversity Quotient	.449	1	.449	.009	.923	.000
Error	3370.293	71	47.469			
Total	124452.000	83				
Corrected Total	13546.506	82				

R Squared = .751 (Adjusted R Squared = .713)

Table 4.2 shows that there is a significant main effect of treatment on zero-tolerance for corruption of custom officers; $F_{(2,71)}= 21.850$, $p< 0.05$, $\eta^2= .381$. Hence, null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, treatment had significant effect on zero-tolerance for corruption. Size of effect reveals that treatment accounted for 38.1% ($\eta^2= 0.381$) change in zero-tolerance for corruption. For further justification on the margin of difference between the treatment groups and the control groups, the pair-wise comparison using Bonferroni was computed and the result is shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Bonferonni Pair-wise Comparison showing the significant differences among various treatment groups and control group.

(I) Treatment	(j) Treatment	Mean Difference (IJ)	Std. Error	Sig.[c]
Values clarification training (VCT) Group (mean= 34.075)	Emotional intelligence training group	-11.347	2.385	.000
	Control group	15.502	4.142	.001
Emotional intelligence training (EIT) Group (mean= 45.422)	Control group	26.849	4.100	.000
	Values clarification group	-11.347[*]	2.385	.000
Control group (mean= 1.857E1)	Values clarification group	-15.502	4.142	.001
	emotional intelligence group	-26.849	4.100	.000

Further analysis in Table 4.3 reveals that after controlling for the effect of zero-tolerance for corruption, experimental group II (EIT) (mean= 45.422) displayed the highest zero-tolerance for corruption, followed by experimental group I (VCT) (mean= 34.075) and control group (mean= 1.857E1). By implication, emotional intelligence training is more potent in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption than values clarification training. The coefficient of determination (Adjusted R-squared = .713) overall indicates that the differences that exist in the group account for 71.3% in the variation of zero-tolerance for corruption.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant main effect of gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

The result in Table 4.2 evinces that there is a significant main effect of gender on zero-tolerance for corruption; $F_{(1,71)}= 16.081$, $p<0.01$, $\eta^2= 0.185$. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference in the zero-tolerance for corruption of male and female participants. The table further reveals that gender accounted for 18.5% change in zero-tolerance for corruption of participants; that is gender had large effect in the variation of zero-tolerance for corruption score. To further clarify where the difference lies, a pair-wise comparison using bonferonni was computed. The result is shown in table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Bonferonni Pair-wise Comparison showing the significant difference in gender (male and female) of zero-tolerance for corruption.

(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[c]
Male participants (mean=2.836E1)	female	10.925	2.374	.000
Female participants (mean=38.653)	male	10.925	0.903	.000

After controlling for the effect of pretest zero-tolerance for corruption, Table 4.4 demonstrates that female participants displayed higher (mean=38.653) zero-tolerance for corruption than their male counterparts (mean= 2.836E1). By implication, female participants have higher tendency to display zero-tolerance for corruption than male participants.

Hypothesis Three: There is no significant main effect of adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

Analysis in Table 4.2 demonstrates that there is no significant main effect of adversity quotient on zero-tolerance; $F_{(1,71)}$= 1.444, p>0.01, η^2= 0.020. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that adversity quotient could not significantly moderate participants' zero-tolerance for corruption.

Hypothesis Four: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among custom officers.

Table 4.2 shows that there is a significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on zero-tolerance for corruption; $F_{(2,71)}$= 4.119, p<0.05, η^2= 0.104. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that gender significantly moderated the effect of treatment on zero-tolerance for corruption. The table further reveals that the effect of gender on treatment accounted for 10.4% change in participants' zero-tolerance for corruption; that is the interaction of treatment and gender had moderate effect in the variation of participants' zero-tolerance for corruption score. To further clarify where the difference lies, a pair-wise comparison using bonferonni was computed. The result is shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Bonferonni Pair-wise Comparison showing interaction effect of treatment and gender on zero-tolerance for corruption.

Treatment	Gender	Mean	Std. Error
Values clarification group	Male participants	23.655[a]	3.216
	Female participants	44.496[a]	2.115
Emotional intelligence group	Male participants	40.355[a,b]	3.134
	Female participants	50.489[a]	2.552
Control group	Male participants	20.974[a]	3.198
	Female participants	1.377E1[a]	5.644

The result in Table 4.5 further reveals that after controlling for the effect of pretest zero-tolerance for corruption, experimental group II (emotional intelligence training) was more moderated by gender than experimental group I (Values clarification training) and control group. Participants in experimental group II displayed varying level of zero-tolerance for corruption based on gender. Emotional intelligence intervention was more effective in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among female participants (mean=50.489) than male participants (mean=40.355). Also values clarification intervention was more effective in fostering the zero-tolerance for corruption among female participants (mean=44.496) than for the male participants (mean= 23.655).

Estimated Marginal Means of post_test
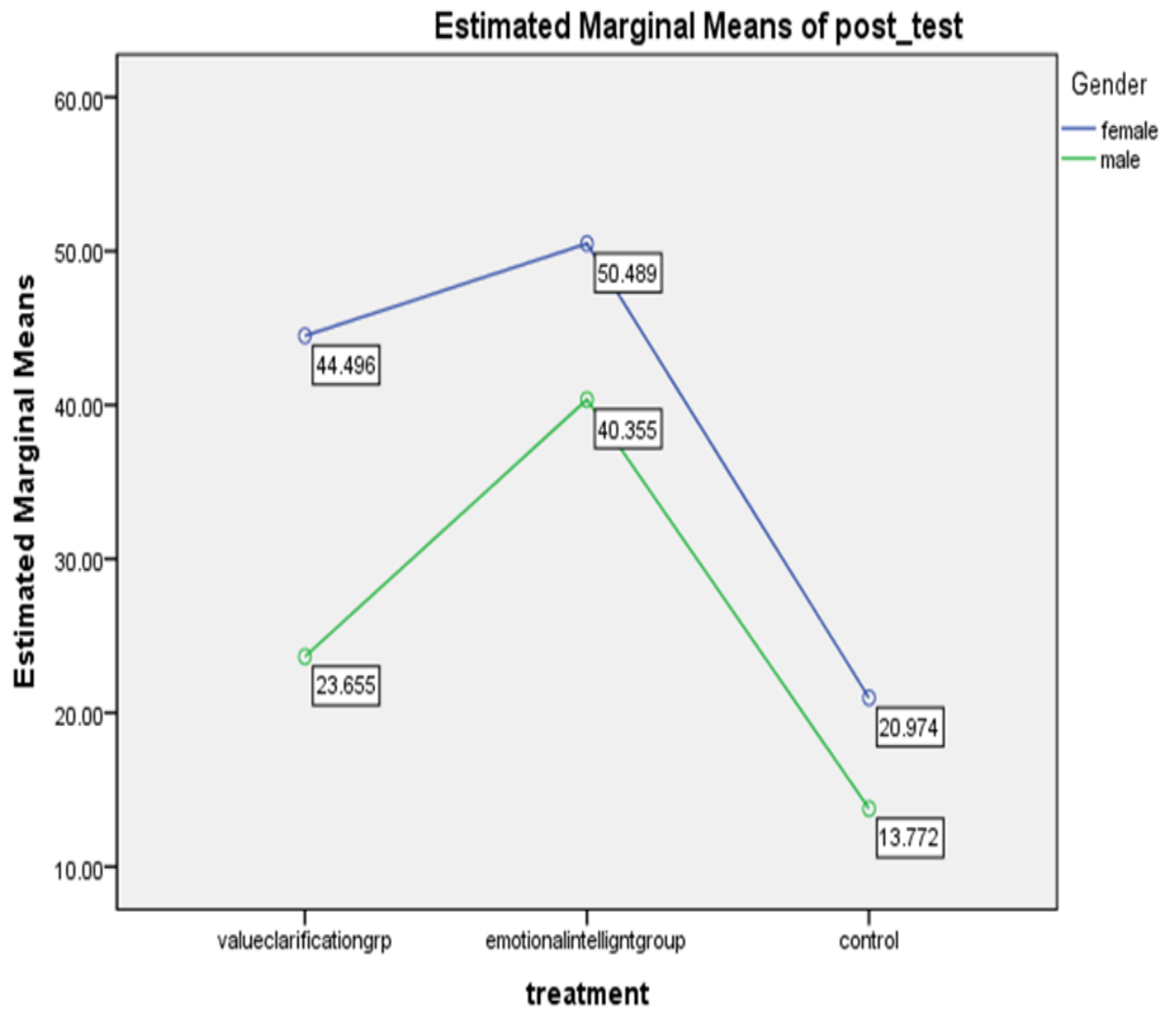
Figure 4.1: Line graph showing the interaction effect of treatments and gender

Hypothesis Five: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among custom officers.

Table 4.2 also shows that there is a significant interaction effect of treatment and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption; $F_{(2,71)}$= 4.564 p<0.01, η^2= 0.114. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that adversity quotient significantly moderated the effect of treatment on zero-tolerance for corruption. The table further reveals that the effect of adversity quotient on treatment accounted for 11.1% change in participants' zero-tolerance for corruption; that is, the interaction of treatment and adversity quotient had moderate effect in the variation of participants' zero-tolerance for corruption score. To further clarify where the difference lies, a pairwise comparison using bonferonni was computed. The result is shown in table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Bonferonni Pair-wise Comparison showing interaction effect of treatment and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption.

Treatment	Adversity Quotient	Mean	Std. Error
Values clarification group	High adversity quotient	38.993[a]	2.861
	Low adversity quotient	29.157 [a]	2.180
Emotional intelligence group	High adversity quotient	45.936 [a]	2.872
	Low adversity quotient	44.909[a]	1.781
Control group	High adversity quotient	17.732[a]	3.968
	Low adversity quotient	2.026E1	3.248

The analysis in Table 4.6 indicates that after controlling for the effect of pretest zero-tolerance for corruption, experimental group II (emotional intelligence training) was more moderated by adversity quotient than experimental group I (values clarification training) and control group. Participants in experimental group II displayed varying level of zero-tolerance for corruption based on their adversity quotient. Emotional intelligence intervention was more effective in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among participants with high adversity quotient (mean=45.936) than those with low adversity quotient (mean=44.909). Also values clarification intervention was more effective in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among participants with high adversity quotient (mean=38.993) than those with low adversity quotient (mean= 29.157).
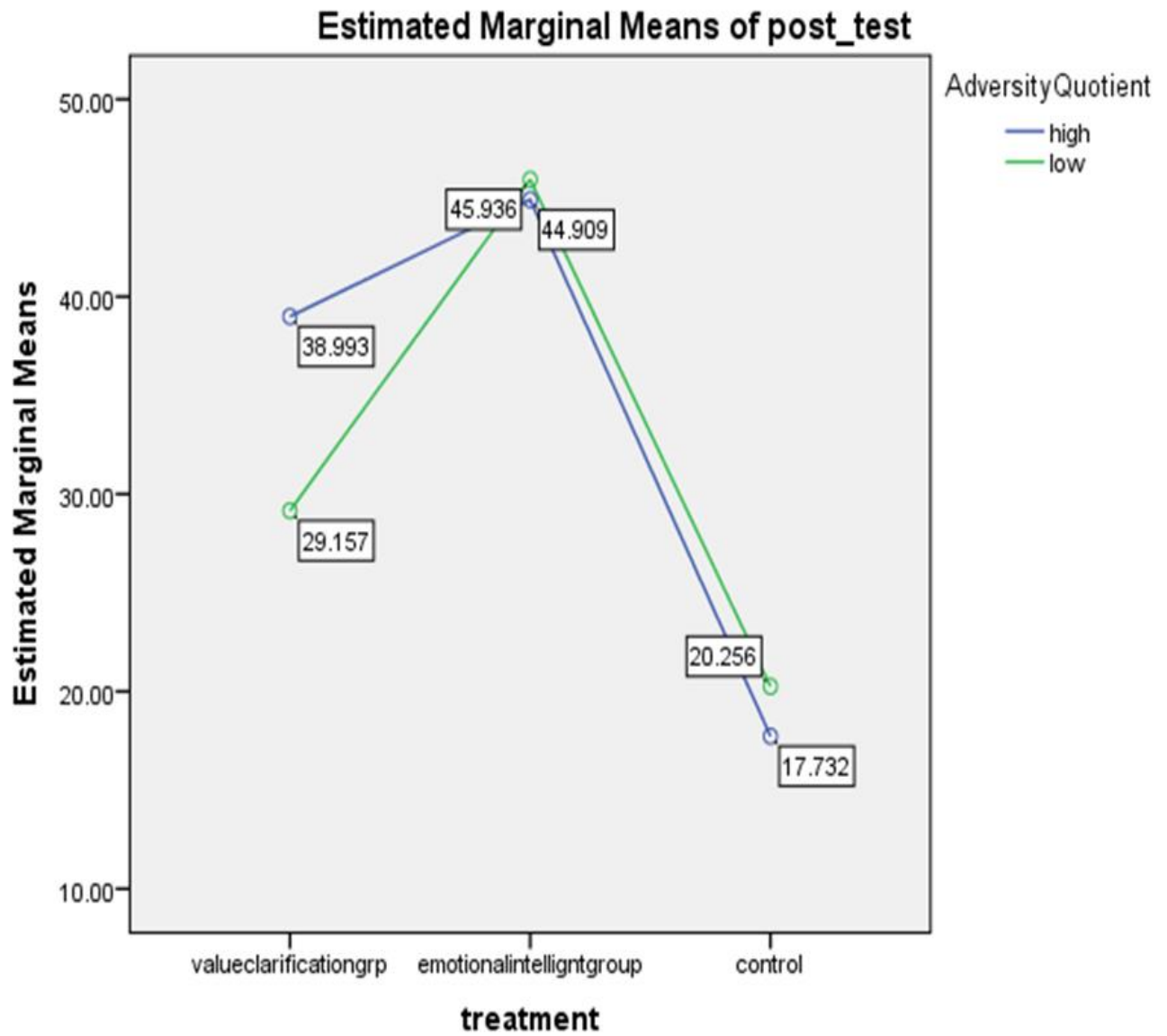
Figure 4.2: Line graph showing the interaction effect of treatments and adversity quotient

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant interaction effect of gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

From the result displayed in Table 4.2, it shows that there is no significant interaction effect of gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption; $F_{(1,71)}$= 2.273, $p>0.05$, η^2= 0.031. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. This shows that the interaction of the gender (male and female) and adversity quotient (high and low) had no significant interaction effect on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant three-way interaction effect of treatments, gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

The result in Table 4.2 also shows that there is no significant three-way interaction effect of treatment, gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption; $F_{(1,71)}$= 0.009, $p>0.05$, η^2= 0.000. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that gender and adversity quotient could not significantly moderate the effect of treatment on zero-tolerance for corruption.

4.2   Summary of Findings

Below is the summary of findings of the seven hypotheses tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Ho1: There was a significant main effect of treatments on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

Ho2: There was a significant main effect of gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

Ho3: There was no significant main effect of adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

Ho4: There was a significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

Ho5: There was a significant interaction effect of treatment and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

Ho6: There was no significant interaction effect of gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers.

Ho7: There was no significant interaction effect of treatments, gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

4.3 Discussion of findings.

Ho1:   Hypotheses one examined the significant main effect of treatments on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers. The result showed a significant main effect of treatments on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers. The analysis of covariance indicated a significant difference among the groups (Values Clarification Training (VCT), Emotional Intelligence Training (EIT) and Control) in the post test scores on zero-tolerance for corruption ($F_{(2,71)}= 21.850$, $p< 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The size of effect (38.1%), showed a tremendous effect of the treatments on participants' zero-tolerance for corruption. This outcome corroborates prior studies (Aremu, 2006b; Aremu, Pakes and Johnson, 2009a; Nnaemeka, Chukwuemeka, Tochukwu and Chiamaka, 2015; Rusch, 2016; Abraham, Suleeman and Takwin, 2018), confirming the therapeutic strength of psychological approach in the reduction of corrupt behaviour or attitude facilitating corruption. These scholars argued that, engaging in corrupt practices is often underpinned by mental shortcuts, how individuals process and organize information, emotion and social norms. Similarly, as evidenced in this study, psychological approaches which encapsulate the understanding of corruption and the behavioural tenets that contribute to engagement in corrupt practices also have the potency to positively alter these behavioural exigencies to unlearn corrupt behaviour

Further analysis using Bonferroni Pair-wise Comparison indicated that, in comparison between groups, the EIT group performed better than the other groups (VCT and control groups). This outcome regarding the potency of emotional intelligence training in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among uniformed officers is directly supported by the findings of Aremu (2006b), who found emotional intelligence to be an important catalyst for moderating attitudinal dispositions to corruption among police

officers. Other studies also confirmed the significant influence of emotional intelligence in areas related to factors or attitude that may facilitate corrupt practices in organizations (Eisenberg, 2000; Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham, 2004; Tangney, Stuewig and Mashek, 2007; Aremu and Tejumola, 2008).

For instance, Tangney, Stuewig and Mashek (2007), observed that moral emotions or self-conscious emotions such as guilt and shame serve as moral barometers in negotiating unethical behaviour. As such, the predictability of unethical behaviour is subject to the degree of a person's moral internalization, which affects anticipation of moral emotions for future moral transgressions. Other studies demonstrate that an increase level of EI, which involves identifying, processing and managing emotions, is effective in regulating proneness to negative emotional reactions (such as envy, guilt and shame) in ways that promote a salutary result and less engagement in unethical behaviour (Mesmer-Magnus, Viswesvaran, Deshpande and Joseph, 2010; Ângelo and Fernando, 2014). These findings underscore the fact that emotional intelligence is germane to reduction in attitudes enabling corrupt behaviour.

Several factors might have accounted for the more substantial increase in zero-tolerance for corruption among the groups treated with EIT as compared with the other experimental conditions. One factor most likely had to do with the fundamentals of the EIT. The treatment modules unfolded learning in terms of knowledge, skills and emotional competencies and approaches which encapsulate recognition, understanding and regulation of emotion, and the impact of one's own behaviour on the emotion of others, that individuals may use to enhance their emotional intelligence to cope effectively with work, environmental pressures and demands (Goleman, 1998; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Bar-On, 2002). Further, the job description of the participants offered them the opportunity to experiment with the techniques learned in the training, with their colleagues and clients, which might have reinforced their understanding of the emotional intelligence training programme, resulting in significant increase in participants' zero-tolerance for corruption.

In addition, the analysis on the significant main effect of treatment on zero-tolerance for corruption similarly indicated that VCT was effective in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption. This finding can easily be explained by the assumption that

conceptual and empirical evidence shows that values are chosen, deeply held convictions that shape one's worldview and are communicated through emotions, actions and decisions. Although no prior studies directly substantiate this outcome, since the area is deficient in literature, many researchers such as Igborgbor (1997), Mosconi and Emmett (2003), Harris and Napper (2005), Edward (2005), Taffee (2007), Bello (2011), Fagerlin, Pignone, Abhyankar, Col, Feldman-stewart, Gavaruzzi, Kryworuchko, Levin, Pieterse, and Reyna (2012) and Rai (2014) had verified the efficacy of VCT in managing most antisocial and unethical conducts. These researchers generally contended that individuals who are clear about their values in relation to society exhibit many of Maslow's self-actualized traits, such as behaving in a confident, calmly and purposive way, displaying positivity, eagerness, and diligence. It is certain that lack of values or unclear values in individuals may end in their maladjustment and thus manifests in the various problems and unethical behaviour they exhibit at homes, institutions, organizations and in society.

Moreover, studies such as Preston (1996), Francis (2002), Trevino and Nelson (2009) argued that most employees lack exposure to ethical theory and concepts, and thus require appropriate training to develop their decision-making skills and moral reasoning in the organizational context. Values Clarification Training consists of hypothetical choice situation and thought-provoking exercises designed to enable individuals to become aware of their personal values and assess its effect on moral reasoning and decision making (Mosconi and Emmett, 2003; Oliha and Audu, 2015). This approach helps individuals learn more about self, set and accomplish goals (Kirschenbaum, 2013). Thus, customs officers exposed to VCT could have been capable of self-reflecting about their values, beliefs, behaviour and experience relating to unethical practices, through valuing processes (choosing, prizing and acting on values) thereby rectifying their value-laden problems. As evidenced in this finding, the participants through this value clarifying process could exercise behavioural self-regulation, converging on measures that foster zero-tolerance for corruption.

Ho$_2$: Hypotheses two revealed a significant main effect of gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers. The result further indicated that female participants displayed higher zero-tolerance for corruption than their male counterparts did. Prior studies (Dollar et al, 2001; Swamy et al, 2001; Melnykovska and Michailova 2009; Barr

and Serra, 2010; Grove et al., 2011), lend support for the current finding. These studies, confirmed the existence of gender disparities in connection with corruption. For instance, the findings of Dollar et al. (2001) and Swamy et al (2001) demonstrated statistically significant inverse relationship between the levels of female participation in politics and corruption index. Other studies also found that men are more likely to be involved in corrupt activities than women (Torgler and Valev, 2006; Justesen and Bjørnskov 2014; UNODC, 2017).

This study outcome however negated other prior findings revealing no significant differences between the attitudes of men and women towards corruption (Alhassan-Alolo, 2007; Alatasa, Cameron, Chaudheuric, Erkalb, and Gangadharanb, 2009). These scholars averred that the gender disparities found in the previous studies might not be nearly as universal as claimed and may be more culture-specific. Schulze and Frank (2003) found that while women and men were similarly inclined to take bribes in the absence of control; with controls, women demonstrated a significant lower likelihood of collecting bribe. Similarly, Armantier and Boly (2011) observed that women were more open to bribe, only when they do not fear being identified. These studies however suggested that females are more unwilling to take risk than men and that controls function best on women. Other scholars argued that women are not necessarily more averse to corruption or honest in the field or lab experiment (Frank, Lambsdorff, and Boehm, 2011).

Despite these discrepant findings in the literature, several contextual factors might account for the gender differences revealed in this study. One possible explanation for the current finding could stem from the notion which is in consonance with most prior studies' findings indicating that, women are more relationship-oriented, have higher ethical expectations and have less likelihood of compromising the greater good for personal benefit (Dollar et al, 2001; Swamy et al, 2001; Barr and Serra, 2010; Melnykovska and Michailova 2009; Esarey and Chirillo 2013). Women's role in the Nigerian society as caregivers, encourage a more social, noble, honest and helping behaviour. Moreover, as indicated in the literature, women are more vulnerable to punishment and to the risks posed by corruption due to explicit or tacit gender

discrimination and as such, they feel more responsibility to comply with ethical conducts and norms.

Ho3: The result of hypotheses three revealed that there was no significant main effect of adversity quotient (AQ) on zero-tolerance for corruption. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted. In other words, adversity quotient did not significantly influence participants' zero-tolerance for corruption. Prior to the present study, there has been no study in the literature on the nexus between AQ and reduction of corruption or attitude towards corruption, especially among uniformed or customs officers. Thus, there are no supporting studies to substantiate this study outcome. However, as evidenced in literature, AQ has the potency to significantly influence individuals' adaptation to pressures, as well as influence their ability to deal with and overcome adversity and be successful in various objectives. For instance, Stoltz (2000) noted that employees with high AQ scores are more successful in their personal life and work. Similarly, other research indicates that employers can improve business efficiency and achieve improved morale by recruiting or training high AQ employees (Haller, 2005; Ferrer, 2009; Dai, 2009; Canivel, 2010; Styrlund, 2010; Kanjanakaroon, 2011). Notwithstanding, a plausible explanation for this outcome could be underpinned on the notion that, the AQ of every individual differ and this may have impacted on the collective outcome of adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among the participants.

Ho4: The result of hypotheses four showed that there was a significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on zero-tolerance for corruption among the participants. As such, the null hypothesis was rejected. Further analysis however demonstrated different interaction effect for both treatment groups, such that the female customs officers exposed to EIT displayed higher levels of zero-tolerance for corruption in comparison with the male participants in the EIT group as well as the male and female participants exposed to VCT and control group. The present study outcome is consistent with previous findings (Mayer and Geher, 1996; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003; Goldenberg, Matheson, and Mantler, 2006; Farrelly and Austin, 2007; Fayombo, 2012; Castro-Schilo and Kee, 2010; Hayat, Rehman, Hayat and Bibi, 2016), suggesting that, emotional intelligence and gender jointly account for variance in work related constructs.

Prior findings suggested that society, institution and cultural contexts influenced the differences in ways and manner the two genders socializes (Duckelt and Raffalli, 1989; Sandhu and Mehrotra, 1999). In similar vein, Roxburgh (1996) observed that there are systematic variations in the manner in which men and women view the workplace and its requirements. Consistent with these observations, Antoniou, Plychroni and Kotroni (2009) found that females take more work stress and get emotional disturbed than their male colleagues. Since women are predisposed to being more emotional, sensitive and adept interpersonally than men, their emotional intelligence should be higher than that of men.

However, there are discrepancies in the literature with regards to emotional intelligence of women and men. While some studies showed that women are superior in emotional intelligence (King, 1999; Sutarso, 1999; Wing and Love, 2001; Singh, 2002), other results regarding specific EI indicators on which women perform better are contradictory. For example, some researchers examined variations between gender in experiential dimensions of EI such as emotional facilitation and perception (Kafetsios, 2004; Livingstone and Day, 2005; Castro-Schilo and Kee, 2010), others found gender disparities in strategic dimensions of EI such as emotional regulation and comprehension (Goldenberg, Matheson, and Mantler, 2006; Farrelly and Austin, 2007). Another set of studies found that women were superior on all aspects of EI (Day and Carroll, 2004; Lumley, Gustavson, Partridge, and Labouvie-Vief, 2005; Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal, 2009).

In addition, genetic and biological factors could contribute to gender disparity on emotional intelligence. For instance, some studies suggested a gender-based disparity in cerebral activity (Jaušovec and Jaušovec, 2005). Some areas of the brain devoted to processing emotions, as stated by Baron-Cohen (2003) and Gur etal (2002), may be larger in women than in men. These findings underscored the nexus between gender and emotional intelligence, and substantiates the findings of the present study, suggesting that the female participants exposed to EIT, due to their biological framework, might have found the components of the training directly relevant to them more than their male counterparts, thereby increasing the resultant effect of the treatment on female participants who displayed higher zero-tolerance for corruption.

Ho$_5$:   Hypotheses five demonstrated that there was a significant interaction effect of treatment and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. This outcome was, however, different for the two treatment group, in that customs officers exposed to EIT with high adversity quotient performed better on the criterion measure than those customs officers exposed to VCT with high adversity quotient. Although there are no prior studies to support this outcome, this result cannot be divorced from the fact that high adversity quotient and work-related ethical behaviours are significantly related (Stoltz, 2000; Haller, 2005; Ferrer, 2009; Canivel, 2010). These studies suggested that an increased ability to deal with and overcome adversity could effectively moderate attitudinal dispositions to ethical conducts.

This study outcome however, establishes the interplay between one's values, emotions and adversity quotient. The result of this study indicated that in addition to the effects of clarified values and enhanced emotional intelligence, high adversity quotient is an essential moderating factor in improving zero-tolerance for corruption. Although, the current finding demonstrated that adversity quotient was not simply related to zero-tolerance for corruption. On the one hand, low adversity quotient which entails the inability to properly handle adversities stemming from family, home, workplace and society, may affect the physical and mental health of employees, and as well place them in susceptible positions to engage in unethical conducts. On the other hand, increase in adversity quotient may heighten an employee's tendency to resist corrupt practices or unethical conducts. The ability of majority of the study participants exposed to both interventions, to exercise control and handle challenges and adversities they are faced with, contributed immensely to the incremental effects of the training programme on the criterion measure.

Ho$_6$:   The analysis for hypotheses six indicated that there was no significant interaction effect between gender and AQ in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among participants. This outcome is in consonance with previous researches (Widyanigrum and Rachmawati, 2007; Shen, 2014; Supardi, 2016; Safitri, Junkiati and Masriah, 2018; Sigit, Suryanda, Suprianti and Ichsan, 2019). These studies suggested no significant difference in the AQ dimensions (namely, Quitters, Campers and Climbers) of male and female.

Contrarily, the study carried out by Lin (2001) among selected managers of business operations of branches of chain stores found that the male managers AQ ratings were considerably greater than those of the female managers. In similar vein, Lee (2008) found that teachers' gender had a huge influence on their AQ. Despite these incongruences in findings, Sigit, Suryanda, Suprianti and Ichsan (2019) averred that the AQ of every individual is different, and thus, the AQ of each gender cannot be a benchmark for determining behavioural outcomes. This assertion offers plausible explanation for the current finding.

Ho7: Hypotheses seven showed that there was no significant interaction effect of treatments, gender and adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted. Although the analysis indicated that, the treatments had diverse two-way significant interaction effect with gender and adversity quotient, the result demonstrated an insignificant three-way interaction. This implies that gender and adversity quotient could not significantly moderate the effect of treatment in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among participants. As earlier noted, AQ of every individual is different, and thus, the AQ of each gender cannot be a benchmark for determining behavioural outcomes (Sigit, Suryanda, Suprianti and Ichsan, 2019).

The insignificant three-way interaction effect of treatment, gender and adversity quotient in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption in this study might be somewhat a resultant effect of the homogenous sample. As demonstrated in the present result, gender and adversity quotient lacked variance in interaction on the criterion measure. Also, as adversity quotient was gauged using a self-report in this study, it is also possible that the lack of variance in the measure, type of AQ (namely, Quitters, Campers and Climbers) between male and female, might be responsible for this outcome.

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendation of the study. The limitations of the study are also explicated as well as suggestions for further studies based on these limitations.

5.1   Summary of Result

This study was carried out to examine the effects of Values Clarification and Emotional Intelligence Training on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers in the South-West, Nigeria. The moderating effects of gender and adversity quotient were also taking into cognizance. There was a significant main effect of values clarification and emotional intelligence training on zero-tolerance for corruption among participants. In other words, Values Clarification and Emotional Intelligence Training fostered zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers in the Nigeria Customs Service South-West, Nigeria with emphasis on gender and adversity quotient.

5.2   Implications of the study

The outcome of this study provides empirical backing for the theorized connection between Values Clarification, Emotional Intelligence and zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers. This study presents evidence that a substantial portion of variance in attitude towards corruption could result from the ability of officers to recognize, understand and manage their emotions and those of others, and also clarify value-laden problems to self-regulate their conducts in their daily activities. Considering the gains that may arise from the impact of VCT and EIT on the level of tolerance for corruption among officers in the Nigeria Customs Service, designing courses or incorporating the knowledge into a course to specifically cultivate these psychological capacities and skills, is imperative for successful recruitment, selection and training of officers for incorruptibility.

As established in the present study, both treatments (VCT and EIT) were effective in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among the participants, though, EIT evinced more potency in effectiveness. This findings, however, has implications for the Nigerian government, stakeholders and policy-makers, as the study highlighted the need for the two training modalities to be encapsulated into the existing strategies, policies and programmes targeting unethical conducts within the public and private sectors. More so, the result evinced the moderating effect of gender and adversity quotient in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among participants. This outcome showed that customs officers with high level of adversity quotient, regardless of gender, have lesser tendency to engage in unethical conducts. Therefore, encouraging and providing training in adversity quotient is essential in fostering ethical conducts among customs officers or employees of security agencies.

Another implication that can be deduced from the effectiveness of the two treatments (VCT and EIT) in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption in this study, is that, improved emotional competencies and skills, and clear values impacts on employees' ethical conducts. As such, professional counselling psychologists can utilize these counselling techniques in fostering ethical behaviour among staffs in private and public sectors.

5.3   Limitations of the study

The findings of this study provided insight into the effectiveness of VCT, EIT, gender, adversity quotient on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers. The study outcome opened new vistas of opportunity for practical research in the Customs Service. Notwithstanding, the study is fraught with a number of limitations. The study covered three area commands (Oyo/Osun, Ogun and Ondo/Ekiti) in the South-West of Nigeria. More so, 83 samples were investigated in this study, which falls short of the acceptable number in quasi-experimental study. Another limitation in this study is in the measure of zero-tolerance for corruption. This study focused on perceived measures of zero-tolerance for corruption from the perspectives of the participants. Although care was taken to avoid bias by using a standardized instrument for the measure, caution should be taken when generalizing these findings.

Lastly, the study is directed at officers in the ranks of Assistant Superintendent of Customs I and II alone, and so limited to that level. This however, suggests that caution should be taken in generalizing the results to other ranks in the Nigerian Customs Service. However, bearing in mind, that the participants of this study were randomly selected and assigned to the experimental conditions and control group, limiting threat to internal and external validity, the limitations aforementioned do not undermine the validity and reliability of the study findings, but heralds further studies within the context of the current study limitations.

5.4   Conclusion

Corruption has been an issue of discourse among researchers in the past couple of decades. The concept of corruption is described as the abuse of entrusted public power or position for personal advantage or gain. More so, literature indicates that the magnitude of corrupt practices within the Nigerian milieu may be attributed to several factors. Literature review shows attention paid to cultivating behavioural dispositions that could influence attitude towards corruption has been insufficient. As a result, the existing anticorruption drives and mechanisms have yielded ineffective outcomes in fostering zero-tolerance while curbing corruption in society, especially in public agencies, including the Nigerian Customs Service. This state of affairs has, in turn, led to upsurge in corruption and its attendant negative consequences in the nation.

The purpose of this research was to examine the effectiveness of Values Clarification and Emotional Intelligence Training in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among Nigerian Customs officers in the South-west, Nigeria. Also, the moderating effect of gender and adversity quotient was also considered. The study was carried out in four phases; recruitment, pretest, treatment and posttest. The data from the experiment were analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). The results of the analysis revealed that the behavioural interventions (VCT and EIT) had significant main effect on zero-tolerance for corruption. However, EIT was more potent in enhancing zero-tolerance for corruption. The effects of the treatments were also moderated by gender and adversity quotient.

Based on the analysis conveyed, it can be concluded that the display of tolerance for corruption could stem from one's values and emotional state. To deal with these behavioural components of corrupt behaviour, requires behavioural modification interventions that could positively influence these factors in an individual. The use of values clarification training in this study, successfully lowered participants' tolerance for corruption by improving their attitudes, values and probability of making good and constructive decisions that are beneficial to both self and society. More so, the positive significant impact of emotional intelligence training on zero-tolerance for corruption in this research stems from the capacity of the intervention programme to relatively enhance participants' emotional literacy, competence, creativity and empathic accuracy as well as application of emotional information to guide their reasoning process and actions and self-accountability.

Considering the gains that may arise from the impact of VCT and EIT, it is imperative to synergize the treatments with existing anticorruption measures for addressing corruption in the Nigerian Customs Service and perhaps, other security agencies. More so designing courses to specifically cultivate the investigated psychological competencies and skills among customs officers, is pertinent for successful recruitment and training of officers for incorruptibility in the Nigerian Customs Service and other security or public organizations.

5.5   Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made, that significant stakeholders could utilize to ameliorate corruption and other unethical practices:

Nigerian Customs Service: The Nigerian Customs Service should incorporate counseling/behavioural approach in its effort to curb corruption in its establishment. This can be achieved by redesigning the Nigerian Customs Service training, to integrate values clarification, emotional intelligence and adversity quotient training. This would be vital and efficacious for recruitment, selection of officers for incorruptibility and personnel development.

Psychologists: Counselling psychologists as well as other behavioural change agents in the society are enjoined to organize workshops and seminars that are geared towards fostering ethical conducts, zero-tolerance for corruption and other allied matters, utilizing the investigated counselling intervention among government personnel and private organizational staff.

Private and Public Organizations: Managements of public and private organizations are advised to subject their employees to emotional intelligence, values clarification and adversity quotient training for personnel development, efficiency, performance, improved work ethics and acceptable organizational behaviour.

Government: It would be worthwhile for stakeholders and government administrators at State and Federal levels in Nigeria to synergize the investigated counseling interventions with the existing conventional training, administrative and punitive measures deployed in curbing corruption.

Researchers: Since this study has empirically validated the efficacy of behavioural interventions on corrupt behaviour, behavioural scientists, researchers and counselling psychologists are encouraged to explore more counselling interventions in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption.

5.6   Contributions to knowledge

This study has been able to contribute to knowledge in the following areas:

- Demonstrate the effectiveness of Values Clarification and Emotional Intelligence Training in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among officers of the Nigerian Customs Service
- Emotional Intelligence Training was more effective than Values Clarification in fostering zero-tolerance for corruption among officers of the Nigerian Customs Service
- Establish the relevance of psychological interventions in helping the fight against corruption in society
- It has provided personnel and counselling psychologists, as well as other behavioural change agents a rich treatment package with high sensitivity and repository of quality skills for effective behaviour change

- Gender and Adversity Quotient demonstrated varied, but significant moderating effects on zero-tolerance for corruption among customs officers

- It has also provided empirical data to assist personnel and counselling psychologists, as well as other behavioural change agents to navigate the problems of corruption and unethical behaviours.

5.7   Suggestions for further studies

Taking into consideration that there is no finality in research, this study encourages further replication. This study showed the effect of values clarification and emotional intelligence on zero-tolerance for corruption among officers of the Nigerian Customs Service. Also, the study was limited to customs officers in three area commands in South-west. The researcher thus, suggests a further replication and refinement to include other area commands in the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria. This may authenticate and establish further the findings of this research.

Literature shows that corruption cuts across all sphere of the Nigerian society and as such, the researcher suggests further replication of this study and also, participants could be extended to include personnel of other security agencies, public and private organisations to broaden the generalization of this study. Moreover, psychosocial variables that were not considered in this study, such as personality type, leadership style, motivation, religiosity, self-efficacy, moral quotient and reward system should be considered as moderating variables.

Besides, the two psychological interventions, namely values clarification and emotional intelligence could be applied to other unethical conducts exhibited by personnel in public and private organizations in the country. Lastly, future studies should investigate more counselling approaches on zero-tolerance for corruption and other ethical conducts within private and public sectors.

REFERENCES

Abel, A. O., and Okoiye, E. O. 2012. Effects of Emotional Intelligence and Stress Management Training on Job Performance Of Non Academic Staff Of Lagos State University Nigeria. *European Journal of Educational Studies*, *4*.3:319–331

Abraham Juneman, Suleeman Julia and Takwin Bagus, 2018. Psychological Mechanism of Corruption: A Comprehensive Review. *Asian J. Sci. Res*., 11(4): 587-604.

Abramson, L. Y., Alloy, L. B., Hogan, M. E., Whitehouse, W. G., Donovan, P., Rose, D. T., … Raniere, D. 2002. Cognitive vulnerability to depression: Theory and evidence. In R. L. Leahy and E. T. Dowd (Eds.), Clinical advances in cognitive psychotherapy: *Theory and application* (pp. 75-92). New York: Springer.

Ackerman, P. L., and Heggestad, E. D. 1997. Intelligence, personality and interests: Evidence for overlapping traits. Psychological Bulletin, 121:219–245

Adebayo, D.O. 2005. Ethical attitudes and prosocial behaviour in the Nigeria Police: Policing:

Adekunle, 26 July, 2017. Customs hits record in revenue collection, makes N486bn in six months. *Vanguard Newspaper News,* Retrieved from https://www. Vanguar dng r .com

Ades, A., and Di Tella, R., 1999. "Rents, competition and corruption." *American Economic Review* 89.4: 982-993.

Adeyemo, D.A. 1996. The didactic mode of career education and values clarification as strategies in fostering the vocational maturity of Nigerian adolescents. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Adeyemo, D.A. 1998. Effects of didactic mode of career education and values clarification on the career-decision-making self-efficacy of secondary school students. *Nigerian Journal of Applied Psychology*, 4.1:1-15

Adeyemo, D.A. 2004. Patterns of Emotional Intelligence among counselling psychology students in a Nigerian university. *Sokoto Educational Review*, 7:194-203.

Adeyemo, D.A. 2005. The buffering effect of emotional intelligence on the adjustment of secondary school students in transition. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 6-3.2:79-90

Adeyemo, D.A. 2007. Emotional intelligence and the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employee in public parastatals in Oyo State, Nigeria. *Pakistan Journal of Social Science* 4:2:324-330

Alatas, H.S. 1990. Corruption: Its nature causes and functions. Kuala Lumpur: S. Abdul Majeed and Co.

Alatasa, V., C. Cameron, A. Chaudheuric, N. Erkalb and L. Gangadharanb. 2009. 'Gender, culture and corruption: insights from an experimental analysis', *Southern Economic Journal*, 75.3: 663-80

Alhassan-Alolo, N. 2007. 'Gender and corruption: testing the new consensuses, *Public Administration and Development,* 2.3:227-37.

Aluko, M. A. O. 2002. The institutionalization of corruption and its impact on political culture and behavior in Nigeria. *Nordic Journal of African Studies*, 11.3:393-402.

Aluko, Yetunde A. 2009. Corruption in Nigeria: concept and Demission in Anti-corruption Reforms in Nigeria since 1999: issues, challenges and the way forward IFRA *special Resources* issues, vol. 3,

Amundsen, Inge 2000. "Analysis and definition of corruption and its common forms," Published by the Utstein Anti-Corruption Resource Centre.

Anderson, H. James and Cheryl W. Gray 2007. "Policies and Corruption Outcomes" in Anticorruption in Transition 3. Who is Succeeding…and Why?, *The World Bank*, pp. 43-77.

Andrig, J. C. and Fjeldstad, O. 2011. Corruption: A Review of Contemporary Research Report, Chr, Michelson Institute of Development Studies and Human Rights.

Andvig, J. C., Fjeldstad, O., Søreide, T., Sissener, T., and Amundsen, I. 2000. *Research on Corruption: A policy oriented survey*. Bergen/Oslo.

Anechiarico, F. and Jacobs, J. 1996. The Pursuit of Absolute Integrity: How Corruption Control Makes Government Ineffective (London: University of Chicago Press)

Ângelo Miguel Rodrigues Cabral and Fernando Manuel Pereira de Oliveira Carvalho, 2014. Emotional Intelligence and Ethics on Organizations. *Open Journal of Business and Management* 2, 5-23.

Animasaun, R. A. 2005. Measured effect of emotional intelligence education in the remediation of aggressive behaviours among the members of National Road Transport Association (NURTW). University of Ibadan: (Mimeograph).

Antoniou, A.S., Polychroni, F., and Kotroni, C. 2009. Working with students with special educational needs in Greece: Teachers' stressors and coping strategies. International *Journal of Special Education*, 24(1), 1100-111

Appleby, G., Leadbeter, P., Lockett, P., Long, H., Oster, C., Turnbull, D., Williams, J and Zajac, I. 2014. Survey on Attitudes to Corruption, Misconduct and Maladministration in the Local Government Context Survey Report

Aremu A. O. and Tejumola T. O. 2008. Assessment of Emotional Intelligence among Nigeria Police. *Journal of Social Science,* 16.3: 221-226

Aremu, A. O., Pakes, F and Les, J. 2009a. Locus of Control and Self-Efficacy as means of tackling Police Corruption in Nigeria. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*. 11. 1. (England).

Aremu, A.O .2014. Policing and Terrorism*:* Challenges and Issues in Intelligence. Ibadan, Stirling-Horden Publishers Ltd.

Aremu, A.O. 2006a. The effect of two psychological intervention programmes on the improvement of interpersonal relationships of Police Officers in Osogbo, Nigeria. *Criminal Justice Studies*, 19.2:139-152.

Aremu, A.O. 2013. The impact of Emotional Intelligence on Community Policing in democratic Nigeria: Agenda setting for National Development. In A. Verma, D.K. Das and M. Abraham (Eds), Global Community Policing: Problems and Challenges. U.S.A: Taylor and Francis Group.

Aremu, A.O., Pakes, F and Les, J. 2009b. The effect of Locus of Control in the reduction of corruption in the Nigerian Police. Policing*: International Journal of Policing strategies and Management,* 32.1:144-156. (England).

Aremu. A.O. 2006b. *The Nigerian Police and Zero Corruption Tolerance: The Function of Emotional Intelligence*. Paper delivered at the 13th Annual Conference of International Sarimsalili, Turkey, May 26-30.

Aremu A.O. 2017. Governance and Public Corruption in Nigeria. In Petter Gottschalk, Perry Stanislas (Ed.), *Public Corruption: Regional and National Perspectives on Procurement Fraud*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press Taylor and Francis, pp. 151-166.

Armantier, O., and Boly, A. 2011. A controlled field experiment on corruption. *European Economic Review,* 55.8:1072-1082

Bakare, A. S. 2011. The crowding-out effects of corruption in Nigeria : *An empirical study*, 2.2: 59–68.

Bandura, A. 1969. Principles of behaviour modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Barker, R.L. 1999. The social work dictionary, 4th edition. Washington, DC: NASW Press.

Baron-Cohen, S. 2003. The Essential Difference: Men, Women and the Extreme Male Brain. London: Penguin Books

Bar-On, R. 1997. Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Technical manual. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.

Bar-On, R. 2002. The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Technical Manual. Toronto, Canada: Multi- Health Systems

Bar-On, R. 2004. The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Rationale, description and summary of psychometric properties. In G. Geher (Ed.), Measuring emotional intelligence: *Common ground and controversy* (pp. 115–145). Hauppage, NY: Nova Science

Bar-On, R. 2006. The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). *Psicothema*, 18:13–25

Barr, A. and Serra, D. 2010. Corruption and culture: An experimental analysis. *Journal of Public Economics,* 94.11:862–869

Bartfai, T. and Schultzberg, M. 1993. Cytokines in neuronal cell types, *Neurochem, Int,* Vol.22, pp.435-444.

Begović, B., Mijatović, B., Sepi, R., Vasović, M., and Vuković, S. 2002. *Corruption at the Customs: Combating Corruption at the Customs Administration*. (B. Begović & B. Mijatović, Eds.), *Center for Liberal-Democratic Studies*.

Behera, A. K. 2016. Understanding Emotional Intelligence in Educational Context Amulya Kumar Behera. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*, 5.2:17– 28

Bello, R. M. 2011. Effectiveness of values Classification Counselling in Minimizing of stud value-conflicts among Secondary School Students. *African review of Arts, Social Science and Edu* 1.1:3–44

Bhattacharyya, S. and Hodler, R. (2010) Natural resources, democracy and corruption. *European Economic Review* 54.4: 608–621

Bonhert, A.M., Cmic, K.A. and Lim, K.G. 2003. Emotional Competence and Aggressive Be- havior in School-Age Children. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 31.1:79-91.

Boone, T. 2003. Values clarification in exercise physiology. *Professionalization of Exercise Physiology*, 6.6:1-5. Retrieved May 26, 2017.

Brackett, M. A., and Mayer, J. D. 2003.Convergent, discriminant, andincremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology*, 29:1147–1158.

Bruce, P. 1966. Three forces in psychology and their ethical and educational implications. *Education Forum*, 30:277-285

Campo, M., Laborde, S., and Mosley, E. 2016. Emotional Intelligence Training in Team Sports The Influence of a Season Long Intervention Program on Trait. *Journal of Individual Differences*, *37*.3:152–158.

Canivel, L. D. 2010. Principals' adversity quotient: Styles, performance and practices. (Master's thesis, University of the Philippines). Retrieved from www.peaklearning.com/documents/PEAK_GRI_canivel.pdf

Cantens, Thomas 2010, "Is it Possible to Reform a Customs Administration? - The Role of the Customs Elite on the Reform Process in Cameroon," United Nations University, World Institute for Development Economics Research, Working Paper 2010/118.

Cantens, Thomas, Gaël Raballand and Samson Bilangna 2010. "Reforming Customs by measuring performance: a Cameroon case study," *World Customs Journal* 4.2:55-74

Caruso R.D. 2004. Applying the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Approach to emotional intelligence. International Test Users' Conference. Melbourn, Australia: 19-20 July.

Caruso, D.R. and Salovey, P. 2004. The emotionally intelligent manager: how to develop and use the four key emotional skills of leadership. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Castro-Schilo, L., and Kee, D.W. 2010. Gender differences in the relationship between emotional intelligence and right hemisphere lateralization for facial processing. *Brain and Cognition* 73(1):62-7

Chamundeswari, S. 2013. Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement among Students at the Higher Secondary Level. Retrieved September 28, 2017

Chao-Ying Shen 2014. The Relative Study of Gender Roles, Job Stress and Adversity Quotient. *The Journal of Global Business Management*. 10(1), 19-32.

Chea, C. C. 2015. Empirical Studies : Corruption and Economic Growth. *American Journal of Economics*, *5*.2:183–188.

Cherniss, C., and Goleman, D. 2001. Training for emotional intelligence: A model. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 209–233). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Chugh, Divyanshi, Psychology of Corruption 2012. Journal: The Learning Curve, Lady Shri Ram College for Women Finalist, Young Psychologist 2012, National Paper Presentation Competition, Christ University, Bangalore, India. Available at SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=2117247

Ciarrochi, J., Scott, G., Deane, F. P. and Heaven, C.L. 2003. Relations between social and emotional competence and mental health: a construct validation study, *Personality and Individual Differences,* 35:1947-1963.

Cohen, G.L., Garcia, J., Apfel, N., and Maseter, A. 2006. Reducing the racial achievement gap: A social-psychological intervention. *American Association for the Advancement of Science*, 313:1307-1310.

Cordis, A and Milyo, J. 2013. Measuring Public Corruption in the United States: Evidence from Administrative Records of Federal Prosecutios, Working Paper, University of Missouri, http://economics.missouri.edu/working-papers/2013/WPI322_milyo.pdf

Cornista, G., and Macasaet, C. 2012. Adversity Quotient and Achievement Motivation of Third Year and Fourth Year Psychology Students of de la Salle Lipa. Retrieved in July, 2015, from: http://www.peaklearning.com/documents/PEAK_GRI_cornista-macasaet.pdf

Cosgrove, J. F. 2016. The Impact of Values Clarification and Expression of Beliefs on Dysfunctional Leadership among Church Lay Leaders. Andrews University

Croson, R., and Gneezy, U. 2009. Gender differences in preferences. *Journal of Economic Literature,* 47.2:448-474

Crowe, H. 2011. The Impact of Political Corruption on Social Welfare in The Federal Republic of Nigeria. University of South Florida.

D' souza, R. 2006. A study of adversity quotient of secondary school students in relation to their school performance and the school climate. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Mumbai). Retrieved from www.peaklearning. com/documents /PEAK_GRI_dsouza.pdf

Dahida, P. D., and Akangbe, M. 2013. Corruption as a Bane for Under-Development in Nigeria : Issues and Challenges. *International Affairs and Global Strategy*, *15*.15:76–84.

Dai, C.-H 2009. "A Study on the Employees' Adversity Quotient, Job Stress and Role Performance in High Technology Industry: Perceived Organizational Support as a Moderator." Unpublished Thesis, National Sun Yat-Sen University,

Daus,C.S., and Ashkanasy,N.M.2003. Will the real emotional intelligence please stand up? On deconstructing the emotional intelligence "debate." *Industrial–Organizational Psychologist*, 41:69–72

Day, A.L., and Carroll, S.A. 2004. Using an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence to predict individual performance group performance and group citizenship behaviours. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 36, 1443-1458

Debt Management Office Nigeria. 2019. Nigeria's Public Debt Portfolio as at March 31, 2019

Deesom, N. 2011 The Result of A Positive Thinking Program to The Adversity Quotient of Matthayomsuksa VI Students International Conference on Social Science and Humanity. IPEDR vol.5 IACSIT Press, Singapore.

Deniz, S. 2013. The relationship between emotional intelligence and problem solving skills in prospective teachers. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 8.24:2339–2345.

Dewey, J. 1939. Theory of valuation. Chicago, IL : University of Chicago Press .

Diana Vivanti Sigit, Ade Suryanda, Etih Suprianti and Ilmi Zajuli Ichsan. 2019. The Effect of Adversity Quotient and Gender to Learning Outcome of High School Students. *International Journal of Innovative Technology and Exploring Engineering* (IJITEE) 8(6) 34-37

Dimant, E., and Tosato, G. 2017. Causes and Effects of Corruption : What Has Past Decade ' S Empirical Research Taught Us ? A Survey. *Journal of Economic Survey*, *00*(0), 1–22.

Dimant, E., Krieger, T. and Meierrieks, D. 2013. The effect of corruption on migration, 1985–2000. *Applied Economics Letters* 20.13:1270–1274

Dimant, E., Krieger, T. and Redlin, M. 2015. A crook is a crook . . . but is he still a crook abroad? On the effect of immigration on destination-country corruption. *German Economic Review* 16.4:464–489.

Dohmen, J. 1996. De Vriendenrepubliek. Nijmegen: Sun.
Dollar, D., R. Fisman and R. Gatti 2001. 'Are Women Really the Fairer Sex? Corruption and Women in Government', *Journal of Economic Behaviour and Organization*, 46:423-29.

Druskat, R, Sala, Y and Mount, K 2006. Relations of emotional intelligence.

Duckelt, E. and M. Raffalli. 1989. Taking care, maintaining the self and the home in adolescents. *J. Youth and Adolescence*. 18(6), 549

Eckel, C. C., and Grossman, P. J. 2008. Differences in the economic decisions of men and women: Experimental evidence. Handbook of experimental economics results, 1, 509-519.

Eisenberg, Nancy. 2000. Emotion, Regulation, and Moral Development. *Annual Review of Psychology* 51(1):665-97

Enriquez, J. 2009. The effect of a mentoring program on the AQs of college freshmen Retrieved from http://www.peaklearning.com/documents /PEAK _GRI enriquez pdf

Esarey, J. and G. Chirillo 2013. '"Fairer Sex" or Purity Myth? Corruption, Gender, and Institution- al Context', *Gender and Politics*, 9.4:390-413.

Essien, J. Meshack, A. and Ekong, E. 2005. Effectiveness of a situationally-based HIV risk-reduction intervention for the Nigerian Uniformed Services on readiness to adopt condom use with casual partners. *Counselling, Psychotherapy, and Health*, 1.1: 19–30.

Extremera, N. and Fernández-Berrocal, P. 2005. Perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction: Predictive and Incremental validity using the Trait Meta-mood Scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 39: 937-948.

Extremera, N., and Fernández-Berrocal, P. 2009. Test de Inteligencia Emocional de Mayer Salovey Caruso. [Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test]. Madrid: TEA.

Faboyede, O. S. 2009. Corruption and the Crisis of Institutional Reforms in Nigeria: A Forensic Accounting Perspective. *Journal of National Development Studies* No. 2 August

Fagerlin, Pignone, Abhyankar, Col, Feldman-stewart, Gavaruzzi, Kryworuchko, Levin, Pieterse, and Reyna 2012. Clarifying values: an updated review. *BMC Medical Informatics and Decision Making* 2013 13(Suppl 2):S8

Faloore, O. O. 2010."The Family and Corruption Management in Nigeria", *Journal of Social and Policy* Issues, vol. 7.2:84 – 89

Farrelly, D., and Austin, E. J. 2007. Ability EI as an intelligence? Associations of the MSCEIT with performance on emotion processing and social tasks and with cognitive ability. *Cognition and Emotion, 21*(5), 1043–1063

Feldman-Stewart, D., Brennenstuhl, S., Brundage, M. D., and Roques, T. 2006. An explicit values clarification task: Development and validation [Electronic version]. *Patient Education and Counseling,* 63:350-356.

Fernández-Berrocal, P., Alcaide, R., Extremera, N. and Pizarro, D. 2006. The role of emotional intelligence in anxiety and depression among adolescents. *Individual Differences Research*, 4.1:16-27

Ferreira, C, Engelschalk, M and Mayville, W 2007, 'The challenge of combating corruption in customs administrations', in J Campos and P Sanjay (eds), The many faces of corruption: tracking vulnerabilities at the sector level, World Bank, Washington, DC, pp. 367-86

Ferrer, M. 2009. Relationship of Personal Characteristics, Leadership Styles, and Job Satisfaction to Adversity Quotient of Academic Heads of selected State Colleges and Universities in the National Capital Region. Retrieved from Peak Learning, Inc. website: http://www.peaklearning.com/aq-_researchers_research_completed.php

Francis, R. 2002. Ethics and corporate governance and in Australia. Sydney: Law Book Company.

Frank, B., J. G. Lambsdorff and F. Boehm 2011. 'Gender and Corruption: Lessons from Laboratory Corruption Experiments', *European Journal of Development Research*, 23:59-71.

Freud, S. 1933/1964. New introductory lectures on psychoanalysis. In Standard edition (Vol. 22)

Fritz, M. R. 2015. Florida State University Libraries Knowing Their Values : A Phenomenological Study Examining Undergraduate Leadership Students ' Values Clarification. Florida State University.

Fritz, M. R., and Guthrie, K. L. 2017. Values clarification : Essential for leadership learning. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 47–63.

Gambetta, D. 1993. The Sicilian Mafia. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Gardner, H. 1993. Frames of mind (10th anniversary ed.). New York, NY: Basic Books

Giaconia, R. M. and Hedges, L.V. 1982. Identifying features of effective open education. *Review of School educational Research* 55:579-602.

Gil-Olarte, P., Palomera, R. and Brackett, M.A. 2006. Relating emotional intelligence to social competence and academic achievement among high school students. *Psicothema*, 18:118-123

Global Corruption Report. 2013. Transparency International. http://www.transparency.org/publications/gcr (accessed Nov, 2017).

Global Witness 2009, A disharmonious trade: China and the continued destruction of Burma's northern frontier forests, Global Witness, London, viewed 1 August

2012, www.globalwitness.org/library/ disharmonious-trade-china-and-continued-destruction-burmas-northern-frontier-forests.

Goel, R.K. and Nelson, M.A. 2010. Causes of corruption: history, geography and government. *Journal of Policy Modeling* 32.4:433–447

Goetz Anne-Marie, 2004, "Political Cleaners: How Women are the New Anti-Corruption Force. Does the Evidence Wash?

Goldenberg, I., Matheson, K., and Mantler, J. 2006. The assessment of emotional intelligence: A comparison of performance-based and self-report methodologies. *Journal of Personality Assessment,* 86(1), 33-45

Goleman, D. 1995. Emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam.

Goleman, D. 1998. (Ed). Working with emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam Books Henderson,

Goleman, D., 2001. The Art of Meditation. Audiobook 2CD. New York: Macmillan Audio.

Gong, T., and Wang, S. 2012. Indicators and Implications of Zero Tolerance of Corruption : The Case of Hong Indicators and Implications of Zero Tolerance of Corruption : The Case of Hong Kong. *Social Indicator Research*, 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-012-0071-3

Grant Marion. 2013. Australian Customs and Border Protection Service. *World Custom Journal*, 7.2:127–130

Gribbons, Barry and Herman, Joan 1997. True and quasi-experimental designs. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 5(14) 1-3.

Grove, W. A., Hussey, A., and Jetter, M. 2011. The gender pay gap beyond human capital: Heterogeneity in non-cognitive skills and in labor market tastes. J*ournal of Human Resources*, 46.4:827–874

GTZ 2005. Handbook "Making PRSP Inclusive". [Online] Available: http://www.making-prsp-inclusive.org/uploads/media/Making_PRSP_Inclusive_311008_E.pdf.

Haidt, J. 2001. The emotional dog and its rational tail: A social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological Review,* 108, 814-834.

Hall, B. 1973. Values clarification as a learning process: a guidebook. New York: Paulist Press.

Haller, H. 2005. Adversity and Obstacles in the Shaping of Prominent Leaders a Hermeneutic Phenomenological Inquiry. Dissertation of the Gonzaga University.

Retrieved in September 2017 from http://www.peaklearning. com/documents /PEAK_GRI_haller.pdf

Harris P.R., and Napper, L., 2005. Self-affirmation and the biased processing of threatening health risk information. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31:1250-1263.

Heath, J. 2008. Business Ethics and Moral Motivation: A Criminological Perspective, *Journal of Business Ethics,* 83:595-614.

Heywood, P. 2017. "Rethinking Corruption: Hocus-pocus, Locus and Focus". Slavonic and East European Review. Vol. 95. No. 1.

Höffling, C. 2002. Korruption als Soziale Beziehung. Opladen: Leske+Budrich

Hofstee, W. K. B. 2001. Personality and intelligence: Do they mix? In J. M. Collis & S. Messick (Eds.), Intelligence and personality: Bridging the gap in theory and measurement (pp. 43 – 60). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hors, I 2001. Fighting corruption in customs administration: what can we learn from recent experiences?, Technical Paper No. 175, OECD, Paris.

Huberts, L., Kaptein M., and Lasthuizen, K. 2004. Leadership and Integrity Violations at Work: A Study on the Perceived Impact of Leadership Behavior on Integrity Violations within the Dutch Police Force. Paper presented at IRSPM VIII, Budapest.

Huijuan, Z. 2009. "AQ and academic performance among college students" Retrieved in July, 2015 from: http://www.peaklearning.com/documents/ PEAK_ GRI_ huijuan.pdf

Igborgbor, G. C. 1984. Comparison of Value Clarification and Contingency Management Techniques in the treatment of Truancy. Unpublished PhD. Dissertation in University of Ibadan.

Igwe, S. C. 2010. How Africa underdeveloped Africa. Port Harcourt: Professional Printers and Publishers.

Jaeger, A. J. 2003. Job competencies and the curriculum: An inquiry into emotional intelligence in graduate professional education. *Research in Higher Education*, 44:615- 639.

Jausovec, N., and Jausovec, K. 2005. Sex differences in brain activity related to general and emotional intelligence. *Brain and Cognition*, 59(3), 277-286

Johnson, V. 2005. "Emotional Intelligence: Are Successful Leaders Born Or Made?" The Business Review, *Cambridge* 3.2:21-26.

Justesen, M. K., and Bjørnskov, C. 2014. Exploiting the poor: Bureaucratic corruption and poverty in Africa. *World Development*, 58:106-115

Kafetsios, K., 2004, "Attachment and emotional intelligence abilities across the life course". *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37(1): 129-145.

Kanjanakaroon, J. 2011. Relationship between adversity quotient and self-empowerment of students in schools under the jurisdiction of the Office of the Basic Education Commission. *International Journal of Learning*, 18:349-360

Kanter, J. W., Manos, R. C., Bowe, W. M., Baruch, D. E., Busch, A. M. and Rusch, L. C. 2010. What is behavioral activation?: A review of the empirical literature. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 30:608-620

Karimu, O. O. 2016. Corruption in Nigeria : Theoretical Explanation. *Issues in Social Science*, *4*.1:56–68.

King, M. 1999. Measurement of differences in emotional intelligence of preservice educational leadership students and practicing administrators as measured by the multifactor emotional intelligence scale. Dissert. Abst. Int. 60(3): 606.

Kinnier, R. T. 1995. A Reconceptualization of Values Clarification: Values Conflict Resolution. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, *74*(1), 18–24. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.1995.tb01817.x

Kirschenbaum, H. (2013). Values Clarification in Counselling and Psychotherapy (Oxford Uni). 198 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10016.

Kirschenbaum, H. 1976. Clarifying values clarification: Some theoretical issues and a review of research [Electronic version]. *Group and Organizational Management*, 1.1:99-116.

Kirschenbaum, H., Harmin, M., Howe, L., and Simon, S. B. 1977. In defense of values clarification *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 58.10:743-746.

Klemencic, Goran and Janez Stusek 2007. Specialised Anti-Corruption Institutions, Review of Models, OECD.

Klitgaard, R 1998, Controlling corruption, University of California Press, Berkeley, CA

Kohlberg, L. 1968. The child as a moral philosopher. *Psychology Today*, 2.4:24–30.

Konie, G., 2003. National Reconciliation, The Post; A Zambian Newspaper, Wed. July 23. No. 2471, pp: 11

Korhonen, I. 2004. Does democracy cure a resource curse? Bank of Finland Institute for Economies in Transition.

Laborde, S., Dosseville, F., and Allen, M. S. 2015. Emotional intelligence in sport and exercise: A systematic review. Scan- dinavian *Journal of Medicine and Sciences in Sports*.

Lane,M 1998. 'Custom Modernisation and The International Trade Superhighway' Westport,Conn.:Quorum Books

Lawal, F. A., Ayoade, O. E., and Taiwo, A. A. 2016. Promoting Gender Equality and Women ' s Empowerment for Sustainable Development in Africa. *3rd International Conference on African Development Issues(CU-ICADI 2016)*, 354–360

Lazaro-Capones, A. 2004. Adversity quotient and the performance level of selected middle managers of the different departments of the City of Manila as revealed by the 306-degree feedback system. Retrieved from Peak Learning, Inc. website: http://www.peaklearning.com/documents /PEAK_GRI_capones.pdf

Le, Tuan Minh 2007. "Combating Corruption in Revenue Administration: an Overview," in J. Edgardo Campos and Sanjav Pradhan. The Many Faces of Corruption: *Tracking Vulnerabilities at the Sector Level*, pp. 335-338

Lefcourt, H. M. 1992. Durability of impact of the locus of control construct. *Psychological Bulletin,* 112:411-414.

Leite, C.A. and Weidmann, J. 1999. Does Mother Nature corrupt? Natural resources, corruption, and economic growth. Natural Resources, Corruption, and Economic Growth (June 1999). IMF Working Paper 85.

Levin, M. E., Hildebrandt, M. J., Lillis, J., and Hayes, S.C. 2012. The impact of treatment components suggested by the psychological flexibility model: A meta-analysis of laboratory-based component studies. *Behaviour Therapy*, 43, 741-756.

Lin, C. H. 2001. Adversity Management, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment among Taiwanese Franchiser Managers, Changhua: Da-yeh University.

Linehan, M. M. 1993a. Cognitive-behavioural treatment of borderline personality disorder. New York, NY: Guilford Press; 1993.

Liu, X.Z. 2016. A Literature Review on the Definition of Corruption and Factors Affecting the Risk of Corruption. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 4:171-177

Livingstone, H., and Day, A. I. 2005. Comparing the construct and criterion-related validity of ability-based and mixed-model measures of emotional intelligence. *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* 65(5), 851-873.

Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., and Straus, R. 2003. Emotional intelligence, personality and the perceived quality of social relationships. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35:641-658.

Lopes, P.N., Salovey, P., Côté, S. and Beers, M. 2005. Emotion regulation ability and the quality of social interaction. *Emotion*, 5; 113-118.

Lumley, M., Gustavson, B., Partridge, T., and Labouvie-Vief, G. 2005. As- sessing alexithymia and related emotional ability constructs using mul- tiple methods: interrelationships among measures. Emotion, 5, 329- 342

Mackenzie, M. R., and Fritz, R. 2015. Florida State University Libraries Knowing Their Values : A Phenomenological Study Examining Undergraduate Leadership Students. Values Clarification. Florida State University.

Maddi, S. R., and Kobasa, S. C. 1991. The development of hardiness. In A. Monat and R. S. Lazarus (Eds.), Stress and coping: An anthology (3rd ed., pp. 245-257). New York: Columbia University Press

Maiquez, R., Preolco, A., Sausa, L., and Talatagod, K. 2015. Predictive Ability of Emotional Intelligence and Adversity Quotient on Academic Performance of USC College Students Retrieved from http://www.peaklearning. com/documents/ PEAK_GRI_sauza.pdf

Management Systems International (MSI) 2006, Customs reforms in the Philippines: improving efficiency, effectiveness and anti-corruption outcomes, MSI, Washington, DC, viewed 1 August 2017.

Mandell, B. and Pherwani, S. 2003. Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership Style: A Gender Comparison, *Journal of Business and Psychology,* Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 387-404

Maraichelvi, A. and Rajan, S. 2013. The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and the Academic Performance among Final Years under Graduates. Journal of Psychology. 1(2), pp. 41 – 45

Marc R. Nuwer, 1988. Quantitative EEG: I. Techniques and Problem of Frequency Analysis and Topographic Mapping, *Journal of Clinical Neurophysiology*, Vol.5.1:1-43.

Marquette, H., and C. Peiffer. 2015. "Corruption and Collective Action". Developmental Leadership Programme Research Paper. University of Birmingham

Maslow, A. H. 1959. Psychological data and value theory. In A. H. Maslow (Ed.), *New knowledge in human values* (pp. 119-136). New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Matthews, G., Zeidner, M. and Roberts. R. D. 2002. Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth (Cambridge, MA: MIT Press).

Mauro. P. 1997. "Why Worry About Corruption?" International Monetary Fund Economic Issues 6.

Mayer, J.D., and Geher, 1996. Emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion. *Intelligence*, 22, 89–113.

Mayer J, Salovey P, and Caruso DR 2000a. Emotional intelligence as zeitgeist, as personality, and as a mental ability. In Bar-On, R, & J. D. Parker (Eds.), The handbook of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace, (pp 92-117). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Mayer JD, Caruso D, Salovey P 2000b. Emotional Intelligence Meets Traditional Standards for an Intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27: 267-298.

Mayer, J. D. and Salovey, P. 1995. Emotional intelligence and the construction and regulation of feelings. *Applied & Preventive Psychology*, 4:197-208.

Mayer, J. D.,and Salovey, P. 1997. What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey and D. Sluyter (Eds.), Emotional development and emotional intelligence: *Implications for educators* (pp. 3–31). New York: Basic.

Mbekeani, K.K 2010. 'Infrastructure, trade expansion and regional integration: global experience and lessons for Africa', *Journal of African Economies*, 19.1:88-113

McAndrews, T. 2001. "Zero Tolerance Policies." ERIC Digest 146. Washington, DC: ERIC

McKenzie, N and Baker, R 2012, 'Customs officers probed', The Age, 28 March, viewed 1 August 2012, www.theage.com.au/national/customs-officers-probed-20120327-1vwmq.htm

McLinden, G 2005, 'Integrity in Customs', in Luc De Wulf & J Sokol (eds), Customs modernization handbook, World Bank, Washington, DC, pp. 67-90.

McPheat, S. 2010. "Emotional Intelligence," MTD Training & Ventus Publishing ApS, U.K

Melnykovska, I. and J. Michailova 2009. 'Gender, Corruption and Sustainable Growth in Transi- tion Countries', *Journal of Applied Economic Sciences*, 4.3:387–407

Merriam-Webster Dictionary 2013. Theft. Retrieved April, 2013 from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/thef

Mesmer-Magnus J., Viswesvaran C.,. Deshpande S. P., and Joseph J. 2010. Emotional Intelligence, Individual Ethicality, and Perceptions that Unethical Behavior

Facilitates Success," *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Or- ganizaciones*, Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 35-45.

Michael, Bryane and Mariya Polner 2008, "Fighting Corruption on the Transdnistrian Border: Lessons from Failed and New Successful Anti-Corruption Programmes," *Transition Studies Review* 15.3:524-541.

Miller, D. M., Brownell, M. T., and Smith, S. W. 1999. Factors that predict teachers staying in, leaving, or transferring from the special education classroom. *Exceptional Children*, 65: 201–218.

Mills, A. 2012. Causes of corruption in public sector institutions and its impact on development.

Mitchell, K. 2011. "Zero Tolerance, Imperialism, Dispossession." ACME: *An International E Journal for Critical Geographies* 10, no. 2: 293–312.

Mohammed, U. 2013. Corruption in Nigeria : A Challenge To Sustainable Development In The Fourth Republic. *European Scientific Journal*, *9*.4:118–137.

Mohtadi, H., Roe, T., 2003. "Democracy, rent seeking, public spending and growth." *Journal of Public Economics* 87: 445-466.

Moody-Stuart, G. 1997. Grand Corruption, Oxford: World View Publishing.

Morrill, R. L. 1980. Teaching values in college. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers

Mosconi, J., and Emmett, J. 2003. Effects of a values clarification curriculum on high school students' definitions of success [Electronic version]. *Professional School Counseling*, 7.2: 68-78.

National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), 2001: Zero Tolerance and Alternative Strategies: A Fact Sheet for Educators and Policymakers *www.naspcenter.org*

National Bureau of Statistics, 2012. 'The Nigerian Poverty Profile 2010 report', Abuja,

National Bureau of Statistics, 2018. 'The Nigerian Unemployment Profile 2018 report', Abuja,

Ndokwu, J.N 2004: Corruption, corrupt practices and honest leadership in Nigeria. http:/www.corruption,newscorrupt.org/printer

Ndonga Dennis. 2013. Managing the risk of corruption in Customs through single window systems. *World Custom Journal*, *7*.2:23–38..

Nelson, B. 1949. The Idea of Usury: From Tribal Brotherhood to Universal Otherhood. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Neuman Allen, K., and Friedman, B. D. 2010. Affective learning: A taxonomy for teaching social work values. *Journal of Social Work Values and Ethics*, 7(2).

Newburn, T., and T. Jones. 2007. "Symbolizing Crime Control: Reflections on Zero Tolerance." *Theoretical Criminology* 11, no. 2: 221–43.

Newstrom, J. W., and Ruch, W. A. 1975. The ethics of management and the management of ethics. *MSU Business Topics* 31: 29-37

Ngwakwe, Ezenwa C. 2009. An analysis of Jurisdiction tuitions in Nigeria 2009 in Anti-corruption reforms in Nigeria since 1999: Issues, Challenges and the way forward, *IFRA special Research* Vol. 3,

Ngwube, A., and Okoli, C. 2013. The Role of the Economic Financial Crime Commission in the Fight against Corruption in Nigeria. *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences*, *4*.1:92–107.

Nnaemeka CA, Chukwuemeka AFO, Tochukwu MO and Chiamaka OJA. 2015. Corruption and Insecurity in Nigeria: A Psychosocial Insight. *Journal of Political Science Public Affairs* S1: 003.

Nwadinigwe, I. and Azuka-Obieke, U. 2012. The impact of emotional intelligence on academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Lagos, Nigeria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy* 3.4:395-401

O'Boyle, E. H., Humphrey, R. H., Pollack, J.M., Hawery, T. H. and Story, P. A. 2011. 'The rela- tion between emotional intelligence and job performance: a meta-analysis', *Journal of Organizational Behaviour,* 32.5:788–818.

O'Connor, R.M. Jr., and Little, I.S. 2003. Revisiting the predictive validity of emotional intelligence: Self-report versus ability-based measures. *Personality & Individual Differences*, 35:1893-1902.

Ocheje, P. D. 2001. Law and social change: A socio- legal analysis of Nigeria's Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Act, 2000. *Journal of African Law*, 45.2:173-195.

Odo, L. U. 2015. The Impact and Consequences of Corruption on the Nigerian Society and Economy. *International Journal of Arts Nd Humanities*, *4*.13:177–190.

OECD 2014, OECD Foreign Bribery Report: An Analysis of the Crime of Bribery of Foreign Public Officials, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264226616-en

OECD 2015. Baseline study four: Gold trading and export in Kampala, Uganda, 9th Multi-stakeholder forum on responsible mineral supply chains, 4-6 May 2015, Paris, France, accessed online on 11 March 2016 at: www.oecd.org/daf/inv/mne/Gold-Baseline-Study-4.pdf

Ofole, N., and Ajibola, F. 2011. Impact of Emotional Intelligence Training on Modifying Hiv Risk Perception of Road Safety Personnel in Imo State ,. *Ozean Journal of Social Sciences*, *4*.1: 11–21.

Ofole, N.M. 2010. Effectiveness of Emotional Intelligence and cognitive restructuring therapies on HIV -Risk-Perception and attitude towards HIV counselling and testing of road safety personnel, Ph.D. Thesis. Department of Guidance and Counselling, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Ogbeidi, M. M. 2012. Political Leadership and Corruption in Nigeria Since 1960 : A Socio-economic Analysis By. *Journal of Nigeria Studies*, *1*.2:1–25.

Ogundokun, M.O and Adeyemo, D.A. 2010. Emotional intelligence and academic achievement; the moderating influence of age, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In: The African Symposium: *An Online Journal of the African Education Research* 20:64-69.

Ogunleye, A. J., and Adebayo, S. O. 2012. Corruption and Development in Nigeria : A. *Global Journal of Human Social Science, Arts and Humanities*, *12*.9:0–6.

Ojalammi, S. 2010, Gender and development in Sub- Saharan Africa. European Regional Development Fund. Accessed at www.winnet8.euget/file on 17.07.18

Okolo, P. O., and Raymond, A. O. 2014. Corruption in Nigeria : The Possible Way Out, *14*(7).

Oliha, J., and Audu, V. 2015. Effectiveness Of Value Clarification And Self-Management Techniques In Reducing Dropout Tendency Among Secondary Schools Students In Edo State. *European Journal of Educational and Development Psychology*, *3*.1:1–13.

Orme, G. and Bar-On, R. 2002. 'The contribution of emotional intelligence to individual and organisational effectiveness', *Competency and Emotional Intelligence*, 9.4:23–8.

Osimen, U. G., Adenegan, S. T., and Balogun, A. 2013. An Assessment of Corruption in the Public Sector in Nigeria : A Study of Akure South Local Government Area , Ondo State. *Canadian Social Science*, *9*.5:87–97.

Oyedele Damilola, 2017, August 10. N30tn: Senate Committee claims firms admitted Complicity in Revenue Loss. *THISDAY Newspapers News,* Retrieved from https://www.thisdaylive.com

Palmer, B., Donaldson, C., and Stough, C. 2002. Emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 33:1091-1100.

Palomera, R. and Brackett, M.A. 2006. Frequency of positive affect as a possible mediator between perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. *Ansiedad y Estrés*, 12.2- 3:231-239

Parker, J.D., Hogan, M.J., Eastabrook, J.M., Oke, A. and Wood, L.M. 2006. Emotional intel- ligence and student retention: Predicting the successful transition from high school to university. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41.7:1329-1336.

Patdo,V 2011. The Adversity Quotient of Parents with Special Children and Adversity Quotient of Parents with Normal Children. Retrived from www.peaklearning.com/documents/peak_GRI_patdo.pdf. on 23/04/11

Perkin, H. 1996. The Third Revolution: Professional Elites in the Modern World. London: Routhledge.

Perkins, D. 1994. Outsmarting IQ: The Emerging Science of Learnable Intelligence, The Free Press, New York, NY.

Peterson, C., Maier, S. F., and Seligman, M. 1993. Learned helplessness: A theory for the age of personal control. London, UK: Oxford University Press.

Petrides, K. V. 2009. Psychometric properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). In C. Stough, D. H. Saklofske, and J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), Assessing emotional intelligence: *Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 85–101). New York, NY: Springer Science.

Petrides, K. V., Frederickson, N. and Furnham, A. 2004. The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behaviour at school. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 36 (2), 277-293.

Petrides, K. V., and Furnham, A. 2000a. Gender differences in measured and self-estimated trait emotional intelligence. *Sex Roles*, 42:449-461.

Petrides, K. V., and Furnham, A. 2000b. On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29:313-320

Petrides, K. V., and Furnham, A. 2001. Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality,* 15:425–448.

Petrides, K. V., and Furnham, A. 2003. Trait emotional intelligence: Behavioural validation in two studies of emotion recognition and reactivity to mood induction. *European Journal of Personality,* 17:39–57.

Polner M. and R. Ireland 2010, Overview of Literature on Corruption, WCO Research Paper No. 7

Pope, Jeremy, ed. 1997. National Integrity Systems: The TI source book. Washington DC: TI and EDI.

Premium Times: 10 August 2017 "Revealed: Despite Leadership Change, Nigerian Customs Remains Riddled with Corruption, Inefficiency" by Ibekwe Nicholas. *Premium Times Nigeria,* Retrieved from https://www.premiumtimesng.com

Preston, N. 1996. Understanding ethics. Sydney: Federation Press.

Pulse: 20 October 2016."Agency Sacks 29 Senior Officers for Alleged Corrupt Practices" by Gbenga Bada. *Pulse*. Retrieved from https://www.pulse.ng
Pulse: 23 January 2017."Nigerian Customs sack 48 top officers for misconduct" by Gbenga Bada. *Pulse*. Retrieved from https://www.pulse.ng

Rai, R. 2014. Comparative Effectiveness of Value Clarification and Role Playing Value Development Models for Selected Values for Primary School Students. *Journal Of Humanities And Social Science*, *19*.1:28–34.

Rath, L., Harmin, M., and Simon, S. 1966. Values and teaching. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Raths, J. D., Pancella, J. R., and Van, N. J. S. 1967. Studying teaching. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall.

Reilly, P. 2005. ''Teaching Law Students How to Feel: Using Negotiations Training to Increase Emotional Intelligence.'' *Negotiation Journal* 21.2: 301–314.

Rivas, M. F. 2013. An experiment on corruption and gender. *Bulletin of Economic Research*, 65.1:10–42

Robins, C. J., and Chapman, A. L. 2004. Dialectical behavior therapy: current status, recent developments, and future directions. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 18:73–89.

Rogers, C. 1961. On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's view of psychotherapy. London: Constable.

Rose-Ackerman, Rose 1978. Corruption. A Study in Political Economy. London/New York: Academic Press.

Rose-Ackerman, S. 1999. Corruption and Government: Causes, Consequences and Reforms. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rose-Ackerman, S and B.J. Palifka. 2016. Corruption and Government: Causes, Consequences and Reform. 2nd Edition. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge and New York (NY).

Rothstein, H. R. 2008. Publication bias as a threat to the validity of meta-analytic results. *Journal of Experimental Criminology,* 4:61–81

Rotter, J.1966. Generalized expectancies for internal versus external locus of control of reinforcement, *Psychological Monographs*, 81.1:609.

Rowe, M., and Bendersky, C. 2002. Workplace justice, zero tolerance and zero barriers: Getting people to come forward in conflict management systems. In T. Kochan & R. Locke (Eds.), Negotiations and change, from the workplace to society. Cornell University Press.

Roxburgh, S. 1996. Gender differences in work and well-being: Effects of exposure and vulnerability. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 37*(3), 265–277

Rusch, J. 2016. The Social Psychology of Corruption. Proceedings of 2016 OECD Integrity Forum, Fighting the Hidden Tariff: Global Trade Without Corruption, April 19-20, 2016, Paris, France.

Saarni, C. 1999. The development of emotional competence. New York: Guilford Press.

Sachdev, P. 2011. Effectiveness of an Intervention Programme to Develop Adversity Quotient® of Potential Leaders, Retrieved from http://www.peaklearning. com/documents/PEAK_GRI_pritiSachdev.pdf

Sachs, J.D. and Warner, A.M. 1997. Sources of slow growth in African economies. *Journal of African Economies* 6.3:335–376

Safitri AN, Junkiati D and Masriah M. 2018. Students ' Relational Understanding in Quadrilateral Problem Solving Based on Adversity Quotient. *J Phys Conf Ser*.;947:1–6

Salevoy, P., and Sluyter, D. J. (Eds.). 1997. Emotional development and emotional intelligence. New York: Basic books.

Salovey P., and Grewal D. 2005. The science of Emotional Intelligence, Current Directions in Pschological Science, Yale University, USA, pg: 281-285.

Salovey, P., and Mayer, J. D. 1990. Emotional intelligence. Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9:185–211.

Sandhu, P., and Mehrotra, N. 1999. Time pattern of female students with special reference to leisure time activities. *Indian Journal of Social Research*. 40(4), 285-296.

Schinkel, W. 2004. The Will to Violence. *Theoretical Criminology*, 8, 5-31.

Schulze, G. and Frank, B. 2003. Deterrence versus intrinsic motivation – Experimental evidence on the determinants of corruptibility. *Economics of Governance* 4.2:143–160.

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J., Bobik, C., Coston, T., Greeson, C., Jedlicka, C., and Wendorf, G. 2001. Emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 2001, 141:523-536.

Seligman, M.E.P. 1995. Learned Helplessness: A Theory for the Age of Personal Control, Oxford Univ Pr. Shen,
Shen, C. 2014. The Relative Study of Gender Roles, and Job Stress and Adversity Quotient. *The Journal of Global Business Management*, *10*(1), 19–32.

Shivaranjani. 2014. Adversity Quotient: One Stop Solution to Combat Attrition Rate of Women in Indian Sector. *International Journal of Business and Administration Research Review*, *1*.2347:181–189.

Sigit, D. V., Suryanda, A., Suprianti, E., and Ichsan, I. Z. 2019. The effect of adversity quotient and gender to learning outcome of high school students. *International Journal of Innovative Technology and Exploring Engineering*, *8*(6 C2), 34–37.

Simon, S. B., and deSherbinin, P. 1975. Values clarification: It can start gently and grow deep [Electronic version]. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 56.10:679-683.

Simon, S. B., Howe, L. W., and Kirschenbaum, H. 1978. Values clarification: A handbook of practical strategies for teachers and students (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Hart Publishing Company, Inc.

Singer, S. D., and Hensley, C. 2004. Applying social learning theory to childhood and adolescent fire-setting: Can it lead to serial murder? *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 48:461.

Singh, D. 2002. Emotional Intelligence at Work: A Professional Guide. Sage Publications: New Delhi.

Skiba and Knesting, 2002. Zero tolerance, zero evidence: An analysis of school disciplinary practice. *New directions for youth development*, 92, 17-43.

Skiba, R. J., & Rausch, M. K. (\2006). Zero tolerance, suspension, and expulsion: Questions of equity and effectiveness. In C. M. Evertson, & C. S. Weinstein

(Eds.), Handbook of Classroom Management: Research, Practice, and Contemporary Issues. Mahwah, NH: Lawrence Erlbaum

Slaski, M., and Cartwright, S. 2003. Emotional intelligence training and its implications for stress , health and performance. *Stress and Health*, *19*:233–239.

Sluijsmans, D., Dochy, F. and Moerker, K.E. 1999. Creating a learning environment by using self-peer and co assessment, learning. *Environment Research*, 1:293-319.

Solis, D. B., and Lopez, E. R. 2015. Stress Level and Adversity Quotient among Single Working Mothers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, *3*.5:72–79.

Sternberg, R.J. 1996. Successful Intelligence, Simon - Schuster, New York, NY.

Stoltz, P.G. 1998. The adversity response profile. California: Peak Learning.
Stoltz, P. G. 1999. Adversity Quotient turning Obstacles into opportunities. John Wiley & Sons Inc., Canada.

Stoltz, P. G., 2010. Adversity Quotient at Work: Finding Your Hidden Capacity for Getting Things Done. Wiley Publishers

Stoltz, P. G., and Weihenmayer, E. 2010. The adversity advantage: Turning everyday struggles into everyday greatness: updated with new stories from the seven summits and expedition photographs. New York: Simon & Schuster

Stoltz, P.G. 1997. Adversity quotient: Turning obstacles into opportunities, New York: Wiley.

Stoltz, P.G. 2000a. Adversity quotient at work: Make every day chal1enges the key to your success-Putting the principles of AQ into action. New York: Morrow

Stoltz, P.G. 2000b. The adversity response profile. California: Peak Learning.

Storey, B. 1953. Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Administration of Lagos Town Council.Lagos: Government Printer.

Supardi S. Pengaruh 2016. Adversity Quotient Terhadap Prestasi Belajar. *J Form.* 3(1):61–71.

Sutarso, P. 1999. Gender differences on the emotional intelligence inventory (EQI). Dissert. Abst. Int.

Styrlund, P. 2010. How do we predict who is likely to perform in highly demanding times? AQ provides answers for a global sales team. Retrieved from http://peaklearning.com/about_aq_ studies_adc_php

Sucharow. L 2012. United States and United Kingdom Financial Services Industry Survey July 2012 http://www.labaton.com/en/about/press/upload/US-UK-Financial-Services-Industry-Survey.pdf

Sung, H.-E. 2003 'Fairer Sex or Fairer System? Gender and Corruption Revisited', *Social Forces*, 82.2:703-23.

Swamy, A., S. Knack, Y. Lee, and O. Azfar 2001. 'Gender and Corruption', *Journal of Development Economics,* 64 .1:25–55

Taffee, S. J. 2007. Value clarification ten year later changes and futures as perceived by selected experts. *Dissertation international* 9, 55-82

Tangney, J. P., Stuewig, J., and Mashek, D. 2007. Moral Emotions and Moral Behaviour. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* 58: 345-372.

Tanzi, V. 1998. Corruption around the world: causes, consequences, scope, and cures. Staff Papers- *International Monetary Fund*, pp. 559–594.

Tarar, S 2010, 'Corruption in customs department: an analysis of Klitgaard framework', paper presented at Back to the future, EURAM (European Academy of Management) 2010 Conference, Rome, 19-22

The United Nations Global Progamme against Corruption (UNGPAC, 2012)

Thomas Kochan and Richard Locke. 2002. Workplace Justice, Zero-tolerance and Zero Barriers: Getting People to Come Forward in Conflict Management Systems," with Corinne Bendersky, in Negotiations and Change, From the Workplace to Society, (editors), Cornell University Press,

Thory, K. 2013. Teaching managers to regulate their emotions better : insights from emotional intelligence training and work-based application. *Human Resource Development International*, *16*.1:4–21.

Thory, K. 2016. Developing meaningfulness at work through emotional intelligence training. *International Journal of Training and Development*, *20*.1:58–78.

Tigchelaar, L., and Bekhet, K. E. 2015. The relationship of Adversity Quotient and Personal Demographic Profile of Private Business Leaders in Egypt. *International Journal of Basic and Appliied Research*, *20*.1:403–422.

Torgler, B. and N. T. Valev. 2006. Women and Illegal Activities: Gender Differences and Women's Willingness to Comply over Time. CREMA Working Paper 2006-15, Basel, Center for Research in Economics, Management and the Arts.). http://www.torgler.com/benno/pdf/2006-15.pdf (retrieved 04 July 2018)

Transparency International 1999-2018. "Corruption Index", various series Transparency International, Berlin

Transparency International 2008, Bribe payers' index 2008, Transparency International, Berlin.

Transparency International. 2014a. Curbing Corruption in Public Procurement: *A Practical Guide*, www.transparency.org, 40 pp.

Transparency International. 2014b. Corruption in tax and customs authorities, accessed online on 11 March 2016 at: www.transparency.org/files/content /corruptionqas /Literature_Review_of_Corruption_risks_in_Customs_an d_Tax_2014.pdf

Treisman, D. 2000. The Causes of Corruption: A Cross-National Study. *Journal of Public Economics,* 76:399-457.

Trevino, L. K., and Nelson, K. A. 2009. Managing business ethics: Straight talk about how to do it right (5th edn.). Boston, MA: Wiley.

Tripathi, S. 2011. Use of Adversity Quotient (AQ) in creating strong business leaders of tomorrow (Doctoral thesis, SNDT Women's University). Retrieved from http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/handle/10603/4619

United States Department of State Bureau of Public Affairs. February 3, 2011. http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2836.htm#history (accessed Nov 18, 2017)

United States Government Accountability Office (GAO) 2009, Firearms trafficking: U.S. efforts to combat arms trafficking to Mexico face planning and coordination challenges, GAO, Washington, DC, viewed 1 August 2017, www.gao.gov/new.items/d09709.pdf.

UNODC 2017. *Corruption in Nigeria. Bribery: Public Experience and Response* accessed online on 11 September 2017 at: www.unodc.org/documents /corruption/Publications/2017/ Corruption in Nigeria. Bribery: Public experience and response.pdf.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2018. Human Development Reports, Accessed online 22 December 2018 at; www.hdr.undp.org/2018 Statistical Update

Urra, F. 2007. "Assessing corruption. An analytical review of corruption measurement and its problems: perception, error and utility". Accessed March 15 2017 from http://governance.developmentgateway.org/uploads/media/governance/Assesing %20Corruption.%20Francisc o%20Javier%20Urra.pdf

Van Rijckeghem, C.,and Weder, B., 1997. "Corruption and the Rate of Temptation: Do Low Wages in the Civil Service Cause Corruption?" Working Paper of International Monetary Fund WP/97/73

Van Rooij, Benjamin. 2005. China's War on Graft: Politico-Legal Campaigns Against Corruption in China and Their Similarities to the Legal Reactions to Crisis in the U.S. Pacific Rim Law & Policy Journal 14: 289.

Van Rooy, D. L. and Viswesvaran, C. 2004, 'Emotional intelligence: a meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net', *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 65.1:71–95

Venkatesh, J., Shivaranjani, G., Thenmozhi, S., Balasubramanie, P., and Manjula Gandhi, S. 2014. Adversity Quotient : A Remedial Solution for Women Executives to Deal with Technological changes of Indian Banking Sector. *IJER*, *11*.3:641–649.

Villagonzalo, R. R. 2016. Intelligent Quotient, Emotional Intelligent Quotient, Spiritual Quotient and Adversity Quotient and the Academic Performance of Students. St Lexius College, City of Koronadal.

Waly Wane. 2008. Informal payments and moonlighting in Tajikistan's health sector. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper Series, No. 4555

Warwick, J., and Nettelbeck, T. 2004. Emotional intelligence is …? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37:1091 – 1100.

Wein, Sheldon 2014. *"Exploring the virtues (and vices) of zero tolerance arguments". University of Windsor.* Proceedings of the 2013 OSSA Conference (edited by Dima Mohammed and Marcin Lewiński), Centre for Research on Reasoning, Argumentation, and Rhetoric (CRRAR) Retrieved 1 October 2018

Widdowson, D. 2013. Bordering on corruption : an analysis of corrupt customs practices that impact the trading community. *World Custom Journal*, *7*.2:11–22.

Widyanigrum J and Rachmawati MA 2007. Adversity Intelligence dan Prestasi Belajar Siswa. *J Psikol Proyeksi.* 2(2):107–16

Wilson, K. G., and Murrell, A. R. 2004. Values work in acceptance and commitment therapy: Setting a course for behavioral treatment. In S.C., Hates, V.M. Follette, & M.M. Linehan (eds.), Mindfulness and acceptance: Expanding the congitive-behavioural tradition (pp. 120-151). New York, NY: Guildford Press

Wing, E. and G.D. Love. 2001. Elective Affinities and Uninvited Agonies: Mapping Emotions With Significant Others Onto Health. Emotion, Social Relationships and Health Series in Affective Sci. New York: Oxford Univ. Press.

World Bank 1996 Nigeria: Prospects for Development, Country Operations Division. West Central Africa Department, World Bank

World Bank. 2018. *World Governance Indicators.* Public Sector Management. The World Bank Group

World Customs Organisation (WCO) 1993, Arusha Declaration, Declaration of the Customs Co- operation Council concerning good governance and integrity in Customs, www.wcoomd.org/files/1.%20Public%20files/PDFand Documents /Capacity %20Building/ Integrity/Arusha%20E.pdf.

World Customs Organisation (WCO) 2003, Revised Arusha Declaration, Declaration of the Customs Co-operation Council concerning good governance and integrity in Customs,www.wcoomd.org/files/1.%20Public   %20files/PDFandDocuments/ Declarations/Revised_Arusha_Declaration_EN.pdf

World Data Lab (2019). World Poverty Clock. Vienna, Austria.

World Economic Forum (WEF), 2017. *The Global Competitiveness Report 2016–2017*, accessed online on 11 August 2017 at: www.weforum.org/reports/global-competitiveness-report-2016-2017.

Zhi-hsien, C. V. 2014. A Study Investigating the Influence of Demographic Variables on Adversity Quotient. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning*, *10*.1:22–32.

APPENDIX I

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

Dear Respondent,   CODE NO:

This questionnaire is designed basically for research purpose alone and none of the responses would be used against the respondents. It seeks to know how you would react to these statements, as such, there are no correct or wrong answers. All information provided would be treated confidentially. Please be honest as much as possible in your responses.

Thank you.

Section A:

Gender: Male (   ), Female (   )

Age: _____

Area Command: _____

Rank _____

Section B: ADVERSITY RESPONSE PROFILE
Instructions:
- **Imagine the following events as if they were happening right now.**
- **Vividly imagine what will happen as a result of each event (the consequences)**
- **Circle the numbers that represent your answer to the question below each situation**

1) **You suffer a financial setback.**
   To what extent can you influence this situation?
Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   Completely
2) **You are overlooked for a promotion.**
   To what extent do you feel responsible for improving this situation?
Not responsible   1   2   3   4   5   Completely responsible
3) **You are criticized for a big project that you just completed.**
The consequences of this situation will:
Affect all aspects   1   2   3   4   5   Be limited to this situation
of my life
4) **You accidentally delete a very important E-mail.**

The consequences of this situation will:

Last forever   1   2   3   4   5   Quickly pass

5)   **The high-priority project you are working on gets canceled.**

The consequences of this situation will:

Affect all aspects   1   2   3   4   5   Be limited to this situation
of my life

6)   **Someone you respect ignores your attempt to discuss an important issue.**

To what extent do you feel responsible for improving this situation?

Not responsible   1   2   3   4   5   Completely responsible

7)   **People respond unfavorably to your latest ideas**

To what extent can you influence this situation?

Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   Completely

8)   **You are unable to take a much needed vacation.**

The consequences of this situation will:

Last forever   1   2   3   4   5   Quickly pass

9)   **You hit every red light on your way to an important appointment.**

The consequences of this situation will:

Affect all aspects   1   2   3   4   5   Be limited to this situation
of my life

10) After extensive searching, you cannot find an important document.

The consequences of this situation will:

                    Last forever   1   2   3   4   5   Quickly pass

11) Your workplace is understaffed.

To what extent do you feel responsible for improving this situation?

Not responsible   1   2   3   4   5   Completely responsible

12) You miss an important appointment.

The consequences of this situation will:

Affect all aspects   1   2   3   4   5   Be limited to this situation
of my life

13) Your personal and work obligations are out of balance.

To what extent can you influence this situation?

Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   Completely

14) You never seem to have enough money.

The consequences of this situation will?

                    Last forever   1   2   3   4   5   Quickly pass

15) You are not exercising regularly when you know you should be.

To what extent can you influence this situation?

Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   Completely

16) Your organization is not meeting its project goals.

To what extent do you feel responsible for improving this situation?

Not responsible   1   2   3   4   5   Completely responsible

17) Your computer/phone crashed for the third time this week.

To what extent can you influence this situation?

Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   Completely

18) The meeting you are in is a total waste of time.

To what extent do you feel responsible for improving this situation?

Not responsible   1   2   3   4   5   Completely responsible

19) You lost something that is important to you.

The consequences of this situation will:

                 Last forever   1   2   3   4   5   Quickly pass

20) Your boss adamantly disagrees with your decision.

The consequences of this situation will:

    Affect all aspects   1   2   3   4   5   Be limited to this situation
of my life

Section C: CORRUPTION PROPENSITY SCALE

Please indicate the extent to which you are likely to engage in the following behaviours below in an organization.
Key:
1 = Extremely Unlikely; 2 = Moderately Unlikely; 3 = Slightly Unlikely; 4 = Neutral;
5 = Slightly Likely; 6 =
Moderately Likely; 7 = Extremely Likely

1.	Using organizational services for personal use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Pilfering organizations' materials and supplies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Concealing one's errors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Giving gifts/favours in exchange for preferential treatment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Accepting gifts/favours in exchange for preferential treatment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Falsifying time/quality/quantity reports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Authorizing a subordinate to violate company rules	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Padding an expense account up to 10%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Padding an expense account more than 10%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Divulging confidential information	1	2	3	4	5	6	6
11.	Not reporting others' violations of company policies and rules	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section D: ZERO-TOLERANCE FOR CORRUPTION SCALE
Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statements by selecting one option.

1= Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Undecided, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

S/N	ITEMS	SD	D	U	A	SA
1.	Conduct must be illegal for it to be called corrupt.					
2.	Avoiding procedure is sometimes justifiable to get past bureaucratic red tape.					
3.	If something is done for the right reasons it cannot be called corrupt.					
4.	Every customs officer has an obligation to report corruption					
5.	There is no point in reporting corruption because nothing useful can be done about it.					
6.	People who report corruption are likely to suffer for it					
7.	Most corruption is too trivial to be worth reporting					
8.	I would not know where to go to report corruption.					
9.	People who report corruption are just trouble makers.					
10.	There is no point in reporting corruption because nothing useful will be done about it.					
11.	Corruption is an issue in Nigerian Customs Office					
12.	Corruption is more of an issue in Nigerian Customs Office Zone A than other Zones across Nigeria					
13.	Corruption is more prevalent in my area command than other area commands across Nigeria					

Treatment Package Programmes in Fostering Zero-Tolerance for Corruption among Customs Officers

General Introduction

Objectives: By the end of the sessions the participants should be able to;

- Mention the training goals and objectives.
- Relate the objectives of the programme to their own expectations.
- Understand the importance of participating in the therapeutic programme.
- Understand the concept of corruption.
- Relate the use of therapeutic programme to foster zero-tolerance for corruption effectively

TREATMENT PACKAGE

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 1(Values Clarification Training)

Session 1: General Orientation and Administration of Pre-test

In this session, the researcher warmly welcomed the participants into the programme by engaging in the following objectives and activities.

Objectives: By the end of the session the participants should be able to;

- State training goals and objectives.
- Compare objectives with their own expectations.
- List group norms and ground rules for the training.
- Undertake a pre-testing

Activity

The researcher engaged the participants in;

Step 1: Introductory talk to create the enabling psychological environment for the intervention

Step 2: Rationale for the programme and what the participants stand to benefit at the end of the programme.

Step 3: Benefits derivable from the programme were discussed with participants

Step 4: Guiding principles on the expected conducts of the participants in the course of the programme.

Step 5: Administration of pre-test

Step 6: Regular attendance was emphasized.

Session 2: Meaning, Causes and Effects of Corruption

Objective: At the end of the session, the participants should be able to understand and explain:

- Concept of Corruption

- Identify corrupt behaviours

- Factors that may promote corruption

- Causes and effects of corrupt behaviours

Activity:

Step 1: Participants were welcomed.

Step 2: The researcher reaffirms the participants' commitment to the programme

Step 3: The concept, causes and effect of corruption was discussed.

i.   **Concept of Corruption**

Corruption as expressed by scholars is universal. However, academic focus have not been able to bring a unitary view into its being as the term has been a difficult and daunting challenging venture. Scholars from various fields such as, sociology, political science, law, criminology, psychology and religious studies have attempted a working definition for corruption from their various disciplines. So far, it was observed that corruption means different things to different people depending on the individual´s cultural background, discipline and political leaning (Okolo and Raymond, 2014; Bicchieri and Ganegonda, 2016; Dimant and Schulte, 2016). Nevertheless, the most prominent description share common emphasis on the abuse of entrusted public power or position for personal advantage or gain (United Nations Global Programme against Corruption, 2012; Cordis and Milyo, 2013; Transparency International (TI), 2014).

Within the milieu of customs service, corruption would involve the misuse of power by customs officials for private benefit. Customs corruption has numerous faces. Customs officials participate in diverse forms of corrupt activities which vary from nation to nation and range from acts of extortion, patronage, nepotism, embezzlement, kickbacks and cronyism. Thus, it is difficult to comprehensively expound on all forms of corruption that manifest in customs.

Hors (2001) offers a simple classification of the diverse types of corrupt practices that customs officials may engage in. They are routine, fraudulent and criminal corruption.

Routine Corruption: Corruption of this nature would include customs officials requesting bribes to execute their obligations. A display of such corrupt practices would involve customs officials deferring or delaying the initiation or conclusion of customs procedures until a bribe is offered to them. Another manifestation of routine corruption occurs when customs officials create or threaten to create unwarranted snags in the clearance process.

Fraudulent Corruption: This type of corruption is, in essence, instigated by the clients who seek the customs officials' cooperation in conferring false acts in their favour. It is commonly characterized by misdeclaration, misclassification or erroneous valuation of imports/export'

Criminal Corruption: This form of corruption happens where criminal operators offer bribes to customs officials to enable them to smuggle prohibited substances. Incidences of colluded drug and arms trafficking with customs officials fall under this category.

ii. Underpinnings of corruption

Determining fundamental causes of a problem is the most essential advance in finding the cures. However, discourses about the causes of corruption have tended to clarify how and why corruption occurs rather than distinguish deterministic causes. According to Mills (2012), there are blend of circumstances, dispositions and processes that may be better comprehend as facilitating factors, indicators or conditions that permit or encourage corruption

Institutional Structure: Institutional structure that allows its officials large amounts of discretion will experience higher level of corruption. As officials have the power to

deviate from the rules and the processes, they are able to extract rents by allocating governmental resources differently when bribes are received. For instance, Corruption in customs thrives and depends on the willingness of customs officials to deliver it. Of course, that willingness is itself controlled by various factors. klitgaard (1988), argues that corruption flourishes "when agents have monopoly power over clients, when agents have great discretion, and when accountability of agents to the principal is weak'

Quality of the Bureaucracy: Some researchers have found that the lower the quality of the bureaucracy, the higher the level of corruption (Gupta 2000). Tanzi also points out that in an inefficient bureaucracy, regulations tend to be less transparent (reducing accountability), and that authorizations tend to be given by specific individuals (reducing competition), both these factors suggest higher levels of corruption

Legal System: Some researchers have found that the stronger the rule of law in a country, the lower the level of corruption (Gupta 2000; Dimant and Tosato, 2017). Corrupt officials will have less incentive to extract rents if the probability of getting caught is high or if the penalty is stiff (Treisman 2000).

Level of Competition and Trade Openness: Countries that have higher level of competition in its industrial sectors and high exchange receptiveness are associated with lower level of corruption (Ades, 1999). Countries that are relatively closed and have many governmental interventions like trade restrictions, subsidies, price controls, and foreign exchange limitations and regulations are associated with higher level of corruption (Mauro. 1997).

Public and Private Sector Wage Disparity: Countries with large disparity between public and private sector wages are associated with higher level of corruption (Mauro, 1997; Van Rijckeghem 1997).

Immigration: As Dimant Krieger, and Redlin (2015) point out, immigration from a highly corrupt nation could have an effect on the levels of corruption

Cultural or Social factors: Some researchers have hypothesized that family oriented cultures are more prone to corruption as family members help each other (Mauro, 1997). Other researchers found that high ethno linguistic fractionalization, which measures

societal divisions among ethnic and linguistic lines, are correlated with corruption (Treisman 2000).

iii.   Effects of Corruption in Nigeria

1. **Human Capital:** Higher levels of corruption are associated with lower levels of education, health, socioeconomic development, and hence lower levels of human capital.

2. **Fiscal Deficit:** corruption reduces public income (lower levels of growth, higher levels of inequality) and increases public expenditure (more inefficient spending), it thus follows that it will also increase fiscal deficit.

3. **Brain Drain:** Higher levels of corruption could theoretically increase a country's brain drain problems. Corruption is associated with a number of unfavorable outcomes, which might act as push factors to potential migrants

4. **Political Legitimacy:** A theoretical evaluation by scholars asserts that people determine and value political legitimacy through lack of corruption, lack of discrimination, and the quality of governance (Rothstein, 2008). Thus, corruption undermines such legitimacy.

5. **International Trade:** International trade most often requires some form of publically issued license or permit. In nations with higher levels of corruption, the costs associated with the acquisition of the necessary licenses and permits may be especially high due to the need to pay bribes etc. Thus, it is theorized that higher levels of corruption have a negative effect on levels of international trade.

6. **Income Inequality/ Poverty:** corruption increases income inequality and poverty by lowering growth levels, having a biased tax system, poor quality social programs, education inequality and asset ownership bias (Gupta et al., 2002).

7. **Foreign Direct Investment:** Attempting to invest in a foreign country often requires some form of public permit. In corrupt countries it is more likely that obtaining such a permit may require a form of bribe, thus increasing the cost of engaging in such activities and reducing the overall levels of FDI.

8. **Economic Growth:** Corruption has the potency to reduce economic growth via lower levels of investment, lower quality of investment, higher levels of indirect taxation, and misallocation of resources due to distorted incentives.

9. **Civil and Political Rights:** Theoretically, corruption is believed to affect institutions in such a way that the protection and promotion of human rights is reduced

10. **Business and (local) investment climate:** It has been contended that high levels of corruption will diminish a country's growth levels by affecting the investment climate or investment quality. This can occur due to inefficient public investment, even though investment levels may increase in absolute terms, the absolute productivity may be reduced due to inefficient allocation of funds.

iv.   Effects of Corruption in Customs

1. Fraudulent corrupt activities such as misclassification, undervaluation of imports or even schemed tax avoidance by clients and customs officials directly affect measure of revenue collected (Ndonga, 2007)

2. Imported goods that evade value added tax (VAT) distort domestic price signals causing unfair competition which could force tax compliant producers and importers out of business legitimate business and into the shadow economy (Ferreira, Engelschalk and Mayville 2007). This also means that corrupt practices in customs directly influence the size of a country's informal economy, increase unemployment rates, and thus increasing the fiscal burdens on a country's development prospects

3. The delay strategies utilized by customs officials to request bribes in circumstances of routine corruption directly affect the cost of doing business. Such delays may cause the following; economic losses, force traders to incur additional expenses, deter domestic companies from engaging in international trade and may also drive away Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)

Step 4: The researcher gave room for the participants to express themselves in questions and contributions and gives assignment

Session 3: Discuss the Nature of Values, Goals and Importance of Values Clarification

Objectives: At the end of the session, the participants should be able to understand and explain:

- Definition of values
- The concept and goal of values clarification
- The importance of values clarification exercise

Activity:

Step 1: Participants were welcomed by the researcher

Step 2: The researcher reaffirms the participants' commitment to the programme and review the homework with the participants.

Step 3: The researcher begin by asking the group what they think values are, forming a group definition based on the responses of the participants. The researcher noted each response on newsprint, as well as the final definition. After this, the following teaching activities commenced, explanation of

Values:

"Every day, each one of us meets life situations which call for thought, opinion-making, decision-making, and action. Everything we do, every decision we make and course of action we take, is based on our consciously or unconsciously held beliefs, attitudes, and values." (Simon, et al., 1972). The individual with clearer purposes and directions for his life is one who has explored his own feelings, expectations and emotionally charged values and has shared this information with others. In a time when human relationships are frequently hypocritical and superficial and tolerated rather than enjoyed, full social and emotional development requires a greater understanding of human behaviour and the factors which create and determine that behaviour. Values are described as the ideas and beliefs that defines what is most important to an individual. Values serve as general guides to behaviour and choices. Chosen values emphasize the standards you try to endorse and maintain throughout life.

The concept of values clarification: As the values approach was developed, it was conceptualized as neither sensitivity training nor psychotherapy, but rather a process that provides a learning experience which leads participants to reflect of life and actions as they examine behaviour, ideas, feelings and personal values (Hall, 1973). These values are basically and uniquely accepted by an individual and seems to be at the very center

of one's existence. Raths and colleagues' (1966), defined values in terms of a seven step process by which a person arrives at a valued belief, attitude, activity or feeling. Collectively, they describe the process of valuing. This process later morphed into what is commonly known as the "values clarification". In other words, for a value to result, all of the following seven requirements must apply.

1. Choosing freely: Values must be freely selected if they are to be really valued by the individual.

2. Choosing from among alternatives: Only when a choice is possible, when there is more more than one alternative from which to choose, do we say a value can result.

3. Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative…A value can emerge only with thoughtful consideration of the range of the alternatives and consequences in a choice.

4. **Prizing and cherishing**: We prize and cherish the guides to life that we call values

5. **Affirming:** We are willing to publicly affirm our values. We may even be willing to champion them…

6. **Acting upon choices**…In short, for a value to be present, life itself must be affected. Nothing can be a value that does not, in fact, give direction to actual living…

7. **Repeating**… Values tend to have a persistency, tend to make a pattern in life. (Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966).

Importance of values clarification exercise: A values clarification exercise is a useful and versatile way of working together to explore values and beliefs (Warfield and Manley, 1990). For example, it could be used to explore the values and beliefs that people hold about person-centred care, team working, pain management etc. Facilitators can then use these to create a shared purpose for practice or care. A shared purpose sets the direction; aims; and objectives or goals, helping team members to identify what they want or need to move towards

Step 4: The researcher creates room for the participants to express themselves in questions and contributions and gives assignment.

Step 5: The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 4: Examination and analysis of values, values conflicts and their far-reaching effects on life/work/relationships (Values Clarification Exercise I)

Objectives: At the end of the session, the participants should be able to understand and/or explain;

- What values are?
- Identify three strongly held values
- Identify three strongly rejected values
- Understand what is important to them, what they prize and cherish, and set goals accordingly
- Evaluate the relationship between their values and everyday decisions

Materials:

- **Newsprint**
- **Markers**
- **Sets of group instructions**
- **Forms for Ways of live, Values ranking and Twenty things I like to do**
- **Values Journal**

Activity:

Step 1: The researcher welcome sand reaffirm the participants' and review homework with the participants.

Step 2: The researcher explained to the group that they will be doing an exercise to think about how their values affect their decisions, as well as taking a look at what it is they value. To begin, the researcher would ask each participant to consider their own life style in comparison with thirteen other ways to live. The participants would be given each a

form on which they are thirteen ways to live which various persons, at various times, have advocated and followed. They are to use the following scale and write the numbers in the margin to indicate how much they like themselves or dislike each of these ways to live.

- I like it very much 6. I like it quite a lot 5. I like it slightly 4. I am indifferent to it 3. I dislike it slightly 2. I dislike it quite a lot 1. I dislike it very much

WAYS OF LIFE

WAY 1; In this design for living the individual actively participates in the social life of his community, not primarily to change it but to understand, appreciate, and preserve the best that man has attained. In this life style, excessive desires are avoided and moderation is sought. One wants the good things of life, but in an orderly way. Life is to have clarity, balance, refinement, control. Vulgarity, great enthusiasm, irrational behavior, impatience, indulgence are to be avoided. Friendship is to be esteemed, but not easy intimacy with many people. Life is marked by discipline, intelligibility, good manners, and predictability. Social changes are to be made slowly and carefully, so that what has been achieved in human culture is not lost. The individual is active physically and socially, but not in a hectic or radical way. Restraint and intelligence should give order to an active life.

WAY 2: In this way of life, the individual for the most part goes it alone, assuring himself of privacy in living quarters, having much time to himself, attempting to control his own life. Emphasis is on selfsufficiency, reflection and meditation, knowledge of oneself. Intimate associations and relationships with social groups are to be avoided, as are the physical manipulations of objects and attempts at control of the physical environment. One should aim to simplify one's external life, to moderate desires which depend upon physical and social forces outside of oneself. One concentrates on refinement, clarification, and self-direction. Not much is to be gained by living outwardly. One must avoid dependence upon persons or things; the center of life should be found within oneself.

WAY 3; This way of life makes central the sympathetic concern for other persons. Affection is the main thing in life, affection that is free from all traces of the imposition

of oneself kpon others, or of using others for one's own purposes. Greed in possessions, emphases on sexual passion, striving for power over persons and things, excessive emphasis upon intellect, and undue concern for oneself are to be avoided. These things hinder the sympathetic love among persons which alone gives significance to life. Aggressiveness blocks receptivity to the forces which foster genuine personal growth. One should purify oneself, restrain one's self-assertiveness, and become receptive, appreciative, and helpful in relating to other persons.

WAY 4: Life is something to be enjoyed - sensuously enjoyed, enjoyed with relish and abandonment. The aim in life should not be to control the course of the world or to change society or the lives of others, but to be open and receptive to things and persons, and to delight in them. Life is a festival, not a workshop or a school for moral discipline. To let oneself go, to let things and persons affect oneself, is more important than to do or to do good. Such enjoyment requires that one be self-centered enough to be keenly aware of what is happening within in order to be free for new happiness. One should avoid entanglements, should not be too dependent on particular people or things, should not be self-sacrificing; one should be alone a lot, should have time for meditation and awareness of oneself. Both solitude and sociability are necessary for the good life.

WAY 5: This way of life stresses the social group rather than the individual. A person should not focus on himself, withdraw from people, and be aloof and self-centered. Rather he should merge himself with a social group, enjoy cooperation and companionship, and join with others in resolute activity for the realization of common goals. Persons are social, and persons are active; life should merge energetic group activity and cooperative group enjoyment. Meditation, restraint, concern for one's self-sufficiency, abstract Intellectuality, solitude, stress on one's possessions all cut the roots which bind persons together. One should live outwardly with gusto, enjoying the good things of life, working with others to secure the things which make possible a pleasant and energetic social life. Those who oppose this ideal are not to be dealt with too tenderly. Life can't be too fastidious.

WAY 6: This philosophy sees life as dynamic and the individual as an active participant. Life continuously tends to stagnate, to become comfortable, and to become sickled o'er

with the pale cast of thought. Against these tendencies, a person must stress the need for constant activity - physical action, adventure, the realistic solution of specific problems as they appear, the improvement of techniques for controlling the world and society. Man's future depends primarily on what he does, not on what he feels or on his speculations. New problems constantly arise and always will arise. Improvements must always be made if man is to progress. We can't just follow the past or dream of what the future might be. We have to work resolutely and continually if control is to be gained over the forces which threaten us. Man should rely on technical advances made possible by scientific knowledge. He should find his goal in the solution of his problems. The good la the enemy of the better.

WAY 7: This philosophy ways that we should at various times and in various ways accept something from all other paths of life, but give no one our exclusive allegiance. At one moment one way may be more appropriate; at another moment another is the most appropriate. Life should contain enjoyment and action and contemplation in about equal amounts. When any one way is carried to extremes, we lose something important for our life. So we must cultivate flexibility; admit diversity in ourselves; accept the tension which this diversity produces; find a place for detachment in the midst of enjoyment and activity. The goal of life is found in the dynamic Integration of enjoyment, action, and contemplation, and in the dynamic Interaction of the various paths of life. One should use all of them in building a life, and not one alone.

WAY 8: Enjoyment should be the keynote of life. Not the hectic search for intense and exciting pleasures, but the enjoyment of the simple and easily obtainable pleasures; the pleasures of just existing, of savoring food, of comfortable surroundings, of talking with friends, of rest and relaxation. A home that is warm and comfortable, chairs and a bed that are soft, a kitchen well-stocked with food, a door open to friends - this is the place to live. Body at ease, relaxed, calm in its movements, not hurried, breath slow and easy, a willingness to nod and to rest, gratitude to the world that feeds the body - so should it be. Driving ambition and the fanaticism of ascetic ideals are the signs of discontented people who have lost the capacity to float in the stream of simple carefree, wholesome enjoyment.

WAY 9: Receptivity should be the keynote of life. The good things of life come of their own accord, and come unsought. They cannot be found by resolute action. They cannot be found in the indulgence of the sensuous desires of the body. They cannot be gathered by participation in the turmoil of social life. They cannot be given to others by attempts to be helpful. They cannot be garnered by hard thinking. Rather do they come unsought when the bars of the self are down. When the self has ceased to make demands and waits in quiet receptivity, it becomes open to the powers which nourish it and work through it; sustained by these powers, it knows joy and peace. Sitting alone under the trees and the sky, open to nature's voices, calm and receptive, then can be wisdom from without enter within.

WAY 10: Self-control should be the keynote of life. Not the easy self-control which retreats from the world, but the vigilant, stern, manly control of a self which lives in the world, and knows the strength of the world and the limits of human power. The good life is rationally directed and firmly pursues high ideals. It is not bent by the seductive voices of comfort and desire. It does not expect social Utopias. It is distrustful of final victories. Too much should not be expected. Yet one can with vigilance hold firm the reins of self, control unruly impulses, understand one's place in the world, guide one's actions by reason, maintain self-reliant independence. And in this way, though he finally perish, man can keep his human dignity and respect, and die with cosmic good manners.

WAY 11: The contemplative life is the good life. The external world is no fit habitat for man. It is too big, too cold, too pressing. It is the life turned inward that is rewarding. The rich internal world of ideals, of sensitive feelings, of reverie, of self-knowledge is man's true home. By the cultivation of the self within, man becomes human. Only then does there arise deep sympathy with all that lives, an understanding of the suffering inherent in life, a realization of the futility of aggressive action, the attainment of contemplative joy. Conceit then falls away and austerity is dissolved. In giving up the world, one finds the larger and finer sea of the inner self.

WAY 12; The use of the body's energy is the secret of a rewarding life. The hands need material to make into something; lumber and stone for building, food to harvest, clay to mold. The muscles are alive to joy only in action: in climbing, running, skiing and the

like. Life finds its zest in overcoming, dominating, conquering some obstacle. It is the active deed which is satisfying; the deed that meets the challenge of the present, the daring and the adventuresome deed. Not in cautious foresight, not in relaxed ease does life attain completion. Outward energetic action, the excitement of power in the tangible present - this is the way to live.

WAY 13: A person should let himself be used. Used by other persons in their growth, used by the great objective purposes in the universe which silently and irresistibly achieve their goal. For persons' and the world's purposes are basically dependable and can be trusted. One should be humble constant, faithful, uninsistent. Grateful for affection and protection, but undemanding. Close to persons and to nature, and willing to be second. Nourishing the good by devotion. One should be a serene, confident, quiet vessel and instrument of the great dependable powers which move to fulfill themselves.

Step 3: The researcher distributed to each of the participants the "Values ranking form containing a list of 18 values in alphabetical order. The researcher asked each participants to arrange them in order of their importance to them; as guiding principles in their life. The participants were asked to place "1" next to the value which is most important to them, place a "2" next to the value which is second most important, etc. The value which is least important should be ranked "18."

Values Ranking

_____a comfortable life _____inner harmony

_____an exciting life _____mature love

_____a sense of accomplishment _____national security

_____a world at peace _____pleasure

_____a world of beauty _____salvation

_____equality_____self-respect _____family

security _____social recognition _____freedom

_____true friendship _____happiness _____wisdom

Step 4: Using a form, participants are asked to list 20 things they really like to do. When the lists are completed, the researcher suggests to the participants to use the right side of the form to code their lists in the following manner:

    a. The letter A is to be placed beside those items the participants really prefers to do alone: the letter P next to those activities he prefers to do with other people; and the letters A-P next to activities which he enjoys doing equally alone or with other people.

    b. The letters PL are to be placed next to those items which require planning

    c. The numbers 1 through 5 are to be placed beside the five most IMPORTANT items. The best liked activity should be numbered 1, the second best, 2, and so on

    d. Use the letter R for those things on your list which have an element of risk to them. It can be physical risk, emotional risk, or intellectual risk.

    e. Place the letter U next to any item which you listed which you think other people would tend to judge as unconventional.

Step 5: After the participants finish responding to the three forms**,** the researcher facilitates a discussion of how these activities relate to the values held, and the values rejected.

The researcher would ask some of the following clarifying questions:

How many prefer to do things alone than with others? How many prefer to do things with others than alone? What do you do when you want to do something with someone and there is no one to do it with? Are you a "planner" or a "pick-up-and-goer?" Are you a risk taker? What thoughts and feelings were in your mind as you tried to choose the five MOST important items from your list?

Step 6: To clarify and reinforce the goals of the strategies just completed, participants were asked to think for a minute or two about what they have just learned or relearned or discovered about themselves or their values. The participants were asked to write 3 or more "I learned statements in the Values Journal. They were asked to use any of the following stems to complete statements about their feelings.

I learned that I_____

I relearned that I_____

I noticed that I_____

I discovered that I_____

I was surprised that I_____

I was pleased that I_____

I was displeased that I_____

Step 7: The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again

Session 4: Examination and analysis of values, values conflicts and their far-reaching effects on life/work/relationships (Values Clarification Exercise II)

Objectives: At the end of the sessions, participants should be able to;

- Examine, understand and clarify conflicting values as it relates to life/work/relationships

Materials:

- White sheet of paper
- Pencils
- Values Journal

Activity:

Step 1: The researcher will welcome the participants.

Introduction

Each day, at the office and out of office, it is necessary to make choices between competing alternatives. Some of them are minor decisions while others may be major. However, choosing from alternatives is a necessary element in the process of value development. The following strategies in choice-making demonstrate simply and clearly that many issues require more thoughtful consideration than we tend to give them.

Step 2: The researcher would engage the participants in a designed activity (Forced Choice Ladder) to provide an examination and an analysis of some of the value issues found in the world of works today.

Forced Choice Ladder

Instructions: Draw a ladder with 8 rungs on it. Identify the bottom rung as "weakest feeling - Pro or Con" and the top rung as "strongest feeling - Pro or Con." Eight items will be read to you. Each of these will be identified by a key word. After listening to each item, write the key word on one of the rungs of the ladder according to the strength of your feelings, pro or con, about that item. You may cross out, draw arrows, or make changes as new items are presented.

Note: A brief explanation may be necessary. Say, "Think about how strongly you feel pro or con about the situation, and put the words, on one of the rungs of the ladder. Don't put the items you feel positively about toward one end and the ones that generate negative feelings toward the other. In this exercise you are to rank the items according to the strength of your feelings, regardless of whether they are positive or negative."

1   George is a man who is constantly stressing law and order. He is concerned about the violence and law-breaking going on in our society. George is a building contractor. Frequently, when he gets parking tickets for his dump trucks he has them "fixed." Occasionally he does special favors for the building inspectors who inspect his work.

2   A senior public officer is considered by everyone to be a fine personnel. She/he is trusted by her colleagues and clients. They can always turn to him/her. She/he knows that some of his/her colleagues and clients engage in unethical conducts. She/he is concerned about this, but doesn't report.

3   A field unit leader sets high standards for his/her subordinates' performance. Many of his/her subordinates are place very high on performance. Most Bosses want their staff to be in his/her unit. The problem is she/he uses fear to motivate

the subordinates, and every morning about three or four of his/her subordinates feel sick to their stomachs and do not wish to go to work.

4   An officer sells falsified documents to clients to pay for his children tuition.

5   A young officer tries to get even with his colleague queries. On April fool's day, he fills a quart milk bottle with urine and leans it, without a lid, against her door. He knocks on her door and runs. When she opens the door the urine spills all over her office wall-to-wall carpeting.

6   A unit leader teaches his subordinates how to cheat without getting caught.

7   A unit leader uses query to threaten subordinates into paying protection money

8   An officer in a unit is very concerned about the unethical conducts in his department. His colleagues benefit from these illegal conducts, but he doesn't. He goes to the Boss to report his colleagues without consulting his unit leader.

Step 3: The researcher will engage the participants in a value clarification exercise (Rank Order).

Rank Order

Instructions; Rank order your choices to each question by placing a "1" by your first choice, "2" by the second choice, and "3" by the choice you'd least prefer. (No tying of choices - you must rank them "1", "2", "3".)

1. How do you work best?

_____with instructions

_____independently

_____team work

2. Which is most important in a friendship?

_____loyalty

_____generosity

_____honesty

3. Which do you think Is most harmful?

_____cigarettes

_____marijuana

_____alcohol

4. Whom would you prefer to work with? A person with _____Intel1igence

_____personality

_____sex appeal

5. When you worry about your behaviour when faced with corrupt situations do you think about

_____yourself

_____ your parents

_____ pleasing your boss

6. Which type of boss do you most prefer?

_____strict in the office but little office assignments

_____strict in the office and much office assignments _____easygoing in the office but much office assignments

7. Which would you most like to improve?

_____your looks

_____ the way you use your time

_____your social life

8. Which would be your job preference?

_____hard and dirty work at N28, 000 per week

_____clean and easy work at N14, 000 per week

_____dirty but easy work at N21, 000 per week

9. What is the most serious domestic issue in Nigeria?

_____crime prevention

_____welfare

_____ Corruption

10. Where would you least like to live?

_____in a ghetto

_____in the city

_____in a poor rural town

11. In which of these situations would you be most likely to take some action?

_____a car is parked with its headlights on in broad daylight

_____a dog has scared a kitten up a telephone pole _____some big boys are trying to tie tin cans to the tail of a dog

12. Which would you prefer to give up if you had to?

_____economic freedom

_____religious freedom

_____political freedom

13. Which of these problems do you think is the greatest threat in the nearest future?

_____overpopulation

_____crime

_____water and air pollution

_____Corruption

14. During an office protest where would you be most likely to be found?

_____in the midst of it

_____gaping at it from across the street

_____in the office minding your own business

15. Which do you like least?

_____an uptight indoctrinator

_____a cynical debunker

_____a dull, boring fact giver

16. Your boss has given instructions which you think is unethical. If he asks for your opinion what would you tell him?

_____the whole truth

_____as much as you think he can stand

_____what he wants to hear

Step 4: The researcher then divides participants into small discussion groups of four persons and compare and contrast responses to the Forced Choice Ladder and the Rank Order strategies. It is provocative for participants to discover similarities and differences about the choices made by themselves and others. These discussions help develop a greater awareness of each person's individuality.

Step 5: The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants they are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 5: Values clarification process; choosing, prizing and acting

Objectives: At the end of the session the researcher should be able

- Understand and apply a series of valuing processes to their own lives in order that they might build their own unique value system.

Activity:

- The researcher will welcome the participants.
- Participants will be engaged in a values clarification exercise

Step 1: Introduction

The individual in today's society is faced with a bewildering array of alternatives and so the act of choosing from among these alternatives has become increasingly difficult. If it is true that, in part, values grow from thoughtful choices made from sufficient alternatives, people need to be aware of ways they can clarify for themselves what they value. People who have not clarified for themselves what they value cannot have clear, consistent purposes, cannot know what they are for and against, cannot know where they are going and why. They lack criteria for choosing what to do with their time, their energy, their very being. They simply are not clear as to what their lives are for and are therefore unable or unwilling to marshal up their full intellectual resources for use in the crucial game of living.

Step 2: The researcher engage participants in a valuing process strategy named "Values Grid". The Values Grid usually drives home the point that few of our beliefs or actions fit all seven of the valuing processes. This activity also indicates what steps we must take in order to develop stronger and clearer values.

ISSUES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In the left column under "Issues," participants were asked to write some issues that are significant for them.

The seven numbers heading the columns on the right of the grid represent the following seven questions. Read each of them, pausing long enough after each to allow time for checking each issue. If the participants have a positive response to the question, a check is placed in the appropriate box. If it cannot be answered affirmatively, the box is left blank.

1. Have you chosen your position freely?

2. Have you chosen your position from alternatives?

3. Have you chosen your position after thoughtful consideration of the pros and cons and the consequences?

4. Are you proud of (do you prize or cherish) your position?

5. Have you publicly affirmed your position?

6. Have you acted on or done anything about your beliefs?

 7. Have you acted with repetition, pattern, or consistency on this issue?

Step 3: After they have completed marking their grids, the participants were asked to form trios, with each participant discussing one of the issues, his position on it, and how it did not or did meet the seven valuing processes. It is worthwhile to note how the approach here differs from past discussions. It should become apparent that participants are not being called on to defend the content of their beliefs, but rather to evaluate how they arrived at their convictions and how firm they are in their beliefs. Participants were asked to include their Values Grid in the VALUES JOURNAL. Then at some later date they will be able to see not only whether the content of their beliefs has undergone any change, but, more importantly, whether there have been any changes in the quality and degree of their convictions.

Step 4: The researcher appreciated the group for their interest and participation, reminded them of the time and place for the next session and told them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again

Session 6: Identifying ethical attitudes and behavioural patterns by personal values; reflection and self-analysis

Objectives: At the end of the session the researcher should be able:

- Explain values and beliefs
- Understand the importance of values and beliefs in relation to work ethics
- Explore values and beliefs to develop a shared purpose

Activity:

- The researcher welcomed the participants.
- The researcher explained the essence of shared values and beliefs about work ethics
- Participants were engaged in a values clarification exercise

Materials:

- **Flip charts**
- **Sticky notes**

Step 1 Values and beliefs

Our values and belief influence our attitudes and therefore our behaviours. Making our values and beliefs explicit is one of the first steps in culture change because talking about them, helps us to begin to make them a reality. A match between what we say we value and believe and what we do in practice is one of the characteristics of effective individuals, teams and organisations. Talking to the people we care for (e.g. families, service users, residents, friends, etc) and the people that we work with (e.g. staff, managers, customs officers, comptroller, etc) about what they think is important (values) and what they feel should happen (beliefs) is therefore an important first step in the process of culture change (helping us to transform the way things are done).

Step 2 Values and beliefs in relation to work ethics

Working together to explore values and beliefs to develop a shared purpose is a really useful way of engaging with staff, helping them to identify what unites them, leading to energy, enthusiasm and ownership. Staff will often gain as much from contributing and listening to others as they do from creating the shared purpose. However, this is only the first step. The next step is to work together to critique/evaluate practice, to 'look at what is happening' at an individual/team level to identify the gaps between what we say we will do in our shared purpose statement (the values and beliefs that are spoken about) and what we actually do (the values and beliefs that are experienced)

Step 3 Collecting values and beliefs

- The researcher explained the purpose of the exercise to the group members so that they are clear about what the researcher is asking them to do.

- The researcher asked the participants to share their values and beliefs about their work so that an agreement on what to work towards with regards to care or practice in the workplace will be achieved.

- Participants were encouraged to contribute as much as they can and to be open and honest. The researcher reinforced the participants, that there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers.

- The researcher then asked the participants to ask the following clarifying statements individually without interacting with the rest of the group, capturing their values and beliefs on sticky notes (one value/belief per sticky note);
  - ➢ I believe the ultimate purpose of x is…
  - ➢ I believe this purpose can be achieved by…
  - ➢ I believe the factors that enable this purpose to be achieved include…
  - ➢ I believe the factors that inhibit this purpose to be achieved include…
  - ➢ Other values and beliefs that I hold about x are

This ensures that people have the opportunity to think about their own values and beliefs without being influenced by others

- The researcher then creates one flip chart for each question for collating responses.

- Then ask the group members to share their values and beliefs by putting their sticky notes on to the relevant flip charts

Step 4: Theming the values and beliefs: Essentially, theming is a way of organizing the contributions by clustering together those with a common meaning and then identifying a title (the theme) that describes these contributions.

- The researcher invites the group members to spend a few minutes having a look at all the values and beliefs (at this point they can ask each other to clarify their contributions to ensure that they understand the meanings).
- Then working with each flip chart separately, ask the group members to theme or cluster the sticky notes on that chart, identifying a name or descriptor for each theme/cluster.

Step 5:

Creating a shared purpose from the themes/descriptors

- Once all the contributions have been clustered and themed, the researcher will ask the group to use the themes and descriptors to create a shared purpose statement
- The shared purpose should then be shown to everyone involved, perhaps displayed, inviting feedback from others before it is launched.

Step 6:

The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 7: Training Commitment to Acting consistently with Chosen Values

Objectives: At the end of the session the researcher should be able:

- Identify and remove barriers to action

Activity

Step 1: The researcher will welcome the participants

Step 2: The researcher will explain the need for commitment to acting consistently with chosen values from previous session

Step 3: The participants will engaged in a value clarifying process towards removing barriers to action and acting

Removing barriers to action strategy

Collectively, participants will list the barriers or obstacles to achieving their goals or chosen values. Then, one at a time, they would work on practical steps that could be taken to lessen the strength of or eliminate these barriers to achieving their goal. Removing barriers to action strategy will be followed with the Self-Contract strategy.

Self-Contract strategy

This activity will engage the participants in the valuing process of acting; in both considering a concrete action step and deciding whether to commit to taking that step. The Self-Contract makes the action planning much more concrete and immediate. The researcher will ask the participants to prioritize from the list of their chosen values and identified the three most likely or desirable action steps he/she might take to begin acting on those values. This process will help participants identify concrete action steps to take that is consistent with their chosen values.

Step 4: The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much they are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 8: Overall Review Post-testing and Conclusion

Objectives: At the end of the session the researcher should be able:

- To acquire the post-test data.
- To formally conclude the therapy.
- To commend the participants

Activity:

Step 1

The researcher receives the participants into the last session.

Step 2

She quickly runs through all the previous sessions and allows participants ask their questions.

Step 3

The researcher administers the scale to the participants.

Step 4

The researcher applauds the participants for active participation and encourages them to practice what they have learnt in the course of the sessions

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 2 (Emotional Intelligence Training)

Introduction

Emotional intelligence (EI) can be defined as the ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures through the expression of emotion in a productive way. Emotional intelligence training involves an organized activity aimed at imparting information to an individual to improve the participant's performance. This training is geared towards assisting participants attain a required level of knowledge or skill that will enable them cope with emotional discomforts and foster zero-tolerance for corruption. The goal of these EI sessions is to increase the participants' skills in understanding, analysing, expressing, and regulating their emotions.

Session 1

Topic: Pre-test administration

Objectives: At the end of the session, the participants should be able to;

- List group norms and ground rules for the training.
- Undertake a pre-testing

Activity:

- The researcher will initiate and establish a rapport with the participants;
- The researcher will administer the pre-test;
- The researcher will introduce the participants to emotional intelligence training.

Step 1

- The researcher welcomes the participants to the training and introduces himself and his research assistants to the participants.

- The researcher asks the participants to introduce themselves by way of establishing a bond.
- Motive for the programme and what the participants stand to benefit at the end of the programme.
- Benefits derivable from the programme will be discussed with participants
- Guiding principles on the expected conducts of the participants in the course of the programme.
- Prompt and Regular attendance will be emphasized.
- Administration of pre-test
- The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 2: Meaning, Causes and Effects of Corruption

Objective: At the end of the session, the participants should be able to understand and explain:

- Concept of Corruption
- Identify corrupt behaviours
- Factors that may promote corruption
- Causes and effects of corrupt behaviours

Activity:

Step 1: Participants will be welcomed.

Step 2: The researcher will reaffirm the participants' commitment to the programme

Step 3: The concept, causes and effect of corruption will be discussed.

Step 4: The researcher will create room for the participants to express themselves in questions and contributions and gives assignment

Session 3: Concept of emotional intelligence

Objectives:

The participants should be able to understand;

- The origin of emotional intelligence;

- The concept of emotional intelligence;
- The importance of emotional intelligence.
- The definitions of the various components of emotional intelligence.

Activity:

- The participants will be highly welcomed.
- The researcher will reaffirm the participants' commitment to the programme and review the homework with the participants.

Step 1

The origin of emotional intelligence

The term Emotional intelligence was propounded by two professors and psychologists; Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 1990. They described it as a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions.

Step 2

The concept of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence can be conceptualised as "the ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding, and management of emotion." It enables an individual identify, interpret, understand and manage his own emotions as well as that of others. He/she is able to maintain and sustain relationship better owing to the greater understanding of emotional intelligence. Hence, the primary aim of emotional intelligence is to provide better understanding of how people understand emotions and manage them effectively in other to improve on their relationship with one another.

Step 3

The importance of emotional intelligence

The relevance of emotional intelligence cannot be over emphasized. It is of utmost importance to an individual as well as groups. It provides greater clarity in decision making, improved personal relationships both in the workplace and personal lives, reduces stress and minimizes conflict. In fact, it is a life changer. Emotional intelligence affects the way we behave and the way we interact with others. When we can discern

people's emotions and empathize with their perspective, it is much easier to resolve conflicts or possibly avoid them before they start. We are also better at negotiation due to the very nature of our ability to understand the needs and desires of others. It is easier to give people what they want if we can perceive what it is. It also helps to maintain good physical and mental health.

Step 4

The researcher creates room for the participants to express themselves in questions and contributions and gives assignment.

Understanding of the concept of emotional intelligence would have improvement in customs officers' ability to identify their feelings and the feelings of others, as well as to manage and control their emotions in order to foster zero-tolerance for corruption.

Step 5:

The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 4: Training on emotional recognition (Self-awareness)

Step 1

Definition of self-awareness

Self-awareness involves having a clear perception of your personality, including strengths, weaknesses, thoughts, beliefs, motivation, and emotions. This concept allows you to understand other people, how they perceive you, your attitude and your responses to them. Self-awareness is about learning to better understand why you feel, what you feel and why you behave in a particular way. Self-awareness means that you understand how you feel and can accurately assess your emotional state. This makes one become aware of the behaviours that result from negative emotions.

Step 2

Description of Emotional self-awareness

An individual with high emotional self-awareness know which emotions they are feeling and why they feel them. They also realize the links between their feelings and what they think, do, and say, recognize how their feelings affect them and have a guiding awareness of their values and goals. Such a person is able to adopt behaviours that minimize the effects of their own emotions on a situation.

Step 3

Accurate Self-assessment

This can be described as the ability to identify one's emotions and how they can impact situations. It enables the individual to honestly understand and explore one's emotional strengths and weaknesses. Individuals here, are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, reflective and capable of learning from experience, open to feedback and new perspectives, interested in continuous learning and self-development and are able to show a sense of humour about themselves.

Step 4

Self confidence

Self-confidence can be described as a strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities. Self-confident people are certain of their value and capabilities, have a strong presence, high level of self-assurance, are willing to stand up for what is right, able to make quick decisions and are able to control the directions of their lives.

Being aware of one's self helps an individual to make informed decisions about the things that matter most to them, and to connect to others and be able to understand the need to avoid engaging in corrupt activities that may have a negative multiplying effect on one's self and the society at large.

Step 5

The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 5: Self –Regulation/Management and Motivation

Objectives: At the end of the session, the participants should be able to:

- Understand the different elements of self-management.

Activity

- Describe to participants the concept "self-management."
- Explain to them the various components of self-management.

Step 1

Self-management

Self-management is the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods, the propensity to suspend judgement and to think before acting. This builds on one's self-awareness, using your self-control to ensure your emotions do not control you regardless of the situation.

Step 2

Self-control and Trustworthiness

Self-control depicts the ability to remain composed notwithstanding your state of emotions. Such people manage their feelings and distress well, think clearly and remain focused under pressure. Trustworthiness entails that one will do what he/she says, and build trust among other people. Trustworthy people act ethically, are reliable and authentic, also admit their mistakes and take principled stands.

Step 3

Conscientiousness and Adaptability

Conscientiousness involves being thorough, careful and having a desire to perform a task well. A conscientious person meets commitments and keeps promises, is accountable for meeting their objectives, organised and careful in their work.

Adaptability is the ability to change something, or oneself to fit occurring changes. An adaptable person is one who smoothly handles multiple demands, flexible, shifting priorities and rapid change, and adapts responses to fit circumstances.

Step 4

Achievement drive and Initiative

Achievement orientation requires an individual to show concern for working toward a self-imposed and defined standard of excellence. Here, people set for themselves challenging goals, measure their performances against those goals, actively seek out information to get the job done and efficiently use their time.

Initiative means taking the lead in problem-solving and conflict resolution as well as taking action to prevent problems from occurring. An individual seeks out fresh ideas from a range of sources, entertain original solutions to problems, generate new ideas and take fresh perceptions and risks in their thinking.

Step 5

The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 6: Empathy and Social Skills

Objectives: At the end of the session, participants should be able to:

- Understand the meaning of social awareness and relate to corruption;

205

- Understand the concept of empathy and relate to corruption;
- Service orientation and;
- Organisational awareness.
- The participants should also understand its relevance to tolerance for corruption.

Step 1

The meaning of social awareness

Social awareness is the ability to understand the emotional makeup of others, and it's a skill in training people according to their emotional reactions.

Step 2

Empathy

Empathy is the capacity to understand what another person is experiencing from within the other person's frame of reference, i.e., the capacity to place oneself in another's shoes. It can be described as the ability to understand someone else's feelings. An empathic person actively listens to what others say, taking note of both words and non-verbal cues, understand and appreciate others views, are aware of emotional boundaries where they begin and stop and focus on attaining the goal without conflict.

Step 3

Service orientation

Service orientation builds on the empathy an individual has with others by helping him assist their personal development and satisfaction. Such an individual is able to identify issues that are affecting an individual's performance through careful questioning and also identify situations that will provide opportunity to improve their productivity and satisfaction.

Step 4

Organisational awareness

Organisational awareness can be defined as the ability to read the current of emotions and political realities in groups. Individuals are able to understand the rationale behind their organization and its structure, know how to get things done formally and informally

within the organization, are able to understand both client and merchant organization and act with the client's best interest in mind.

Emotional intelligence is both a social and emotional skill. It is an intelligence individuals should embrace and imbibe. In order to permanently change behaviour in ways that stand up under pressure, being a social being. An individual needs to learn how to overcome stress in their relationships in order to remain emotionally aware.

Step 5

The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 7: Relationship Management

Objectives: At the end of the session, participants should be able to:

- Understand the term relationship management.
- Identify the various components of relationship management and relate to corruption.

Activity:

- The participants will be warmly welcomed.
- The researcher will define and explain relationship management and its components.

Step 1

Relationship management

Relationship management entails using the awareness of one's and others' emotions to build strong, effective and lasting relationships. This enables one to succeed in inspiring people and helping them reach their full potential.

Step 2

Developing others and Influence

Developing others is the ability to observe and provide opportunities to fully develop individual team members. People with this competence, recognise and reward

accomplishments and strengths of individuals, regularly challenge and offer new opportunities to learn and provide constructive feedback to aid development.

Influence is the extent one is able to affect and persuade others. Someone with this competence is able to build consensus through persuasion and clear presentation of case, offer support to and gain support of others and are trustworthy.

Step 3

Communication and Conflict management

Communication means being persuasive, well presented and objective. People with this effortlessly adapt to the emotional context of the exchange, focus on attaining the objective by acknowledging others' views and easily demonstrate empathy and appreciation of other's views.

Conflict management describes the ability to recognise, prevent or manage areas of conflict to a positive resolution. Such people possess these qualities; they meet potential conflict from a point of knowledge and strength, have the ability to read underlying emotions within groups and are open-minded and willing to embrace different views.

Step 4

Leadership and Change catalyst

Leadership entails the ability to guide, direct or influence people. The team he directs are willing to follow his lead and wants to work with him to meet goals. Such people lead by example, inspire others to achieve a vision and truly delegate tasks and accountability.

Change catalyst is someone who seeks out and initiates new ideas and approaches as part of attaining their objectives. People here, do not hesitate to challenge the way things have always been done, recognise barriers to change and seek resolutions to remove them and acts as a champion for change.

Step 5

Building bonds and Teamwork and collaboration

Building bonds is the ability to build a wide variety of mutually beneficial relationships. These individuals are widely respected and liked, cultivate a broad personal network that incorporates colleagues, professionals, contacts, and friends and keep others informed appropriately. Teamwork and collaboration involves natural aptitude in creating a cohesive team. Individuals ensure the objective is defined and understood by all, behave in a way that others adopt as their own and demonstrate that they value all contributions. With the ability to manage stress, and stay emotionally present, you can learn to receive disturbing pieces of information without letting this information override your thoughts and self-control. You will be able to make choices about behaviours, manage your emotions in healthy ways, take initiative to act ethically and adapt to changing circumstances and promote zero-tolerance for corruption

Step 6

The researcher would thank the group for their interest and participation, remind them of the time and place for the next session and tell them how much the researcher and the research assistants are looking forward to seeing them again.

Session 8: Administration of Post-test and Conclusion

Objectives: At the end of the session the participants should be able to:

- Demonstrate a clear and concise understanding of the emotional intelligence training.
- Understand the key factors discussed in the programme.
- Make an obligation to enhance their relationship with their colleagues.
- Undertake a post-testing.

Activity:

Step 1: The researcher will warmly welcome the participants.

Step 2: Participants will be given the opportunity to ask questions.

Step 3: The post-test will be administered on the participants.

Step 4: Session is terminated and participants will be appreciated for partaking in the sessions and encouraged to practice what they will learn in the course of the programme.

CONTROL GROUP

Session 1: Introduction and Pre-Test administration.

Session 2: The researcher gives a talk on Time Management

Session 3: Post-test administration and conclusion

Agokei Stanley Peter,

Dept of Guidance and Counselling,

University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Nigeria.

September, 2019

The Controller,

Nigeria Customs Service,

Oyo/Osun Command,

Agodi Ibadan.

Dear Sir,

Re: Counselling Intervention for Officers of the Nigeria Customs Service in Oyo/Osun Command

With reference to the above, I, Agokei Stanley Peter, a Doctoral Student in the area of Counselling Psychology, Department of Guidance and Counselling, University of Ibadan, hereby seek to apply for permission to undertake an intervention on the above topic. Of interest to me, is the management of customs officers' mental health, psychosocial wellbeing and work ethics. Towards this end and based on research findings, a counselling intervention was conceived titled as follows:

"Emotionally Connected: The role of Emotional Intelligence in the work of Officers of the Nigeria Customs Service"

I promise that if the request is approved, I would abide with all the necessary conditions governing the intervention and your organization.

Thank you.

Yours Sincerely,

Agokei Stanley Peter

Phone Number: 08063925404

DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, NIGERIA

Head of Department
Professor Chioma C. Asuzu
B.Sc., M.Ed., Ph.D. (Ibadan)

phone: +2348023288194
+2348052946055

E-MAIL:
chiomasuzu20@yahoo.com
counshumandevelopment@gmail.com

Date: 19-09-19

THE CONTROLLER,

NIGERIAN CUSTOMS SERVICE,

OGUN COMMAND,

SAPON, ABEOKUTA

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

This is to certify that AGOREI STANLEY REFER

with Matriculation No.: 174439 is one of our M.Phil/Ph.D./Ph.D.

students in the Department of Guidance and Counselling, University of

Ibadan. He/She would like to collect data for his/her thesis

titled: VALUE SYSTEM THE ROLE OF VALUES CLARIFICATION

IN THE WORK OF OFFICERS OF THE NIGERIAN

CUSTOMS SERVICE

Kindly assist him/her in any way you can.

Thank you.

Prof. Chioma C. Asuzu,
Head of Department of Edu.
...rsity of I
...adan

APPENDIX V

Agokei Stanley Peter,

Dept. of Guidance and Counselling,

University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Nigeria.

September, 2019

The Controller,

Nigeria Customs Service,

Ogun Command,

Sapon, Abeokuta.

Dear Sir,

Re: Counselling Intervention for Officers of the Nigeria Customs Service in Ogun Command

With reference to the above, I, Agokei Stanley Peter, a Doctoral Student in the area of Counselling Psychology, Department of Guidance and Counselling, University of Ibadan, hereby seek to apply for permission to undertake an intervention on the above topic. Of interest to me, is the management of customs officers' mental health, psychosocial wellbeing, work ethics and performance. Towards this end and based on research findings, a counselling intervention was conceived titled as follows:

> "Value System: The role of Values Clarification in the work of Officers of the Nigeria Customs Service"

I promise that if the request is approved, I would abide with all the necessary conditions governing the intervention and your organization.

Thank you.

Yours Sincerely,

Agokei Stanley Peter

Phone Number: 08063925404

Agokei Stanley Peter,

Dept of Guidance and Counselling,

University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Nigeria.

September, 2019

The Controller,

Nigeria Customs Service,

Ondo/Ekiti Command,

Akure.

Dear Sir,

Re: Counselling Intervention for Officers of the Nigeria Customs Service in Ondo/Ekiti Command

With reference to the above, I, Agokei Stanley Peter, a Doctoral Student in the area of Counselling Psychology, Department of Guidance and Counselling, University of Ibadan, hereby seek to apply for permission to undertake an intervention on the above topic. Of interest to me, is the management of customs officers' mental health, psychosocial wellbeing, work ethics and performance. Towards this end and based on research findings, a counselling intervention was conceived titled as follows:

"Time Management in the work of Officers of the Nigeria Customs Service"

I promise that if the request is approved, I would abide with all the necessary conditions governing the intervention and your organization.

Thank you.

Yours Sincerely,

Agokei Stanley Peter

Phone Number: 08063925404

APPENDIX VII

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
treatment	1.00	Valueclarifica tiongrp	28
	2.00	Emotional intelligntgrou p	30
	3.00	Control	25
Gender	1.00	Male	49
	2.00	Female	34
AdversityQuotie nt	1.00	High	44
	2.00	Low	39

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable:post_test

treatment	Gender	Adversity Quotien t	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
valueclarificationgrp	male	High	50.5000	4.03556	7
		Low	35.1333	5.23541	10
		Total	40.4783	8.86705	17
	female	High	25.5000	3.53553	5

		Low	23.3333	3.21455	6
		Total	24.2000	3.11448	11
	Total	High	45.5000	11.18779	12
		Low	33.1667	6.65317	16
		Total	37.5714	10.28638	28
emotionalintelligntgroup	male	High	50.2500	18.79020	10
		Low	46.0667	4.19977	8
		Total	47.5217	11.30112	18
	female	High	37.5000	3.53553	7
		Low	46.0000	2.44949	5
		Total	43.5714	4.82553	12
	Total	High	47.7000	17.46139	17
		Low	46.0500	3.77631	13
		Total	46.6000	10.22708	30
control	male	High	25.0000	1.85164	9
		Low	23.3333	2.84521	5
		Total	23.9130	2.62701	14
	female	High	17.0000	2.82843	6
		low	17.0000	2.82843	5
		Total			
	Total	High	23.4000	3.86437	10
		Low	23.3333	2.84521	15
		Total	23.3600	3.21299	25
Total	male	High	41.9167	16.21035	24
		Low	34.8444	10.24907	45
		Total	37.3043	12.97543	69

female	High	26.6667	9.56382	6
	Low	37.5000	12.00000	8
	Total	32.8571	11.98626	14
Total	High	38.8667	16.20714	30
	Low	35.2453	10.44934	53
	Total	36.5542	12.85307	83

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable:post_test

F	df1	df2	Sig.
7.364	10	72	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + pre_test + treatment + Gender + AdversityQuotient + treatment * Gender + treatment * AdversityQuotient + Gender * AdversityQuotient + treatment * Gender * AdversityQuotient

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:post_test

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F

Corrected Model	10176.213[a]	11	925.110	19.489
Intercept	782.073	1	782.073	16.475
pre_test	60.873	1	60.873	1.282
treatment	2074.350	2	1037.175	21.850
Gender	763.358	1	763.358	16.081
AdversityQuotient	68.563	1	68.563	1.444
treatment * Gender	391.074	2	195.537	4.119
treatment * AdversityQuotient	433.287	2	216.644	4.564
Gender * AdversityQuotient	107.916	1	107.916	2.273
treatment * Gender * AdversityQuotient	.449	1	.449	.009
Error	3370.293	71	47.469	
Total	124452.000	83		
Corrected Total	13546.506	82		

a. R Squared = .751 (Adjusted R Squared = .713)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:post_test

Source	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	.000	.751
Intercept	.000	.188
pre_test	.261	.018
treatment	.000	.381
Gender	.000	.185

AdversityQuotient	.233	.020
treatment * Gender	.020	.104
treatment * AdversityQuotient	.014	.114
Gender * AdversityQuotient	.136	.031
treatment * Gender * AdversityQuotient	.923	.000

Estimated Marginal Means

1. treatment

Estimates

Dependent Variable:post_test

			95% Confidence Interval	
treatment	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
valueclarificationgrp	34.075[a]	1.790	30.506	37.645
emotionalintelligntgroup	45.422[a]	1.678	42.076	48.769
control	1.857E1	3.414	11.765	25.381

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values:

pre_test = 21.5181.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:post_test

(I) treatment	(J) treatment	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]
valueclarificationgrp	emotionalintelligntgroup	-11.347[*]	2.385	.000
	Control	15.502[*,b]	4.142	.001
emotionalintelligntgroup	valueclarificationgrp	-11.347[*]	2.385	.000
	Control	26.849[*,b]	4.100	.000
control	valueclarificationgrp	-15.502[*,c]	4.142	.001
	emotionalintelligntgroup	-26.849[*,c]	4.100	.000

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:post_test

(I) treatment	(J) treatment	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]

		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
valueclarificationgrp	emotionalintelligntgroup	-17.194	-5.500
	Control	5.347	25.658
emotionalintelligntgroup	valueclarificationgrp	5.500	17.194
	Control	16.795	36.903
control	valueclarificationgrp	-25.658	-5.347
	emotionalintelligntgroup	-36.903	-16.795

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable:post_test

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	2487.480	2	1243.740	26.201	.000	.425
Error	3370.293	71	47.469			

The F tests the effect of treatment. This test is based on the linearly independent
pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

2. Gender

Estimates

Dependent Variable:post_test

| Gender | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
male	2.836E1	2.374	23.625	33.092
female	38.653[a]	.903	36.852	40.454

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the

following values: pre_test = 21.5181.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:post_test

| (I) Gender | (J) Gender | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig.[b] | 95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b] | |
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
male	female	10.925[*,a]	2.663	.000	4.985	15.605
female	male	-10.925[*,c]	2.663	.000	-15.605	-4.985

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable:post_test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	709.376	1	709.376	14.944	.000	.174
Error	3370.293	71	47.469			

The F tests the effect of Gender. This test is based on the linearly independent
pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

3. Adversity Quotient

Estimates

Dependent Variable:post_test

Adversity Quotient	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
high	33.878[a]	1.614	30.659	37.097
low	3.409E1	1.326	31.445	36.732

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the
following values: pre_test = 21.5181.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:post_test

(I) AdversityQuotient	(J) Adversity Quotient	Mean Difference (I-J)[b]	Std. Error	Sig.[b]
high	low	-.210[a]	1.980	.916

| low | high | .210[c] | 1.980 | .916 |

Based on estimated marginal means

a. An estimate of the modified population marginal
mean (J).

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons:
Bonferroni.

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal
mean (I).

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:post_test

(I) AdversityQuotient	(J) AdversityQuotient	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
high	low	-4.159	3.738
low	high	-3.738	4.159

Based on estimated marginal means

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons:
Bonferroni.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable:post_test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	.536	1	.536	.011	.916	.000
Error	3370.293	71	47.469			

The F tests the effect of AdversityQuotient. This test is based on the linearly
independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

4. treatment * Gender

Dependent Variable:post_test

treatment	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
valueclarificationgrp	Male	23.655[a]	3.216	17.242	30.067
	Female	44.496[a]	2.115	40.279	48.714
emotionalintelligntgroup	Male	40.355[a]	3.134	34.106	46.605
	Female	50.489[a]	2.552	45.401	55.577
control	Male	20.974[a]	3.198	14.598	27.350
	Female	1.377E1	5.644	2.517	25.027

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre_test
= 21.5181.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

5. treatment * AdversityQuotient

Dependent Variable:post_test

treatment	AdversityQuotient	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
valueclarificationgrp	high	38.993[a]	2.861	33.288	44.699
	low	29.157[a]	2.180	24.811	33.504
emotionalintelligntgroup	high	45.936[a]	2.872	39.181	50.636
	low	44.909[a]	1.781	42.385	49.487

control	high	17.732[a]	3.968	9.820	25.644
	low	2.026E1	3.248	13.779	26.732

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values:

pre_test = 21.5181.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

6. Gender * AdversityQuotient

Dependent Variable:post_test

Gender	AdversityQuotient	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
male	high	41.851[a]	1.408	39.045	44.658
	low	35.455[a]	1.160	33.142	37.767
female	high	25.905[a]	2.892	20.138	31.671
	low	3.204E1	3.422	25.215	38.863

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following

values: pre_test = 21.5181.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

7. treatment * Gender * AdversityQuotient

Dependent Variable:post_test

treatment	Gender	AdversityQuotient	Mean	Std. Error
valueclarificationgrp	male	high	51.534[a]	2.601
		low	37.459[a]	2.717
	female	high	26.453[a]	4.944
		low	20.856[a]	4.540
emotionalintelligntgroup	male	high	52.329[a]	3.050
		low	48.649[a]	2.893
	female	high	37.488[a]	4.872

treatment	Gender	AdversityQuotient		
		low	43.222[a]	3.938
control	male	high	21.692[a]	3.804
		low	20.256[a]	3.248
	female	high	13.772[a]	5.644
		low	.[a,b]	.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre_test = 21.5181.

b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

7. treatment * Gender * AdversityQuotient

Dependent Variable:post_test

treatment	Gender	AdversityQuotient	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
valueclarificationgrp	male	high	46.347	56.721
		low	32.041	42.876
	female	high	16.595	36.311
		low	11.804	29.908
emotionalintelligntgroup	male	high	46.247	58.411
		low	42.882	54.417
	female	high	27.774	47.202
		low	35.370	51.075
control	male	high	14.107	29.276
		low	13.779	26.732
	female	high	2.517	25.027
		low	.	.