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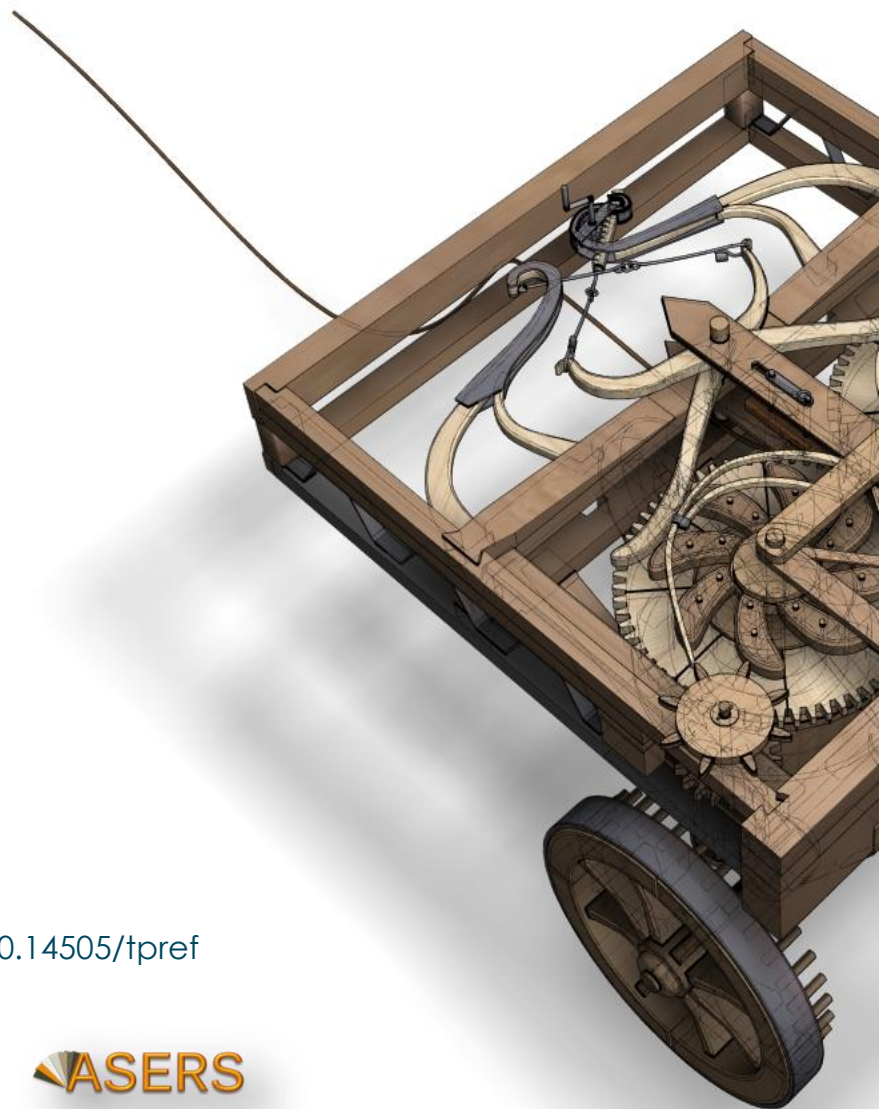
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Non-Accounting Drivers of Forensic Accounting Techniques: Insights from PLS-SEM Analysis

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Abstract: Forensic accounting techniques are pivotal in combating financial fraud and enhancing corporate governance. According to Forensic Accounting Theory, both accounting and non-accounting factors influence the intention to adopt these techniques. This study explores the impact of key non-accounting factors *i.e.* Bonus Contract, Anonymity, and Collapse Avoidance on adoption of forensic accounting techniques by the practitioners, employing Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) and SmartPLS software. Data was collected from professionals across diverse industries utilising forensic accounting services. The results reveal that these non-accounting factors exert varying levels of influence on adoption intentions. This research enriches the existing body of knowledge by offering new perspectives on the role of non-accounting drivers in forensic accounting adoption, providing actionable insights for policy-makers, regulators, and corporate leaders.

Keywords: forensic accounting; forensic accounting theory; non-accounting drivers; bonus contract; anonymity; collapse avoidance; PLS-SEM.

JEL Classification: K13; M41; C01.

Introduction

Forensic accounting integrates accounting, auditing, and investigative expertise to identify, investigate, and prevent fraud and other financial crimes. It involves scrutinizing financial records to uncover inconsistencies, fraudulent activities, or violations of regulatory and ethical standards. Forensic accountants are commonly involved in fraud detection, litigation support, and providing expert testimony, playing a crucial role in uncovering and addressing corporate misconduct (Ellili *et al.* 2024). By providing insights into financial practices, forensic accountants contribute to a culture of accountability and transparency within organizations. Forensic accounting has demonstrated its effectiveness in mitigating financial fraud and improving corporate governance, however, companies all around the globe are still reluctant to use the forensic accounting techniques (Alabdullah *et al.* 2013; Guellim *et al.* n.d.). There is a limited understanding of the factors that hinder its adoption across different industries. To comprehend this, the Forensic Accounting Theory was developed by P.K. Ozili in 2020. This theory suggests that a variety of both accounting and non-accounting factors affect the decisions made by practitioners in the use of forensic accounting methods (Ozili 2020).

This study focuses on the impact that the non-accounting elements, namely bonus contract, anonymity and collapse avoidance have on the adoption of forensic accounting. The primary aim of the study is to explore how these non-accounting factors influence practitioners' intention to adopt forensic accounting techniques. In order to achieve the stated objective, the study will explore the following research questions:

1. Does Bonus Contract influence the intentions of practitioners to adopt forensic accounting techniques?
2. Does Anonymity in fraud detection/reporting impact the intentions of practitioners to adopt forensic accounting techniques?
3. Does Collapse Avoidance impact the intentions of practitioners to adopt forensic accounting techniques?

Earlier studies have recognised certain behavioural factors in the adoption of forensic accounting. However, no study till date studied the influence of non-accounting factors on the adoption of forensic accounting techniques (Alshurafat, Shbail, and Almuet 2024; Azman and Vaicondam 2020; Ng *et al.* 2017). There is absolute dearth of empirical studies on non-accounting factors affecting the adoption of forensic accounting. Therefore, this study is an attempt to understand the different influence of the non-accounting factors, namely, bonus contract, anonymity and collapse avoidance on the adoption of forensic accounting techniques. This paper will focus on overcoming this research gap by thoroughly examining the non-accounting drivers.

The study intends to make the following addition to the literature. The research aims to broaden the scope and provide insights into non-accounting drivers of forensic accounting adoption. The understanding of these factors will have important implications not only for the practitioners but also policymakers and corporate governance point of view. It will provide valuable information about the factors that motivate the adoption of fraud detection techniques and factors that hinder it. The findings of the study will help foster a culture of accountability and transparency along with proactive fraud prevention by focusing not only on financial and accounting factors. The subsequent sections of the paper include literature review, formulation of hypothesis, research methodology, results, analysis, and conclusion.

1. Literature Review and Hypotheses Formulation

The literature provides multiple definitions of forensic accounting. Forensic accounting is described as the use of financial expertise and investigative thinking to address unresolved matters within the framework of evidence rules (Botes and Saadeh 2018). Additionally, forensic accounting is defined as the application of accounting, auditing, financial, and investigative skills to address unresolved issues within the context of evidence rules (Bhasin 2015; Felix 2022). It can also be defined as the use of auditing methods, techniques, or procedures to resolve legal issues that necessitate the integration of investigative, accounting, and auditing (Aksoy and Uzay 2021; Emmanuel, Enyi, and Olajide 2018). Another definition of forensic accounting is the process of collecting, interpreting, summarizing, and presenting complex financial matters in a clear, concise, and factual manner, often as an expert in a court of law (AlGhunaimi 2023; Chukwu *et al.* 2019; Felix 2022)

Experts agree that forensic accounting can be instrumental in uncovering fraudulent (Afriyie *et al.* 2023). Research provides various definitions of fraud and explores the various motivations of driving fraud. Fraud, as a concept, does not have a universally recognized definition, as it includes a broad range of misleading actions that differ in depending on context, legal framework, and sector. Fraud is characterized as a purposeful act of deception aimed at obtaining a financial or personal advantage while inflicting harm on another individual (Reurink 2018). Fraud in financial reporting involves deliberate inaccuracies in financial statements, intended to deceive stakeholders like investors, creditors and regulatory authorities (Rezaee 2005; Roszkowska 2021). Fraud

is organisational context is characterised as misappropriation or theft of organisations' assets for individual benefit. This included embezzlement of funds, insider trading or manipulation of financial records to exaggerate a company's financial performance (Young 2020).

Reasons that lead individuals or groups to engage in fraudulent activities have been thoroughly examined and explained through the model of Fraud Triangle. The three components of fraud triangle are namely Pressure, Opportunity, and Rationalisation (Maulidi 2020). According to the fraud triangle, individuals who commit fraud go through a sequence involving a need that must be met, the opportunity to fulfill that need through illegal means, and the ability to rationalize the fraudulent actions. Studies have expanded the fraud triangle to include additional motivators for fraud by comprehensively bringing together most commonly used theories in fraud research (Rasheed, Said, and Ismail Khan 2023).

Forensic accounting utilises unique methods and analytical tools to uncover fraudulent activities that standard auditing practices may fail to detect (Akwa Ibom State University *et al.* 2023). Forensic accountants apply data analytics to uncover unusual trends, patterns and insistence in financial documents that may indicate discrepancies in financial records. Methods such as ratio analysis, data mining, and predictive modelling assist in identifying irregularities (Jain and Lamba 2020). According to (Ozili 2020), Forensic Accounting Theory suggests that the use of forensic accounting methods is affected by both accounting decisions and non-accounting decisions. The variables that make up accounting decisions include materiality and ability signaling, while the variables that pertain to non-accounting choices encompass bonus contracts, anonymity, and collapse avoidance.

2. Hypotheses Formulation

The *bonus contract* hypothesis suggests that when the compensation or bonus of a forensic investigator is tied to their effectiveness in uncovering unresolved issues related to suspected financial misstatements or financial frauds, it is in the best interest of the investigator to employ forensic detection methods (Koppl and Sacks 2013). Forensic investigators with bonus contracts are more inclined to use detection methods or procedures that enhance the likelihood of uncovering unresolved issues. Additionally, if the detection of actual fraud is the yardstick for evaluating the investigator's performance, there will be stronger incentives for the investigator to utilize forensic methods, procedures, and decisions that raise the probability of receiving the promised compensation, which is contingent on the successful detection of actual fraud (Ozili 2020). Thus, the bonus contract hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H1: Presence of Bonus Contract positively influences the adoption of forensic accounting techniques

The *anonymity* hypothesis argues that the personal security of the forensic investigator is more important than successfully resolving the case. This is a valid argument considering the history of attacks on both whistleblowers and investigators by associates of convicted fraudsters (Armstrong and Francis 2015; Ozili 2020). For example, in the past two decades, individuals were assassinated by the mafia and cartels, including whistleblowers and investigators of criminal cases. In some instances, political elites have chosen not to prosecute lawbreakers and criminal organizations, instead resorting to secret assassinations and unjust imprisonments of whistleblowers (Onyango 2024). As a result, civilian forensic investigators are unwilling to risk their lives due to fear of reprisal. Forensic investigators who believe that their personal security may be at risk but still wish to continue with the case are more likely to pursue the investigation by choosing forensic detection methods or procedures that conceal their identity (Ozili 2020). Hence, the second hypothesis has been framed as follows:

H2: Anonymity in the investigation procedure positively influences the adoption of forensic accounting techniques

In forensic practice, the objective of forensic investigations is not to bring about the downfall of an accused individual or corporation. Instead, the role is to uncover unresolved cases, with the ultimate decision regarding the fate of the firm or the punishment of the accused individual lying with the courts and the law (Oni, and Oyedokun 2023). If the purpose of the investigation is conveyed as uncovering unresolved issues for corrective actions, the firm's management is likely to cooperate during the investigation. Therefore, it is crucial for forensic investigators to assure the firm's management that the investigation aims to correct wrongdoings, not to wind up the company. The argument for avoiding collapse states that forensic investigators with access to multiple methods should understand that their objective is not to shut down the company if it's found guilty, but to provide evidence for the legal process and promote corrective action in the future (Ozili 2020). Hence, the third hypothesis has been framed as follows:

H3: Assurance of collapse avoidance positively influences the adoption of forensic accounting techniques

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Data Collection and Sample Design

The study employs a quantitative method to assess the influence of non-accounting factors on adoption forensic accounting techniques, so it is entirely based on primary data. Data has been collected from geographically scattered population using a structured questionnaire (Robson and McCartan 2016). Data has been collected from forensic accounting practitioners from different regions of India including Delhi, Noida, Gurugram, Faridabad, Patna, Meerut, Chennai, Mumbai, Ahmedabad and Chandigarh. Responses were collected through digital platforms using purposive sampling. The minimum sample size was determined using G*Power software (Faul *et al.* 2009). The estimated sample size was 77, calculated at 0.80 power and a 95% confidence level. Out of the 240 questionnaires distributed, responses were received from 191 respondents. A total of 179 responses were accepted for the final analysis, while the other responses were discarded due to missing data and outliers. The response rate is deemed satisfactory, as suggested by (Nulty 2008).

3.2 Measurement of Variables

The proposed model consists of four variables adopted from the Forensic Accounting Theory. The items were selected according to the objective of the study. A structured questionnaire was developed using a five-point Likert scale, and the responses were analysed using partial least square-structure equation modelling (PLS-SEM). The relationship between the variables were examined using smartPLSv4 software. PLS-SEM serves as an advanced exploratory method to assess the influence of exogenous variables on the endogenous variable (Hult *et al.* 2018; Reinartz, Haenlein, and Henseler 2009)

The survey was developed through an extensive review of existing literature on forensic accounting. Bonus contract and Anonymity were adopted as it is from the Forensic Accounting Theory given (Ozili 2020). Whereas collapse avoidance was influenced by (Ozili 2020) and (Azman 2021). The dependant variable, *i.e.* Adoption of Forensic Accounting Techniques has been influenced and adapted from the work of (Ozili 2020) and (Muthuswamy 2011) (see Table 1).

Table 1

Constructs	No. of Items	Source
Bonus Contract	3	(Ozili 2020)
Anonymity	4	(Ozili 2020)
Collapse Avoidance	3	(Azman 2021) and (Ozili 2020)
Adoption of Forensic Accounting	4	(Muthuswamy 2011) and (Ozili 2020)

Source: Compiled by Author

4. Results

4.1 Demographic Profile

Table 2 gives an overview of the demographic characteristics of the respondents of the survey.

Table 2. Demographic Information

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	113	63.13
Female	66	36.87
<i>Age</i>		
18-25 years	5	2.80
25-35 years	53	29.61
35-45 years	68	37.99
45-55 years	42	23.46
Above 55 years	11	6.15
<i>Educational Qualification</i>		
Graduation	78	43.58

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Post Graduation	29	16.20
Diploma	49	27.37
PhD	23	12.85
<i>Years of Experience</i>		
1-5 years	31	17.32
5-10 years	67	37.43
10-15 years	54	30.17
Above 15 years	27	15.08

Source: Compiled by Author

Among the respondents, 113 *i.e.* 63.13% were males, and 66 *i.e.* 36.87% were females. Most of the respondents' ages varied between 35 and 45 years, constituting 37.99%, followed by 25-35 years with 29.61%. The others constituted 23.46% (45-55 years), 6.15% (Above 55 years) and 2.80% (18-25 years). 43.58% of the respondents *i.e.* were graduates, 27.37% held a diploma degree, 16.20 % and 12.85% were Postgraduates and Doctorates respectively. Most of the respondents had work experience of 5-10 years (37.43%), followed by work experience of 10-15 years (30.17%), 1-5 years (17.32%) and above 15 years (15.08%).

Initially, the data were examined for missing values and any outliers using SPSSv29. The data analysis was carried out through both the measurement model and structural equation model using SmartPLSv4.0. The measurement model represents the connections between the latent variables and their associated variables, while the structural model is used to identify the cause-and-effect relationships among the dependent and independent variables. SmartPLS was selected for its suitability in hypothesis testing and in clarifying the relationships among the variables (Chin 1998).

4.2 Measurement Model

The measurement model was initially assessed for multivariate normality. Web-based software was utilized to evaluate the data's normality by examining multivariate kurtosis and skewness (Cain, Zhang, and Yuan 2017; Mardia 1970). The outcomes indicated that the data did not meet the requirements for multivariate normality, as the p-value was less than 0.05 for both kurtosis and skewness. Consequently, PLS-SEM was selected for data analysis (Joseph F. Hair *et al.* 2019). Additionally, the data were scrutinized for common method bias. According to (Podsakoff *et al.* 2003), a single factor should not explain over 50% of the variance for the model evaluation. Concerns regarding common method bias were dismissed since its value for the current analysis was found to be below 50%.

Three criteria for validity and reliability were selected to evaluate the reflective measurement model, namely, indicator reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Coltman *et al.* 2008; Joe F. Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2011). The outer loadings were greater than 0.7 as shown in Table 3. Hence, the reliability of the indicators is validated. Additionally, the model's convergent validity was assessed using internal consistency measures such as Cronbach's Alpha, rho Alpha, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Thompson, Barclay, and Higgins 1995). The internal consistency was assessed using the values of Cronbach Alpha and rho alpha, which were all greater than 0.7, indicating that the data is trustworthy (Gellman 2020; Henson 2001). Additionally, the AVE surpassed the 0.5 threshold confirming the data's convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi 1988).

Table 3. Indicator reliability, internal consistency and convergent validity of measurement model

Constructs	Items	Outer Loading	Cronbach Alpha	rho Alpha	CR	AVE
BC	BC1	0.95	0.926	0.938	0.953	0.871
	BC2	0.92				
	BC3	0.93				
AN	AN1	0.91	0.905	0.908	0.94	0.84
	AN2	0.93				
	AN3	0.91				
	AN4	0.90				
CA	CA1	0.94	0.909	0.909	0.943	0.847

	CA2	0.90				
	CA3	0.93				
AFA	AFA1	0.94	0.901	0.901	0.938	0.835
	AFA2	0.92				
	AFA3	0.89				
	AFA4	0.90				

Source: Compiled by Author

The discriminant validity was confirmed by analyzing the square root of AVE and comparing it to the intercorrelation of constructs with alternative measures (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The diagonal entries in Table 4 indicated the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), while the entries outside the diagonal reflected the correlations among the constructs. As the square root of AVE exceeded the inter-construct correlations, this confirmed the presence of discriminant validity; however, it was argued that the criteria set forth by (Fornell and Larcker 1981) are insufficient for establishing discriminant validity. Thus, the discriminant validity was assessed using the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) values. All observed values remained below the threshold of 0.85, as indicated in Table 5 (Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2015).

Table 4. Discriminant Validity

	AFA	BC	AN	CA
AFA	0.93			
BC	-0.57	0.92		
AN	0.48	-0.46	0.92	
CA	0.51	0.83	0.6	0.91

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 5. HTMT Ratio

	BC	AN	CA	AFA
BC				
AN	0.622			
CA	0.684	0.523		
AFA	0.543	0.554	0.512	

Source: Compiled by Author

4.3 Structural Model

The structural model was evaluated by collinearity examination, testing the significance of the structural model, (Hair *et al.* 2012; Henseler *et al.* 2009) and calculating R^2 i.e. coefficient of determination (Cohen 1988). Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) were utilized to assess the multicollinearity among the constructs (Joseph F. Hair *et al.* 2012; Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics 2009). The VIF values calculated using SPSSv29 with latent variable scores were all below the threshold of 5, as illustrated in Table 6. Consequently, it is ensured that there is an absence of multicollinearity (Joseph F. Hair *et al.* 2012). Given that the values for collinearity have been justified, we can conclude that there is a significant relationship among the constructs. The significance testing of the constructs in the model was done using the bootstrapping algorithm in PLS-SEM. A random sample of 5000 cases were created from the original dataset to assess the significance of relationship between the constructs (Joseph F. Hair *et al.* 2012; Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics 2009). The findings are represented in Table 7.

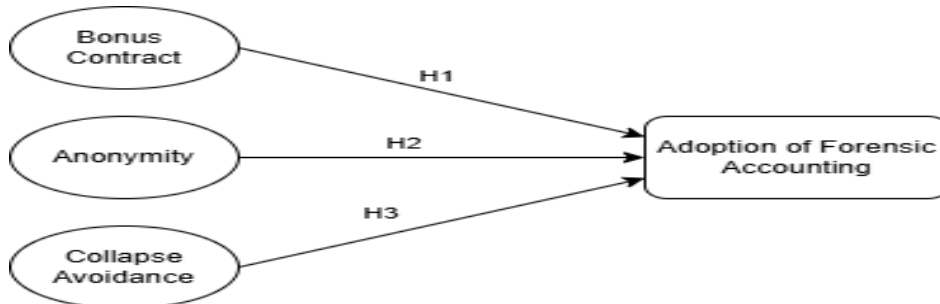
Table 6. Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Path co-efficients	T Statistics	P-value	Decision
BC → AFA	0.09	0.71	0.05	Not Supported
AN → AFA	0.4	3.90	0.05	Supported
CA → AFA	0.27	2.21	0.05	Supported

Source: Compiled by Author

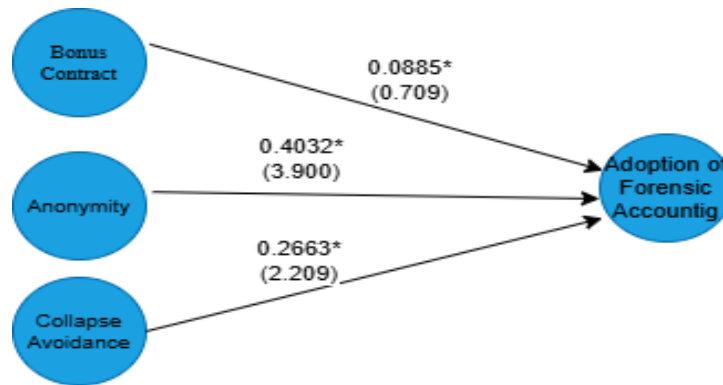
Figures 1 and 2 illustrate hypothesis testing. Following the hypothesis testing, the coefficient of determination (R^2) was calculated and was found to be 0.74 which is deemed satisfactory as suggested by (Cohen 1988).

Figure 1. Research Model



The model was also assessed for a good fit using the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), Normal fit index (NFI), and RMS theta. The recommended SRMR value is below the critical threshold of 0.80 (Henseler *et al.* 2014; Joe F. Hair, Howard, and Nitzl 2020) The obtained value was 0.071, suggesting that the model is a good fit. The NFI reported is 0.844, and the RMS theta is 0.133.

Figure 2. Results



5. Discussion and Implications

5.1 Discussion

The bootstrap algorithm of PLS-SEM was utilized to analyse the relationships between the constructions. These findings provide valuable insights into the non-accounting factors influencing the adoption of forensic accounting techniques. It indicated that the presence of bonus contract did not influence the adoption of forensic accounting techniques, whereas anonymity and collapse avoidance positively influenced the adoption of forensic accounting techniques.

H1 evaluates whether presence of bonus contract significantly and positively affects adoption of forensic accounting techniques. The results revealed that the presence of bonus contracts has an insignificant impact on adoption of forensic accounting techniques ($t=0.71$, $P < 0.05$). Hence H1 was not supported. This outcome suggests that financial and non-financial incentives linked to performance and result of an investigation done by accounting professionals, may not serve as a compelling motivator for adopting forensic accounting techniques.

H2 evaluates whether anonymity significantly and positively affects the adoption of forensic accounting techniques. The results revealed that anonymity has a significant impact on adoption of forensic accounting techniques ($t=3.90$, $P < 0.05$). Hence H2 was supported. Anonymity likely fosters a sense of security, encouraging practitioners to participate actively in fraud detection without fear. Organizations that prioritize anonymous reporting mechanisms may be in a better position to allow their professionals to uncover frauds using forensic accounting measures.

Similarly, H3 evaluated whether collapse avoidance significantly and positively affects the adoption of forensic accounting techniques. The results revealed that it has impact ($t= 2.21$, $P < 0.05$). Thus, H3 is supported. This highlights that organisations are likely to adopt forensic accounting practices when they recognize the

consequence of such investigative tools is not the winding up of the organization resulting in complete collapse. It may also reflect a proactive approach to mitigate the risk of operational disruption and reputational damage.

The research confirms the role of anonymity and collapse avoidance assurance in adoption of forensic accounting. The weak association between bonus contracts and adoption of forensic accounting techniques contradicts the hypothesis given by (Ozili 2020).

5.2 Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, the study highlights the nuanced roles of non-accounting factors such organisational incentives, *i.e.* bonus contract, anonymity and risk of collapse of the entity. First, the study shifts discourse beyond traditional accounting measures which focused on accounting measures, financial metrics, and compliance with regulatory framework. It broadens the lens by introducing cultural and psychological dimensions that are critical drivers of forensic accounting practices. Second, the study challenges the existing notion that financial incentives such as bonus contracts are sufficient to drive ethical practices and fraud prevention mechanisms within the organisation. Third, the significant impact of anonymity and collapse avoidance on the adoption of forensic accounting techniques highlights the importance of organizational culture and risk perception in prevention of fraud. This emphasizes that beyond the technical measures and financial incentives, the intangible aspects like the organisational culture, sense of security and perception of threat profoundly influence the ability of an organisation to combat frauds.

5.3 Practical implications

From a practical standpoint, the study highlights that the companies ought to focus on building an ethical culture and effective reporting system instead of solely relying on financial incentives. Such strategies not only foster a conducive environment for fraud detection and prevention but also create a culture of integrity and responsibility within an organisation. The positive impact of anonymity on forensic accounting adoption highlights the critical role of secure reporting system. Organisations are recommended to integrate forensic accounting methods into their risk management plans to proactively spot and address potential operational disruptions. The corporate policymakers are suggested to focus on raising awareness of the impacts of fraud among stakeholders. The awareness of the impact of fraud on the overall well-being of the organisation should be used as an encouragement for whistleblowing initiatives. Policies should support such initiatives, leveraging on the expertise of forensic accountants to investigate the reported misconduct.

Conclusion

The corporate world is always at the risk of both financial and non-financial misconduct. Forensic accounting techniques over the years have proved to significantly impact the effectiveness of financial fraud detection and prevention. Thus, the relevance of the sophisticated measures employed by forensic accountants to detect fraud is ever growing. Organisations must understand the vitality of forensic accounting in establishing a fraud-resistant atmosphere to thrive and develop in the current compliance-oriented environment.

This research underscores the importance of non-financial factors in the adoption of forensic accounting practices. In particular, anonymity was identified as a key facilitator, creating a safe space for practitioners to identify and report fraudulent activities. Additionally, the acknowledgment of collapse avoidance emphasizes the necessity of proactive strategies to reduce operational and reputational hazards. On the other hand, the minimal impact of bonus contracts indicates that financial incentives alone do not effectively encourage the integration of forensic accounting practices. The study broadens the understanding of how cultural, psychological and organisational elements can significantly influence the implementation of forensic accounting practices.

The present study can act as a basis for future research in the field of forensic accounting. Though this study concentrated particularly on non-accounting variables such as bonus contract, anonymity and collapse avoidance, further research could explore the role of additional variables to develop a deeper understanding of the factors affecting the adoption of forensic accounting. Additionally, studies that compare different industries or explore varying cultural and regulatory environments could yield important insights into how various factors impact successful implementation of forensic accounting practices.

The Forensic Accounting Theory formulated by P.K. Ozili in 2020 states how selected accounting and non-accounting factors affect the choice of forensic accounting techniques adopted by the practitioners. This study is the first to conduct empirical research on the non-accounting factors that affect the adoption of forensic accounting techniques. This novelty contributes significantly to both industry and academics.

Limitations

The present study has provided valuable contribution to literature; however, there are certain limitations that provide scope for future research. First, the study predominantly employed a quantitative method using the PLS-SEM, which, although useful for analysing relationships between constructs, fails to address the intricacies of organisational behaviours. A qualitative approach, such as case study and interviews, could offer deeper insights into how these non-accounting factors offer a more comprehensive understanding about organisational decision-making in regard to forensic accounting. Second, the study emphasised only on the non-accounting factors of Forensic Accounting Theory, accounting variables have not been examined. Factors such as regulatory changes, leadership commitment or even the role of technology have not been examined in the study which may have significant influence on adoption of forensic accounting. Finally, the sample of the study may not represent all industries or geographical location. Organisation from different sectors of the economy may have different levels of awareness, resources and regulatory pressures influencing their decision to adopt forensic accounting measures.

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Credit Authorship Contribution Statement

Richa Diwakar: The framework and idea of the study was conceptualised and curated by the first author, after thorough research of the existing literature. Based on this the questionnaire was developed to justify the objectives with the data.

Ritu Wadhwa: The author worked and analysed the data collected. She not only worked on removing outliers from the data but also used SmartPLS software to analyse the data. Based on the results of PLS-SEM analysis she concluded the findings and discussions of the study.

T.V. Raman: The author gave his contribution in designing the structure of the paper. He worked on the introduction and conclusion sections of the paper to make it a meaningful article. He kept a track of our work and synchronised the efforts of all the author.

Anubha Srivastava: The expertise of the author helped in materialising the idea of this study. She suggested the correct way to approach the objective of the study, worked on literature review to develop the hypothesis and finalised the methodology of the study.

R. Gowri Shankar: The author has made the final contribution in the paper by bringing together the essence of the study. His expertise in finance contributed to the understanding of the concept of forensic accounting.

Piyush Kumar Jain: The contribution of the author has been in conceptualization of the research model and correcting the methodology of the study in order to achieve the objectives. The language of the paper has been corrected by him to match the standards of academic publications.

Declaration of Competing Interest

No known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper have been declared by the authors of this study.

Declaration of Use of Generative AI and AI-Assisted Technologies

To the best of authors' knowledge, the use of artificial intelligence has been limited to improving only the quality of the study in terms of this fluency and readability. The originality of the idea is purely the authors', and due reference has been given to the studies referred to.

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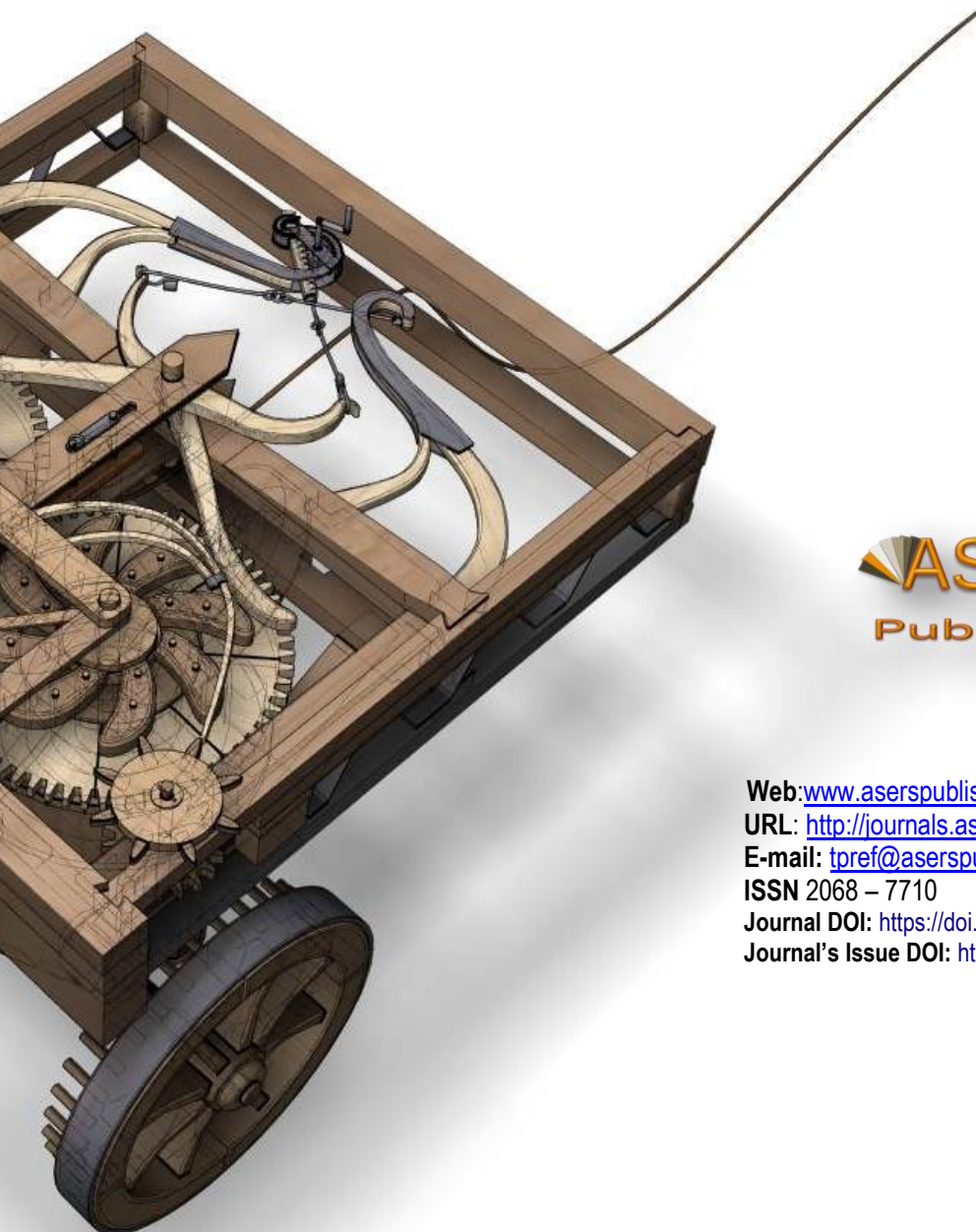
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