THE IMPACT OF PERCEPTIONS OF ETHICAL WORK CLIMATES AND
ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON WORKPLACE DEVIANCE

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

SUNA YÜKSEL

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

OCTOBER 2012

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

_____

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

_____

Assist. Prof. Dr. Engin Küçükkaya
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

_____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Semra F. Aşcıgil
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Ayşe Gündüz Hoşgör	(METU, SOC)	_____
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Semra F. Aşcıgil	(METU, BA)	_____
Assist. Prof. Dr. Pınar Acar	(METU, BA)	_____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name : Suna Yüksel

Signature   :

ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF PERCEPTIONS OF ETHICAL WORK CLIMATES AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON WORKPLACE DEVIANCE

Yüksel, Suna

M.B.A, Department of Business Administration

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Semra F. Aşcıgil

October 2012, 190 pages

The current study analyzes the impact of ethical work climates (caring, law and code, rules, instrumental and independence climates) and perceptions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) on workplace deviance (organizational and interpersonal deviance) which is associated with huge financial, social and psychological costs for the organizations and organizational members.

The findings of the research are based on a quantitative survey conducted among 219 employees in a public organization. The results obtained after controlling the significant effect of demographic variables revealed that it was only the perceptions of procedural justice that had a significant negative impact on organizational deviance. Distributive and interactional justice predicted neither interpersonal nor organizational deviance.

Among the ethical work climates, caring climate was found to be the only ethical climate type that predicted organizational deviance. The remaining types of ethical work climates had significant relationships with neither one of the interpersonal or organizational deviance. Results also showed that ethical work climate was a better predictor of organizational deviance than interpersonal deviance.

Keywords: Workplace Deviance, Ethical Work Climate, Organizational Justice, Public Sector Employees

ÖZ

ETİK İŞ İKLİMLERİ VE ÖRGÜTSEL ADALET ALGISININ İŞYERİNDE SAPKIN DAVRANIŞLAR ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Yüksel, Suna

Yüksek Lisans, İşletme Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Semra F. Aşçıgil

Ekim 2012, 190 sayfa

Bu çalışma etik iş iklimlerinin (önemseme, yasa ve kodlar, kurallar, araçsallık ve bağımsızlık iklimleri) ve örgütsel adalet algısının (dağıtımsal, işlemsel, etkileşimsel adalet algısı) işyerleri ve çalışanlar için ekonomik, sosyal ve psikolojik yönden oldukça maliyetli bir problem oluşturan işyerinde sapkın davranışlar (kişilere yönelik ve örgüte yönelik sapkın davranışlar) üzerindeki etkisini incelemektedir.

Çalışmanın sonuçları bir kamu kurumunda çalışan 219 kişiden toplanan nicel bir anket çalışmasına dayanmaktadır. Demografik değişkenlerin önemli etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra elde edilen sonuçlar, sadece işlemsel adaletin örgüte yönelik sapkın davranışlar üzerinde negatif bit etkisinin olduğunu göstermiştir. Dağıtımsal ve etkileşimsel adaletin ise ne kişilere ne de örgüte yönelik sapkın davranışları tahmin edebilme kapasitesinin bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Etik iş iklimleri arasında sadece önemseme ikliminin örgüte yönelik sapkın davranışları öngörmede yardımcı olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Diğer etik iş iklimi türlerinin ise ne kişilere ne de örgüte yönelik sapkın davranışlar ile ilişkilerinin bulunduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca sonuçlar, etik iş ikliminin örgüte yönelik sapkın

davranışları, kişilere yönelik sapkın davranışlardan daha iyi öngörebildiğini göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İşyerinde Sapkın Davranış, Etik İş İklimi, Örgütsel Adalet, Kamu Sektörü Çalışanları

To my family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

xii

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There has been a growing interest in the examination of negative workplace behaviors in organizations. Even though various definitions and terms are used to define negative workplace behaviors, the examples of the studied behaviors mostly include theft, absenteeism, drug and alcohol usage and interpersonal violence at work. In an attempt to configure a more comprehensive theoretical approach to the scattered nature of employee behaviors that are considered as deviant, Robinson & Bennett (1995) developed the term "workplace deviance". They defined workplace deviance as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization or its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p.556). Therefore the concept of "workplace deviance" was designed to tap a large variety of behaviors that intended to give harm to the organization or the organizational members and address a wide variety of deviant behaviors.

One of the most crucial points that attract scholars to the subject is the huge costs associated with these kinds of behaviors. As cited in Bennett & Robinson (2000, p. 349), workplace deviance leads to some costs that can be described as below:

> In the United States, annual costs of workplace deviance have been estimated to be as high as $4.2 billion for workplace violence alone (Bensimon, 1994), $40 to $120 billion for theft (Buss, 1993; Camara & Schneider, 1994), and $6 to $200 billion for a wide range of delinquent organizational behavior (Murphy, 1993).

Insurance losses, public relations expenses, lost repeat business, worker compensation; increased turnover rates and tarnished reputations are among some

1

other costs associated with workplace deviance (Filipczak, 1993; Kurland, 1993; Slora, Joy & Terris, 1991 as cited in Appelbaum, Deguire & Lay, 2005). In addition to the financial costs, some researchers have also examined the social and psychological impacts of deviant behaviors on employees which might be even more serious (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983; Murphy, 1993; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). In Turkey, exact figures about the costs and prevalence of such forms of behavior are not yet revealed by any research. Nevertheless, recently these issues have gained importance in behavioral studies (Bayram, Gürsakal & Bilgel, 2009).

In Turkey, especially in the last decade, research about deviant workplace behaviors is attracting interest among academicians. However, the number of studies on the subject still remains limited. Moreover due to the large set of definitions and terms that are used to define deviant behaviors, the studies conducted on the field are diversified in Turkey as well.

Examples of such studies in Turkey, focused on the deviant workplace behaviors (Arbak, Şanlı, & Çakar, 2004), the relationship between types of personalities and organizational sabotage (Altıntaş, 2009), organizational aggression and its effects on employees (Özdevecioğlu, 2003), the effect of organizational justice, trust and commitment on employee's deviant behavior (Demir, 2011) and the study of counterproductive work behaviors among white-collar employees (Bayram et al., 2009).

Given the severity and the pervasiveness of the problem, it is noteworthy to explain the factors contributing to the appearance of workplace deviance in organizations. With a view to explain the factors that influence upon the emergence of workplace deviance, this study examines the individual impacts of "ethical work climates" and perceptions of "organizational justice" on such behaviors.

Ethical work climates which are representative of the shared perceptions about ethically correct behaviors in organizations are considered to have a significant effect upon various employee behaviors. Victor & Cullen (1988) introducing the term ethical work climate, argued that the types of ethical climates in organizations changed with regard to the ethical reasoning used by the employees and their referent sources of action. Empirical research provided evidence that these different types of ethical work climates may have determinant effects of different sets of behaviors. There has been a number of studies that postulated that type of ethical work climate can be a good predictor of the type of deviant behavior that is likely to come out (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Appelbaum, Iaconi & Matousek, 2007; Peterson, 2002a; Vardi, 2001). Although, effects of ethical work climates on deviant workplace behaviors (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Appelbaum et al., 2007; Peterson, 2002a), antisocial behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), organizational misbehavior (Vardi, 2001), counterproductive behavior (Wimbush & Shephard, 1994), and dysfunctional behavior (Martin & Cullen, 2006) is analyzed in a number of studies, there had not been any study explicitly linking the term "workplace deviance" to "ethical work climates". In this sense, this research claims to be among the first studies to examine this relationship.

At this point, it should also be underlined that, the scope of the study does not cover a discussion of the ethicality of workplace deviance. Rather than discussing whether a deviant action would be considered as ethical or not by making use of ethical theories, the effects of certain types of the ethical work climates on certain types of workplace deviance will be analyzed. Thus, "although a particular behavior can be both deviant and unethical, the two qualities are not inevitably linked" (p.556). Even though Robinson & Bennett's study (1995) focused on workplace deviance rather than unethical behavior, they have suggested that the "study of ethics may benefit from an analogous multidimensional scaling study of unethical behavior." (p.568) (For such a discussion about impact of ethical ideologies on workplace deviance, see, Henle, Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2005)

3

Another purpose of the study is to analyze the impact of perceptions of organizational justice on workplace deviance. There is a wide array of research in the field studying the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and deviant behavior (Aquino, Galperin & Bennett, 2004; Aquino, Lewis & Bradfield, 1999; Baron, Neuman & Geddes, 1999; Henle, 2005; Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 2000; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). It is evident that perceptions of having been treated unfairly leads to resentment and deviant behaviors in the workplace. Therefore, it is predicted that, perceptions of unfairness leads to negative behaviors on the part of the employees that emerge to punish the organization and its representatives (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Based on this theoretical evidence, the study will focus on the separate impacts of types of ethical work climates and perceptions of organizational justice on workplace deviance. Therefore, the study does not aim to measure how two independent variables interact with each other and impact workplace deviance. The figure below summarizes the research model of the current study.
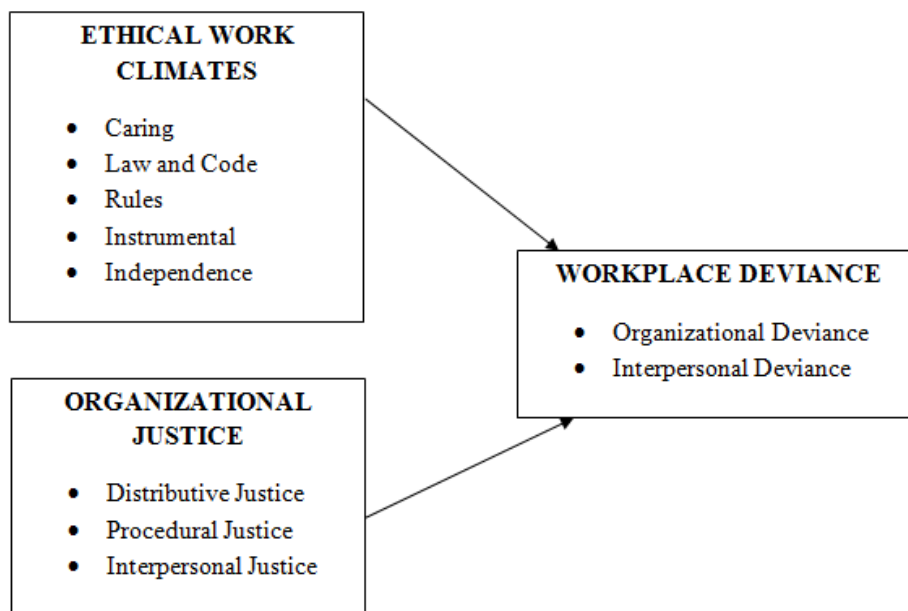
Figure 1. Research Model of the Study

The research discusses the relationship among the study variables based on the results of a quantitative study conducted among 219 employees of a public institution.

In this regard, the first chapter of the study which aims to introduce the scope of the dissertation is followed by the second chapter that encompasses a detailed literature review conducted for the study variables (workplace deviance, organizational justice, ethical work climate). The literature review on workplace deviance construct covers a discussion of the definition and dimensionality of the term as well as the stated antecedents of the behaviors. Moreover, literature review conducted for organizational justice includes an overview of the three types of justice as distributive, procedural and interactional and the differences among these concepts. Lastly, an examination of the previous studies on ethical work climates is presented with regard to the dimensionality of the concept, its differences from similar constructs and its consequences.

The third chapter of the study focuses on the hypotheses established for the scope of the study along with the theoretical background of the arguments. This section of the study introduces the hypotheses of the research in two separate parts. Whereas the first part proposes justifications with regard to the hypotheses that are related to the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and workplace deviance, the second part incorporates theoretical reasoning of the proposed hypotheses that deals with the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and workplace deviance.

Subsequently, the fourth chapter provides some information about the research method. This chapter includes a brief overview of the data analysis and data collection methods as well as the demographic characteristics of the sample. Additionally, fifth chapter of the study covers a discussion about the results of the current research. This section incorporates data about the statistical analysis

conducted within the framework of the study such as factor analysis, reliability analysis, intercorrelation analysis, regression analysis and MANOVA analysis and provides the statistical results for various hypotheses. Finally, the last chapter concludes the study by making a general discussion of the findings of the research for practical use and explaining limitations of the study with a view to guide future research to be conducted on the field.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Workplace Deviance

2.1.1. Definition of Workplace Deviance

Starting from 1980's onwards, the examination of workplace deviance attracted a lot of attention from the scholars. Throughout time, various names and terms have been used to describe different kinds of negative workplace behaviors. The terms, non-compliant behavior (Puffer, 1987), organizational delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989), workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996), organization-motivated aggression (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin & Glew, 1996), organizational misbehavior (Vardi & Wiener, 1996), antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), organizational vice (Moberg, 1997), organizational retaliation behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), dysfunctional behavior (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly & Collins, 1998), workplace counterproductivity (Sackett & DeVore, 2001), counterproductive behavior (Marcus, Schuler, Quell, & Hümpfner, 2002) and counterproductive workplace behavior (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas (2002) are the ones that are developed by researchers in a timely order (Gruys, 1999). Table 1 summarizes the above mentioned variety of definitions and terms by enlarging the framework constructed by Gruys (1999).

Table 1. Various Terms and Definitions of Workplace Deviance Based on Gruys' Framework (1999, p. 6-8)

Construct	Author	Definition
Noncompliant behavior	Puffer (1987)	Non-task behaviors that have negative organizational implications.
Organizational Delinquency	Hogan & Hogan (1989)	No formal definition provided: said to be a syndrome which is the result of employee 'unreliability'.
Workplace Deviance	Robinson & Bennett (1995)	Voluntary behavior of organizational members that violates significant norms and, in doing so threatens the well-being of the organization
Organizational Misbehavior	Vardi & Wiener (1996)	Any intentional action by members of organizations that violate core organizational/or societal norms.
Workplace Aggression	Baron &Neuman (1996) Folger & Baron (1996)	Any form of behavior by individuals that is intended to harm current or previous coworker or their organization.
Organization Motivated Aggression	O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin & Glew (1996)	Attempted injurious or destructive behavior initiated either by an organizational insider or outsider that is instigated by some factor in the organizational context.
Organizational Retaliation Behaviors	Skarlicki & Folger (1997)	Adverse reactions to perceived unfairness displayed by disgruntled employees toward their employer.

Table 1. continued

Construct	Author	Definition
<u>Antisocial Behavior</u>	Giacalone & Greenberg (1997)	Any behavior that brings harm, or is intended to bring harm to the organization, its employees, or its stakeholders.
<u>Organizational Vice</u>	Moberg (1997)	Any act that betrays the trust of either individuals or the organizational community.
<u>Deviant Employee Behavior</u>	Gruys (1999)	Any intentional behavior by an organizational member which violates significant organizational norms in a manner which is contrary to the interests of the organization.
<u>Workplace counterproductivity</u>	Sackett & DeVore (2001)	Any intentional behavior on the part of an organization member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interest
<u>Counterproductive behavior</u>	Marcus (2000; cited in Marcus, Schuler, Quell, & Hümpfner (2002)	Any act by a member of an organization that is obviously likely to do harm but no benefit to other members of the organization or the organization as a whole.
<u>Counterproductive workplace behavior</u>	Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas (2002)	A disregard for societal and organizational rules and values.

In their study Robinson & Greenberg (1998) examined the definitions of each proposed term and tried to find out some commonalities among them. For them, the five common characteristic shared by all definitions are 1) the perpetrator 2) intentionality 3) target of the behavior 4) nature and execution of the behavior and 5) consequence of the behavior.

The "perpetrators" which is the first common element in all definitions refers to the insiders, who are the employees working in the organization. As can be recognized, most definitions include 'organizational members' in their discussions. The only different approach in this respect is the one developed by O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996). They have made a distinction between organization motivated aggression and organization motivated violence, the first one describing the destructive behavior and the second one indicating the consequence of it. They have suggested that organization motivated aggression is not solely led by the insiders of the organization, but rather customers, clients and members of the public might also prompt aggression in an organization. Nevertheless, they have proposed that organizational insiders initiate more organization-motivated aggression than do organizational outsiders, and that their harm will be much severe than that of outsiders. Thus, they had made a major contribution to the body of literature by focusing on environmental antecedents of organization motivated aggression together with the personal factors.

"Intentionality" which is the second characteristic describing the behavior is also common is most definitions (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Antisocial behavior, workplace deviance, organizational misbehavior, workplace aggression, organization motivated aggression, workplace counter productivity and counterproductive work behavior are all examples of definitions that characterize 'intentionality' as the core characteristic of negative action. Thus, any behavior that causes harm accidentally or without any purposeful goal of doing so is not

considered to be a deviant one. Vardi & Wiener (1996) also categorizes intentions of the perpetrators into three, first one intending to benefit one's self, second one intending to benefit member's organization and third one inclined to inflict damage and be destructive both to the people and the organization. However, organizational delinquency and employee vice conceptualizations do not include the 'intentionality' dimension in their models. For example Hogan & Hogan (1989) view organizational delinquency as a matter of employee 'unreliability' which is a personal characteristic of the employees; therefore intentionality is not a necessity for the act to be considered harmful. For them, the core of organizational delinquency lies in the personality of the employees, so intention is not required.

The **"target"** which is the third common denominator shared by all definitions is usually defined as all organizational stakeholders (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Thus besides employees of the organization; former employees, clients of the organization or the public at large can also be the target of deviant behavior just like O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996) suggests. Another distinction with regard to the target of deviance is the one developed by Robinson & Bennett (1995). According to them, individuals, the organization itself or other organizations can be targets of deviance in an organization. Vardi & Wiener (1996) also states insiders as the most prevalent victims of organizational misbehavior. And they further categorize insider targets of the action into three units; '1) the work itself (2) the organization's property, resources, symbols or regulations and (3) other members' (Vardi & Wiener, 1996).

The fourth characteristic is the **"nature and execution of the action"** along which various definitions differ. As far as the nature of the action is concerned, in most definitions an action is considered to be deviant if it violates societal or organizational norms (Martinko et al., 2002; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). From the nature of the action perspective, Baron & Neumann (1996) classifies actions as 1) direct (actions directed to the target) or indirect (aimed at the

target by way of an agent) 2) active (inflicting harm) or passive (withholding benefits) and as 3) verbal and physical (as cited in Gruys, 1999).

The last aspect that is differentiated across various definitions is the attribute of the **"consequence"** that results from the deviant action. Whereas some researchers define the action as deviant if the action gives harm to a person or an organization, some other researchers are not interested in the resulting harm but rather the intention of giving damage to a person or the organization. Another interesting point to note is that deviant behavior can result in either positive or negative consequences. Some authors argue that deviant behavior may also have functional aspects (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Warren, 2003 cited in Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). There might be some occasions where the deviant behavior results with a positive consequence for the person, the coworker or the organization as a whole.

For the purpose of this study the definition developed by Robinson & Bennett (1995) will be used. The main reason for the choice of the term "workplace deviance" is the extensiveness of its scope. As previously stated, the term is basically defined as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p.556).

2.1.2. Dimensionality of Workplace Deviance

Given the extensive range and variety of the behaviors that might be considered as deviant, development of some dimensions are necessary for both simplicity and a better classification. Development of dimensionality is of central importance since classification of behaviors across various dimensions provides the opportunity to predict certain behaviors and to find correlations among them. Once the behaviors become predictable, then this prediction facilitates prevention of such behaviors by taking of necessary measures (Gruys, 1999).

In the body of the literature about workplace deviance, there have been various attempts by scholars to develop typologies and different dimensions about the subject (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Gruys, 1999; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Warren, 2003).

Hollinger & Clark (1982) introduced the first typology in the field through their examination of employee theft. It can be argued that this typology was largely based on Mangione & Quinn's (1975) study which proposed two similar categories of deviance as "counterproductive behavior" and "doing little". According to this classification, "counterproductive behavior" encompassed behaviors that purposely damaged employer's property whereas "doing little" was defined as producing output of poor quality and low quantity.

In the same vein, Hollinger & Clark (1982) have made a distinction between two categories of deviance as: *property deviance* and *production deviance.* According to this categorization; *property deviance* was considered to take place where employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the work organization without authorization. Theft of tools, equipment or money from the workplace was included in the property deviance section.

The second category of *production deviance* signified the "formally proscribed norms delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to be accomplished" (p.333). Slowing down the work process, usage of alcohol and drugs were considered to be examples to production deviance behaviors. One common theme in both classifications was the fact that; in each category, theft was directed towards the organization and not the individual members of the organization.

However, Robinson & Bennett (1995) enlarged the framework by adding the interpersonal facet into the construction. Their typology attempted to remove the restriction of the former typologies by also involving the actions targeted towards the

individuals. In constructing this framework, they questioned the validity of the formerly developed typologies since the former ones were not empirically tested. By making use of the multidimensional scaling technique, they tried to make a comprehensive classification of deviant behaviors and tried to find the relationships among them.

Using multidimensional scaling technique, they have concluded that deviant behaviors would be categorized along two dimensions being either based on the *seriousness/ harm* of the deviant action or the *target* of the deviant behavior. The seriousness of the deviant behavior was composed of two edges ranging from *minor* to *serious,* whereas the target of the behavior was classified along *interpersonal* and *organizational* dimensions. Therefore, final typology of the deviant workplace behavior (Figure 2) consisted of four quadrants each of which represented "four distinct but related types of deviance" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p.566).

According to this four-quadrant typology the "production deviance" quadrant reflected minor deviant behaviors directed towards the organization, whereas "property deviance" was a reflection of the more severe harmful acts that targeting the well-being of the organization. In a previous study, Wheeler (1976) made a distinction between serious and non-serious workplace offenses, and Hollinger & Clark's (1982) distinguished between production and property deviance. Thus, Robinson & Bennett's (1995) study had been an empirical validation of these theories.

In addition to the property and production deviance dimensions described by Hollinger & Clark (1982), they have additionally identified two more categories; political deviance and personal aggression. On the interpersonal axis of the typology, "political deviance" was representative of the minor acts that were aiming at "putting other individuals at a personal or political disadvantage" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p.566). The last quadrant "personal aggression" on the other hand was the

classification granted for the more serious acts such as sexual harassment or verbal abuse that were hostile in aggressive in nature.

Though Robison & Bennett (1995) used a self-report measure of workplace deviance, Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr & McIntyre (2009) modified this scale into a non-self-report measure in order to retest its dimensionality. Their analysis resulted in a three-factor structure that consisted of "production deviance, property deviance and personal aggression" dimensions ruling out the political deviance dimension. This was probably due to the fact that political deviance was directed towards the specific target individual which made it hard to be recognized by the other members of the group. This study was an indicator that perceptions of others' acts were organized in a different structure than conceptualizations of self-reports of deviance.

ORGANIZATIONAL

Production Deviance

Leaving early
Taking excessive breaks
Intentionally working slow
Wasting resources

Property Deviance

Sabotaging equipment
Accepting kickbacks
Lying about hours worked
Stealing from company

MINOR ←→ **SERIOUS**

Political Deviance

Showing favoritism
Gossiping about co-workers
Blaming co-workers
Competing nonbeneficially

Personal Aggression

Sexual harassment
Verbal Abuse
Stealing from co-workers
Endangering co-workers

INTERPERSONAL

Figure 2. Deviant Behavior Typology, Robinson & Bennett (1995)

Gruys (1999) has also contributed to the workplace deviance literature by developing another model of dimensionality of deviant employee behavior. Using multidimensional scaling, Gruys' (1999) argued that deviant behaviors varied on two dimensions: a *personal* versus *impersonal* dimension and a *task related* versus *not task related* dimension. In this respect, personal-impersonal dimension resembled to the interpersonal-organizational distinction introduced by Robinson & Bennett (1995). However, the addition of the dimension regarding task relevance was a new approach. In an analysis of counterproductive work behaviors, Gruys & Sackett (2003) also found out that such behaviors could be categorized under two dimensions: task relevance and interpersonal-organizational dimension. Gruys (1999) proposed that there were 11 categories of deviant behaviors:

1. Theft and related behavior (theft of cash or property; giving away of goods or services; misuse of employee discount).
2. Destruction of property (deface, damage, or destroy property; sabotage production)
3. Misuse of information (reveal confidential information; falsify records).
4. Misuse of time and resources (waste time, alter time card, conduct personal business during work time).
5. Unsafe behavior (failure to follow safety procedures; failure to learn safety procedures).
6. Poor attendance (unexcused absence or tardiness; misuse sick leave).
7. Poor quality work (intentionally slow or sloppy work).
8. Alcohol use (alcohol use on the job; coming to work under the influence of alcohol).
9. Drug use (possess, use, or sell drugs at work).
10. Inappropriate verbal actions (argue with customers; verbally harass co-workers).
11. Inappropriate physical actions (physically attack co- workers; physical sexual advances toward co-worker).

One of the strengths of the study was the overcoming of 'lack of opportunity problem'. Gruys (1999) have managed to further investigate the question of how the employees would behave if they were provided with the adequate opportunities, and the likelihood of these behaviors instead of making use of self-reports to explore different types of behaviors like Robinson & Bennett (1995).

Gruys (1999) found a general positive correlation between different types of deviant behaviors. The results have shown that, if a person engaged in one type of a deviant behavior, the possibility of engaging in another type of deviant behavior increased. This result is also consistent with Robinson & Bennett's (1997) propositions that uses the metaphor of 'families of behavior' for certain groupings of behavior. The findings have proven that individuals choose the least costly and the most feasible behavior among equivalent family of behaviors in a given context.

Later, building upon their previous classification, Bennett & Robinson (2000) argued that both minor and serious forms of deviance included behaviors directed either towards the individuals or the organization. Moreover, this distinction was rather quantitative than being qualitative. Therefore, the dimension regarding the severity of the behavior was eliminated, which resulted in a framework that divides deviant behaviors into two categories as *organizational* and *interpersonal* forms of deviance.

According to this two-dimensional measure, organizational deviance was described as the deviance type which was directed towards the organization whereas the interpersonal deviance was the one which was directed towards the members of the organization.

Though boiling down of such an extensive variety of behaviors into two categories might be deemed as too comprehensive to cover all types of behavior, nevertheless this two-factor structured model enabled researchers to take a broader approach to deviance. Without leaving any room for such criticisms, Bennett & Robinson's

(2000) findings revealed that the behaviors that fall into a specific category acted as substitutes for each other. Therefore, it was not necessary at all for the two scales to include all possible alternatives of deviant behaviors, since in any case the employees chose among the category of the behaviors that would be in line with their intentions.

Another construct development in this field of study was performed by Marcus et al. (2002). Though being quite similar to Bennett & Robinson's (2000) research, they have constructed a new scale in an attempt to measure "counterproductivity" which was defined "as any act by a member of an organization that is obviously likely to do harm but no benefit to other members of the organization or the organization as a whole" (p.19). This definition varies from the definition of "workplace deviance" in the sense that it does not put an emphasis on norm violation. The main justification for such a preference was the fact that norms were subject to change throughout time and they could have varied across cultures.

Marcus et al. (2002) considered their construction to be complementary and a possible alternative to the highly valid scale of Bennett & Robinson's (2000). They claimed that, their scale might be more suitable for the different requirements of different researchers, and might be a complementary scale to be used where the generic scale of Robinson & Bennett (2000) that can be applied to a large variety of settings does not suffice.

The new approach Marcus et al. (2002) introduced was the ignorance of the dimensionality of the counterproductive behaviors. In developing their scale, they have chosen two kinds of typologies (target and form of counterproductive behavior) to differentiate behaviors. The scale consisting of 74 items was mainly categorized on two target dimensions as the organizational and interpersonal like Bennett & Robinson (2000) and under four different forms of counterproductivity as; theft, absenteeism, aggression and sabotage. Nevertheless, the results revealed no significant distinction among the typologies. Thus, Marcus et al. (2002) concluded

that counterproductive behavior is a "higher order behavioral construct loading on sub-dimensions carrying unique variance" (p.18).

Likewise, Sackett & DeVore (2001) also proposed that counterproductive behavior was a hierarchical construct with a counterproductivity factor at the top, some group factors like interpersonal and organizational deviance as defined by Bennett & Robinson (2000) below and some specific behaviors such as theft, absence, and drug and alcohol usage under these group factors. Similar to Marcus et al. (2002) they also claimed that this hierarchical model would provide researchers with the flexibility to focus on the relevant level in the hierarchy that would be in line with their research interest. The model representing the continuum of general to specific behaviors was also considered to give clarity to the researchers in finding interrelationships among the counterproductive behaviors.

Sackett & DeVore (2001) used the term 'counterproductive behavior' instead of the term 'counterproductivity', since the later one was regarded to be the result of the counterproductive behavior. They defined workplace counterproductivity as an intentional behavior that is contrary to the legitimate interest of the organization. Thus, for example the action of leaving work for career development was not considered to be immoral or deviant, but contrary to the legitimate interests of the organization.

Warren's (2003) study was another attempt to develop an integrative typology of deviance trying to combine the two streams of research that focuses on the negative and positive consequences of the deviant behaviors. As opposed to the previously mentioned theories, Warren (2003) suggests that deviance from the organizational norms might also result in some positive behaviors for the organization such as organizational citizenship behavior (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994) or prosocial behavior (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This was in line with the "positive deviance" concept that was defined as ''intentional behaviors that depart from the

19

norms of a referent group in honorable ways'' (Spreitzer & Sonenshein; 2003, p.209).

Warren's typology (2003) (Figure 3) classifies deviant behaviors according to conformance or deviation from *reference group norms* or *normative standards* like hypernorms. In this respect, reference group norms are representative of the norms that are constructed by the social group whereas normative standards like hypernorms stand for the globally held norms and values.

Normative standard (e.g., hypernorms)

		Conform	Deviate
Reference Group Norms	Conform	Constructive conformity	Destructive conformity
	Deviate	Constructive deviance	Destructive deviance

Figure 3. Typology of Employee Deviance, Warren (2003)

According to this typology, conformance to both reference group norms and hypernorms result in constructive conformity behavior whereas behavior that is in line with the reference group norms but deviates from the hypernorms result in destructive conformity (e.g. selling an unsafe product).

On the other hand, behaviors that conform to normative standards but deviate from reference group norms are classified under constructive deviance category. Organizational citizenship behavior and prosocial behavior are examples of such constructive deviance. However, behaviors that deviate from both classes of norms are considered as destructive deviant behaviors (e.g. embezzlement).

Nevertheless, it must be noted that, for the purpose of this study the judgmental values of different kinds of deviant behaviors will not be taken into consideration. Since Bennett & Robinson's (2000) framework of workplace deviance constitutes

the basis of the research, judgmental evaluations about the behaviors will be disregarded.

2.1.3. Types of Workplace Deviance

Based upon Bennett & Robinson's (2000) typology of workplace deviance, various scholars focused their studies on the interpersonal and organizational forms of deviance (Applebaum et al., 2005; Henle, 2005; Henle, Giacalone, & Furkiewicz, 2005).

These results are consistent with prior conceptual approaches that have suggested two distinct forms of workplace deviance, that was directed at the organization itself and that was directed at its members (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

The division of workplace deviance into two dimensions as "interpersonal" and "organizational" was rooted in the discrepancies in the targets of the deviant behaviors. Though Robinson & Bennett (1995) distinguished deviant behaviors with regard to their targets (interpersonal vs. organizational) and the severity of the damage (minor vs. serious), they have preferred to use a four-quadrant structure. In the same vein, Neuman & Baron (1998) called for a distinction among the interpersonal and organizational dimensions of workplace aggression.

As already explained under the "Dimensionality of Workplace Deviance" section; the results of the confirmatory factor analysis conducted by Bennett & Robinson (2000) found a good fit for the two-factor model and provided evidence for the two dimensional scale's convergent and discriminant validity (Henle et al., 2005). The scales (organizational and interpersonal deviance) developed by Bennett & Robinson (2000) had internal reliabilities of .81 and .78 respectively.

Robinson & Bennett's (1995) initial inquiry was founded on worker's perceptions of the similarity or difference of the target behaviors and their perceptions of the seriousness of these behaviors. A later study by Gruys & Sackett (2003) added on to these findings and searched for the covariance of occurrence among these types of behaviors. The results of their co-occurrence data also supported for a two-dimensional solution. According to these findings, the first dimension was the Interpersonal-Organizational dimension that was categorized in relation to the individual or organizational targets of the behavior.

Given the large empirical evidence supporting for this distinction, it is noteworthy to gain some more insight about the characteristics and nature of each type of behavior and the relationship of the two categories with each other.

2.1.3.1.   Interpersonal Deviance

Interpersonal deviance can mainly be defined as the deviant behaviors directed or targeted towards the individual members of an organization. The victims of such behaviors can suffer from stress-related problems and demonstrate decreased productivity, lost work time and a relatively high turn-over rate (Henle et al., 2005). Therefore, interpersonal deviance is a critical type of deviance that needs further explanation.

Until Robinson & Bennett's (1995) study, individuals were largely overlooked as the targets of deviant acts. The previous research on the field focused on the deviant behaviors targeted towards the organization such as theft, absenteeism or sloppy work on purpose (Boye & Slora, 1993; Hogan & Hogan, 1989; Hollinger & Clark, 1982).

In an attempt to examine the deviant acts that are interpersonal in nature Robinson & Bennett (1995) developed a scale that included acts directed towards individuals such

as physical aggression and sexual harassment. Gossiping, verbal abuse, blaming-coworkers and stealing from co-workers were among the behaviors that were listed under the interpersonal dimension of the classification.

However, Bennett & Robinson (2000) further narrowed down the scale they have constructed in 1995 by deleting a large number of items. The resulting scale provided the researchers to explore deviant acts targeted towards individuals such as making fun of others, playing mean pranks, acting rudely towards co-workers or publicly embarrassing coworkers at work.

Besides the interpersonal/organizational deviance distinction, some propose that interpersonal deviance in itself can be divided into further categories with regard to the target of the intended behavior (Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Herschcovis et al., 207). In their study Greenberg & Barling (1999) investigated employee aggression towards the coworkers, subordinates and supervisors separately. Similarly, Hershcovis et al. (2007) predicted the targets of the deviant behaviors as co-workers, supervisors or subordinates deriving from a meta-analysis.

Herschcovis et al. (2007) argued that the employees are likely to exhibit deviant behaviors towards their supervisors when they are treated in a badly manner by the supervisors just like as they are expected to aggress against their colleagues when they are confronted with a challenging remark by their coworkers.

Thus deriving from the fact that deviant behaviors are target specific, they argue that interpersonal deviance should be divided into sub-measures so as to include various targets of the behaviors such as supervisors, coworkers and subordinates.

2.1.3.2. Organizational Deviance

Organizational deviance pertains to the acts that are targeted toward the organization in an intention to give harm. The origins of the study of organizational deviance behaviors rest heavily on earlier research that focuses on theft, sabotage, organization motivated aggression or organization retaliation behaviors (Boye & Slora, 1993; Hogan & Hogan, 1989; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Wheeler, 1976).

One of the main points that deserve attention in the definition of workplace deviance regards the phrase concerning "violation of significant organizational norms". According to the definition of workplace deviance, a behavior can only be considered as deviant if it violates significant organizational norms. To illustrate, if the rules and regulations of an organization explicitly permits consumption of alcohol or use of drugs at work, then drinking of alcohol or use of substance will not be deemed as deviant in that particular organization.

In a study, Wheeler (1976) has examined how organizational-rule breaking is punished by classifying rule-breaking behaviors into serious and non-serious ones. Thus, the first classification for the violation of organizational norms was based on the seriousness of the deviant behaviors. Later on, Hollinger & Clark (1982) made a distinction with regard to "property deviance" and "production deviance". This categorization entailed that the forms of deviance departed from each other based on either damaging employer's property or violating organizational norms concerning the quality and the quantity of the work performed.

Robinson & Bennett (1995) combined the statements of previous researches in the field under the "production deviance" and "property deviance" quadrants that represented the "organizational" dimension. This dimension included deviant behaviors such as leaving early, taking excessive breaks, sabotaging equipment,

stealing from the company and lying about hours worked. Similarly, Gruys & Sackett (2003) included poor attendance, misuse of time and misuse of company resources as well as misuse of information among the behaviors that are considered under the "organizational" dimension of counterproductive work behaviors.

Bennett & Robinson (2000) who introduced the term "organizational deviance" into the literature developed a scale consisting of 17 items, that included behaviors such as coming in late to work without permission, taking property from work without permission, intentionally working slower and neglecting supervisor's instructions.

2.1.3.3. The Relationship between Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance

The distinction between interpersonal and organizational deviance is addressed and questioned by various scholars (Berry, Ones & Sackett, 2007; Dalal, 2005; Lee & Allen, 2002; Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo, 2006).

Bennett & Robinson (2000) found a correlation of 0.46 between the interpersonal and organizational deviance scales. This moderate relationship meant that the two types of workplace deviance were distinct but somehow related constructs. The analysis of convergent and discriminant validity of the scales also proved that the scales showed different correlations with different constructs (frustration, organizational justice, Machiavellianism, organizational citizenship behavior).

Testing the distinction between the interpersonal and organizational forms of deviance by using factor analysis, Lee & Allen (2002) failed to find an adequate fit with Bennett & Robinson's (2000) model. On the other hand, Sackett et al. (2006) found an adequate fit with the fore-mentioned scales. However, it should be noted that the cut-offs of two find adequate fits were different from each other in each

study. Thus, it might be inferred that "factor-analytic evidence for the interpersonal – organizational deviance distinction is inconclusive" (Berry et al., 2007, p.411).

Another line of research findings showed that, interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance are highly correlated (Dalal, 2005). Dalal (2005) questioned the meaningfulness of the distinction between the two constructs upon his findings which revealed a correlation of .70 among the two constructs. Nevertheless, these findings did not gain popular support among the scholars.

The results of Berry et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis indicate that an examination of the previous studies prove the viability of separate interpersonal and organizational deviance scales. Therefore, it can be argued that despite being related interpersonal and organizational deviance are two separate phenomena.

2.1.4. Antecedents of Workplace Deviance

Workplace deviance is an extremely prevalent and highly costly problem for the organizations and for the organizational members. Empirical evidence shows that in the United States of America, the cost of employee deviance nationwide exceeds $200 billion each year and cause 30 percent of all business failures (Murphy, 1993). Besides financial and economic costs, workplace deviance is also reported to result in higher turnover rates among employees and cause even more damaging psychological and social problems (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Murphy, 1993; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Moreover, workplace deviance can be observed in a wide array of sectors ranging from retail sales to manufacturing (Hollinger & Clark, 1983).

Given the prevalence of workplace deviance coupled with its vastly detrimental financial, psychological and social effects, it is of foremost importance to gain insight about its underlying causes. There have been numerous attempts by

researchers to examine the antecedents and predictors of deviant workplace behaviors (Applebaum et al., 2007; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt & Barrick, 2004; Herschcovis et al., 2007; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Martinko et al., 2002; Ones, 2002; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

An analysis of the previously conducted studies on antecedents of workplace deviance shows that, mostly two lines of research prominently dominate the literature; one pointing out personality related factors as predictors of workplace deviance, and the second one investigating the effects of organizational contexts and the work situation on the emergence of deviant action. To be more precise, the predictors of workplace deviance are mostly classified under two headings as the "individual related factors" and the "situational factors".

However, most scholars argue that "individual factors" and "situational" factors cannot be considered as isolated from each other and thus, workplace deviance is a product of a combination of factors at the individual and at the situational level (Colbert et al., 2004; Herschovis et al., 2007; O'Leary-Kelly, 1996; Peterson, 2002a; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Vardi, 2001; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Herschcovis et al. (2007) states that both individual and situational factors predict aggression. Likewise Trevino & Youngblood (1990 as cited in Peterson, 2002a) argues that "deviant behavior may be best predicted based on a combination of personality variables and the nature of the workplace situation" (p.49). Vardi (2001) also proposes that organizational misbehavior is an outcome of the interaction between factors at the individual level and factors at the organization level.

This line of reasoning suggests that the individual factors and the situational factors have the capacity to influence and shape each other. To illustrate, an individual who has aggressive tendencies is most likely to effect the work environment in the same fashion. However, the opposite may just be true; an individual who is free of

aggressive tendencies can learn and adopt such behaviors if the general work setting exhibits such inclinations (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996).

Robinson & Bennett (1995) argued that different types of workplace deviance can be caused by different antecedents. For example, organization related factors might trigger organizational deviance more, whereas individual related factors can mostly stimulate interpersonal type of deviant behavior. In the same vein, Colbert et al. (2004) argued that antecedents of workplace deviance have differential impacts on workplace deviance that determines which kind of deviance to choose. Empirical evidence suggests different antecedents have displayed different effects on different types of workplace deviance (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Peterson, 2002a; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Another explanation that contains elements from both individual and organizational level factors is the one developed by Lawrence & Robinson (2007) that defines workplace deviance as a form of organizational resistance. Their study has been the first empirical test to connect deviant behavior to the power relations. They argued that the nature of power relations in an organization can lead to frustration in some employees that might result in workplace deviance. Tough power relations usually reflect the general characteristic of the general organizational context; it is the perceptions of the individuals that provide a meaning to the structure of power relations.

However, Martinko et al. (2002) introduced another approach to the antecedents of workplace deviance regarding the interaction between the individual and situational level factors. They argued that counterproductive behavior was the result of a complex cognitive process which was initially shaped by the interaction between the individual and situational variables and then translated into behavior through an individual's causal reasoning about the environment and the expected outcomes.

Based on the causal reasoning theory, authors proposed that deviant behaviors arise as a product of a two-staged process. This theory argues that individuals evaluate the quality of the outcomes at the first stage and then act based on the beliefs regarding the causes of these outcomes. In other words, the causal reasoning process about the causes of the outcomes determines the kind of reactions that will be manifested by an individual (Martinko & Gardner, 1982; Martinko, Henry & Zmud, 1996 cited in Martinko et al., 2002). To give an example, tough two employees may hold the same belief that they are treated unequally; the perceptions about the causes of that inequitable state will determine each employee's response. If one employee relates that unjust situation to his lack of effort, then it is likely that he will not engage in deviant behavior. On the other hand, if the other employee perceives his boss as the source of the inequitable state, then it is highly likely that he will exhibit workplace deviance.

Gottfredson & Hirchi's (1990) theory of self-control provides another useful explanation for the antecedents of workplace deviance. In their analysis of the reasons of the criminal conducts, they have proposed that self-control was the most decisive actor. Similarly, besides the separate or interactional nature of the individual and situational variables, one common theme that was present in both antecedents was claimed to be the "self-control" mechanism (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). The claim that "self-control" is the most explanatory antecedent of workplace deviance largely rests on Marcus' (2001 as cited in Marcus et al., 2004) taxonomy of antecedents of counterproductive behaviors.

In an attempt to organize various propositions on antecedents of counterproductive behaviors, Marcus (2001 as cited in Marcus et al., 2004) developed a taxonomy that was profiled along two dimensions. Just as it is mentioned above, the first dimension in this taxonomy involved the discussions concerning the distinction and the interaction between personal and situational antecedents. Consecutively, the second dimension of the taxonomy covered a distinction between motivational and control

theories. Whereas, motivational theories attempt to explain deviant behavior by making reference to the driving forces like internal propensity or external pressure that motivates them to deviate, control theories rather focuses on the factors that make individuals refrain from engaging in a deviant act.

Nevertheless, two main streams around which the literature on antecedents of workplace deviance is largely based is the distinction among the "situational" and the "individual" factors. Therefore, the subsequent sections will provide some brief knowledge about the attributes of each class of antecedents.

2.1.4.1.   Situational Factors

The term "situational factors" as a predictor of workplace deviance, usually refers to the certain conditions of the organizational environment that predispose employees to deviance (Henle, 2005). An analysis of situational factors means that any individual variable is ignored and that the organizational variables are the sole triggers of deviant behaviors.

Scholars focusing on the situational aspect of workplace deviance antecedents include a wide array of organizational factors such as "job stressors, organizational frustration, lack of control over the work environment, weak sanctions for rule violations and organizational changes such as downsizing'' (Henle, 2005, p.248) under this dimension. "Organization and group norms, organization values, organization culture and climate, organizational socialization, ethical climate, built-in opportunity and reward and control systems" (Vardi, 2001, p.326) are also another set of situational factors that is considered to be influential in causing workplace deviance.

Vardi & Wiener (1996) maintained that each organization had its unique characteristics and that each had distinctive contextual characteristics that affected an

individual's tendency to engage in work-related misbehavior. For them, the central element in an organization was the social context that determined an employee's propensity to deviate. Based on Salancik & Pfeffer's (1978) theory of social information, they argued that the social context itself affects person's behavior by shaping his or her perceptions and beliefs about organizational situations. This postulation is supported in a later study by Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly (1998) which proved that a positive relationship existed between the level of antisocial behavior exhibited by an employee and that of his or her coworkers. Therefore, this study was a confirmation that antisocial behaviors at work were shaped by the antisocial behaviors exhibited at the general work setting.

Lee & Allen (2002) argued that; employees' cognitions (their thoughts about work) and affect (their feelings about work) had an important role in understanding the relationship between situational factors and workplace deviance. Their findings revealed that job cognitions, in other words how employees perceived the work situations were a better predictor of workplace deviance than job affect. This meant that; negative perceptions about the situational factors had a greater potential to cause deviant behaviors than the emotions about a particular work situation (Colbert et al., 2004).

Social exchange theory (Gould, 1979; Levinson, 1965 cited in Colbert et al., 2007) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960 as cited in Colbert et al., 2007) constitute another widely used explanation for the impacts of situational factors on workplace deviance. According to these theories, employees view their work relationship as one of a social transaction and therefore act on the basis of norm of reciprocity. As a consequence of this argumentation, it is expected that favorable situational variables (e.g. favorable reward system, fair treatment, built-in opportunities) would prompt employees to react positively whereas; unfavorable situational variables (e.g. job stress, lack of control over environment, heavy work load) are anticipated to trigger deviant actions.

### 2.1.4.2.	Individual Factors

"Individual factors" also labeled as "person-based factors" constitute the second stream of research that evaluates individual variables as the core responsible of deviant behaviors. This perspective postulates that regardless of the impact of any environmental factor, the personality of an employee dictates whether he will engage in deviant behavior or not.

There exists a common belief in literature as to what kind of a personality is mostly likely to commit deviant behavior. According to this supposition, some specific personality traits such as sensation-seeking, risk-taking, Type A personality and negative affectivity increases the potential to deviate (Henle, 2005).

Personality traits have the capacity to downgrade the impact of situational variables. Consistent with Ones, Viswesvaran & Schmidt's (1993) findings Colbert et al. (2004) argued that the personality traits of conscientiousness, emotional stability, and agreeableness are among the factors that should be paid attention to in the selection of the personnel, since these characteristics decrease the frequency and likelihood of deviant behavior.

However, there are also some other underlying reasons other than the personalities of the employees. To give an example, Vardi & Wiener (1996) listed person-organization value congruence, generalized value of loyalty and duty, dissatisfaction of personal needs by the organization and personal circumstances as the antecedents of organizational misbehavior. On the other hand, Herschcovis et al. (2007) claimed that trait anger and sex also play an important role as an antecedent of workplace deviance. However, the role of gender as a determinant of deviant action is highly debated. Researchers cannot reach to a consensus as to whether women or men are more aggressive and more prone to engage in deviant acts.

2.1.5. Workplace Deviance in the Public Sector

The body of literature on workplace deviance is quite fertile with regard to the distinction between private and public sector. The research conducted on the field does not cover any comprehensive discussion with regard to the differences of workplace deviance among different sectors and their possible causes. However, a number of studies address the concern that some differences might have been observed in the findings if the research was to be conducted in a private sector environment (Aquino et al. 1999; Aquino et al. 2004). Conducting their research in two different sample settings, one being a governmental agency and the other being a private organization, Aquino et al. (1999) emphasized that some differences in deviant behaviors might have been observed due to the differences in the organizational memberships of the respondents. They argued that employees of public organizations may have a stronger sense of job security than their private sector counterparts which might have an impact on their deviant behaviors. Likewise, in examining the impact of interactional justice perceptions on deviant behaviors, Aquino et al. (2004) maintained that some features of public organizations like "…the difficulty of terminating or punishing poor-performing employees.." (p.1024) might have had an influence on their findings.

In a study, aiming at exploring the differences in public and private sector, Boyne (2002) also concluded that public organizations are more bureaucratic and public managers are less materialistic and less committed than the managers of the private sector. Similarly, in their research analyzing workplace deviance in public organizations in Pakistan, Nasir & Bashir (2012) attracted attention to the peculiar characteristics of governmental organizations. They argued that in Pakistan, public sector employees experience low degrees of job satisfaction and feel that they are not fairly compensated for their respective contributions. Moreover, due to the high prevalence of favoritism and nepotism in governmental agencies, employees perceive a negative work climate which motivates them to engage in deviant

behaviors. The lack of a merit based system, communication problems between managers and subordinates and the insufficiency of extra benefits are among some other factors that are indicated as sources of impetus that trigger deviant behaviors of public servants by Nasir & Bashir (2012).

2.2.   Organizational Justice

In an attempt to understand the underlying reasons of the deviant behaviors exhibited by the employees, the second independent variable chosen for the purpose of this study is the perceptions of "organizational justice". Thus, this section covers the review of literature conducted on the concept of "organizational justice" as a separate construct without touching upon its relationship with the emergence of deviant behaviors. The association between the two will later be discussed in the "Development of Hypotheses" section.

2.2.1. The Concept of Organizational Justice

It is widely recognized that fairness plays an important role in organizations by influencing certain organizational variables (Greenberg, 1990b). Given the significance of the subject, early scholars tended to achieve a better understanding of the concept by applying theories of social justice (*distributive justice theory*, *equity theory* and *relative deprivation theory*) to it (Greenberg, 1990b). Nonetheless, there had been a need for an improved fit of these theories to the organizational environment. Hence, studies exploring the conception of justice in organizational settings began to flourish and led to the emergence of a new field labeled "organizational justice" (Greenberg, 1987).

As stated by Moorman (1991) organizational justice is "concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they had been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables" (p.845).

Historically, scholars held different views about what really determined perceptions of fairness by the employees. As a result, several conceptualizations of organizational justice were materialized.

In the early stages of the research, the organizational justice was conceptualized as a two-factor model (Greenberg, 1990b). The first factor was the concept of *distributive justice* (Homans, 1961) which was related to the fairness of the ratio of inputs to outputs. Whereas the second form of justice labeled as *procedural justice* (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) was associated with the fairness of the processes and procedures used to derive decisions. However, later on Bies & Moag (1986) introduced a third factor defined as *interactional justice.* Interactional justice was concerned with the quality of the interpersonal treatment one receives from the organization. Though there was a clear cut distinction between perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, researchers held divergent views about whether interactional justice would be treated as a separate concept or be evaluated under the umbrella of procedural justice.

In order to achieve a better understanding of the tracks in organizational justice research and to show how various theories are distinct and interrelated with each other, Greenberg (1987) made a taxonomy of organizational justice. Greenberg (1987) categorized various theories introduced until the time of the research along reactive-proactive and process-content dimensions, thereby providing a scheme to the researchers to facilitate them which theory to use in examining a particular situation.

In the subsequent sections, each conceptualization of organizational justice will be presented in detail in light of the theories used to explain them. Subsequently, an analysis of the differences among the concepts will be made.

2.2.2. Distributive Justice

The concept of distributive justice was the first category introduced in the history of organizational justice literature (Homans, 1961). Distributive justice is mainly concerned with the perceived fairness of the outcomes received. This construct highly builds on Adams' (1965) theory of inequity.

Adam's theory of inequity suggests that, "inequity exists for person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes to inputs and the ratio of other's outcomes to other's inputs are unequal" (p.280). Thus a person is considered to make evaluations of his own state as well as other's in reaching a decision about the fairness of the organization. In this definition, inputs refer to the contribution a person puts in to his/her job like physical and mental effort, education, accumulation whereas outputs usually refer to the rewards taken for performing the job like pay levels or job status.

Moreover, this theory also maintains that favorable perceptions of equality will result in positive work behaviors whereas perceptions of inequality will create a tension which needs to be resolved. The reasoning behind is that, employees will try to restore the balance between inputs and outputs by either decreasing the input or increasing the output. As a proof of the validity of Adams' theory, many studies revealed that overpaid workers increased their inputs in order to reduce inequity, whereas underpaid workers decreased their inputs to achieve the input-output balance (Goodman & Friedman, 1971).

Despite the large number of studies supporting Adams' thesis, some criticisms had also been raised against the theory. According to Lawler (1968) and Pritchard (1969) the results attained by the supporting studies stemmed from devalued self-esteem or threat of job insecurity rather than feelings of inequity.

In examining distributive justice as a broader concept Deutsch (1975) has found out that, equity is not the only cause of distributive justice. Rather distributive justice perceptions may rely on the principles of equity, equality and need depending on the individual characteristic of the circumstances. Nevertheless, equity theory which was tested a large number of times still remains as one of the strongest grounds in explanations of distributive justice.

Apart from the widely accepted equity theory of Adams', Leventhal's (1980) justice judgment model is another prevalent theory used in explaining distributive justice perceptions. According to Greenberg's (1987) taxonomy, Leventhal's justice judgment model is seen as the proactive counterpart of Adams' equity theory which was considered to be reactive. The common characteristic of these theories is that, they both focus on the perceived fairness of the outcome distributions. However, Leventhal's justice judgment model diverges from equity theory in the sense that, it also attaches importance to the fairness of the procedures that lead to the final outcomes.

Leventhal's theory raises major criticisms against equity theory's unidimensionality. That is, the line of thinking that purports individuals to evaluate fairness by comparing their and other's inputs with the outputs they have driven and thus to conclude that greater contributions should receive higher outcomes is not always true. Though accepting the validity of the "contributions rule" of equity theory, it is suggested that some other standards of justice may also influence justice perceptions. According to Leventhal (1980) in some situations, the fairness evaluations could be influenced by the "needs rule" or the "equality rule". In the judgment of fairness, whereas the first rule holds that the one who is more in need should receive higher outcomes, the second rule claims that regardless of the contribution everyone should receive similar outcomes.

2.2.3. Procedural Justice

The concept of "procedural justice" proposes that the fairness perceptions are not only determined by the perceived fairness of the outcomes, but rather the procedures used to derive outcomes also play an important role (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Therefore, the procedures were considered to be a means to reach fair outcomes. Hence; the concept of procedural justice was an expansion of the study of distributive justice.

Research has found out that some factors are determinant in shaping the perceptions about the fairness of the procedures. Thibaut & Walker (1975) argued that, when employees are provided with a "process control", that is if they are given the opportunity to control the procedures which are used to make decisions, they perceive the decisions to be fairer.

Another line of argument highly dominating the literature besides the "process control effect" has been the "voice effect" as argued by Folger (1977). "Voice effect" theory argues that the more the individual is provided with the opportunity to express his views about a decision before it is made, the more positive will be his perceptions of procedural fairness. Therefore, even if an individual has no direct control over the procedures itself, his perceptions of procedural justice will be fairer if he is given a chance to express his ideas.

According to this theory the timing of opportunity to give voice is also of importance. The research by Lind, Kanfer & Earley (1990) has found out that, the fairness perceptions will be strongest when employees are given the opportunity to express their voice *before* the decision is made (pre-decision voice). It is revealed that, increase in fairness perceptions were not as high as in the pre-decision voice, when the employees were given the chance to express their opinions after the decision is made. Nonetheless, still perceptions about fairness was higher when

employees were provided with the opportunity to express their opinions after the decision is made compared to the situation when employees were given *no* voice at all.

Lind & Tyler's (1988) "group value model" was another important contribution to the explanations of procedural justice. This model suggested that individuals judged fairness of the procedures and treatment they receive on the basis of feelings of "respect within the group" and the feelings of "group pride". Thus, the model proposed that, if employees perceive to be treated fairly by their employers in a group environment, than they would feel themselves as being respected. Secondly, if they believe that the decision making procedures in their organization are fair, then they would feel group pride. In shaping judgments about fairness of the procedures, three factors; the neutrality of the decision-making procedure, trust in the third party, and the information the experience communicates about social standing (Tyler, 1989) were considered to be determinant. In their research; Tyler, Degoey & Smith (1996) further verified that neutrality, trustworthiness and the social standing were important elements in the proliferation of procedural justice perceptions.

As expressed in the previous section, Leventhal (1980) was one of the first scholars emphasizing the importance of the procedures rather than the outcomes themselves. Leventhal argued that there were six rules to evaluate the fairness of the procedure which were the consistency rule, bias-suppression rule, accuracy rule, correctability rule, representativeness rule and the ethicality rule. Whereas the consistency rule concerned maintenance of consistency in the enactment and implementation of procedures across persons and across time, bias-suppression rule dictated that procedures be free of self-interest in the allocative process. Moreover, accuracy rule stated that employees should be fully informed about the decisions and the justifications of the decisions. The accuracy rule was also an important component as it affected all other five dimensions. The accuracy rule prepared the ground to ensure accountability in the selection and execution of procedures.

In addition, correctability rule postulated that always some room should be left to reverse or modify the decisions at various times and at various decision making levels. In the end, all the decisions were open to the possibility of errors due to the human factor. Representativeness rule on the other hand, argued that the basic concerns, values and interests of all those who are affected by the decision should be taken into consideration. Lastly, ethicality rule stated that procedures should be in line with the ethical values and standards of the individuals concerned.

Lind et al. (1990) in their research made a distinction about the procedural justice theories as being either "instrumental" or "non-instrumental". This distinction was mainly based on the propositions of Lind & Tyler (1988). Lind & Tyler argued that the theories in the field can be classified into two based on their explanations of procedural justice as to instrumental, self-interest concerns or to non-instrumental, group value concerns.

Therefore, this distinction entailed that if the theory used the fairness of procedural justice perceptions as a means to explain highly likelihood of a more favorable or fair outcome, then this theory would be named as instrumental. In this sense, "voice effect" and "process control" theories were considered to be among the instrumental theories. On the other hand, "group value model" as developed by Lind &Tyler (1988) was classified among the non-instrumental ones.

2.2.4. Interactional Justice

Interactional justice is the third type of justice introduced to the justice literature by Bies & Moag (1986). Interactional justice concerns the quality of the interpersonal treatment one receives from his supervisor during the enactment of organizational procedures. Interactional justice concept has attracted a lot of interest from the justice scholars (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shaphiro, 1987, Folger & Bies, 1989, Tyler & Bies, 1990 as cited in Greenberg, 1990b).

Interactional justice arguments claim that besides the fairness of the procedures, interactional considerations also play an important role in judging fairness in a certain organization. Therefore, the treatment of the decision making authorities in the enactment of procedures deserves attention.

Bies & Moag (1986) named four criteria that influenced evaluations about fairness of the treatment as: justification, truthfulness, respect and propriety. Justification required that the employees were given adequate and logical explanation about the decisions, whereas truthfulness necessitated decision making authority's honesty. On the other hand, the authority figure's treatment should have been based on respect and should be independent from prejudices or improper remarks. Similar to what Bies & Moag (1986) suggested, Tyler & Bies (1989 as cited in Greenberg, 1990b) proposed that five criteria shaped the perceptions about the fairness of the treatment. These were mainly: adequately considering others' viewpoints, suppressing personal biases, consistently applying decision-making criteria, providing timely feedback about decision and adequately explaining the basis for decisions.

Another study analyzing the importance of managerial treatment in fairness perceptions has been the research of Folger & Bies (1989). They have also emphasized the importance of managerial responsibilities in attaining fairness. According to their research, giving adequate consideration to employees' viewpoints, suppressing biases, applying decision-making criteria consistently, providing timely feedback, giving justification, being truthful in communication, and treating employees with courtesy and civility were the principal responsibilities of the managers to ensure interpersonal fairness.

As can be inferred, the arguments of the scholars as to how managerial treatment should be overlaps to a great extent. All these arguments mainly suggest that interactional justice perceptions can be categorized under two mainstreams as either being treated with dignity or being provided with adequate explanation. However,

Greenberg (1993) developed two classifications labeled as "informational justice" and "interpersonal justice" instead of using the term interactional justice. According to this distinction, informational justice could be attained by "providing knowledge about procedures that demonstrate regard for people's concerns", whereas interpersonal justice could be achieved "by showing concern for individuals regarding the distributive outcomes they received." Thus, interpersonal justice focused on the outcomes and not on the knowledge of the procedures as informational justice proposes.

In an attempt to analyze the multi-dimensionality of organizational justice, Colquitt (2001) argued that justice is best conceptualized as four distinct dimensions: procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Nevertheless, still the most widely accepted approach in the literature is to accept organizational justice as a three factor model separated into distributive, procedural and interactional justice elements (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

One aspect that differentiates interactional justice from the other two justice classifications is its immediate impact on employee behaviors. In comparison to the distributive and justice perceptions, interactional justice is a better predictor of reactions to the supervisors and the immediate work environment (Cropanzano, Prehar & Chen, 2002). For example, Mikula, Petri & Tanzer (1989) found out that, a remarkable percentage of the reported unjust incidences were derived not from distributive or procedural justice issues but from interactional justice considerations.

2.2.5. The Difference between Distributive and Procedural Justice

In the organizational justice literature there is mostly an agreement that distributive and procedural justice are two separate concepts (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2002; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993).

The distinction between the two concepts is empirically established (Greenberg, 1990b).

As already stated before, distributive justice perceptions focus on the fairness of the outcomes, whereas procedural justice perceptions rely on the fairness of the procedures. The procedural justice concept was a follow-up and an expansion of the distributive justice construct.

Besides their differences in scope, the two concepts also diverge from each other in terms of their effects on certain outcomes. Research by different scholars provided evidence that distributive and procedural justice differed from each other in terms of the outcomes they produce (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). A research by Sweeney & McFarlin (1993) found out whereas distributive justice perceptions predicted personal-level outcomes such as pay satisfaction, procedural justice perceptions affected organizational level outcomes such as organizational commitment. Their study was a confirmation of Folger & Konovsky's (1989) research when they found out that distributive justice predicted personal level outcomes such as pay satisfaction better than the procedural justice, whereas procedural justice was found to be a better predictor of organization level outcomes such as trust in supervisor and organizational commitment. Lind & Tyler (1988) has justified this distinction by stating "procedural justice has strong effects on attitudes about institutions or authorities as opposed to the attitudes about the specific outcome in question" (p.179).

Nevertheless, there are also some divergences from this viewpoint claiming that distributive and procedural justice are more similar concepts than what is mostly believed (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001). Cropanzano & Ambrose (2001) argued that distributive and procedural justice perceptions interact with each other and thus can affect one another. According to this "monistic approach" one could form judgments about procedural justice by making inferences from distributive justice

43

perceptions and could form judgments about distributive justice by making inferences from procedural justice perceptions.

They claimed that both perceptions of justice are rooted in the expectations regarding outcomes; outcomes being either economic or socio-emotional. Regardless of the "processes" or the "distributions", both perceptions had to do with reaching these outcomes.

Nevertheless, even though they stressed that their propositions just served to the opening of a new viewpoint for researchers, they still postulated that the dichotomy between distributive and procedural justice should be maintained. That is, the monistic approach was only complementary to this distinction.

Leaving aside the similarities and the differences between the concepts, referent cognitions theory opens a new discussion by combining distributive and procedural justice perceptions. As discussed by Folger (1986) referent cognitions theory was an attempt to integrate the concepts of distributive and procedural justice. Referent cognitions theory in essence included reactions to the limitations of the equity theory. Criticizing equity theory, the theory proposes that two different reactions emerge as a response to the inequitable work outcomes. One of these is the "resentment reaction" that arises when the individual believes that the outcome would have been different if different procedures had been used in the making of that decision. Therefore, this aspect represents the procedural justice considerations. The second type of reaction is the "reactions of dissatisfaction" that are considered to be the results of relative outcomes themselves (Greenberg, 1990b). Here, the focus is on the outcome and not on the way the outcome is achieved, thus the latter represents the procedural justice dimension.

In a study, Folger, Rosenfield, & Robinson (1983) found out that high-referent conditions existed when the individual believed that a more favorable outcome could

have been obtained if a different procedure would have been adopted. On the other hand low-referent conditions existed when there was not any significant change in the outcome if another procedure was to be adopted. In the end, it was found that the high-referent subjects displayed a higher level of resentment. However, the findings revealed that the level of resentment actually relied on whether parties were provided with justifiable reasons or not. As can be inferred, the referent cognitions model combine the perceptions about the fairness of an outcome together with the procedural justice considerations and provide some hint about how these factors can interact with each other to influence the reaction of a person.

2.2.6. The Difference between Procedural and Interactional Justice

In the field of organizational justice literature a consensus cannot be reached as to whether procedural justice and interactional justice are two separate concepts or not. Whereas some scholars support this distinction (Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Colquitt, 1999; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) some others view interactional justice as a subset of procedural justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Moorman, 1991; Tyler & Bies, 1990 as cited in Greenberg, 1990b).

Bies & Moag (1986) who first introduced the term "interactional justice", regarded interactional justice as a distinct and intermediate step between the enactment of organizational procedures and the resulting outcome (as cited in Aquino et al., 1999). Procedural justice indicated an evaluation of the fairness of the processes and procedures whereas interactional justice mainly concerned the quality of the interpersonal treatment received.

Bies (2001) strongly differentiates procedural and interactional justice from one another by making reference to some other works that demonstrate that the two concepts are associated with different organizational behavior variables. It is confirmed that procedural and interactional justice diverged from each other with

regard to their differential effects on various work outcomes. Moorman's (1991) study also verified the differential effects of procedural and interactional justice dimensions in an attempt to examine impact of justice perceptions on organizational citizenship behavior.

Skarlicki & Folger (1997) in their analysis of the relationship between organizational justice and organizational retaliation behavior also found out that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice interacted with each other to predict organizational retaliation behavior. Thus each category of justice had a relative role to play which implied that procedural and interactional justice was two separate concepts. Mikula et al. (1990) also argued that a large percentage of the reported injustices were concerned with the manner in which people were treated in interpersonal interactions rather than distributive or procedural issues. Moreover, one of the measures that would be taken to define procedural and interactional justice as two separate concepts was viewed as the awareness among the people. The ability of the people to distinguish between different elements was considered to be a proof of distinctiveness of the interactional justice (Bies, 2001).

Another explanation supporting the distinction between procedural and interactional justice is constructed within the framework of the social exchange theory. The social exchange theory views organizations as forums for transactions and thus postulates that justice perceptions are formed according to the fairness of those transactions (Cropanzano et al., 2002). In this respect individuals are considered to have two major transaction partners; organization and the supervisors. These two transaction partners corresponds to the perceptions about two justice types. In the first instance, individuals view the organization as the source of the procedures they are subject to. Therefore procedural justice plays a decisive role in shaping fairness perceptions. On the other hand, a crucial part of the justice perceptions are based on the transaction relationships with the immediate supervisors. Therefore, interactional justice has another important role in judging the fairness of the exchange relationship.

Greenberg (1993) argued that interactional justice differed from procedural justice in the sense that it concerns fairness at the stage of *enactment* of procedures rather than at *development* stage of procedures. Nevertheless, he did not foresee a different classification for interactional justice in his taxonomy; rather interactional justice was viewed as being the social dimension of procedural justice.

Greenberg (1993) stressed the importance of the social facet of justice in his four-dimensioned structure of organizational justice; the factors being distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. By already accepting the distinction between distributive and procedural justice, he argued that further distinctions are necessary to identify structural and social determinants of justice. According to his argumentation, both distributive and procedural justice contained social determinants which focus on the treatment of individuals.

Moreover, informational justice was considered to be the social determinant of procedural and distributive justice (Greenberg, 1993). That is informational justice affected justice perceptions through providing employees with knowledge about the procedures and thereby showing concern for their opinions and providing them with explanation about the outcomes they receive. However, the four factor taxonomy did not receive much attention in differentiating procedural justice from the interactional justice concept.

Likewise, some other scholars stressed upon the similarity of these two concepts (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Moorman, 1991; Tyler & Bies, 1990 as cited in Greenberg, 1990b). The main argumentation followed that though procedural and interactional justice have divergent targets; one focusing on the fairness of the procedures and the other one on the quality of interpersonal treatment, in the end both considerations are parts of the allocation process. In this perspective, Folger & Bies (1989) argued that procedural justice referred to the formal aspect of the allocation process whereas interactional justice referred to the social aspect.

Similarly, Greenberg (1990b) argued that not only the fairness of the procedures but also the explanations for those procedures had an effect on procedural justice perceptions. Nevertheless, quality of interpersonal treatment which represented the "social aspect" was considered to be an embedded part of the procedural justice construct which represented the "formal aspect".

Nevertheless some scholars like Cropanzano et al. (2002) see a practical utility in separating these two concepts in order to address organizational problems more precisely.

2.3. Ethical Work Climates

2.3.1. Definition of Ethical Work Climate

Starting from 1950's onwards academicians have exhibited a growing interest on analyzing organizational normative systems that guide ethical decisions. Ethical climate theory is evaluated as an extension of work climate theory. Schneider (1975) defined work climates as perceptions which "…are psychologically meaningful molar descriptions that people can agree characterize a system's practices and procedures" (p.474). Therefore, work climate was considered to determine what is right and what is wrong in the workplace. Nevertheless, the concept of a 'work climate' was too broad to overlook the ethical dimension of events, practices and procedures.

Ethical climates were considered to be subsets of work climates and as such are perceptions of the firm's practices and procedures that have ethical content (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Therefore they have defined ethical climate of an organization as "…the shared perceptions of what is ethically correct behavior and how ethical issues should be handled" (Victor & Cullen, 1987, p.51). The ethical climate questionnaire developed by Victor & Cullen (1988) is the most widely investigated

instrument for examining the ethical climate within organizations (Fritzsche, 2000). This framework has become the dominant foundation for ethical climate research, providing the basis for nearly 75% of all studies of ethical climate (Arnaud, 2010, p.346).

Before the widely accepted and accredited study of Victor & Cullen (1987), various academicians have developed some climate types like support for conflict resolution (Renwick, 1975) or acceptability of aggression (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939 as cited in Victor & Cullen, 1988) that merely focused on the individual characteristics. However, in Victor & Cullen's study (1988) the main assumption was that, ethical climates have "an organizational basis separate from individual evaluations and perceptions" (p.102).

Cullen, Victor, & Stephens (1989) argued that three factors determined a company's ethical climate: the environment in which the organization functions, the form of the organization (centralized, divisional, multinational) and the organization's history. This suggestion was in line with the postulations of Victor & Cullen (1988) which claimed that ethical work climates are "multi-determined by societal norms, organizational form, and firm-specific factors" (p.119). They claimed that ethical climates in the organizations reflect societal norms in order to acquire legitimacy.

Victor & Cullen (1988) revealed that the normative systems in an organization are sufficiently known to their employees to be perceived as a type of work climate. Moreover, organizations did not have a single climate, but rather had a variety of climates that differ among subunits or subgroups. Nevertheless, research has proved that there exists a dominant climate within a subgroup or an organization.

Another interesting finding by Victor & Cullen (1988) suggested that respondents can distinguish between affective responses to ethical climates and perceptions of ethical climates. Since the study of ethical work climates attempted to describe the

work situation rather than the feelings of the individuals, the main focus has never been the evaluations of the employees as to "how ethical they behave" or "how ethical their organizations are". In other words, the study of ethical work climates only attempt to identify which dominant form of reasoning guides employee behavior when faced with an ethical dilemma.

2.3.2. The Difference of the Concept of "Ethical Work Climate" from Similar Constructs

The concept of "ethical work climate" is highly interwoven with some closely related notions such as organizational culture, ethical culture and organizational/work climate. In an attempt to gain a better understanding of the exact definition of the term ethical work climates, researchers tried to describe the similarities and the differences between these various concepts (Agarwal & Malloy, 1999; Barnett & Vaicys, 2000; Cullen et al., 1989; Key, 1999; Trevino, 1986; Trevino, Butterfield, & McCabe, 1998; Vidaver-Cohen, 1998).

As already stated above, the study of ethical work climates largely builds on the concept of work climate which is described as "psychologically meaningful molar descriptions that people *can* agree characterize a system's practices and procedures" by Schneider (1975, p. 474). However, an organization cannot be characterized by a single work climate and that; multiple work climates may exist within an organization and these climates may vary from each other within the organization and across other organizations.

Schneider, Parkington & Buxton (1980) argued that "Organizations may have many climates, including a climate for creativity, for leadership, for safety, for achievement, and/or for service. Any one research effort probably cannot focus on all of these but the effort should be clear about its focus" (p.255). Deriving from that point, researchers focused on specific aspects of the work climates. To illustrate;

50

Zohar (1980) searched the existence of a safety climate, Abbey & Dickson (1983) and Delbecq & Mills (1985) delved into the innovative nature of work climates and Schneider, White & Paul (1998) looked into the service climates.

In this sense, ethical climate of an organization "is also but one aspect of the total work climate of an organization" (Wyld & Jones, 1997, p.466) and represents the ethical dimension of the organizational climate (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000). Being more precise about the "ethical" dimension of the work climates, Victor & Cullen's (1987) definition of ethical work climates paralleled to a great extent to the definition of work climates developed by Schneider (1975). In this regard, ethical work climates were conceptualized as normative constructs of the shared perceptions about an organization's procedures and policies that guide ethical decision making (Agarwal & Malloy 1999; Erakovich, Bruce, & Wyman, 2002; Key, 1999; Wyld & Jones, 1997).

Apart from the debate on the distinction of the concept from the "work climate" construct, there was also a disagreement concerning the convergence and divergence points of the concept from the notion of "ethical culture" (Trevino, 1990 as cited in Trevino et al., 1998; Trevino, Butterfield & McCabe, 1995). Trevino (1990 as cited in Trevino et al., 1998) defined ethical culture as "a subset of organizational culture, representing a multidimensional interplay among various formal and informal systems of behavior control that are capable of promoting ethical or unethical behavior" (p.451). Key (1999) postulated that culture is by definition "the shared beliefs of an organization's members", therefore ethical culture should reflect the beliefs of the organizational members regarding the ethics of the organization.

Trevino et al. (1995) argued that "ethical climate" differed from the concept of "ethical culture" in the sense that, the former was a normative construct that showed the extent to which organizational members perceived the normative systems of the organization as aligned with a number of normative ethical theories. They criticized

Victor & Cullen (1988) by stating that the concept of "ethical climate" was unable to provide guidance to the organizational members as to how they *should* behave as contrary to what they have argued.

Trevino et al. (1995) claimed that the concept of ethical culture is a better predictor of individual behavior compared to the conceptualization of ethical climate by defining it as "a descriptively-based construct that represents the extent to which an organization actually attempts to influence members' behavior through a variety of cultural systems" (p.20). However, Key (1999) failed to support the claims of Trevino et al. (1995). Key (1999) argued that the ethical culture questionnaire developed by Trevino et al. (1995) only measured the individual perceptions of the ethical culture of an organization and thus failed to identify the organization's ethical culture and predict individual behavior.

In an assessment of the convergent and divergent structures of the concepts of ethical climate and ethical culture, Trevino et al. (1998) argued that two constructs measured somewhat different, but strongly related dimensions of the ethical context. Similar to Trevino et al. (1995), Trevino et al. (1998) claimed that ethical climate was descriptive of the organizational values; therefore it could only indirectly predict individual behavior. In their analysis they have made a reference to Gaertner (1991) who also found that although ethical climate did not directly influence behavior, a number of ethical climate dimensions did influence ethical decision making indirectly by affecting the decision-making criteria individuals used. On the other hand, ethical culture was considered to portray the organization in terms of formal and informal control systems (e.g. rules, rewards and norms). Therefore, ethical culture was deemed to be more directly related to the individual behavior.

Though, ethical culture and ethical climate are considered to be incompatible with each other, Cullen et al. (1989) viewed ethical climate as a component of the organizational culture. Trevino (1986) argued that the culture of the organization

contributed to an individual's moral development and provided collective norms that guided behaviors. In the same vein, Erakovich et al. (2002) hypothesized that organizational culture played a major role in the formation of multiple ethical climates.

However, another stream of researchers postulated that organizational climates are distinct from organizational culture (Cullen et al., 1993). Similarly Moran & Volkwein (1992 as cited in Agarwal & Malloy, 1999) emphasized the strict difference of the concepts of climate and culture from each other. According to this perspective, organizational climate is considered to be a sub-element of the organizational culture. Ott (1998 as cited in Erakovich et al., 2002) defined organizational climates as the "psychological environments in which behavior of individuals occur" (p.4) while defining organizational culture as a "social force that controls patterns of organizational behavior by shaping members' cognition and perceptions of meanings and realities" (Ott, 1989 as cited in Erakovich et al., 2002, p.7). Therefore, organizational culture was viewed as more of a general concept that had the power to shape behavior. Moreover, whereas climate is considered to be quantitatively measurable, organizational culture required both qualitative and quantitative methods (Olson, 1995 as cited in Agarwal & Malloy, 1999).

In an attempt to field the gap between the concepts of culture and climate, Vidaver-Cohen (1998) used the term "moral climate" as an intervening variable between the "organizational ethical culture" and "organizational ethical climate". Trevino et al. (1998) regarded Vidaver-Cohen's (1998) model of moral climate as a broader framework that integrated culture and climate constructs into a single-model and that showed how culture and climate components may be related with each other.

Vidaver-Cohen (1998) provides a precise definition of moral climate as "prevailing employee perceptions of organizational signals about norms for establishing intentions, considering consequences, observing contracts, determining distribution,

and implementing procedures" (p.1213). She believes that moral climate does not directly cause behavior; rather, it provides a context in which certain behaviors are likely to occur if other supportive individual and contextual conditions also exist (Vidaver-Cohen, 1998). This is somehow in line with Trevino's (1990 as cited in Trevino et al., 1998) and Trevino et al.'s (1995) arguments that supports for a more indirect effect of ethical work climates.

Vidaver-Cohen (1998) criticizes Victor & Cullen's (1988) model for being too much general and believes that the framework fails to give an idea about how the climate relates to other organizational processes. The model is also criticized for not bringing in an explanation as to how organizational procedures and practices affect employees' perception of ethical climate. Moreover, she argues that the model cannot provide any explanation about why the perceptions of the employees about the ethical work climate differ across divisions (Vidaver-Cohen, 1998).

2.3.3. Dimensionality of Ethical Work Climates

Victor & Cullen (1988) based their typology (see Figure 4) of ethical work climates on two dimensions. According to this framework, the first dimension made reference to the ethical theories that are made use of in the making of ethical decisions, whereas the second dimension included the locus of analysis where decisions are made. As Cullen, Parboteeah, & Victor (2003) argued, the vertical axis (the ethical criteria) represented which ethical theories that guide decision-making, whereas the horizontal axis (the loci of analysis) represented to whom the ethical systems apply (individual, organization or the society at large). That led them to develop a two-dimensional theoretical typology of ethical climates which included nine climate types. Despite the conceptualization of a nine-dimensional framework, empirical evidence supported only five of these dimensions (Cullen, Victor & Bronson, 1993; Victor & Cullen, 1988) (See Figures 4 & 5).

Figure 4. Theoretical strata of ethical climate (Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988 as cited in Martin & Cullen, 2006)

Figure 5. Five Common Derivatives of Ethical Climate (Victor and Cullen, 1987, 1988; Neubaum et al., 2004 as cited in Martin & Cullen, 2006)

Victor & Cullen (1987, 1988) was the first to use ethical theories and philosophical ethical foundations to guide their research. In developing this model, Victor & Cullen (1987) largely relied on Kohlberg's (1984) theory of cognitive moral

development in conceptualizing both dimensions (VanSandt, Shephard, & Zappe, 2006). Whereas Kohlberg's model was designed to tap the moral development process of individuals, Victor & Cullen successfully managed to adopt the model to the organizational setting (Buchan, 2009).

Kohlberg (1984) argues that individuals pass through a sequential process of moral development in an irreversible manner. According to his typology, there are three broad levels of cognitive moral development (pre-conventional, conventional and principled) each being composed of two stages. In each of the moral development stages, certain beliefs about the "right" guide behaviors of the individuals. Table 2 represents the moral development stages of the individual with a brief description of what is considered as right for the individual. The figure also contains information as to which ethical theory is made use of in each stage of development and the corresponding ethical climate types developed by Victor & Cullen (1988). The figure is formed by combining Trevino's (1986) framework describing Kohlberg's stages of moral development together with the "table of individual and organizational ethic" developed by Sims & Kroeck (1994).

In this process of progress, Kohlberg mentions three types of ethical standards; self-interest, caring and principle. These three ethical standards closely align themselves with the three major of classes of ethical theory: egoism, utilitarianism and deontology. The theory of egoism foresees that individuals try to maximize their self-interest; whereas utilitarianism argues that the benefit for the greatest number of people must be taken into consideration. On the other hand, deontology maintains that individuals do the "right thing" regardless of the consideration of the outcomes and the effect of those outcomes on the interested parties.

Based on Kohlberg's ethical standards, Victor & Cullen (1988) classified ethical climates according to ethical as egoism, benevolence and principled. These theories differed in terms of the basic criteria used in moral reasoning. In a largely egoistic

climate, self-interest might be the dominant consideration whereas in benevolent climate, consideration of the wellbeing of others may be the dominant reasoning used by employees to address and solve ethical problems. With a largely principled climate on the other hand compliance with the rules or laws becomes the dominant form of reasoning. In this type of climate that individuals make ethical decisions according to the common universal values of right and wrong.

Table 2. Six Stages of Moral Development According to Kohlberg and Corresponding Ethical Work Climates (Sims & Kroeck, 1994; Trevino, 1986)

Kohlberg's Stage of Moral Development	What Is Considered To Be Right	Category of Ethical Theory	Ethical Work Climate (Victor & Cullen, 1988)
LEVEL ONE - PRECONVENTONAL			
Stage One – Obedience and punishment orientation	Sticking to rules to avoid physical punishment. Obedience for its own sake.	Egoism	**Instrumental**
Stage Two – Instrumental purpose and exchange	Following rules only when it is in one's immediate interest. Right is an equal exchange, a fair deal		
LEVEL TWO - CONVENTIONAL			
Stage Three – Interpersonal accord, conformity, mutual expectations	Stereotypical "good" behavior. Living up to what is expected by people close to you.	Benevolence	**Caring**
Stage Four – Social accord and system maintenance	Fulfilling duties and obligations to which you have agreed. Upholding laws except in extreme cases where they conflict with fixed social duties. Contributing to the society, group		
LEVEL THREE - PRINCIPLED			
Stage Five – Social Contract and individual rights	Being aware that people hold a variety of values; that rules are relative to a group. Upholding rue because they are the social contract. Upholding non-relative values and rights regardless of majority opinion.	Principle	**Law and Code Rules Independence**
Stage Six – Universal ethical principles	Following self-chosen ethical principles. When laws violate these principles, act in accord with principles.		

The second dimension however, represented the locus of analysis which was defined as "the referent group identifying the source of moral reasoning used for applying ethical criteria to organizational decisions and/or the limits on what would be considered in ethical analyses of organizational decisions" (Victor & Cullen, 1988, p.105). This view suggested that the behaviors of the individuals were largely determined by the norms of particular groups.

The loci of analysis dimension had its roots on the sociological study of Merton (1957) where he defined the roles that shape attitudes and behaviors. In that study, he distinguished between a local and a cosmopolitan role. Victor & Cullen (1988) added the first dimension of "individual" to the spectrum and thus, the locus of analysis criteria included individual, local and cosmopolitan levels.

The "individual" level was considered as external to the organization in the sense that the normative climate was supported by the ethical reasoning of the individual. In these types of climates, the personal norms and values constituted the reference point for making ethical decisions. Therefore the organization or the society was somehow external to the individual as a referent source. The second category the "local" locus represented sources of ethical reasoning within the organization, such as the workgroup. In these types of climates the organizational norms guided the behavior of the employees. Lastly, the cosmopolitan level specified organizational sources of ethical reasoning external to the organization, such as a professional association or a body of law. Cosmopolitan sources of ethical reasoning were assumed to be "abstract concepts, generated outside organizations but used inside organizations as part of the institutionalized normative system" (Victor & Cullen, 1988, p.106). In this sense, professions that were highly technical in nature are expected to be classified along the cosmopolitan level of analysis, since the technical rules and regulations determines the ethical choices of the individuals rather than the organization or the individual itself.

Thus; the nine element matrix was constructed by a combination of the two dimensions (ethical theory and locus of analysis), each including three categories. To summarize, guided by the ethical theory of "egoism", the individual loci of analysis symbolizes the "self-interest" climate in which employees pursue and try to maximize their self-interests. At the "local" locus of analysis, the individual will care for the good of the organization regardless of personal interests. Therefore this climate is labeled as "company profit". Lastly, when the locus of analysis is at the cosmopolitan level, employees will try to protect the larger social or economic system's interests. As a result, this climate is labeled as "efficiency".

In the context of benevolence criterion; individual locus of analysis represents the "friendship" climate. In this type of climate individuals are highly sensitive about the personal needs of others. Nevertheless, organizational membership is not the reference point for such concern. The climate under benevolence at the local locus of analysis specifies the "team interest" climate. In such organizations, employees show great concern for the well-being of the organization as a whole. At the cosmopolitan level of analysis on the other hand, employees are rather guided with concern for the others (e.g. society) external to the organization. Therefore, the benevolent dimension crosscutting the cosmopolitan level of analysis represents the "social responsibility" climate.

Lastly, in the context of principle criterion, in individual locus of analysis, an individual's actions are directed by his own personal ethics. Therefore this climate is labeled as "personal morality". At the local locus of analysis, the source of principles lies within the organization which is categorized as 'company rules and procedures'. In such climates, employees strictly follow organization rules and procedures without making reference to the individual ethical decisions. At the cosmopolitan locus of analysis on the other hand, the source of principles is external to the organization like 'laws and professional codes'. As can be inferred in local and cosmopolitan climates ethical reasoning is apart from personal ethical preferences.

However as already stated, when these nine dimensions were factor analyzed, data supported only for a five factor solution (Cullen et al., 1993; Victor & Cullen, 1988). To distinguish these new five factors from the theoretically developed nine dimensions, they were labeled differently from the former construct. These factors were namely, caring, law and code, rules, instrumental and independence respectively.

Caring Climate

The caring climate is a "combination of the individual/benevolence and local/ benevolence climates" (Fritzsche, 2000, p.129). In these types of climate employees show a high degree of concern for the well being of the self and the organization as whole. Caring work climates are usually the type of climate that is mostly preferred by the employees (Cullen et al., 1993; Sims & Keon, 1997).

Law and Code Climate

Law and code climate represent a combination of the cosmopolitan/principled climates. In such climate the dominant type of consideration is adherence to laws and regulations in solving ethical dilemmas. Therefore, the decisions of the individuals are based on an external system (laws and codes) that dictates them how to behave.

Rules Climate

High loadings on local principle descriptors characterize and identify the rules climate (Victor & Cullen, 1988). In rules climate, employees are expected to strictly follow organizational rules and procedures.

Instrumental Climate

Instrumental climates involve local and individual egoism criteria descriptors. In instrumental climates, employees are guided by their self-interests. Employees in instrumental types of climates perceive their organization as encouraging behaving egoistically and taking decisions based on personal ethics.

Independence Climate

Independence climates are represented by high-loadings on the principled climates at the individual locus of analysis. In these types of climates employees behave "according to their personal moral beliefs based upon a set of well-considered principles" (Wimbush & Shepard, 1994, p.639).

Some scholars argued that these five types of ethical work climates can be ordered among themselves according to the basic type of ethical criteria used (Erakovich et al., 2002; Leung, 2008). In a separate study Leung (2008) introduced a new approach to the analysis of ethical work climates in an attempt to analyze the effects of ethical work climates on the various forms of organizational citizenship behaviors. The new approach established was to form a hierarchical ordering of ethical climates according to the concern for universal rights and the self standards. According to this classification; the climates from higher to the lower end were listed as: law and code, rule, caring, independence and instrumentality.

In the same vein, Erakovich et al. (2002) also argued that ethical climates can be arranged hierarchically from self interest to a concern for humanity along with the Kohlberg's (1984) stages of moral development. In this respect, the climates in the horizontal axis based on the egoistic criteria with an individual focus were placed at the lower end of the spectrum whereas principled climates with a cosmopolitan focus were considered to be placed at the top of the hierarchy. Thus; the hierarchical ordering of climates from the lower to the upper end was respectively: individual interest climate, organizational interest climate, principled organizational climate and principled cosmopolitan climate.

Along with this argumentations which favor for a consideration of universal values and rights at the cosmopolitan level of analysis by placing them at the upper end of the hierarchy, studies showed that the tendency to behave ethically increased as the

individuals move from considerations of self-interest to a concern for the universal standards (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000; Fritzsche, 2000).

Returning back to the dimensionality considerations, one can argue that the above listed five types of climates are the most frequently observed ethical work climates in organizations (Martin & Cullen, 2006). The works of Key (1999), Wyld & Jones (1997) and Agarwal & Malloy (1999) also revealed that ethical climates in organizations can be classified in five categories.

However, empirical evidence also suggests that the number of the climates may vary across organizations (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000; Peterson, 2002a, 2002b; Victor & Cullen, 1990 as cited in Deshpande, 1996; Wimbush, Shephard, & Markham, 1997a, 1997b). The original owners of the framework also stated that the scales are not fully independent from each other and that different factor structures may emerge. More specifically, the locus of analysis (individual, local and cosmopolitan) may combine in different ways with the ethical ideology relative to the unique organizational characteristics (Cullen et al., 1993).

Whereas some authors found six ethical climates types (Victor & Cullen, 1990 as cited in Deshpande, 1996), the results of some other scholars concluded for a seven factor solution (Cullen et al., 1993; Trevino et al., 1998). Trevino et al.'s (1998) study was the first to find a seven factor structure.

On the other hand, Wimbush et al. (1997a, 1997b) could only validate three of the dimensions found by Victor & Cullen (1988) as laws and rules, independence and instrumental. In addition to these three clusters, Wimbush et al. (1997a, 1997b) added a new ethical climate labeled "service" which was not previously defined by Victor & Cullen (1988). On the other hand, Barnett & Vaicys (2000) discovered four types of ethical climates by converging some of the climate types identified by Victor & Cullen (1988). In the end, they came up with four types of climates named

as: self interest, team/friendship, social responsibility and rules/codes. Likewise, Ambrose, Arnaud, & Schminke (2008) also suggested a different factor structure for the ethical work climates that consisted of three dimensions (instrumental, caring and independence).

Separate from the debate on the elusive factor structure of ethical work climates, Weber (1995) proposed that the two-dimensional construct of Victor & Cullen (1988) should be replaced by a single dimensional structure. Instead of using two dimensions as the ethical standards and the reference source, he supported for a single construct merging these dimensions. He expressed concern that the framework developed by Victor & Cullen (1988) was overly descriptive and did not include a universal dimension. Therefore, he criticized the construct as lacking normative value. Later on, Peterson (2002b) has supported his view by stating that an ethical work climate typology that is based on a single normative progression like Kohlberg's stages of moral development is sufficient.

Nevertheless, Fritzsche (2000) argued that Weber (1995) "overlooked the richness of Victor & Cullen's framework" (p.126). Fritzsche (2000) postulated that, the social responsibility climate was a good demonstration of the normative structure of the construct if all the relevant stakeholders are represented at the cosmopolitan level of analysis. Therefore, he suggested for a slight modification of the Ethical Climate Questionnaire with regard to the cosmopolitan level of analysis so as to clarify the universal dimension.

2.3.4. The Existence of Multiple Ethical Climate Types

Victor & Cullen (1988) claimed that "to the extent that different subgroups within organizations have identifiably different climates, such climates likely indicate the existence of organizational subcultures" (p.104). Therefore, they posited that ethical work climates may vary with regard to situational (e.g. department, job level) and

individual variables (e.g. age, tenure). Although they failed to find any variations in the perceived ethical climates across different departments, their results supported for a variation in perceived ethical climates for employees at different job levels (officer, manager, supervisor, nonsupervisory) and at different levels of age and tenure.

In accord with these findings scholars have verified the existence of multiple climates in organizations (Vardi, 2001; Weber, 1995; Weber & Seger, 2002; Wimbush et al. 1997a). Weber (1995) hypothesized that ethical climates in an organization varied with regard to departmental tasks and stakeholder relationships. Weber's (1995) main aim was to explore the existence of multi-climates in organizations and how sub-climates emerged in ethical climates. He argued that, the basis for making ethical decisions and the resulting ethical sub-climate differ in organizations influenced by the departmental tasks and stakeholder relationships. Since organizational ethical climates affect ethical decision making and behavior, he offers that the studies must be focused on the 'sub-climates' comprising the organizations' ethical work climates. In the same vein, Wimbush et al. (1997a) believed that different ethical work climates might exist throughout the organization, especially if the organization was comprised of a number of units with distinct operational functions, and that the ethical sub-climates would provide a more accurate way to evaluate the climate of the organization.

Likewise, Vardi (2001) also hypothesized that there will be internal differences among the ethical climates within an organization with regard to unit. He further explained this rationale by providing some examples. To illustrate, he has suggested that the focus of the production unit was productivity and the volume of sales whereas the main consideration for the sales department was the quality of service and client relationships. Therefore, he concluded that the prevailing climates in these two separate types of organizational units will definitely be diverged from each other.

However, contrary to Weber's (1995) and Vardi's (2001) arguments, Weber & Seger (2002) concluded that ethical sub-climates are determined by the strength of the organization's overall ethical climate rather than the differences in departmental tasks.

2.3.5. Consequences of Ethical Work Climates

Within the scope of this study, it is hypothesized that the ethical climates can be an antecedent of deviant workplace behaviors. At this point, in order to get a deeper insight about ethical work climates as an antecedent of workplace deviance, it is also noteworthy to analyze which consequences ethical work climates give rise to. Empirical evidence suggests that ethical work climates have a great influence on the behaviors of the organizational members and that they create a variety of individual-level work outcomes (Martin & Cullen, 2006).

In an attempt to classify the consequences led by the various types of ethical work climates, Mayer, Kuenzi & Greenbaum (2009) made a three dimensional classification and categorized those outcomes under the headings: job attitudes and affect, ethical behavior and miscellaneous ethical outcomes.

Within the framework of job attitudes and affect, most of the literature covers studies about ethical work climates influence on levels of job satisfaction (Deshpande, 1996b; Schwepker, 1999; Sims & Kroeck, 1994) and organizational commitment (Cullen et al., 2003; Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon, 2006; Schwepker, 1999, 2001; Sims & Kroeck, 1994; Trevino et al., 1998; Wimbush & Shephard, 1994). The studies support for a considerable relationship between ethical climates and the level of commitment, whereas the effects of ethical work climates on job satisfaction are somehow imprecise.

Another line of research that was categorized under the 'job attitudes and affect' section, included studies about the effects of ethical work climates on turnover intentions (Jaramillo et al., 2006; Mulki, Jaramillo & Locander, 2007; Schwepker, 1999, 2001), psychological well-being (Dorsch, Swanson & Kelley, 1998; Lemmergaard, 2003; Rosenblatt & Peled, 2002 as cited in Martin & Cullen, 2006) and employee trust (Ruppel & Harrington, 2000).

As a result of a meta-analytical analysis of the ethical work climate literature, Martin & Cullen (2006) found out that, empirical evidence supported for a significant relationship between all five types of ethical work climate (instrumental, caring, independence, law and code, rules climates) and the organizational outcomes. Therefore, they concluded that ethical work climates have important consequences for how people respond to their perceived ethical environments in terms of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, psychological well-being, and dysfunctional behavior.

Despite the extensive number of studies conducted for the organizational level outcomes, there was also a great interest for the impacts of ethical work climates on ethical decision-making by employees and ethical behaviors of organizational members (Desphande, 1996; Fritzsche, 2000; Peterson, 2002b; Trevino, 1986; Trevino et al., 1998; Vardi, 2001; Wimbush & Shephard, 1994; Wimbush et al., 1997b). Wyld and Jones (1997) stated that although ethical climate is a macro-level construct, the perception of ethical climate is relevant to individual ethical decision-making at the micro-level. Therefore, "a logical extension of research on ethical climate was to test relationships between individual perceptions of ethical climate and individual ethical decision-making" (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000, p.353).

Trevino (1986) proposed an interactionist model for ethical decision-making in organizations. The model combined individual variables (e.g. moral development) with situational variables to explain and predict the ethical decision-making behavior

of individuals in organizations. Similarly, Fritzsche (2000) also focused on the relationship of ethical decision making to the ethical climates.

Fritzsche (2000) has expected that the highest proportion of ethical decisions occur in ethical climates where the locus of analysis is at the cosmopolitan level. Conversely the lowest proportion of ethical decisions were expected to be made in climates in which locus of analysis is the individual. In line with these expectations, he has found out that the greatest likelihood of making unethical decisions were placed at the lowest level of moral development at the cosmopolitan level of analysis.

Apart from the ethical decision making impacts, Wimbush & Shephard (1994) and Wimbush et al. (1997b) provided support that ethical work climates had an influence on the (un)ethical behaviors of the employees. Wimbush & Shephard (1994) have attempted to analyze the relationship between ethical climate and ethical behavior in organizations and hypothesized that supervisor influence had a major impact on the formation of the climate and on the behaviors of individuals. They argued that behaviors of individuals were largely dependent on the *predominant* dimension associated with the work group. They have hypothesized and verified that "Employees in workgroups characterized by caring, law and code, rules, or independence ethical climate dimensions are more likely to behave ethically than employees in workgroups adhering to the instrumental dimension of ethical climate" (Wimbush & Shephard, 1994, p.641).

Trevino et al. (1998) also focused on the ethical decision making perspective of the ethical climates. They claimed that few of the specified ethical climates provided specific behavioral guidance. In parallel to Wimbush & Shephard's (1994) findings, they have also proven that rules, law and code and caring climates were the best predictors of ethical conduct.

Along with the Mayer et al.'s (2009) classification, third class of consequences included miscellaneous ethical outcomes. Some of the studies that can fall into this classification concerns the effects of ethical work climates on ethical judgments and behavioral intentions (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000), communication and innovation (Ruppel & Harington, 2000) and individual commitment to quality (Weeks, Loe, Chonko & Wakefield, 2004).

In an analysis of the relationship between ethical work climates and the behavioral intentions of the employees, Barnett & Vaicys (2000) found out that ethical work climate did not have a direct effect on the behavioral intentions. Yet, still ethical climates were found to indirectly affect behavioral intentions through their impacts upon ethical judgments (Buchan, 2009). Apart from these findings, in an examination of the impact of ethical work climates on communication, Ruppel & Harington (2000) noted that the two concepts were highly related. The results showed that ethical work climates emphasizing self-interest were negatively related to communication, whereas rules and law and code climates that represented the local and cosmopolitan levels of analysis had a higher level of communication. Weeks et al.'s (2004) findings were also interesting to note that positive types of ethical climates (caring, rules, law and code, instrumental) are positively related to individual commitment to quality and organizational commitment.

Besides the three fold classification of outcomes, value congruence was also considered to be an important factor that effected upon the consequences of ethical work climates (Ambrose et al., 2008; Sims & Keon, 1997; Sims & Kroeck, 1994). Value congruence or the person-organization fit are the two terms that are interchangeably used. These terms suggest that the ethical values of the employees should be in line with the organizational ethical values. Empirical evidence suggested that ethical fit is significantly related to turnover intentions and organizational commitment (Ambrose et al., 2008; Sims & Kroeck, 1994).

Nevertheless, the impact of value congruence on job satisfaction is not consistently verified.

2.3.6. Ethical Work Climates in the Public Sector

An examination of the ethical work climates in the public sector worth attention since public service requires public servants to strictly obey laws and regulations on a "higher ethical plane" (Fredrickson, 1993; Lewis, 1991, p. 19 as cited in Rothwell & Baldwin, 2006). Although there is an extensive research on ethical work climates in private organizations, the number of studies that focus on the structuring of ethical work climates in the not-for-profit (Agarwal & Malloy, 1999; Brower & Shrader, 2000; Deshpande, 1996) and public sector (Burke, 1999; Erakovich et al., 2002; Rothwell & Baldwin, 2006; Shacklock, Manning & Hort, 2011; Wittmer & Coursey, 1996) are comparatively limited.

Agarwal & Malloy (1999) makes some causal explanations about the emphasis of the research on for-profit organizations. Firstly, they argue that the reason for the existence of private sector is to make profit which provides employees with more space to engage in unethical behaviors with a view to derive economic benefits. Since the rationale for the existence of public institutions or not-for-profit institutions is only to serve, the examination of the ethical contexts of such organizations did not gain much interest. Similarly, Erakovich et al. (2002) also argues that the ethical work climates of the public organizations are based on the democratic values and public interest rather than shareholder interest and profit considerations that are observed in the private sector.

Public institutions as organizations have an ethical responsibility to ensure public trust and perform their functions consistent with the norms, values and expectations of the people (Rothwell & Baldwin, 2006). In the same vein, Denhardt (1993) claims that, the most important goal of the public servants is to behave in accordance with

the socially accepted values of the public. Denhardt defines the major aspirations of public organizations as ensuring public trust, equality and equity, fairness and due process. Therefore, he also argues that there is a clear distinction between the private and public sector with regard to the norms and values that guide employee behavior.

Along with the principles of American Society of Public Administration's (ASPA) code of ethics, Van Wart (1996) suggests that public employees take into consideration five major interests in making ethical decisions. These five interests are; public interest, legal interest, personal interest, organizational interest, and professional interest. Van Wart (1996) claims that most people that work in the public sector regard public interest as the most important consideration in making decisions.

Research showed that the ethical work climates of the profit and not-for profit sector exhibited significantly different patterns (Agarwal & Malloy, 1999; Brower & Shrader, 2000). To give an example, the results of Agarwal & Malloy's study (1999) revealed that not-for-profit organizations did not have an ethical climate that was placed in the local locus of analysis. They have found out that, in the not-for profit sector, employees made their decisions on the basis of either individual or societal concerns and that there was lack of an ethical climate that related to the organization itself. Similarly, Brower & Shrader (2000) also claimed that profit and not-for-profit organizations demonstrated different types of ethical climates. Their findings showed that for-profit companies had climates emphasizing egoism whereas not-for-profit companies were largely characterized by benevolence climates. Moreover, they also asserted that not-for-profit organizations were higher in principle climates compared to the for-profit organizations. Apart from these conclusions, Wittmer & Coursey, (1996) found out that managers in the public sector perceived their ethical work climates as less favorably than their private counterparts.

In a study, Rainey, Backoff & Levine (1976) describe public agencies as "being constrained by law and legally authorized institutions" (p.238). In an examination of separate interests of public servants, Van Wart (1996) also argues that most public employees show great respect for the law and due processes as well as the professional standards of their work in making ethical decisions. Likewise, Erakovich et al. (2002) also states that public organizations are created by law and they are tasked with administering the law. Although in some circumstance compliance with the laws might not be necessary for a private sector employee, full recognition and execution of laws is mandatory for the public servants.

Therefore, Rothwell & Baldwin (2006) postulated that the obligation to work in compliance with the formally and legally prescribed rules and standards in public institution would lead their employees to perceive a "law and code" climate. Rainey et al.'s (1976) argued that the behaviors of the public servants are guided by the public expectations that want public servants to act with "fairness, responsiveness, accountability, and honesty". As can be inferred, all the listed qualifications make reference to the universally accepted rights and values which refer to the cosmopolitan level of analysis in the ethical work climate framework.

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

In this part of the study, the hypothesis of the thesis will be presented with reference to the relevant literature in the field. This section covers a detailed discussion about the aims of the study and the justifications about the established hypothesis. In this regard, hypothesis of the thesis will be introduced under two main headings. First part of this section deals with the hypothesis formed with regard to the relationship between ethical work climate and workplace deviance, whereas the second part focuses on the hypothesis concerning the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and workplace deviance.

3.1.   The Relationship between Perceptions of Organizational Justice and Workplace Deviance

The primary aim of this section is to analyze the theories that explore the relationship and effects of perceptions of organizational justice on deviant behavior as well as to provide the hypothesis developed for the purpose of this thesis by explaining their reasoning.

There is a wide array of research in the field studying the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and deviant behavior (Aquino et al., 1999; Aquino et al., 2004; Baron et al., 1999; Henle, 2005; Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 2000; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). It is evident that perceptions of having been treated unfairly leads to resentment and deviant behaviors in the workplace. However, it is worth mentioning that the literature review covered for this part also encompasses the studies analyzing the effects of conceptualizations such as counterproductive behavior, retaliation, workplace aggression etc., which are

as depicted previously, the terms that highly resemble "workplace deviance" in terms of definition.

3.1.1. Organizational Justice as an Antecedent of Workplace Deviance

As already analyzed in the workplace deviance literature, workplace deviance has several antecedents categorized as being either situation-based or person-based. Situation based antecedents are usually reflections of the general work environment, whereas person-based factors reflect the intimate personality of the individuals. In this sense perceptions of organizational justice are considered as a situation-based model since they provide an insight about the general stance of the organization and its members in terms of fairness (Henle, 2005).

Organizational justice is known to have a determinant role on employee outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Moorman, 1993), job performance (Greenberg, 1987) and intention to turnover (Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Besides, the positive or less harmful impacts of fairness perceptions, research also suggests that perceptions of unfairness or inequality are strongly associated with violent acts such as theft (Greenberg, 1990a; Greenberg & Scott, 1996; Hollinger & Clark, 1983) or vandalism (DeMore, Fischer & Baron, 1988).

The underlying rationale that prompts individuals to engage in such acts rests on the explanations by Adams' (1965) equity theory, Blau's (1964) social exchange theory and Folger's referent cognitions theory (1987).

Adams (1965) suggests that, the perceptions of unfairness lead to a tension in the individual which needs to be resolved. Thus, the person who is challenged with an unjust appraisal would react to that with a view to resolve that unjust condition. One of the earliest studies providing a verification of Adam's equity theory was the one

by Greenberg (1990a). He found out that, the perceived inequity in the pay levels, led employees to steal in order to "even" the situation.

Another explanation that could be used to unveil the logic of engaging in deviant behavior is Blau's social exchange theory. According to this line of reasoning, as stated by Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001) employees view their work relationships as one of a social exchange. Since this kind of a social exchange is out of the scope of strict contracts (Moorman, 1991), they might engage in discretionary acts which is highly in accord with the nature of deviant acts which are considered to be "voluntary".

Referent cognitions theory as proposed by Folger (1987) also provides a useful basis for explaining deviant behavior caused by perceptions of unfairness. According to this theory, a comparison with other's actions and outputs is made in evaluating the fairness of the situation. Cropanzano & Folger (1989) claims that employees usually tend to relate unequal outcomes to the actions of others rather than their own actions.

Therefore, it is predicted that, perceptions of unfairness leads to negative behaviors on part of the employees that emerge to punish the organization and its representatives (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). In other words, unfair treatment would lead to some form of retaliation by employees against their employers (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989). O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996) also stress that perceived unfairnesses can trigger an aggressive response.

Empirical research supports the evidence that deviant behavior is related all three categories of justice (Aquino et al., 1999; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Therefore this study also postulates that each category of justice perception relates significantly to workplace deviance. In order to elaborate more on this postulation some hypotheses are developed that will be introduced in the following sections.

3.1.2. Distributive Justice and Workplace Deviance

As already mentioned in previous sections, distributive justice is mainly about the extent to which employees evaluate the outputs they received as fair when compared to the outputs they have put in. Empirical evidence suggests that when there is an inequality in the perceived input/output ratio, they will take the necessary measures to restore the balance (Greenberg & Scott, 1996). Blau's (1964) social exchange theory provides one of the safest grounds for the explanations of the deviant behaviors that emerge as a reaction to the unfair distribution of outcomes. Social exchange theory argues that in social relations an exchange relationship is present with regard to the social costs and the derived social rewards. Unlike in economic transactions in social relations there are no written rules that govern the rules of this relationship. Therefore, the equity between the inputs and the resulting social rewards should be maintained. In case of the disturbance of this balance, individuals would take action to achieve the desired outcomes.

This basically means that, when employees feel distributive injustice, it is highly likely that they will reduce their input or in other words harm the organization to correct the balance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Recent studies on revenge in organizations (Bies & Tripp, 1996) also show that violations of distributive justice can invoke reactions to engage in anti-normative acts. Henle's (2005) study which revealed that distributive justice perceptions were negatively correlated with deviance was also supportive of the previous studies. Therefore, it is hypothesized that;

Hypothesis 1a: The perceptions of distributive justice will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 1b: The perceptions of distributive justice will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

76

3.1.3. Procedural Justice and Workplace Deviance

The perceptions of procedural justice reflect the extent of the fairness of organizational procedures used to make decisions as perceived by the employees (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Instead of perceived fairness of the outcomes, it is the fairness of the processes that ascertains the perception of justice in this case.

Most research has provided evidence that there is a close relationship between procedural justice perceptions and the resulting deviant behavior (Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007; Martinko et al., 2002; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Some researchers postulate that, since organizational procedures are determined by the organization itself, the target of the deviant behavior would be the organization rather than co-workers (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). This is in line with the argumentation that, people are more likely to react to unfair circumstances when they think that the inequality arises from organizational procedures rather than from individual decisions (Greenberg, 1987).

Lind & Tyler (1988) propose an explanation for the reactions against perceived inequities by the group value model. The group value theory suggests that the beliefs held by a group largely determine the perceptions and motives of the people within the group. Therefore, if a group's procedures are evaluated as fair, then it is expected that people will exhibit group-oriented behavior and hold more favorable attributes towards the group (Lind & Earley, 1992). Taken from the perspective of employee deviance, the group-value model presents a dangerous portrait about the levels the prevalence of deviant behavior can reach due to the high potential of perceptions to spread from one person to another. Therefore, employee's evaluation of an organization's procedures as fair is extremely important, as they communicate group-relevant information to other members and influence procedural judgments of the coworkers (Tyler et al., 1996).

In one study, Martinko et al. (2002) reflected that numerous rules and regulations might lead to perceptions of disequilibria which in turn trigger deviant work behaviors. In their research, Lara & Verano-Tacoronte (2007) also found that, procedural unfairness can lead to a normative conflict which triggers deviant behavior. Their study revealed that, given the mediating role of normative conflict, procedural justice significantly relates to deviant behavior.

Similarly, Greenberg & Barling (1999) found out that, the employees who perceive organizational procedures as fair were less likely to engage in aggressive actions in the workplace. Therefore, it is predicted that procedural justice perceptions will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behaviors. Hence; it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2a: The perceptions of procedural justice will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 2b: The perceptions of procedural justice will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

3.1.4. Interactional Justice and Workplace Deviance

Interactional justice, which is considered to be a subcategory under the procedural justice, relates to the quality of treatment and explanation one receives from organizational authorities (Bies & Moag, 1986). Thus, leaving aside the outcomes or the procedures, if an employee perceives that he is treated fairly with full respect and dignity, then that person will be less likely to deviate.

A number of studies indicate that unfavorable perceptions of interactional justice can trigger deviant behavior by generating hot emotions such as anger, resentment or moral outrage (Aquino et al., 2004; Bies & Tripp, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 1997;

Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Usually these reactions are elicited when a discrepancy occurs between what the employer thinks s/he deserves and how s/he is treated. To be treated with disrespect and indignity leads employees to deviate which can be considered as a symbolic representation of their frustration (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Aqunio et al.'s (2004) study has found out that, the relationship between interactional justice and deviant behavior also depended on personality factors and social status.

Another important study that contributed to the literature in the field was the one by Baron et al. (1999). Their study also revealed that, as the satisfaction with one's supervisor's treatment is lowered, aggressive actions against the supervisor and the organization increases. Regarding the target of the aggressive behavior, it turned out that employees feeling unfair treatment mostly deviated against their immediate supervisors or co-workers. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3a: The perceptions of interactional justice will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 3b: The perceptions of interactional justice will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

A study by Mikula et al. (1990) examining what people deem as unfair suggests that, "a considerable proportion of the injustices reported refer to the manner in which people were treated in interpersonal interactions and encounters" (p.133). Thus, interactional justice is considered to have more influence than distributive or procedural justice in effecting employee behaviors. This finding was in parallel with Skarlicki & Folger's (1997) conclusions which asserted that interactional justice had the strongest effect on retaliatory behavior than any other forms of justice. Similarly, Aquino et al. (1999) also reported that perception of interactional justice was the

strongest predictor of deviant behaviors than the two other forms of justice. Resting on the above mentioned findings, the following hypotheses are formed:

Hypothesis 4: Interactional justice will be a stronger predictor of both organizational and interpersonal deviance than either distributive or procedural justice.

3.2. The Relationship between Ethical Work Climates and Workplace Deviance

As already explained in the previous sections, ethical work climates represent shared perceptions about the ethically correct behaviors and how ethical dilemmas should be handled in an organization. Cullen et al. (2003) argued that since moral issues are the most important source of impetus for behaviors, individual's perceptions of the organizations' ethical values, practices and procedures will have a determinant effect on their reactions.

Empirical evidence showed that ethical work climate of an organization influenced a variety of reactive behaviors such as; deviant workplace behaviors (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Appelbaum et al., 2007; Peterson, 2002a), antisocial behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), organizational misbehavior (Vardi, 2001), counterproductive behavior (Wimbush & Shephard, 1994), dysfunctional behavior (Martin & Cullen, 2006), unethical behavior (Desphande, 1996; Fritzsche, 2000; Peterson, 2002b; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Trevino, 1986; Trevino et al., 1998; Wimbush & Shephard, 1994; Wimbush et al., 1997b) and theft (Weber, Kurke & Pentico, 2003; McClurg & Butler, 2006).

Trevino (1986) suggested that collective norms with regard to the appropriate and inappropriate behaviors shape and guide employee behavior. Trevino (1986) argued that employees search for external social referents that would steer them to behave in

a certain way. Therefore, shared beliefs about the right and wrong within a particular organization constitutes the reference point in the choice of certain behaviors. In other words, situational variables in relation to the organizational culture influence the cognitions of the employees that are later translated into actions.

Barnett & Vaicys (2000) also verified that perceptions of the ethical climate had an indirect effect on behavioral intentions of the employees. This interaction between the perceptions and the behaviors of the employees were mediated by their ethical judgments. Nevertheless, their findings revealed that even if the ethical judgments of the individuals are not in line with the dominant ethical reasoning of the ethical work climate, the behaviors of the employees are shaped along the values of the ethical work climate they are in. This conclusion is worth attention, since it infers that the ethical climate of an organization has a far more impact than the individual determinants in shaping employee behaviors.

In parallel to these discussions, Wimbush & Shepard (1994) theorized that the ethical work climate within workgroups would have an impact on both employee behavior and overall workgroup and firm performance. Similarly, Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly (1998) found out that the antisocial behavior of the work group was a significant predictor of the individual anti-social behaviors. Therefore, they argued that a focus on the group-level is more beneficial in attempting to understand such behaviors. In a related research examining theft which is considered as one of the dimensions of workplace deviance, McClurg & Butler (2006) also postulated that the ethical climate of work group is a good predictor of this behavior. Supportive of the previously stated discussions, they also maintained that the norms of the work group and the organization were components of the ethical work climate which had a considerable impact on theft rates.

In his examination of the impact of ethical work climates, Vardi (2001) found out that the concept of ethical work climate was better equipped to explain

organizational misbehavior compared to the organizational climate construct. Vardi (2001) claimed that, in organizations there also existed a climate for organizational misbehavior and that the closest concept to the climate of organizational misbehavior was the ethical work climate. His study has concluded that some actions of misbehavior were negatively related with some types of ethical work climates. Likewise, Peterson's (2002a) research has proven that certain types of ethical climates were related to specific types of deviant behavior and deviant workplace behaviors can be predicted from the ethical work climate of an organization.

Given the large empirical support for the impact of ethical work climates on the emergence of deviant behaviors of employees, ethical work climate is taken as the second independent variable of the study. Along with the previously conducted studies, it is predicted that certain types of ethical work climates will lead to certain types of workplace deviance. However, the study does not aim to examine the combined effects of perceptions of organizational justice and ethical work climates on workplace deviance and how the two interacts with each other. The impact of the two independent variables on the dependent variable will be separately analyzed.

3.2.1. Ethical Work Climate and Different Types of Workplace Deviance

Robinson & Bennett (1995) claimed that the type of deviance exhibited by the employees might vary according to the variable triggering such behavior. As already explained, the factors that contribute to the emergence of deviant behaviors are categorized along two dimensions as the situational and personal antecedents. Robinson & Bennett (1995) argued that organizational variables are more likely to clarify deviance directed towards the organization whereas individual related variables are more likely to explain deviance directed towards other organizational members.

Resting upon these findings which suggest that the factors contributing to workplace deviance varies with regard to the type of the deviant behavior, Peterson (2002a) postulated that different ethical work climates will be predictors of different types of workplace deviance. Since ethical work climates are considered to be subsets of the organizational climates, they can be considered as an organizational variable likely to influence upon the emergence of deviance. Therefore, Peterson (2002) expected that ethical work climates will predict production deviance and property deviance rather than political deviance and personal aggression. Based on Robinson & Bennett's (1995) initial typology, production and property deviance represented the organizational dimension of deviance, whereas political deviance and personal aggression was placed at the interpersonal dimension. Nevertheless, the findings suggested that ethical work climate was predictive of the interpersonal deviance as well as the organizational form of deviance.

However, this study attempts to replicate Peterson's (2002a) hypothesis with a view to prove that ethical work climate as a situational variable is better equipped to explain deviance targeted towards the organization. Therefore it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5: Ethical work climate will be a better predictor of organizational deviance than interpersonal deviance.

3.2.2. Caring Climate and Workplace Deviance

The most common attributes that are found in caring climates are cooperation, mutual personal attraction and positive feelings about tasks which lead to a positive perception of the work environment (Wech, Mossholder, Steel & Bennett, 1998 as cited in Cullen et al., 2003). Thus, Cullen et al. (2003) argue that this positive climate will lead employees to behave in favor of the organization and even take action against any threats to its proper functioning.

As already explained in the previous sections, "caring" climates represent the benevolent form of ethical reasoning at the individual and local levels. Studies show that in work contexts where individuals perceive their work climate as taking consideration of their well-being, the possibility of engaging in deviant acts declines (Peterson, 2002a; Vardi, 2001, Wimbush et al. 1997b). By making reference to the prior studies, Martin & Cullen (2006) also suggested that "the social support that results from caring climates deters employee deviance" (p. 181).

The underlying reason for such findings rests on the dominant moral reasoning of the employees in organizations. Since caring climates are characterized by the utilitarian normative systems, it is expected that employees will behave in the direction that will produce the greatest good for the greatest number of people. Therefore, even though an employee might be prompted to react, the consideration of the impact of the behavior on other employees may prevent him from engaging in that action. Therefore, in line with previous research the following hypotheses are constructed:

Hypothesis 6a: The perceptions of a "caring" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 6b: The perceptions of a "caring" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

3.2.3. Instrumental Climate and Workplace Deviance

In instrumental climates, decision making and behavior of the employees are guided by the self-interests of the individuals. Since instrumental climates are predominated by the egoistic type of ethical reasoning, the most important consideration of the employees will be maximization of personal interest without taking any care of the consequence of the actions on the organization or on other members of the organization.

Wimbush et al. (1997b) labels instrumental climates as the only "negative" ethical work climate whereas the other four climates (caring, rules, law and code, independence) are evaluated as being positive. In parallel to this argumentation about the "negativity" of the instrumental ethical climates, empirical evidence shows that instrumental climates are positively correlated with deviance (Peterson, 2002a) ethically questionable acts (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000) and engagement in unethical behaviors (Wimbush et al., 1997b). Studies conducted in a variety of contexts consistently show that instrumental climates are the least preferred type of ethical climate in organizations (Martin & Cullen, 2006).

Deriving from the fact that behavioral intentions are guided by the ethical judgments, Barnett & Vaicys (2000) predicted that, climates that are supportive of egoistic values will encourage employees to behave egoistically in concordance with their personal interests. Therefore, they have hypothesized that there will be a positive relationship between the existence of egoistic climates and the intention of the employees to engage in ethically questionable or ambiguous acts. Even though, the results indicated a statistically non-significant relationship, they argued that this was mainly due to the fact that in the researched context, employees did not perceive their organization as highly egoistic.

Nevertheless, in line with their hypothesis, Wimbush et al. (1997b) found that the only significant positive relationship existed between the instrumental type of climate and unethical behavior. In their examination of the impact of ethical work climates on unethical behaviors of the employees, the results revealed that as the strength of the instrumental climate increased, so did the frequency of the unethical behavior. However, in other types of climates a negative relationship was observed. As the strength of the other climates increased, the unethical behaviors decreased.

Moreover, Peterson (2002a) also found out that the only type of ethical work climate that had a positive relationship with deviant workplace behavior was the

"instrumental climate". He claimed that organizations which foster the pursuing of self-interests were more likely to suffer from deviant acts.

Therefore, in this study it is also expected that, the instrumental climates that support self-interested behaviors "at the expense of other employees" (Cullen et al. 2003, p.130) will be positively related with the emergence of both types of workplace deviance. Hence; the following hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 7a: The perceptions of an "instrumental" climate will be positively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 7b: The perceptions of an "instrumental" climate will have a positive significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

3.2.4. Rules Climate and Workplace Deviance

As already stated, rules climates are governed by principled or deontological ethical forms of reasoning. In these types of climates the behaviors of the employees are shaped along the organizational policies and procedures.

Rules climates do not allow for any space about the consideration of self-interests or the well-being of the others. The only concern in such climates is to follow the organizational rules and regulation regardless of thinking the end results of the actions on other employees.

Barnett & Vaicys (2000) found out that in principled ethical climates with a particular focus on rules and codes, there was a weak relationship between the ethical judgments of the employees and their behavioral intentions. To be more precise, they have indicated that although employees may believe that engaging in a particular act is not unethical, they would not commit to that action if the organizational rules and

policies view it as unacceptable. Therefore, they claimed that in organizations that emphasize deontological principles, it is less likely that employees will engage in ethically questionable acts, even though they evaluate that action as ethical.

Moreover, Peterson's (2002a) findings also suggested that organizations that do not give importance to the strict adherence to organizational rules and regulations are more vulnerable to deviant acts. In the same vein, Vardi (2001) indicated that there existed a negative relationship between the rules climates and the observed organizational misbehavior by employees.

In parallel to these findings, it is expected that there will be less acts of interpersonal and organizational deviance in the rules ethical climate types. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 8a: The perceptions of a "rules" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 8b: The perceptions of a "rules" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

3.2.5. Law and Code Climate and Workplace Deviance

Even though both "rules" and "law and code" climates are defined in the principled line of axis, there is a slight difference in between with regard to the locus of analysis. The major difference of the "law and code" climate from the "rules" climate is the stress on professional rules and laws instead of the organizational guidelines and procedures. Therefore, the reference point in law and code climates are the rules set by the external agencies.

Wimbush et al. (1997b) reported that "law and code climates were negatively related to disobedience, stealing and lying behaviors" (p. 1711). Moreover, Peterson (2002a)

and Vardi (2001) also supported for a negative relationship between the law and code climate and the deviant behaviors of the employees.

Therefore, since the researched institution is a public organization, it is expected that in the perceptions of a "law and code" climate, the external sources of guidance for behavior will emphasize positive practices. As a result, it is anticipated that a negative relationship will be observed between the observed deviance and the "law and code" climate. Hence the following hypotheses are constructed:

Hypothesis 9a: The perceptions of a "law and code" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 9b: The perceptions of a "law and code" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

3.2.6. Independence Climate and Workplace Deviance

Independence climates which are also governed by the deontological principles advocate employees to behave in their own senses of "right" regardless of the consequences.

Independence climate which is also categorized under the "positive" types of ethical climates are usually associated with acting ethically (Wimbush et al. 1997a). Evidence shows that independence climates are negatively correlated with deviant workplace behavior (Peterson, 2002a). Examining the impact of ethical work climates on dysfunctional behaviors, Martin & Cullen (2006) pointed out that independence climates are negatively related with such behaviors.

Therefore, it is expected that the perceptions of an independent climate will be negatively correlated with the emergence of workplace deviance. In independence

climates the employees are expected to be behaving in conformity with their own senses of right and wrong which are for most of the time in line with the universally accepted norms. Thus it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 10a: The perceptions of an "independence" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 10b: The perceptions of an "independence" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

The primary aim of this study is to investigate the impacts of perceptions of organizational justice and the type of the perceived ethical work climate on workplace deviance exhibited by the employees in a public institution. This chapter of the study focuses on the used measurement instruments, data collection methods and the formation and the demographic characteristics of the sample.

4.1. Sample

The sample for this study is chosen from a public institution located in Ankara, Turkey. Due to the sensitivity of the subject, the senior managers of the institution requested the researcher to keep the name of the institution undisclosed. Therefore, the name of the institution will not be addressed.

However, it should be stated that the institution performs a coordinating function among other public institutions and mostly employs white-collar personnel. Caused by the space constraints, the personnel of the institution are located in two separate buildings (main building and additional building) that are of walking-distance to each other. The organizational structure of the institution consists of 14 main departments and 2 supportive administrative units. The tasks of the 14 main departments converge from each other to a great extent and these 14 units are classified among themselves into 2 categories as *horizontal* and *vertical* departments. The *vertical* departments are responsible from the execution of more technical tasks that require technical knowledge and expertise. On the other hand *horizontal* departments are tasked with performing activities that do not require technical knowledge and coordinate the works of other departments.

At the time of the delivery of the questionnaires, the institution employed 247 employees.

4.2.   Data Collection and Analysis

Before delivery of the questionnaires of the study, prior approval was taken from the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC). The university regulations require that all studies conducted with the human participants take approval of the HSEC before passing on to the data collection phase. Through the evaluation process, HSEC makes sure that the study to be conducted respects the principles of informed consent, provides respondents with adequate information about the study and does not constitute any physical or psychological threat on the participants.

Before the delivery of the questionnaire, an interview is made with one of the senior managers of the public institution with a view to describe the aims of the study and to take permission. Upon the consent of the senior manager, questionnaires are distributed personally by the researcher. Without any discrimination with regard to the job position (manager, non-manager) or gender, all the rooms placed in the main building and the additional building are visited during the working hours. Before the delivery of the questionnaires, all potential participants were informed about the aim and scope of the study. Of the total 247 employees, the questionnaires were distributed to 219 people. The rest was either out of office or rejected to participate in the study. The questionnaires were distributed with an empty envelope and the participants were asked to put the filled in questionnaires into the envelope and seal it afterwards. They were informed that the responses will be collected in one week time by the researcher personally with a sealed box that resembled to a ballot box so as to increase confidentiality.

The questionnaires included a cover letter which included some information about the purpose and the scope of the study, the approximate time to be spent in participation and the contact information of the researcher to respond to any of their questions about the study. The questionnaire did not ask respondents to indicate their names or their signature in order to ensure full unanimity and confidentiality. However, in order to confirm that they participate in the study completely voluntarily, they were asked to mark the tick box titled "Yes" or "No" that stated: "I participate in this study completely voluntarily and I know that I can quit answering the questionnaire any time I want. I accept the use of the given information in publications with scientific purposes." Moreover, the departments of the employees were not explicitly asked in order not to leave any space for other concerns. They were only asked to indicate the category of the department they worked for as either "horizontal" or "vertical".

As promised, within one week all the rooms were revisited with a ballot box like box that was tightly taped all around the corners and that was slightly cut from the top to allow in only one envelope at one time. The participants were asked to throw in their sealed envelopes to the box personally, in order to assure them that even the researcher will not be able to identify and distinguish their responses. As a result of the 219 distributed questionnaires, 171 could have been collected back. This indicates a response rate of 78%.

4.2.1. Data Cleaning and Missing Values

Prior to the analyses, the data was checked for accuracy and missing values. For dealing with missing data, 13 cases that included more than 10% missing items in a certain scale are excluded from the analyses. Moreover, since managers (N = 21) constituted only 13% of the total participants, they were excluded from the analysis for the sake of ensuring accuracy. Therefore, the total sample remained as 137 respondents.

4.3. Measurement Instruments

The questionnaire constructed for this study (See Appendix A) was composed of three main parts that measured the two independent variables (perceptions of ethical work climate and organizational justice) and the dependent variable (workplace deviance) via self-reports. These three parts were preceded with the section examining the demographic characteristics of respondents such as age, education level, tenure, job level and total work experience. The measurement instruments that are utilized in measuring these three variables are introduced below:

Ethical Work Climate: The type of the ethical work climate was measured using the ethical work climate questionnaire developed by Victor & Cullen (1988). The questionnaire includes 26 statements which actually correspond to five ethical climate types; caring, law and code, rules, instrumental and independence. The five types of ethical work climates were itemized in the *first part* of the questionnaire as follows:

- Caring Climate: #1,#2,#3,#4,#5,#6,#7
- Law and Code Climate: #8,#9,#10,#11
- Rules Climate: #12,#13,#14,#15
- Instrumental Climate: #16,#17,#18,#19, #20,#21,#22
- Independence Climate: #23,#24,#25,#26

Based on discussions of Kohlberg (1984), Victor & Cullen (1988) argued that "the choice of criteria as the basis for operationalizing ethical climate raises the problem of distinguishing between the form and content of ethical reasoning" (p.110). In order to avoid this problem, the scale constructed by Victor & Cullen (1988) included descriptive statements about situations rather than feelings. In line with the suggestions of the authors, the instructions given at the beginning of the statements in the questionnaires, asked respondents to reflect the *present* situation in their company and *not* their ambitions or desires.

The respondents were asked to answer the questions based on a 6 point likert-scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 6 (completely agree). The 'caring climate' was measured through 7 statements an example of which is 'The most important concern is the good of all the people in the company as a whole.' For the 'law and code climate', 4 questions were addressed like 'In this company, people are expected to strictly follow legal or professional standards.' Moreover, there were 4 statements to depict 'rules' climate including statements as 'Everyone is expected to stick by company rules and procedures'. For the 'instrumental climate' 7 items were placed in the questionnaire like 'In this company, people protect their own interests above out else.' And lastly, the independence climate was assessed through 4 statements which included items such as 'Each person in this company decides for themselves what is right and wrong.'

Workplace Deviance: Workplace Deviance was measured through the scale developed by Bennett & Robinson (2000). Rebecca J. Bennett and Sandra L. Robinson, who developed the scale, were contacted via e-mail and their permission is taken to make use of the material and to make the necessary adjustments in the questions to fit them into our case. The scale consisted of 19 items and was itemized in the *second part* of the questionnaire with the following statements:

- Interpersonal Deviance: #1,#2,#3,#4,#5,#6,#7
- Organizational Deviance: #8,#9,#10,#11,#12,#13,#14,#15,#16,#17,#18,#19

Of these 19 items, the first 7 measured the interpersonal deviance and included statements like 'Acted rudely toward someone at work' or "Made fun of someone at work". The following 12 statements addressed organizational deviance and included statements like 'Taken property from work without permission' or "Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked".

The respondents were requested to indicate the frequency of their engagement of the specific behavior included in the statements. Even though the original questionnaire included a 7-point questionnaires as 1 (never), 2 (once a year), 3 (twice a year), 4 (several times year), 5 (monthly), 6 (weekly), and 7 (daily), in the delivered questionnaire the frequencies 2, 3, and 4 was combined into one degree as (several times a year). Thus, respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale the extent to which they had engaged in each of the behaviors in the last year.

Before the questionnaires were distributed, a small sample from among the employees was chosen and they were asked to fill in the form in order to identify the applicability of the statements. Some statements were altered in order to adjust them to the work context of the studied organization. For example the statement "Worked slowly to get overtime payment" was changed and asked as "Worked slowly in order to make use of the overtime benefits". The reason was that there was no overtime payment in the institution but some overtime benefits existed like free meal and free transportation provided after a certain hour. Additionally, in the translation of the items, instead of direct translation, the focus was placed on giving the essence and the real meaning of what is to be asked. The aspiration in the study was to find out what is deviant for the specific culture that the surveyed country has. Since the scale was developed within a country that had a different set of values, there might have been some derivations and differences about what is evaluated as deviant. Therefore, to give an example, whereas in the original questionnaire there was a statement "made an ethnic or religious remark at work", in the delivered questionnaire "made an ethnic or social remark at work to insult/underestimate another person" was used due to the relatively homogeneous nature of the country.

Organizational Justice: The construct of organization justice which composes of three sub-units as procedural, interactional and distributive justice are measured by the scale developed by Niehoff & Moorman (1993). The respondents were asked to answer the questions based on a 6 point likert-scale ranging from 1 (completely

disagree) to 6 (completely agree). This scale developed by Niehoff & Moorman (1993) was largely based on the scale of Moorman (1991).

The scale included 20 statements which measured three dimensions of organizational justice and was itemized in the *third part* of the questionnaire under the following questions:

- Procedural Justice: #1,#2,#3,#4,#5,#6,
- Interactional Justice: #7,#8,#9,#10,#11,#12,#13,#14,#15
- Distributive Justice: ,#16,#17,#18,#19,#20

The first 6 statements measured the "formal procedures" scale as defined by Niehoff & Moorman (1993) which was later labeled as "procedural justice". This section included statements such as "My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made." or "All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees".

The subsequent 9 items tapped the "interactional justice" dimension with statements such as "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity." or "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee".

On the other hand, perceptions of "distributive justice" were measured via the last 5 items. These five items included statements such as "My work schedule is fair." or "Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair."

4.4. Sample Demographics

The demographic variables chosen for the scope of the study was gender, age, education level, tenure, work experience, job position, unit, type of employment

contract and locations (buildings) of the respondents. The following sections provide a detailed analysis of the mentioned demographic characteristics of the sample.

4.4.1. Gender

The first demographic variable analyzed in the study was the gender of the participants. This question was answered by all participants. Of the 137 respondents who were employed in the public institution, 62.8 % were female (N = 86) and 37.2 % were male (N = 51).

Table 3. Gender Statistics

Gender	Frequency	%
Female	86	62.8
Male	51	37.2
Total	137	100

4.4.2. Age

Respondents were asked to mark their ages in a four categorized interval scale. (1= Under 25, 2=25-34, 3=35-44 and 4= Over 45). The response rate for this question was 100%. Of the 137 participants, 7.3 % (N = 10) were below 25, 73 % (N = 100) were between 25 and 34, 16.1 % (N = 22) were between 35 and 44 and 3.6 % (N = 5) were 45 and above. Given the 73% of the employees are clustered in the 25-34 age interval; we can argue that, the employees of the institution are relatively young. Table 4 shows the age statistics of the respondents.

Table 4. Age Statistics

Age	Frequency	%
Below 25	10	7.3
25-34	100	73
35-44	22	16.1
45 and above	5	3.6
Total	137	100

4.4.3. Education Level

Similar to the question with regard to age, the response rate for this question was also 100%. As can be followed from Table 5, the education levels of the participants ranged between high school and doctorate degree, with 5.8 % were high school graduates (N = 8), 5.8 % had two-year university degree (N = 8), 56.9 % were university graduates (N = 78), 27.7 % had graduate degree (N = 38) and 3.6 % had doctorate degree (N = 5). As it is expected, university graduates constitute the largest portion (56.9 %) of the participants. Table 5 shows the education level statistics of the participants.

Table 5. Education Level Statistics

Education	Frequency	%
High school	8	5.8
Two-year university	8	5.8
University	78	56.9
Graduate degree	38	27.7
Doctorate degree	5	3.6
Total	137	100

4.4.4. Tenure and Total Work Experience

The tenure of the respondents in the researched institution and their total work experience is asked as an open-ended question that requested them to indicate these values in terms of years and months. While the participants' tenure in the specific public institution ranged between 1-300 months (Mean = 22.41, SD = 37.01), their total work experiences ranged between 3-360 months (Mean = 84.10, SD = 75.69) (see Table 6).

Table 6. Tenure and Total Work Experiences of the Participants (in months)

	Range	Mean	SD
Tenure	1-300	22.41	37.01
Total work experience	3-360	84.10	75.69

4.4.5. Job Position

The participants were asked to indicate their job position in an ordinal scale that consisted of two categories as "manager" and "non-manager". For the "manager" option, extra information is highlighted in parenthesis that read "having subordinates". After all the 13 cases that included more than 10 % missing in a certain scale are excluded from the analyses, the remaining 158 data were analyzed. The results indicated that 13.1 % (N= 21) of the respondents were managers whereas 86.7 % (N = 137) were non-managers. Due to the low percentage of the managers (13.1%) and due to the scope of the study that aims to investigate "employee behavior" they were excluded from the analysis for the sake of enhancing accuracy. Nevertheless, if the number of managers were high enough to make a contribution to the findings of the study, they could have also been included in the analysis of the study variables.

4.4.6. Unit

121 of the 137 respondents filled in the question with regard to the unit which indicates a response rate of 89.4%. Among the 121 filled questionnaires 57.7 % of the respondents (N = 79) reported horizontal and 30.7 % of the respondents (N = 42) reported vertical units (see Table 7).

Table 7. Units of the Participants

Unit	Frequency	%
Horizontal Unit	79	57.7
Vertical Unit	42	30.7
Total	121	89.4

4.4.7. Type of Employment Contract

Among the 137 participants, 135 replied the question with regard to the type of employment contract which indicates a response rate of 98.6 %. Although the researched institution is a public institution that grants life-long employment, there are also some personnel that are temporarily employed in the organization. When the participants' employment contract types were examined with a question including two closes as permanently employed or temporarily employed, 86.9 % (N = 119) replied that they were permanent staff and 11.7 % (N = 16) reported that they were temporarily employed (see Table 8).

Table 8. Participants' Type of Employment Contract

Type of Employment Contract	Frequency	%
Permanent staff	119	86.9
Temporarily employed	16	11.7
Total	135	98.6

4.4.8. Location

As already stated, the researched institution operates in two separate buildings. All of the respondents answered this question relating to the location of the building. Whereas 62 % of the participants were located in the main building (N = 85), 38 % of the participants were located in the additional building (N = 52) (see Table 9).

It was seen worth to include the locations of the participants as a demographic variable in the study in order to take the contextual differences into account. As it is proposed by Rousseau & Fried (2001) the geographical location of the studied phenomena could be analyzed for the contextualization of organizational research by focusing upon the setting. Moreover, the study by Baron et al. (1999) also revealed that the physical location of the workplace could have a differential influence upon the workplace aggression. Nevertheless, although the two buildings are not positioned in entirely different "geographical" locations, it is still seen worth to test how the perceived ethical work climate or workplace deviance inclinations of the employees may vary in different work atmospheres.

Table 9. Participants' Locations

Location	Frequency	%
Main Building	85	62
Additional Building	52	38
Total	137	100

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This section covers the findings regarding the statistical analysis conducted for the scope of the study. In this regard, firstly the factor structures of the Ethical Work Climate Scale, Workplace Deviance Scale, and Organizational Justice Scale will be presented. Subsequently, the results of the conducted statistical analysis such as reliability analysis, correlation analysis, regression analysis and MANOVA analysis will be introduced.

5.1. Factor Analysis

5.1.1. Factor Analysis of the Ethical Work Climate Scale

The items of ethical work climate scale were factor analyzed using Principle Components Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation. Taking into account the suggestions of Victor & Cullen (1988), a five-factor solution was conducted. As can be followed from Table 10, the five-factor solution explained 63.42 % of the variance and revealed eigenvalues of 6.08, 3.08, 2.63, 2.46 and 2.24 for "law and code", "caring", "rules", "independence", and instrumental, respectively. The item loadings ranged from .80 to .77 for "law and code", from .85 to .10 for "caring", from .15 to -.01 for "rules", from .82 to .54 for "independence", and from .74 to .-02 for "instrumental". In "caring" and "instrumental" climate some cross-loadings were observed. Moreover, all items of the "rules" climate, loaded on the "law and code" climate. This suggested that, instead of a five factor solution a four factor solution that would combine "law and code" climate and "rules" climate into a single construct would have been used. However, since there was a general inconsistency in

the item distribution, this study has taken Cronbach's Alpha values into consideration instead of the results of the factor analysis.

Table 10. Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings of the Ethical Work Climate Scale Items (N=137)

	I	II	III	IV	V
I.Law and Code					
People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations.	.81	.08	.27	.13	.09
In this company, the first consideration is whether a decision violates any law.	.79	.04	.06	.14	.10
In this company, people are expected to strictly follow legal or professional standards.	.78	-.09	.18	.22	-.03
In this company, the law or ethical code of their profession is the major consideration.	.77	.15	.30	.11	-.18
II.Caring					
The most important concern is the good of all the people in the company as a whole.	.20	.85	.10	.13	-.09
Our major concern is always what is best for the other person.	.13	.84	.01	.13	.02
What is best for everyone in the company is the major consideration here.	.25	.65	.40	.01	-.04
In this company, people look out for each other's good.	.20	.59	.53	-.09	-.15
In this company, it is expected that you will always do what is right for the customers and public.	.42	.49	.38	.08	-.10
The most efficient way is always the right way in this company.	.52	.27	.30	.26	-.06
In this company, each person is expected above all to work efficiently.	.69	.10	.22	.15	-.01
III.Rules					
Successful people in this company go by the book.	.68	.33	.15	.10	.05
People in this company strictly obey the company policies.	.72	.33	.10	-.09	.11
Everyone is expected to stick by company rules and procedures.	.79	.14	-.07	.07	.09

Table 10. continued

	I	II	III	IV	V
III.Rules					
It is very important to follow the company's rules and procedures here.	.74	.20	-.01	-.09	.09
IV.Independence					
In this company, people are guided by their own personal ethics.	-.02	-.05	.05	.83	-,08
Each person in this company decides for themselves what is right and wrong.	.26	.14	-.08	.75	.05
The most important concern in this company is each person's own sense of right and wrong.	.02	.06	-.08	.73	.30
In this company, people are expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs.	.35	.15	-.04	.54	-.10
V. Instrumental					
Work is considered substandard only when it hurts the company's interests.	.10	-.10	-.05	.06	.74
People are expected to do anything to further the company's interests, regardless of the consequences.	-.10	-.17	-.15	-.19	.69
People here are concerned with the company's interests —to the exclusion of alt else.	.18	.04	.36	.07	.67
The major responsibility of people in this company is to control costs.	.13	.18	-.10	.22	.55
There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this company.	-,19	-.28	-.45	-.11	.47
In this company, people protect their own interests above out else.	-.17	-.07	-.77	.14	.06
In this company, people are mostly out for themselves.	-.20	-.21	-.83	.04	-.02
Eigenvalues	6.08	3.08	2.63	2.46	2.24
Explained Variance (%)	23.37	11.87	10.10	9.46	8.61
Cronbach alpha (α)	.88	.84	.85	.71	.65

5.1.2. Factor Analysis of the Workplace Deviance Scale

The items of workplace deviance scale were factor analyzed using PCA with varimax rotation. Congruent with the suggestions in the literature, two-factor solutions are conducted. Table 11 provides results for two-factor solution, which explained 35.41 % of the variance. In particular, "organizational deviance" revealed an eigenvalue of 3.62, and the item loadings ranged from .72 to .08. Finally, "interpersonal deviance" revealed an eigenvalue of 3.11, and the item loadings ranged from .81 to .24. Since there were some cross-loadings and some items that received relatively low loadings, this study has considered Cronbach's Alpha values instead of factor analysis.

Table 11. Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings of the Workplace Deviance Scale Items (N=137)

	I	II
I.Organizational Deviance		
Come in late to work without permission	.72	.12
Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	.67	-.06
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	.67	-.06
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	.61	.06
Littered your work environment	.57	.34
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	.53	.46
Taken property from work without permission	.47	.08
Neglected to follow your boss's instructions	.47	.41
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	.44	.55
Put little effort into your work	.41	.60
Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	.38	.09
Dragged out work in order to get overtime	.08	-.01
II.Interpersonal Deviance		
Said something hurtful to someone at work	-.16	.81
Acted rudely toward someone at work	.07	.81
Played a mean prank on someone at work	.31	.41
Made fun of someone at work	.21	.36

Table 11. continued

	I	II
II.Interpersonal Deviance		
Publicly embarrassed someone at work	-.02	.33
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	-.16	.30
Cursed at someone at work	.03	.24
Eigenvalues	3.62	3.11
Explained Variance (%)	19.05	16.36
Cronbach alpha (α)	.80	.54

5.1.3. Factor Analysis of the Organizational Justice Scale

The items of the organizational justice were subjected to PCA with varimax rotation. Treating interactional justice as a separate form of organizational justice, three-factor solutions are conducted. Table 12 provides results for three-factor solution, which explained 77.78 % of the variance. In particular, "interactional justice" revealed an eigenvalue of 7.69, and the item loadings ranged from .87 to .76. Moreover, "procedural justice" revealed an eigenvalue of 3.97, and the item loadings ranged from .84 to .43. Finally, "distributive justice" revealed an eigenvalue of 3.90, and the item loadings ranged from .86 to .57. Since there were some cross-loadings, this study has taken Cronbach's Alpha values into consideration instead of the results of the factor analysis.

Table 12. Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings of the Organizational Justice Scale Items (N=137)

	I	II	III
I.Interactional Justice			
When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs	.87	.17	.22
My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job	.82	.23	.18
The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job	.81	.34	.26
When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity	.80	.27	.11

Table 12. continued

	I	II	III
I.Interactional Justice			
When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration	.80	.30	.17
When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee	.80	.25	.36
When making decisions about my job general manager offers explanations that make sense to me	.80	.33	.22
Concerning decisions made about my job, general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me	.77	.45	.13
When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner	.76	.36	.26
II.Procedural Justice			
Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner	.28	.84	.17
All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	.48	.71	.26
My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	.53	.68	.16
To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information	.54	.64	.30
My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	.58	.62	.28
Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager	.54	.43	.18
III.Distributive Justice			
I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	.23	.24	.86
I think my level of pay is fair	.08	.03	.83
I consider my work load to be quite fair	.19	.29	.83
Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	.35	.09	.79
My work schedule is fair	.18	.49	.57
Eigenvalues	7.69	3.97	3.90
Explained Variance (%)	38.43	19.86	19.49
Cronbach alpha (α)	.97	.94	.89

5.2. Reliability Analysis

In order to test the reliability of the three different scales (Ethical Work Climate, Organizational Justice, Workplace Deviance), reliability analysis is conducted. The reliabilities of the scales are evaluated on the basis of their respective Cronbach's Alpha values. These values usually vary between 0 and 1, and as the value approaches to 1, the internal consistency of the dimension increases. As George & Mallery (2003) suggests, the meaning of the values are as follows: 1.0 − 0.9 Excellent, 0.9 − 0.8 Good, 0.8 − 0.7 Acceptable, 0.7 − 0.6 Questionable, 0.6 − 0.5 Poor and 0.5 > Unacceptable. Therefore, for the scope of this study, the variables that have Cronbach's Alpha over 0.5 are taken into consideration.

5.2.1. Reliability Analysis of Ethical Work Climate Scale

The first 7 items (1-7) in the ethical work climate scale measure the "caring" dimension of the ethical work climate. An application of the reliability analysis to the 7 items revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.84, which can be labeled as excellent according to George & Mallery's (2003) classification. The mean and standard deviation of the subscale is 3.8759 and .93249 respectively. Since the Cronbach's Alpha is over 0.5 there is no need to omit any items to increase the reliability of the caring dimension.

Table 13. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of "Caring" Climate Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
A1	In this company, people look out for each other's good	3.5615	1.3810	
A2	The most important concern is the good of all the people in the company as a whole	3.7308	1.2746	**.84**
A3	What is best for everyone in the company is the major consideration here	3.5692	1.3349	

Table 13. continued

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
A4	Our major concern is always what is best for the other person	3.6846	1.4034	
A5	In this company, it is expected that you will always do what is right for the customers and public	4.4462	1.1947	**.84**
A6	The most efficient way is always the right way in this company	3.7154	1.2528	
A7	In this company, each person is expected above all to work efficiently	4.2692	1.3224	
Caring Climate Scale		3.8759	.93249	.84

The next 4 items (8-11) represent the "law and code" climate. Reliability analysis of this scale indicates a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.88 which symbolizes excellent reliability of the scale. Moreover, the means and standard deviations of the scale are 4.2512 and 1.07096 respectively.

Table 14. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of "Law and code" Climate Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
A8	People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations	4.2815	1.2851	
A9	In this company, people are expected to strictly follow legal or professional standards	4.3407	1.2881	**.88**
A10	In this company, the law or ethical code of their profession is the major consideration	4.3481	1.1611	
A11	In this company, the first consideration is whether a decision violates any law	4.0889	1.2123	
Law and code Climate Scale		4.2512	1.07096	.88

The following 4 items (12-15) represent the "rules" climate. Reliability analysis of this scale indicates a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.85 which symbolizes excellent reliability of the scale. Moreover, the means and standard deviations of the scale are 4.2433 and 0.99432 respectively.

109

Table 15. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of "Rules" Climate Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
A12	Everyone is expected to stick by company rules and procedures	4.5000	1.1222	
A13	*It is very* important to follow the company's rules and procedures here	4.4118	1.1318	**.85**
A14	People in this company strictly obey the company policies	4.0809	1.2999	
A15	Successful people in this company go by the book	4,0074	1.2202	
Rules Climate Scale		4.2433	0.99432	.85

Reliability analysis regarding the "instrumental" climate scale that is represented by the statements 16-22 indicates a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.65 which is questionable. Even though this value is relatively poor compared to the previous reliabilities, nevertheless it is still significant. Therefore, there is no need to omit any item from the scale. Additionally, the means and standard deviation of the scale are 3.3210 and 0.70541 respectively.

Table 16. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of "Instrumental" Climate Subscale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
A16	Work is considered substandard only when it hurts the company's interests	3.8519	1.3244	
A17	People are expected to do anything to further the company's interests, regardless of the consequences	3.7407	1.3602	
A18	People here are concerned with the company's interests-to the exclusion of alt else	3.1333	1.2566	
A19	The major responsibility of people in this company is to *control* costs	2.9704	1.2335	**.65**
A20	There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this company	3.3852	1.1844	
A21	In this company, people protect their own interests above out else	3.4889	1.1710	
A22	In this company, people are mostly out for themselves	2.6667	1.2278	
Instrumental Climate Scale		3.3210	0.70541	.65

The final 4 items in the ethical work climate scale measure "independence climate". Reliability analysis of this subscale shows an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.71 which proves the high reliability of the scale. Therefore, there is no need to omit any item from the subscale. The mean of the subscale is 3.4069 whereas the standard deviation is 0.70541.

Table 17. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of "Independence" Climate Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
A23	Each person in this company decides for themselves what is right and wrong	3.4963	1.2451	
A24	In this company, people are guided by their own personal ethics	3.6148	1.1781	**.71**
A25	The most important concern in this company is each person's own sense of right and wrong	3.0889	1.2184	
A26	In this company, people are expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs	3.4222	1.2367	
Independence Climate Scale		3.4069	0.70541.	.71

To sum up, the Cronbach alpha coefficients resulted as 0.88, 0.85, 0.84, 0.71, and 0.65 for the factors "law and code", "rules", "caring", "independence", and "instrumental" respectively, suggesting that the scales have relatively strong internal consistencies. Table 18 also presents reliability information regarding the scales of ethical work climates.

Table 18. Cronbach's Alphas of Ethical Work Climate Scales

Ethical Work Climate Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Law and Code	**0.88**
Rules	**0.85**
Caring	**0.84**
Independence	**0.71**
Instrumental	**0.65**

5.2.2. Reliability Analysis of Organizational Justice Scale

As already mentioned organizational justice scale consists of three different types of perceptions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional). When the reliabilities of the three subscales are analyzed separately, procedural justice indicates a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.94 which refers to the extreme reliability of the scale. The mean and standard deviation of the scale is 3.4635 and 1.36598 respectively.

Table 19. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of Procedural Justice Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
C1	Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner	3.6148	1.4660	
C2	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	3.2148	1.6271	
C3	My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	3.5852	1.6317	**0.94**
C4	To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information	3.7481	1.6241	
C5	My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	3.5556	1.6781	
C6	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager	3.0148	1.4194	
Procedural Justice Scale		3.4635	1.36598	.94

Similarly the reliability analysis of the interactional justice scale also indicates high degrees of reliability. The Cronbach's Alpha of the interactional justice scale is 0.97. The mean and standard deviation of the scale is 3.9481 and 1.33122 respectively.

Table 20. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of Interactional Justice Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
C7	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs	4.2993	1.4571	
C8	My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job	4.3066	1.5028	
C9	The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job	3.9270	1.4735	
C10	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity	4,1606	1.4102	
C11	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration	3.9270	1.5841	
C12	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee	3.7299	1.4778	**0.97**
C13	When making decisions about my job general manager offers explanations that make sense to me	3.7299	1.5219	
C14	Concerning decisions made about my job, general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me	3.8248	1.4547	
C15	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner	3.6277	1.5388	
Interactional Justice Scale		3.9481	1.33122	.97

Lastly, the distributive justice scale also yielded a high reliability level of 0.89. Moreover the means and standard deviations of the scale were 3.7500 and 1.33824 respectively.

Table 21. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of Distributive Justice Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
C16	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	4.0154	1.4941	
C17	I think my level of pay is fair	3.5538	1.7479	
C18	I consider my work load to be quite fair	3.7615	1.5189	**0.89**
C19	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	3.4615	1.6897	
C20	My work schedule is fair	3.8615	1.4454	
Distributive Justice Scale		3.7500	1.33824	.89

In particular, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients resulted as 0.89, 0.94, and 0.97 for "distributive justice", "procedural justice", and "interactional justice", respectively. It is concluded that reliability analysis with organizational justice scale revealed strong internal consistency coefficients for the subscales. (See Table 22)

Table 22. Cronbach's Alphas of Organizational Justice Scales

Organizational Justice Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Interactional Justice	**0.97**
Procedural Justice	**0.94**
Distributive Justice	**0.89**

5.2.3. Reliability Analysis of Workplace Deviance Scale

Reliability analysis for the workplace deviance scale is conducted for the interpersonal and organizational deviance scales separately. The reliability analysis for the "interpersonal deviance" revealed Cronbach's Alpha of 0.54. Although this value is quite low, it is still significant since it is above the 0.5 level. Therefore, no item is omitted from the study. Moreover, the means and standard deviations of the scale are 1.3316 and 0.32592 respectively.

Table 23. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of Interpersonal Deviance Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
B1	Said something hurtful to someone at work	1.5985	0.8949	
B2	Acted rudely toward someone at work	1.4088	0.6009	
B3	Played a mean prank on someone at work	1.1314	0.3800	
B4	Made fun of someone at work	1.4599	0.9157	**0.54**
B5	Publicly embarrassed someone at work	1.1825	0.4062	
B6	Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	1.4453	0.6174	
B7	Cursed at someone at work	1.0949	0.3182	
Interpersonal Deviance Scale		1.3316	0.32592	.54

Reliability analysis of the organizational deviance indicated a higher reliability with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.80. Therefore, this scale was significant like the interpersonal deviance scale. The mean of the organizational deviance scale was 1.3555 whereas the standard deviation was found to be 0.30659.

Table 24. Item Statistics and Cronbach's Alphas of Organizational Deviance Scale

Item No	Statement	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
B8	Come in late to work without permission	1.1591	0.3874	
B9	Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	2.0455	0.8548	
B10	Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	1.0076	0.0870	
B11	Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	1.7424	0.8161	
B12	Littered your work environment	1.6288	0.7248	
B13	Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1.2197	0.6803	**0.80**
B14	Taken property from work without permission	1.2955	0.5055	
B15	Neglected to follow your boss's instructions	1.4470	0.6338	
B16	Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1.0455	0.2091	
B17	Put little effort into your work	1.0227	0.1496	
B18	Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1.6667	0.6499	
B19	Dragged out work in order to get overtime	1.0227	0.1496	
Organizational Deviance Scale		1.3555	0.30659	.80

To conclude, Cronbach's alpha coefficients resulted as 0.54 and 0.80 for "interpersonal deviance" and "organizational deviance", respectively (See Table 25) Reliability analysis with workplace deviance scale generally revealed strong internal consistency coefficients for the "organizational deviance" scale. However, the results suggest that "interpersonal deviance" variable should be treated with caution.

Table 25. Cronbach's Alphas of Workplace Deviance Scales

Workplace Deviance Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Interpersonal Deviance	0.54
Organizational Deviance	0.80

5.3.   Intercorrelation Analysis

In order to test the relationships between the study variables, a Pearson correlation analysis is performed. Table 26 shows the intercorrelation figures for the 18 study variables at the $p < .01$, $p < .05$ levels.

When the relationships between the demographic variables and workplace deviance is analyzed; only "age", "education" and "total work experience" revealed significant relationships with interpersonal and organizational deviance separately.

Age revealed a significant negative association with interpersonal deviance ($r= -.18$, $p < .05$) and organizational deviance ($r = -.20$, $p < .05$). This finding indicates that, as the ages of the employees increase, they are less likely to engage in workplace deviance either towards other members of the organization or towards the organization itself. In the same direction, total work experience variable was also negatively associated with interpersonal deviance ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$) and organizational deviance ($r = -.20$, $p < .05$). When it is also taken into account that that age had a significant positive association with total work experience ($r = .83$, $p < .01$), the results become even more consistent. However, education is found to be positively related to interpersonal ($r = .18$, $p < .05$) and organizational deviance ($r = .20$, $p < .05$).

When the correlations between demographic characteristics and the types of ethical work climates are analyzed, it is observed that location, gender, age, education, tenure, total work experience and type of employment contract exhibit significant

relationships with the different types of ethical work climates. Whereas age (r = .22, p < .01), total work experience (r = .28, p < .01), type of employment contract (r = .23, p < .01) and gender (r= .21, p < .05) was positively associated with "independence" type of ethical work climate, education was found to be negatively related to "independence" climate (r = -.22, p < .05). Furthermore, tenure (r = -.20, p < .05) and total work experience (r = -.22, p < .05) was negatively associated with "law and code" type of ethical work climate just like rules climate which also displayed negative correlations with tenure (r= .17, p < .05) and total work experience (r= .25, p < .01). Moreover, it was found that location was negatively related to caring climate (r= .22, p< .05) and positively related to the instrumental climate (r=-.21, p< .05)

Regarding the intercorrelations between demographic variables and the organizational justice dimensions, unit showed a significant positive association with procedural organizational justice (r = .19, p < .05) and interactional justice (r = .22, p < .05). Moreover, location also indicated a positive relationship with the procedural (r = .29, p < .01), interactional (r = .26, p < .01) and distributive justice (r = .22, p < .01) dimensions.

Concerning the intercorrelations of the ethical work climate dimensions and the workplace deviance study variables, the factors of ethical work climate, the "law and code" climate was found to be negatively associated with both interpersonal (r = -.25, p < .01) and organizational deviance (r = -.20, p < .05). Similarly, rules climate was also negatively associated with both interpersonal (r= -.26, p< .01) and organizational deviance (r=-.21, p < .05). Likewise caring climate and was also found to be negatively associated with interpersonal (r = -.32, p < .01), and organizational deviance (r = -.29, p < .01). Specifically, independence climate was also negatively related to interpersonal deviance (r = -.23, p < .01), and organizational deviance (r = -.27, p < .01). On the contrary, instrumental ethical work climate was found to be only type of ethical work climate that was slightly positively

related to interpersonal deviance (r = .19, p < .05). All these correlations are in parallel with the expectations. Since all the ethical work climates except for instrumental climate was regarded as positive, it was already anticipated that rules, law and code, caring and independence climate will exhibit a negative relationship with workplace deviance whereas the instrumental climate will be positively related to the observed workplace deviance.

Regarding the interaction between workplace deviance and organizational justice variables, interpersonal deviance was found to be negatively related to distributive (r = -.22, p < .01), procedural (r = -.34, p < .01) and interactional justice (r = -.37, p < .01). Similarly, organizational deviance was found to be negatively associated with procedural (r = -.28, p < .01) and interactional (r = -.19, p < .05) but not with distributive justice. These findings were also revealed that organizational justice perceptions were strongly in a negative significant relationship with the workplace deviance dimensions. In line with the expectations, all three types of organizational justice displayed negative relationships with interpersonal deviance, whereas only distributive justice did not exhibit any positive or negative relationship with the organizational deviance.

Table 26. Intercorrelations of Variables Assessed in the Study

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Law and Code Climate	1											
2.Rules Climate	.764**	1										
3. Caring Climate	.596**	.581**	1									
4. Instrumental Climate	-.175*	-.150	-.374**	1								
5.Independence Climate	.336**	.246**	.237**	.090	1							
6. Interpersonal Deviance	-.246**	-.264**	-.319**	.188*	-.231**	1						
7.Organizational Deviance	-.194*	-.214*	-.292**	.062	-.270**	.416**	1					
8.Procedural Justice	.470**	.514**	.622**	-.357**	.332**	-.344**	-.275**	1				
9.Interactional Justice	.474**	.467**	.571**	-.244**	.289**	-.373**	-.193*	.831**	1			
10.Distributive Justice	.481**	.509**	.508**	-.359**	.167	-.224**	-.078	.583**	.544**	1		
11.Location	.068	.085	.217*	-.214*	-.069	-.137	-.093	.288**	.259**	.221**	1	
12.Gender	.011	-.079	-.016	.117	.214*	-.077	-.152	-.045	-.014	.006	-.176*	1
13.Age	-.141	-.116	-.026	.051	.224**	-.179*	-.195*	.076	.100	-.149	.092	.081
14.Education	-.030	-.001	-.059	-.167	-.218*	.184*	.197*	-.082	-.052	.092	.180*	-.038

Table 26. continued

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
15.Tenure	-.195*	-.172*	-.039	-.031	.142	-.113	-.138	-.011	-.019	-.136	.053	.164
16.Total Work Experience	-.220*	-.254**	-.125	.079	.282**	-.183*	-.196*	-.048	-.048	-.216*	.069	.178*
17.Unit	-.056	-.055	.085	-.165	-.088	-.073	-.088	.185*	.217*	.059	.367**	-.193*
18.Type of employment contract	.099	.132	.059	.168	.233**	-.134	-.144	.034	.030	-.041	-.149	.144

Table 26. continued

Variables	13	14	15	16	17	18
13.Age	1					
14.Education	-.013	1				
15.Tenure	.509**	-.112	1			
16.Total Work Experience	.826**	-.112	.533**	1		
17.Unit	-.017	.034	-.059	.014	1	
18.Type of employment contract	-.130	-.369**	.123	.110	-.078	1

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

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

5.4. Regression Analysis

For the scope of this study hierarchical regression analysis are conducted separately to measure the impact of organizational justice perceptions and various ethical work climates on workplace deviance.

5.4.1. Determination of Control Variables

As described in section 5.3, the demographic variables that were significantly associated with the major dependent variable (workplace deviance) were age, education, and total work experience. Therefore, these three variables were treated as control variables and were entered in the first step in all regression analyses testing for the hypotheses (see Section 5.4.2 and 5.4.3 for hypothesis).

Moreover empirical research provides support that these are also among the most common demographic variables that can be used to predict workplace deviance. (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Berry et al., 2007; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998;)

In the current research age was controlled since empirical evidence suggests for a significant negative relationship between age and workplace deviance (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Hollinger & Clark, 1983). The findings of prior studies prove that the older employees are far less likely to involve in workplace deviance. Moreover, education was also taken as a control variable for the study since prior research found evidence that education could be made use of to predict workplace deviance (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Additionally, total work experience was also taken as a control variable since it is revealed that total work experience might have a significant correlation with workplace deviance (Berry et al., 2007). Furthermore, in their study Bennett & Robinson (2000) suggested that the younger and the less experienced employees might be more prone to deviant behavior at the workplace.

121

5.4.2. Regression Analysis for Organizational Justice Perceptions and Workplace Deviance

In order to examine the impact of organizational justice dimensions on interpersonal and organizational deviance two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted (See Tables 27 & 28). As stated, at the first stage the control variables were entered into the analysis. Then at the second stage distributive, procedural and interactional justice were entered into the regression for interpersonal and organizational deviance in each analysis.

In the first step, the control variables explained about 7 % of the variance on organizational deviance (R^2= .071, F (3, 128) = 3.257, p < .05). However, when distributive, procedural and interactional justice was entered into the second stage of the analysis, the explained variance increased to approximately 14% (R^2= .143, F (3, 125) = 3.472, p < .01).

Besides, education was found to have a positive significant association with organizational deviance (β = .180, t (128) = 2.040, p < .05), indicating that the more educated the employees, the more likely that they would engage in organizational deviance. On the other hand, age and total work experience did not significantly contribute to organizational deviance.

Additionally, when age, education, and total work experience were controlled, only procedural justice was found to be significantly associated with organizational deviance (β = -.39, t (125) = -2.470, p < .05), indicating that favorable perceptions of procedural justice contributed negatively to organizational deviance. However, distributive justice and interactional justice did not significantly contribute to organizational deviance.

The same analysis was repeated to measure the relative capabilities of the distributive, procedural and interactional justice scales to predict interpersonal deviance. In the first step, the control variables explained about 7 % of the variance on interpersonal deviance (R^2= .073, F (3, 128) = 3.344, p < .05). At the second stage, when the distributive, procedural and interactional justice was entered into the analysis, the explained variance significantly increased to approximately 21 % (R^2= .205, F (3, 125) = 5.375, p < .001).

Moreover, education was found to have a significant association with interpersonal deviance (β = .184, t (128) = 2.083, p < .05), indicating that participants with higher education tended to report more interpersonal deviance. On the other hand, age and total work experience did not significantly contribute to interpersonal deviance.

Furthermore; when age, education, and total work experience were controlled in the second step, distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice did not significantly contribute to interpersonal deviance.

Table 27. Summary of Regression Models Testing for Distributive, Procedural and Organizational Justice Associated with Organizational Deviance

Variable	R	R²	Adjusted R²	R² Change	F	Sig F	β	Sign.
Step 1	.266	.071	.049	.071*	3.257*	.024		
Age							-.159	.308
Education							.180*	.043
Total work experience							-.045	.775
Step 2	.378	.143	.102	.072*	3.472**	.003		
Distributive Justice							.031	.780
Procedural Justice							-.392*	.015
Interactional Justice							.131	.391

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p< .001, Standardized coefficients are reported.

Table 28. Summary of Regression Models Testing for Distributive, Procedural and Organizational Justice Associated with Interpersonal Deviance

Variable	R	R²	Adjusted R²	R² Change	F	Sig F	β	Sign.
Step 1	.270	.073	.051	.073*	3.344*	.021		
Age							-.232	.137
Education							.184*	.039
Total work experience							.029	.852
Step 2	.453	.205	.167	.132***	5.375***	.000		
Distributive Justice							-.095	.366
Procedural Justice							-.037	.810
Interactional Justice							-.279	.059

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p< .001, Standardized coefficients are reported.

5.4.3. Regression Analysis for Ethical Work Climates and Workplace Deviance

Repeatedly in order to measure the impact of ethical work climates interpersonal and organizational deviance two consequent hierarchical regression analyses were conducted (See Tables 29 & 30). Control variables were entered in the first step and factors of ethical work climate (rules, law and code; caring; independence; instrumental) were entered in the second step, for interpersonal and organizational deviance in each analysis.

In the first step, the control variables explained about 7 % of the variance on organizational deviance (R^2= .071, F (3, 128) = 3.257, p < .05). Factors of ethical work climate (rules, law and code; caring; independence; instrumental) were entered in the second step and the explained variance significantly increased to approximately 18 % (R^2= .181, F (5, 123) = 3.402, p < .001).

Moreover, when age, education, and total work experience were controlled, caring was found to be significantly associated with organizational deviance (β = -.229, t

124

(123) = -2.006, p < .05), indicating that caring ethical work climate contributed negatively to organizational deviance. On the other hand, rules, law and code, independence and instrumental climates did not significantly contribute to organizational deviance (see Table 29).

Secondly, the same analyses were conducted in order to investigate the predictor role of ethical work climate on interpersonal deviance. In the first step, the control variables explained about 7 % of the variance on interpersonal deviance (R^2= .073, F $(3, 128) = 3.344$, p < .05). When the factors of ethical work climate (rules, law and code; caring; independence; instrumental) were entered into the analysis in the second step, the explained variance significantly increased to approximately 22 % (R^2= .215, F $(5, 123) = 4.454$, p < .001).

However, when age, education, and total work experience were controlled, caring, rules, law and code, independence and instrumental climates did not significantly contribute to interpersonal workplace deviance (see Table 30).

Table 29. Summary of Regression Models Testing for Ethical Work Climate Factors Associated with Organizational Deviance

Variable	R	R²	Adjusted R²	R² Change	F	Sig F	β	Sign.
Step 1	.266	.071	.049	.071*	3.257*	.024		
Age							-.159	.308
Education							.180	.043
Total work experience							-.045	.775
Step 2	.426	.181	.128	.110**	3.402***	.001		
Caring							-.229*	.047
Law and Code							.052	.706
Rules							-.139	.301
Instrumental							.019	.834
Independence							-.100	.299

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p< .001, Standardized coefficients are reported.

Table 30. Summary of Regression Models Testing for Ethical Work Climate Factors Associated with Interpersonal Deviance

Variable	R	R²	Adjusted R²	R² Change	F	Sig F	β	Sign.
Step 1	.270	.073	.051	.073*	3.344*	.021		
Age							-.232	.137
Education							.184	.039
Total work experience							.029	.852
Step 2	.463	.215	.164	.142***	4.454***	.000		
Caring							-.138	.220
Law and Code							-.013	.923
Rules							-.177	.178
Instrumental							.153	.088
Independence							-.066	.485

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p< .001, Standardized coefficients are reported.

5.5. MANOVA Analysis for Workplace Deviance

With a view to test whether the type of the workplace deviance employees engage in change with regard to certain demographic variables, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. In the analysis, gender, age, education, tenure, total work experience, unit, type of employment contract and location were the independent variables and whereas interpersonal and organizational deviance were the dependent variables.

As can be followed from Tables 31-38, the results of the MANOVA analysis only exhibited significant main effect for the "total work experience" variable (Multivariate $F_{(4, 256)}$ = 2.44, p< .05, Wilk's Lambda = .93). The other independent variables did not reveal any significant main effects.

Additionally, an examination of the univariate analysis with regard to total work experience disclosed that those with more years of total work experience were less likely to engage in interpersonal ($F_{(2,129)}$ = 2.624, p< .10) or organizational

deviance (F (2,129) = 4.092, p<.05). Employees with a total work experience of over 84 months had the lowest means both for the interpersonal (M=1.2269) and organizational deviance (M=1.2348) items when compared to those with lower levels of total work experience.

Table 31. Results of MANOVA by Gender (N = 137)

Gender effect	Wilks' Lambda = .98	F=1.60	p< .205	η^2= .023	
				Observed Power=.334	
	Univariate Results			Means	
Variable	F(1,135)	Sig.	Male	Female	
Interpersonal	.809	.370	1.3641	1.3123	
Organizational	3.196	.076	1.4158	1.3197	

Table 32. Results of MANOVA by Age (N = 137)

Age effect	Wilks' Lambda = .93	F=1.57	p< .156	η^2=.034		
				Observed Power=.601		
	Univariate Results		Means			
Variable	F(3,133)	Sig.	Below 25	25-34	35-44	Above 44
Interpersonal	1.536	.208	1.4429	1.3500	1.2273	1.2000
Organizational	2.517	.061	1.3667	1.3923	1.2256	1.1667

Table 33. Results of MANOVA by Education (N = 94)

Education Effect	Wilks' Lambda = .98	F=.82	p< .445	η^2= .018
				Observed Power=.186
	Univariate Results		Means	
Variable	F(1,92)	Sig.	High school / two year uni.	University Graduate/Doctorate
Interpersonal	.161	.690	1.2500	1.2940
Organizational	1.640	.204	1.2017	1.3410

Table 34. Results of MANOVA by Tenure (Months) (N = 133)

Tenure effect	Wilks' Lambda = .95	F= 1.58	p< .180	η^2=.024	
				Observed Power=.484	
	Univariate Results			Means	
Variable	F(2,130)	Sig.	Below 8	8-13	Above 13
Interpersonal	1.127	.327	1.3571	1.3793	1.2698
Organizational	2.573	.080	1.4186	1.3420	1.2797

Table 35. Results of MANOVA by Total Work Experience (Months) (N = 132)

Total Work Experience effect	Wilks' Lambda = .93	F= 2.44	p< .05	η^2=.037	
				Observed Power=.695	
	Univariate Results			Means	
Variable	F(2,129)	Sig.	Below 37	37-84	Above 84
Interpersonal	2.624	.076	1.3891	1.3557	1.2269
Organizational	4.092	.019	1.4070	1.4069	1.2348

Table 36. Results of MANOVA by Unit (N = 121)

Unit effect	Wilks' Lambda = .99	F= .57	p< .566	η^2=.010
				Observed Power=.143
	Univariate Results		Means	
Variable	F(1,119)	Sig.	Horizontal	Vertical
Interpersonal	.645	.423	1.3508	1.2993
Organizational	.937	.335	1.3797	1.3261

Table 37. Results of MANOVA by Type of Employment Contract (N = 135)

Type of Employment Contract effect	Wilks' Lambda = .97	F= 1.85	p< .161	η^2=.027
				Observed Power=.380
	Univariate Results		Means	
Variable	F(1,133)	Sig.	Permanent	Temporarily
Interpersonal	2.418	.122	1.3493	1.2143
Organizational	2.808	.096	1.3756	1.2396

Table 38. Results of MANOVA by Location (N = 137)

Location effect	Wilks' Lambda = .98	F= 1.39	p< .252	η^2=.020	
				Observed Power=.295	
	Univariate Results			Means	
Variable	F(1,135)	Sig.	Main Bldng	Side Bldng	
Interpersonal	2.582	.110	1.3664	1.2747	
Organizational	1.183	.279	1.3777	1.3191	

5.6. MANOVA Analysis for Multiple Ethical Work Climates

In order to test whether ethical climates in the organization will vary with regard to the gender, age, education, tenure, total work experience, unit, and type of employment contract, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted where gender, age, education, tenure, total work experience, unit, type of employment contract and location were the independent variables and factors of ethical work climate (rules, law and code, caring, independence and instrumental) were the dependent variables.

As can be followed in Tables 39-46, MANOVA revealed significant main effects for age (Multivariate $F (15, 356) = 2.55$, p< .001, Wilk's Lambda = .76), education (Multivariate $F (5, 88) = 2.43$, p< .05, Wilk's Lambda = .88), tenure (Multivariate $F (10, 252) = 5.87$, p< .001, Wilk's Lambda = .66), total work experience (Multivariate $F (10, 250) = 3.82$, p< .001, Wilk's Lambda = .75) and the type of employment contract (Multivariate $F (5, 129) = 2.66$, p< .05, Wilk's Lambda = .91).

The univariate analysis of variance revealed significant differences for the age groups except for the caring and instrumental climates. Whereas employees younger than 25 were more likely to perceive a "law and code" climate ($F (3,133) = 5.435$, p< .001), employees older than 44 were more likely to perceive "rules" climate ($F (3,133) = 7.274$, p<.001). Moreover univariate analysis with regard to education ($F (1,192) = 3.967$, p <.05) revealed that the less educated employees were more likely to perceive instrumental climate (M=3.8452) when compared to the more educated

employees (M=3.2940). Furthermore, the univariate analysis with regard to tenure showed that the employees with a tenure over 13 months were more likely to perceive an emphasis on independent judgment (F (2,130) = 4.358, p < .05) and adherence to laws & codes (F(2,130) = 7.470, p < .001).

Additionally, an examination of the univariate analysis with regard to total work experience disclosed that those with more years of total work experience were less likely to perceive law and codes (F (2,129) = 5.527, p< .01) and rules climates (F (2,129) = 6.680, p< .001) when compared to those with a total work experience of below 37, and 37 – 84 months. Lastly, a univariate analysis of the type of employment contract (F (1,133) = 7.613, p< .01) revealed that permanent employees (M=3.3095) were less likely to perceive an independence climate than the temporarily employed personnel (M=3.9323).

These findings clearly imply that perceptions of ethical work climates vary with regard to certain variables in the organizations and that multiple ethical climates may exist together in an organization. Just like Victor & Cullen (1988), our study has shown that perceptions of ethical work climates changes with regard to age and tenure but do not show any variance with regard to the department.

Table 39. Results of MANOVA by Gender (N = 137)

Gender effect	Wilks' Lambda = .93	F=2.12	p< .067	η^2= .075	
				Observed Power=.685	
	Univariate Results			Means	
Variable	F(1,135)	Sig.		Male	Female
Caring	.035	.851		3.8954	3.8643
Law and code	.018	.894		4.2353	4.2607
Rules	.845	.360		4.3448	4.1831
Instrumental	1.871	.174		3.2143	3.3843
Independence	6.476	.05		3.1618	3.5523

Table 40. Results of MANOVA by Age (N = 137)

Age effect	Wilks' Lambda = .76	F=2.55	p< .001	η^2= .090		
				Observed Power=.983		
	Univariate Results			Means		
Variable	F(3,133)	Sig.	Below 25	25-34	35-44	Above 44
Caring	1.640	.183	3.8000	3.9352	3.5303	4.3619
Law and code	5.435	.001	4.4250	4.3717	3.4773	4.9000
Rules	7.274	.000	4.3000	4.3683	3.4545	5.1000
Instrumental	.217	.885	3.3286	3.2940	3.4221	3.4000
Independence	3.869	.011	3.3500	3.3167	3.5720	4.6000

Table 41. Results of MANOVA by Education (N = 94)

Education Effect	Wilks' Lambda = .88	F=2.43	p< .05	η^2= .121
				Observed Power=.745
	Univariate Results		Means	
Variable	F(1,92)	Sig.	High school / two year uni.	University Graduate/Doctorate
Caring	.823	.367	4.1786	3.8657
Law and code	1.393	.241	3.8438	4.3140
Rules	.039	.844	4.1563	4.2335
Instrumental	3.967	.049	3.8452	3.2940
Independence	.062	.804	3.5938	3.5087

Table 42. Results of MANOVA by Tenure (Months) (N = 133)

Tenure effect	Wilks' Lambda = .66	F= 5.87	p< .001	η^2=.189	
				Observed Power=1.000	
	Univariate Results		Means		
Variable	F(2,130)	Sig.	Below 8	8-13	Above13
Caring	1.945	.147	3.9716	3.9376	3.6038
Law and code	7.470	.001	4.4657	4.3707	3.6667
Rules	12.684	.000	4.4498	4.5000	3.5625
Instrumental	5.118	.007	3.1236	3.5616	3.4286
Independence	4.358	.015	3.1752	3.4397	3.6829

Table 43. Results of MANOVA by Total Work Experience (Months) (N = 132)

Total Work Experience effect	Wilks' Lambda = .75	F= 3.82	p< .001	η^2=.133	
				Observed Power=.996	
	Univariate Results			Means	
Variable	F(2,129)	Sig.	Below 37	37-84	Above 84
Caring	.983	.377	4.0370	3.8305	3.7619
Law and code	5.527	.005	4.4184	4.4265	3.7279
Rules	6.680	.002	4.3954	4.4412	3.7206
Instrumental	.932	.396	3.1945	3.3739	3.3585
Independence	3.990	.021	3.1543	3.3725	3.6985

Table 44. Results of MANOVA by Unit (N = 121)

Unit effect	Wilks' Lambda = .95	F= 1.13	p< .351	η^2=.047
				Observed Power=.388
	Univariate Results		Means	
Variable	F(1,119)	Sig.	Horizontal	Vertical
Caring	.869	.353	3.8671	4.0255
Law and code	.371	.543	4.3481	4.2302
Rules	.367	.546	4.3017	4.1905
Instrumental	3.327	.071	3.3716	3.1304
Independence	.935	.336	3.4093	3.2480

Table 45. Results of MANOVA by Type of Employment Contract (N = 135)

Type of Employment Contract effect	Wilks' Lambda = .91	F= 2.66	p< .05	η^2=.094
				Observed Power=.79
	Univariate Results		Means	
Variable	F(1,133)	Sig.	Permanent	Temporarily
Caring	.465	.496	3.8559	4.0268
Law and code	1.317	.253	4.2031	4.5312
Rules	2.359	.127	4.1877	4.5938
Instrumental	3.870	.051	3.2599	3.6190
Independence	7.613	.007	3.3095	3.9323

Table 46. Results of MANOVA by Location (N = 137)

Location effect	Wilks' Lambda = .92	F= 2.25	p< .053	η^2=.07
				Observed Power=.716

	Univariate Results		Means	
Variable	F(1,135)	Sig.	Main Bldng	Side Bldng
Caring	6.672	.011	3.7182	4.1337
Law and code	.635	.427	4.1941	4.3446
Rules	.982	.323	4.1775	4.3510
Instrumental	6.449	.012	3.4384	3.1291
Independence	.655	.420	3.4549	3.3285

5.7. Hypothesis Testing

This section examines the results of the statistical analysis conducted in order to test the hypothesis that are introduced in the "Development of Hypothesis" chapter. In order to test the various hypotheses Pearson intercorrelation analysis (Section 5.3) and regression analysis (Section 5.4) are utilized.

Hypothesis 1a: The perceptions of distributive justice will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As already stated in the intercorrelation analysis, distributive justice was found to be negatively correlated with the interpersonal dimension of workplace deviance (-.22, $p < .01$). Therefore, this section of the hypothesis was supported. However, a significant relationship could not be observed for the relationship between perceptions of distributive justice and organizational deviance (r = -.08, p = n.s), thus the first part of the hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 1b: The perceptions of distributive justice will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As the regression results suggests, perceptions of distributive justice does not have a significant impact on either interpersonal ($\beta = -.095$, t (125) = -.908, p = n.s.) or

organizational deviance (β = .031, t (125) = .280, p = n.s.). Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2a: The perceptions of procedural justice will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As can be seen from Table 26, procedural justice was found to be negatively correlated with both interpersonal (r= -.34, p < .01) and organizational (r = -.28, p < .01) dimensions of workplace deviance, confirming the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2b: The perceptions of procedural justice will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

According to the regression results, perceptions of procedural justice has a significant negative impact on organizational deviance (β = -.392, t (125) = -2.470, p < .05) but does not have any significant effect on interpersonal deviance (β = -.037, t (125) = -.241, p = n.s.). Therefore whereas the first part of the hypothesis was supported, the second part of it was rejected.

Hypothesis 3a: The perceptions of interactional justice will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As it was already indicated in the intercorrelation analysis, interactional justice was found to be negatively correlated with both interpersonal (r= -.37, p < .01) and organizational (r = -.19, p < .05) dimensions of workplace deviance, confirming the hypothesis**.**

Hypothesis 3b: The perceptions of interactional justice will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Results of the study showed that perceptions of interactional justice do not have a significant impact on either interpersonal (β = -.279, t (125) = -1.904, p = n.s.) or organizational deviance (β = .131, t (125) = .861, p = n.s). Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 4: Interactional justice will be a stronger predictor of both organizational and interpersonal deviance than either distributive or procedural justice.

As already indicated, the results of the current study failed to find an impact of distributive (β = -.095, t (125) = -.908, p = n.s.), procedural (β = -.037, t (125) = -.241, p = n.s.) or interactional justice (β = -.279, t (125) = -1.904, p = n.s.) on interpersonal deviance.

Moreover, the only dimension of organizational justice that predicted organizational deviance was procedural justice (β = -.392, t (125) = -2.470, p < .05). As a result interactional justice did not predict either interpersonal or organizational deviance. Thus the hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 5: Ethical work climate will be a better predictor of organizational deviance than interpersonal deviance.

When the two separate regression analyses were comparatively analyzed, it was observed that although ethical work climate explained a higher percent of variance on interpersonal deviance (22 %) than on organizational deviance (18 %), factors of ethical work climate, especially caring climate was the only ethical climate that contributed significantly to organizational deviance but not to interpersonal deviance. Therefore, the hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 6a: The perceptions of a "caring" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As can be inferred from Table 26, the perceptions of a "caring" climate was found to be negatively associated with both interpersonal (r = -.32, p < .01), and organizational deviance (r = -.29, p < .01), confirming the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6b: The perceptions of a "caring" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As the regression results exhibit, the perceptions of a caring climate has a significant negative impact on organizational deviance (β = -.229, t (123) = -2.006, p < .05) but does not have a significant effect on interpersonal deviance (β = -.138, t (123) = -1.232, p= n.s). Therefore, the first part of the hypothesis was confirmed whereas the second part was rejected.

Hypothesis 7a: The perceptions of an "instrumental" climate will be positively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As can be followed in the above sections, the perceptions of an "instrumental" climate revealed an insignificant association with organizational deviance (r = .06, p = n.s.). Nevertheless, it was found to have a positive association with interpersonal deviance (r = .19, p < .05). Therefore the findings supported the first section of the hypothesis while rejecting the second part.

Hypothesis 7b: The perceptions of an "instrumental" climate will have a positive significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

The perceptions of an instrumental climate did not show a significant positive impact on organizational (β = .019, t (123) = .210, p= n.s.) or interpersonal deviance (β = .153, t (123) = 1.720, p= n.s.). Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 8a: The perceptions of a "rules" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

The results of the intercorrelation analysis showed that rules climate also negatively associated with both interpersonal (r= -.26, p< .01) and organizational deviance (r=-.21, p < .05) which supports the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 8b: The perceptions of a "rules" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

The regression results indicated that perceptions of a rules climate do not have significant negative impact on either organizational (β = -.139, t (123) = -1.039, p= n.s.) or interpersonal deviance (β = -.177, t (123) = -1.355, p= n.s.). Thus, this hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 9a: The perceptions of a "law and code" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As can be followed in the above sections, "law and code" climate was found to be negatively associated with both interpersonal (r = -.25, p < .01) and organizational deviance (r = -.20, p < .05), confirming the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 9b: The perceptions of a "law and code" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As can be inferred from the regression results, perceptions of a law and code climate did not have a significant negative impact on either organizational ($\beta = .052$, t (123) = .378, p= n.s.) or interpersonal deviance ($\beta = -.097$, t (123) = .210, p= n.s.), which rejects the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 10a: The perceptions of an "independence" climate will be negatively associated with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

As Table 26 indicates, "independence" climate was found to be negatively associated with both organizational (r = -.27, p < .01) and interpersonal deviance (r = -.23, p < .01). Therefore, this hypothesis was confirmed.

Hypothesis 10b: The perceptions of an "independence" climate will have a negative significant impact on organizational and interpersonal deviance.

The results of the regression analysis suggest that, perceptions of an independence climate do not have a significant negative impact on either organizational ($\beta = -.100$, t (123) = -1.044, p= n.s.) or interpersonal ($\beta = -.066$, t (123) = -.701, p= n.s.) deviance. Thus, this hypothesis was rejected.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

In an attempt to bring in more clarification about the emergence of workplace deviance in organizational settings which is a highly costly problem for the organizations and organizational members, this study focused on the individual impacts of the types of ethical work climates and perceptions of organizational justice on the interpersonal and organizational dimensions of workplace deviance.

This section of the study focuses on the discussion of the findings with regard to the relevant literature in the field, the limitations of the study, managerial implications and implications for future research.

6.1. Discussion of the Findings

6.1.1. Discussion of the Findings Concerning the Relationship between Demographic Variables and Workplace Deviance

The current study revealed some important results displaying the relationship between certain demographic variables and the workplace deviance dimensions. The first step of the regression results conducted for the study showed that it was only the educational level that had a positive impact on both organizational ($\beta = .180$, $p < .05$) and interpersonal ($\beta = .184$, $p < .05$) deviance (See Tables 27 & 28). Interestingly, the more educated the employees, the more likely that they would engage in organizational deviance. Mostly, it is argued that the education level might have an influence in developing a stronger moral awareness (VanSandt et al., 2006). Thus one would expect a negative impact of educational level on workplace deviance. However, it could be stated that consciousness among employees advance in parallel

with their education levels. Research also shows that the intellectual accumulation contributes to the enlargement of consciousness (Winthrop, 1962). As a result, we can argue that as the employees become more educated they become more conscious about the organizational norms and policies. Therefore, this prompts them to deviate from organizational norms in case they evaluate these norms and policies as contrary to their legitimate interests.

Moreover, the MANOVA analysis conducted to observe whether the type of workplace deviance employees would change with regard to certain variables showed that it was only the "total work experience" variable that varied significantly across different levels (Multivariate $F_{(4, 256)} = 2.44$, $p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .93) (See Table 35). Additionally, an examination of the univariate analysis with regard to total work experience disclosed that those with more years of total work experience were less likely to engage in interpersonal ($F_{(2,129)} = 2.624$, $p < .10$) or organizational ($F_{(2,129)} = 4.092$, $p < .05$) deviance. Employees with a total work experience of over 84 months had the lowest means both for the interpersonal (M=1.2269) and organizational deviance (M=1.2348) items when compared to those with lower levels of total work experience. Additionally, Robinson & Bennett (2000) also argued those with less work experience might be more prone to deviance in the workplace.

The MANOVA findings of the study also did not show a significant main effect for the gender variable (See Table 31). Although some studies show that males tend to be more aggressive than females (Greenberg & Barling, 1996), there are also some studies that reject this distinction (Bayram et al., 2009; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Hershcovis et al. (2007) argued that men and women may not display significant difference in indirect forms of aggression and Bayram et al. (2009) failed to find an impact of gender on counterproductive work behavior. Therefore, although the females constitute % 62.8 of the respondents in the current study, they do not have a

significant impact on workplace deviance and that the type of workplace deviance does not vary with regard to gender.

6.1.2. Discussion of the Findings Concerning the Relationship between Ethical Work Climates and Workplace Deviance

Aiming at examining the relationship between ethical work climates and workplace deviance, the findings of the current research showed that certain types of ethical work climates have significant impacts on the specific types of workplace deviance employees may engage in.

The social learning theory (Bandura, 1973 as cited in Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998) suggests that the behaviors of the individuals are to a large extent influenced by the respective behaviors of the group members that they belong to. Research proves this theory by showing that the anti-social behaviors exhibited by the employees are positively related with that of his/her co-workers (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Therefore, from this theory one could imply that deviance might become rapidly prevalent in an organization through social learning so long as the necessary group norms that would prevent deviance are not in place. Therefore, ethical work climates emerge as powerful tools in guiding employee behavior and in conveying them a message concerning which ethical criteria they should use in decision making.

The regression results revealed that, it was only the caring type of ethical work climate that had a significant negative effect on organizational deviance (β = -.229, p < .05) (See Table 29). Neither rules and law and code climates nor instrumental and independence climates had a significant impact on either of the two workplace deviance dimensions (See Tables 29 & 30). Therefore, Hypothesis 7b, 8b, 9b and 10b and the part of the Hypothesis 6b that anticipated a negative impact of caring climate on interpersonal deviance was not supported.

141

The reason why rules and law and code climates failed to have an impact on workplace deviance dimensions could be explained by the argument with regard to the internalization and implementation of ethical principles. Omurgonulsen & Oktem (2009) proposed that in the Turkish bureaucratic structure, there are legal and administrative regulations that regulate the ethical code of conduct at the principle level and there are strategic plans and some referenced documents at the organizational level. However, by reference to Kerneghan (2003 as cited in Omurgonulsen & Oktem, 2009) they underline that only written value statements do not suffice to foster shared values and ethical standards in public service. In their words: "public organizations do not practice what they preach, or rather do not preach what they practice" (p.150). Therefore, this might provide us with an explanation why the rules and law and code could not explain either of the two workplace deviance dimensions.

However, as a whole when all ethical work climate items were entered into the second step of the multiple regression analysis, the explained variance significantly increased from about 7% (R^2= .071, F (3, 128) = 3.257, p < .05) to approximately %18 (R^2= .181, F (5, 123) = 3.402, p < .001) for organizational deviance and from about 7% (R^2= .073, F (3, 128) = 3.344, p < .05) to approximately 22% (R^2= .215, F (5, 123) = 4.454, p < .001) for interpersonal deviance (See Tables 29 & 30). Thus, it could be concluded that, all in all, inclusion of the ethical work climate construct in the equation improved our prediction of workplace deviance.

Since employees in caring climates perceive their organization as taking care of their well-being, they are likely to refrain from any act that would intentionally give harm to the organization and the organizational members. Therefore, this finding was in parallel with our expectations. Even more, as Cullen et al. (2003) argues caring climate which is considered to be among the positive ethical work climates would even encourage employees to take action in favor of the organization and prevent any threats to its proper functioning. Thus, this finding implies that in caring types of

ethical work climates it would be less likely to observe workplace deviance directed either towards the organization or the organizational members.

Another important contribution of the study regarded the cross-cultural validity of the ethical work climate scale. The findings of the research that is conducted in a public institution in Ankara, Turkey showed that ethical work climate construct is a valid tool that can be used across various national and cultural settings. Prior research by Lopez, Babin & Chung (2009) also showed that ethical work climate scale is valid in different national contexts and can be used to compare differences between cultures.

It should be acknowledged that cultural differences should also be taken into account while dealing with the employees (Bulutlar & Öz, 2008). Therefore, a close analysis of the characteristics of the individual cultures may provide us with some valuable information that would be useful in the interpretation of the findings of the study.

In a study Weeks et al. (2007) reported that the impact of ethical work climates on organizational commitment varies between Mexican and U.S. sales people and that the cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1984) might explain these differences. Hofstede (1984) as one of the first scholars developing a typology of national cultures, classified countries along four "key issues" labeled as: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivity and masculinity versus femininity. In both studies, (Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010), Turkey emerged as a highly collectivist culture which scores high on power distance. As Menguc (2000) states, the collectivist culture in Turkey has important implications for organizations and employer-employee relations. In line with Hofstede's (1984) postulations, we can argue that in Turkey "we" is deemed important and people are highly sensitive about maintaining the harmony of the group. In these kinds of societies family relationships are carried on to the work level and therefore, there is an intimate relationship between the employees and the leaders

143

are expected to create a team-friendly atmosphere. As people are looking for each other's good in the Turkish culture, it is highly likely that in Turkey the "caring" climate, which stresses taking care of the well being of the organizational members, has a higher predictive role than the other ethical work climate dimensions.

Moreover, according to the classification developed by Hofstede (1984) Turkey is among the countries that are characterized by a paternalistic culture. In a cross-cultural study by Aycan et al (2002), Turkey scored very high on paternalistic values among 10 different nations. Therefore in these cultures team-oriented leadership is of extreme importance and leaders seek to maintain the well-being of the group as a whole. In such cultures, leaders are expected to take the role of a father and show a close concern for their employees.

A study conducted in Turkey by Erben & Güneşer (2007) revealed that the ethical work climates in an organization are highly influenced by the leader behaviors and that paternalistic leadership has a significant effect on the perceived type of ethical climate. Moreover, they argued that the task of paternalist leaders is to "humanize and remoralize" the workplace. This line of reasoning requires that superiors treat their employees with care and show a high degree of concern for their well-being. Therefore, we could argue that having a highly paternalistic culture, predictive role of caring climate is consistent with the characteristics of the Turkish society.

In the same vein, in a research of the public service values of public administrators in Turkey, Onurgonulsen & Oktem (2009) argued that the significant cultural values of the Turkish bureaucracy are ''collectivism, solidarity and harmony'' in ''community'' or ''groups'' (p.145). Therefore, within the Turkish bureaucracy employees pay attention to the maintenance of the harmony of the group and act like guardians of the group interest. This also provides a strong support for our findings which attribute a higher predictive role to the caring climate on organizational deviance.

The above cited discussions about the cultural characteristics of the Turkish society and the bulk of research supporting the possibility of a predominance of "caring culture" in Turkish organizations also provide a reasoning why in the current study, instrumental climate did not have an impact on either interpersonal or organizational deviance. As the Turkish society is highly collectivistic, employees are not expected to act in line with their personal interests. In Hofstede's (1984) dimensions, individualism reflects just the opposite of the collectivist culture and in case of Turkey it is less likely to observe an instrumental climate in organizations. Therefore, it could be argued that the findings of the current research show parallelism with the general characteristics of the Turkish society.

Another interesting finding by Erben & Güneşer (2007) disclosed that in paternalistic relationships it would be highly likely that the employee would be punished if they act independently from management. As commitment and loyalty to the superior is a must, no space is left to act independently using their personal judgment. Moreover, to make a specific case about the characteristics of public organizations, Boyne (2002) argues that in public organizational managers have less freedom to act in line with their personal choices. When they take independent decision, they should face "the costs of the hierarchy" (p.101). Therefore, this might explain why in the current study; independent type of ethical work climate had no effect on either interpersonal or organizational deviance.

Apart from these discussions, the results of the study also verified prior research by confirming that the perceived ethical work climates in an organization may vary with regard to certain individual and situation level variables. In line with previous research, the findings of the study also showed that multiple ethical climates may exist together in an organization (Vardi, 2001; Victor & Cullen, 1988; Weber, 1995; Weber & Seger, 1992; Wimbush et al. 1997a). The MANOVA analysis conducted to test whether ethical climates in organization varied with regard to certain variables showed that perceptions of ethical work climates differ significantly across age

145

(Multivariate F (15, 356) = 2.55, p< .001, Wilk's Lambda = .76), education (Multivariate F (5, 88) = 2.43, p< .05, Wilk's Lambda = .88), tenure (Multivariate F (10, 252) = 5.87, p< .001, Wilk's Lambda = .66), total work experience (Multivariate F (10, 250) = 3.82, p< .001, Wilk's Lambda = .75) and the type of employment contract (Multivariate F (5, 129) = 2.66, p< .05, Wilk's Lambda = .91) (See Tables 39-46). Prior research also confirmed that age, academic status and the accumulated work experiences effect the ethical positions of individuals (Luthar, DiBattista & Gautschi, 1997) which would have an impact on their perceptions of ethical work climates.

More specifically, the univariate analysis of variance revealed significant differences for the age groups except for the caring and instrumental climates. VanSandt et al. (2006) also underlined that age is an important demographic variable that shapes the values of employees in business settings. Whereas the employees younger than 25 were more likely to perceive a "law and code" climate (F (3,133) = 5.435, p< .001), the ethical climate perceived by the employees older than 44 were more likely to be the "rules" type of a climate (F (3,133) = 7.274, p<.001) (See Table 40). Nevertheless, it should be stated that in the literature there are mixed results with regard to impact of age on ethical evaluations (Sweeney, Arnold & Pierce, 2009). In the present research, the ethical climates as perceived by the younger and older employees were somehow close to each other though not being overlapped. This finding indicates that the younger employees are taking laws and codes of their profession as a reference point in ethical decisions, whereas the older employees are more likely to obey the organizational rules and policies.

Moreover univariate analysis with regard to education (F (1,192) = 3.967, p <.05) revealed that the lesser educated employees are more likely to perceive an instrumental climate (M=3.8452) when compared to the more educated employees (M=3.2940) (See Table 41). This finding is highly in parallel with the Kohlberg's (1984) postulations. Kohlberg (1984) pointed level of education as the most

important element in developing moral judgment. In line with that, Victor & Cullen (1988) basing their model on Kohlberg's stages of moral development argued that those individuals at the first stage (pre-conventional level) of moral development are more likely to perceive instrumental climates. When it is taken into consideration that the education level might have an influence in the development of moral awareness (VanSandt et al., 2006), these findings produce consistent results.

Furthermore, since the described types of ethical work climates significantly differed with regard to tenure, the univariate analysis showed that the employees with tenure over 13 months were more likely to perceive an independence climate ($F_{(2,130)}$ = 4.358, $p < .05$) (See Table 42). Similarly, Victor & Cullen (1988) found out that those with more years of tenure put a more emphasis on independent judgment and less on rules and law and code.

Additionally, an examination of the univariate analysis with regard to total work experience disclosed that those with more years of total work experience were less likely to perceive law and codes climate ($F_{(2,129)}$ = 5.527, $p < .01$) and rules climate ($F_{(2,129)}$ = 6.680, $p < .01$) when compared to those with a total work experience of below 37, and 37 – 84 months (See Table 43). As the employees accumulate experience over the years, they might have been observing that the rules at the organizational level or the law and code at the society level are not always cared by the employees in taking some ethical decisions. As Forte (2004) argues, they might be feeling a sense of disappointment which effects their perceptions about the ethical work climates. However, those employees with low total work experience feel more obliged to abide by the policies and the legal regulations.

Lastly, a univariate analysis of the type of employment contract ($F_{(1,133)}$ = 7.613, $p < .01$) revealed that permanent employees (M=3.3095) were less likely to perceive independence climate than the temporarily employed personnel (M=3.9323) (See Table 45). The temporarily employed personnel were employed for a short term in

the researched institution and they had their own employing institutions which will they return to after their term of office is over. Therefore, it is highly likely that they feel a less sense of responsibility towards their present employers. Therefore, it might be the case that temporarily employed personnel would feel freer to take independent decisions compared to the permanently employed personnel.

These findings clearly imply that perceptions of ethical work climates vary with regard to certain variables in the organizations and that multiple ethical climates may exist together in an organization. Supporting Victor & Cullen (1988), our study has shown that perceptions of ethical work climates changes with regard to age and tenure but do not show any variance with regard to the department.

Lastly, in Hypothesis 5 of the current study, it was postulated that ethical work climate was a better predictor of organizational deviance than interpersonal deviance. Although the results showed that ethical work climates explained a higher percentage of the variance in interpersonal deviance ($R^2 = .215$, $F (5, 123) = 4.454$, $p < .001$) than organizational deviance ($R^2 = .181$, $F (5, 123) = 3.402$, $p < .001$), nevertheless none of the ethical work climate dimensions predict interpersonal deviance. As already stated, among the ethical climate types, it was only the caring climate that was found to be strongly contributing to the prediction of deviance directed towards the organization. Therefore the hypothesis was supported. The main reason for this finding is the fact that ethical work climate scale is a construct measuring an organizational variable. Therefore, in line with Robinson & Bennett's (1995) suggestion, this study confirmed that organization related variables are more likely to predict deviance aimed at the organization.

In short, the findings of the study showed that caring climate is the only type of ethical work climate that discourage its employees to engage in workplace deviance. Therefore, it can be suggested that organizations should foster cooperation among

organizational members and make their employees feel that their well being is taken care of in order to refrain from the negative consequences of workplace deviance.

6.1.3. Discussion of the Findings Concerning the Relationship between Organizational Justice and Workplace Deviance

The second major contribution of the study to the workplace deviance literature concerned the explanations of the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice with that of workplace deviance. By examining the relationship between the three types of organizational justice and workplace deviance dimensions, this study revealed that perceptions of fairness play an important role in the determination of workplace deviance.

Studies by various researchers indicated that the resulting type of deviant workplace behavior might display variety depending on the type of the organizational injustice that triggers this behavior (Ambrose, Seabright & Schminke, 2002; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Ambrose et al. (2002) argued that the depiction of the individual's reactions will differentiate according to the source of the injustice perception. They have hypothesized that, when the individuals viewed structural factors (organization) as the source of their perceived unfairness, then they would engage in sabotage targeting the organization. On the other hand, in case employees believed that the source of unfairness was social factors (e.g. an individual) then they would direct their sabotage to them. Their results supported their predictions by showing that distributive, procedural and interactional justice perceptions lead to different kinds of sabotage behaviors.

In line with these postulations, the Hypothesis 1b of the study expected a negative impact of distributive justice perceptions on the two forms of organizational deviance. However, the results of the regression analysis revealed no significant negative impact of distributive justice on either interpersonal or organizational

deviance (See Tables 27 & 28). Thus, this hypothesis was rejected. Bennett & Robinson (2000) also revealed that, distributive injustice scale did not relate to either interpersonal or organizational deviance.

However, the regression results were supportive of the section of Hypothesis 2b that anticipated a negative impact of procedural justice on organizational deviance. The regression results disclosed that procedural justice had a significant negative impact on organizational deviance ($\beta = -.39$, $p < .05$) but it had no significant effect on interpersonal deviance (See Table 28).

The fact that procedural justice predicted organizational deviance rather than interpersonal deviance might be explained by the reasoning that individuals deem organizations as the sources of the procedures and thus target their deviant behavior towards the organization. Some studies maintain that procedural justice considerations are more important than distributive or interactional justice perceptions in structuring reactions against the organization (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993).

From another perspective, Greenberg (1987) suggests that employees are more prone to react to unfairness, in case they believe that the unfair procedure stems from an organizational policy. An explanation for this reasoning follows that organizational procedures are permanent and have long-term effects for the employees, particularly in the public sector. Therefore, in order to refrain from the negative consequences of the organizational procedures employees are likely to deviate towards the organization since they believe that the organizational policies are more serious and permanent than individually taken decisions.

Moreover, since these findings rely on a research conducted in a public institution, the predictive role of procedural justice perceptions deserves a more different approach. As it was already indicated in the former parts of the study, employees in

public institutions usually suffer from incidences of injustice due to some inherent characteristics of public organizations. As Boyne (2002) states, public sector organizations have more formal procedures for decision-making which are less flexible than their private counterparts. Therefore, it is of utmost importance that the decisions be equally implemented to all employees.

.

Additionally, it could be argued that, in the public sector most of the decisions are taken by a top-down approach that ignores the opinions and thoughts of the lower level employees. The procedures that are enacted in the organizations are usually reflections of the wishes of high-level bureaucrats or the politicians at the ultimate level. Therefore, the employees in public organizations are left with a limited space to question how the decisions are made and to ask justifications about these decisions. Thus, this leads them to react to the organization when they perceive an inequality in the implication of procedures.

Therefore, it could be implied that when employees evaluate decision-making procedures as fair, then they are less likely to deviate against the organization they are working for. In other words, judgments of the employees about the fairness of the organizational procedures are extremely important in preventing possible harms of organizational deviance. Similarly, O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996) states that organizations, in which employees perceive the decision-making procedures as fair, will have more satisfied and less aggressive employees.

However, just as the results with regard to the impact of distributive justice on workplace deviance suggests, interactional justice did not show any significant negative impact on interpersonal or organizational deviance (See Tables 27 & 28). Therefore, Hypothesis 3b of the study was rejected. Similarly, 4th Hypothesis of the study was not supported as well. Although interactional justice was hypothesized to be a better predictor of workplace deviance than other forms of organizational justice, the regression results showed that it was only the perceptions of procedural

justice that could predict organizational deviance. Therefore, interactional justice could not predict either of the workplace deviance dimensions implying that it is not a better predictor of workplace deviance than either procedural or distributive justice.

It could be argued that interactional justice perceptions develop in parallel to the perceptions about procedures. As already discussed in previous sections, evaluations about the fairness among the members of a certain group play an important role in procedural justice perceptions. That is, if employees conclude that all members of the organization are treated in the same way and feel group-pride, then they would feel themselves as being respected (Tyler et al., 1996). Therefore, their perceptions about the quality of treatment they receive may be affected by their perceptions of procedural justice. Thus, this might have had an influence on our findings that rejected the hypothesis about a higher predictive role of interactional justice to explain workplace deviance.

From another perspective, this finding also implies that procedural justice and interactional justice are two separate concepts. As opposed to the arguments that view interactional justice as part of a procedural justice, findings about the differential impacts of procedural and interactional justice on workplace deviance showed that these are two different constructs.

In parallel with the discussions about cultural differences in previous parts, we can also make reference to the particular characteristics of the Turkish society to provide some alternative explanations about why procedural justice predicted organizational deviance whereas the other two dimensions could not predict any of the two deviance dimensions. As proposed by Menguc (2000), in the highly collectivist Turkish culture, employees expect their organizations to defend their interests via formal procedures. Moreover, as Ali (2011) suggests, procedural justice makes employees assure that their self-interests will be protected over the long run. Similarly, perceived fairness in organizations make future more predictable and controllable by

the employees (Colquitt et al., 2006 as cited in Loi, Lam, & Cham, 2012). Therefore, perceptions of fairness about procedures play an important role in shaping employee attitudes.

In Turkish work environment, collaborative team-orientation is achieved through "creating a participative environment that promotes feelings of belongingness and being part of a group" (Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001, p.580). As already explained in the former section, this discussion is highly in parallel with the findings about the existence of a caring climate in the organization when workplace deviance is of concern.

However, it is shown that leaders in paternalistic cultures have a somehow different evaluation of participation than some other cultures. Participation is used as an instrument to create group cohesiveness rather than seriously being incorporated to the decision-making (Paşa et al., 2001). However, in the last instance, they are always the ones who take the decisions in line with their personal choices. Furthermore, as Lind (1997 as cited in Ali, 2011) states, procedural justice perceptions convey a message to the employees about how benevolent, honest and neutral their employers are. In parallel, Lind & Tyler (1988) suggests that, procedural justice perceptions signal employees messages about the value and respect organization attaches to them. Therefore, any perceived inequality in procedural justice considerations will direct employees to take negative attitudes.

Moreover, in these societies family and group relationships bear a great significance and people are tied to each other with a hierarchy of relationships. Therefore, another feature of these societies is high power distance. That is, full obedience and compliance to the leader is compulsory and the decisions taken by the leaders are not questioned. Moreover, the norms created in the families are reflected on the institutions and inequalities in power distributions are accepted. As Pellegrini &

Scandura (2008, as cited in Schroeder, 2011) suggests the inequality in the distribution of power is not resented.

Therefore, the approach to participation in these societies might explain why a negative impact of procedural deviance on workplace deviance is observed. However, from the above cited characteristics we could imply that the inequalities in distribution of power which is closely in parallel with distributive justice perceptions do not play an important role in shaping employee attitudes. That could be a plausible explanation to clarify the result of our hypothesis that failed to find a significant impact of distributive justice on workplace deviance.

In the same vein, high power distance and the paternalistic culture describing the Turkish society lead to the unquestioning of decisions taken by the supervisors. As the leaders are viewed as father-like figures, they are considered to have the right to behave as they wish towards their sub-ordinates. Therefore, employees do not have the expectation to be treated fairly by their supervisors. Therefore, it might be argued that these characteristics of the Turkish society might contribute to the explanations about why interactional justice could not predict either of the two workplace deviance dimensions.

Lastly, both findings about the impact of ethical work climates and organizational justice showed that, both conceptualizations were only able to explain organizational deviance. Interpersonal deviance could be predicted by neither of the two scales. Regarding these findings, one can argue that employees may prefer either to engage in organizational or interpersonal deviance depending on the type of antecedent that triggers that particular type of deviance. This was already confirmed by the findings concerning the 5th Hypothesis of the study. As Robinson & Bennett (1955) maintained, organizational variables were more likely to explain organizational deviance, whereas individual related variables were more prone to explain interpersonal deviance.

Moreover, another explanation about why only the organizational deviance dimension could be predicted by the respective scales might be the presupposition that employees might be "more willing to report some types of deviance than others" (Berry et al., 2007). Berry et al. (2007) argued that employees might feel more comfortable to report deviance directed towards the organization than admitting deviance directed towards human beings. This line of reasoning might have also contributed to the findings of the study that was only able to introduce explanations for the organizational deviance dimension.

Several studies have also focused on this distinction claiming that the factors contributing to workplace deviance vary regarding the type of deviant behavior and that, situational and individual related variables have differential impacts on the type of workplace deviance employees are deciding on (Colbert et al. 2004; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Peterson, 2002). Similarly, Lawrence & Robinson (2007) also discussed that different sorts of power will prompt different kinds of workplace deviance. However, VanSandt et al. (2006) revealed that group influences are stronger predictors of individual behavior than individual characteristics. One explanation about these findings concerns the target specificity of workplace deviance. That is employees may choose either to harm the organization or the organizational members depending on the variable that triggers them. Therefore, as both perceptions about ethical work climates and organizational justice are workplace related variables, employees will view the organizations as the target of their deviance and direct deviance towards the organization. For, Greenberg & Barling (1999) it would be plausible to claim that in such cases employees will prefer not to deviate against their coworkers since coworkers do not have the power to improve the current negative conditions. Thus, we can conclude that since both of the independent variables of the study are chosen among situational (work-related) variables, the findings only proved a negative impact on organizational deviance but no significant effect interpersonal deviance. However, if personality traits such as sensation-seeking, risk-taking, Type A personality and negative affectivity (Henle, 2005) or

155

personality traits of conscientiousness, emotional stability, and agreeableness (Colbert et al., 2004) were taken as variables of the study, the results would also have produced significant effects of these variables on interpersonal deviance.

Lastly, a comparison with regard to the findings about perceptions of ethical work climates and organizational justice deserves attention. Whereas, the rules and law and code types of ethical climates did not have a significant effect on workplace deviance dimensions, the perceptions of unfairness in procedural justice prompted employees to deviate against the organization. Therefore, these findings support previous discussions that the existence of laws, rules and regulations alone are not sufficient to guide the ethical criteria employees use in decision making. Although the prevailing written rules do not guide employee behavior, any perceived unfairness in the implementation of these procedures creates resentment. Therefore, the implementation of the procedures is much more important than their sole presence.

6.2.   Managerial Implications

The huge financial, social and psychological costs associated with workplace deviance require a comprehensive understanding of the underlying basis of these behaviors in order to take a proactive stance for their prevention. Therefore, the findings of this study constitute a valuable asset for the managers to guide and direct their future action with a view to eradicate the negative results of workplace deviance and to take preventive measures.

This study gives important hints to the managers about the importance of fairness perceptions of the employees and their perceptions about the ethically correct behaviors in their organizations. The high level of correlations observed between certain types of ethical work climates and the workplace deviance dimensions clearly confirms the power of ethical work climate perceptions in affecting organizational

outcomes as suggested by Martin & Cullen (2006). Therefore managers should be aware that the ethical values fostered by the organization acts like a reference point to guide employee behavior. Thus, organizations should give particular importance to the clear definition of their values and decision-making processes in order to guide employee behavior. As Cullen & Victor (2001) states, employees should have a clear vision of what management expects from them in order to behave in the way that management wishes. Therefore, organizations should develop consistent and powerful ethical codes and give special attention to the wording of their mission statements to convey a powerful message to the employees about the moral climate of their organization as proposed by Vidaver-Cohen (1998). Moreover, the government at the central level should also have strong ethical codes in place that would have an impact on organizational policies and on individual behaviors the bottom level. Indeed,

> "Ethics may be only instrumental, it may be only a means to an end, but it is a necessary means to an end. Government ethics provide the preconditions for the making of good public policy. In this sense, it is more important than any single policy, because all policies depend on it" (Thomson, 1992 as cited in Ateş, 2012, p. 29).

Therefore, at the governmental level the law and codes that the public servants are expected to abide by should be made clear and precise to all. Moreover, as proposed by Omurgonulsen & Oktem (2009), public institutions should take some measures such as providing ethics training and education to their employees and appoint ethics counselors or ombudsmen to create a truly set of shared values.

However, management's involvement and support in the formation of a new ethical work climate is also of extreme importance, since research revealed that ethical work climates reflect the climate management adopts and employees' behaviors are highly influenced by their supervisors (Wimbush & Shephard, 1994). Moreover, it is also suggested that ethical value congruence between the organization and the employee is important in preventing negative workplace outcomes (Ambrose et al., 2007; Sims

& Keon, 1997; Sims & Kroeck, 1994). Previous research postulates that employees should understand and agree on the ethical values of the organization and an ethical match between the organization and the employees should exist. Therefore, in line with the literature, it could be suggested that person-organization fit should be maintained through recruitment processes and trainings to discourage negative behaviors of the employees (Ambrose et al., 2007; Sims & Keon, 1997; Sims & Kroeck, 1994; Vardi & Wiener, 1996).

Although the findings of the research proved the multiplicity of ethical work climates in an organization, it is still a good starting point to depict the current ethical work climate as dominantly perceived by the organizational members. Once the perceived ethical work climate is detected, then the management can take necessary steps towards its reconstruction.

More importantly, the capability of caring climate to impact upon organizational deviance refers that caring climate is a strong work climate in which employees refrain from engaging in deviant acts towards the organization. Therefore, in line with the findings of the current study, the management should support a benevolent climate in which employees feel that their well-being is taken care of. Instead of stressing individual success, management must emphasize the importance of the performance of the whole group. Thus, management must create a team-friendly atmosphere and pay attention to the recruitment of team-oriented personnel that is competent to work harmoniously in a group and that treasure the well-being of the group above all.

Another valuable contribution of this study to management practices concerns the importance of fairness perceptions of the employees in shaping their behavior. Managers should be sensitive in their decisions about reward allocations, in decision-making procedures and in their interactions with their subordinates. The findings of the study that proved a negative impact of procedural justice perceptions on

organizational dimensions of workplace deviance entails that decision making procedures should be participatory to decrease acts of deviance. Therefore, management should revisit its decision-making procedures and make the necessary adjustments to give their employees voice about the decisions that have an impact on them. In particular, public organizations should develop special mechanisms to ensure transparency and accountability in the development and enactment stage of their procedures. Although management in the public sector is already responsible from attaining accountability in financial matters, they should also feel the same level of responsibility for their coworkers. In this regard, the upper-level management in the public sector is equipped with an important task to introduce more participative procedures that enable public servants a certain degree of voice in the determination of procedures and to be neutral and trust-worthy towards all the employees.

6.3. Limitations of the Study

The study contains some limitations that need to be acknowledged in the interpretation of the findings and in making suggestions for future research.

First of all, the study was conducted in a single public institution. In order to increase the reliability and validity of the findings, further research should be made in more than one public institution to check for the differential relationships between ethical work climates, organizational justice perceptions and workplace deviance. If there had been another institution to compare the findings, results would have ensured the possibility of measuring the capability of the independent variables to predict the dependent variable.

Most importantly, since the study was conducted in a public institution, it would be misleading to generalize the findings of the research to the private sector work

environment. As it is acknowledged, public institutions have their individual characteristics that differentiate them from private companies.

Secondly, the study did not examine the interaction between ethical work climate and organizational justice perceptions. It would have been useful to measure how the two variables interacted with each other to influence the interpersonal and organizational deviance of the employees.

Thirdly, the research only examined the impact of situational or workplace-related factors on workplace deviance. It could have also proved useful to examine the impact of certain other individual related variables such as personality traits, aggression, affect and cognition. The inclusion of some individual related variables in our model might have provided us with a more integrated picture about the antecedents of workplace deviance.

Fourthly, it should be acknowledged that most of the employees (58 %) in the researched institution were employed about less than a year before the study was conducted. Therefore, their judgments about fairness perceptions and their perceptions about the ethical work climate would have been subject to change over a long period of time. Moreover, most of the employees in the researched institution were young and relatively inexperienced. Therefore, a longitudinal research might have been useful to compare how their perceptions and behaviors have changed over the course of time.

The final limitation of the study was the use self-reports to obtain data about deviant behaviors of the employees. The critiques of the use of self-report raised claims about the "social desirability" bias. This view argues that the respondents may make falsified reports and manipulate the realities in answering the questions in order to avoid being criticized or excluded. However, if the respondents feel comfort about the unanimity of the results, then it would be less likely that they refrain from giving

accurate information about their behaviors and perceptions. In this study, respondents were highly guaranteed about the unanimity of the responses and thus this limitation was largely removed. Moreover, if the information about the deviance was collected from other co-workers or supervisors the results would have been misleading. Indeed, those employees who engage in workplace deviance mostly commit these acts discretely and most of such behaviors go undetected by most of the other employees. Therefore, still the use of self-reports was the best method to assess workplace deviance.

6.4. Implications for Future Research

Due to the stated limitations of the study, future research should examine the issue in more than one public organization to ensure more consistent results. When the costs of workplace deviance are taken into consideration, it should be recognized that in public institutions it is the citizens of the state that carry the burden of such economic damages, leaving aside the psychological harms these deviant act might incur upon the employees. Therefore, future research should increase the sample size and number of the researched institutions to better tap the nature of relationships.

Moreover, a comparison of the public and private institutions might also prove useful to examine how workplace deviance and perceived ethical work climates vary according to the types of the organizational setting. In this respect, life-time employment guaranteed by the public sector might be a factor contributing to the encouragement of the deviant acts of the employees. On the other hand, the fear of losing jobs might cause diverse reactions on part of the employees working in the private sector.

Finally, future research should analyze the two-way and three-way interactions among the study variables. Based on the interaction of the variables some theoretical models could be built so as to combine personal and situational level characteristics

that might impact upon the interpersonal and organizational deviance. Based upon these findings, further research might also examine the targets of such deviant actions. As the findings of the current research suggests, organizational level variables might better explain workplace deviance targeted towards the organization, whereas person-level variables can better predict deviance directed towards individuals. Therefore, further studies may also differentiate among the individual targets of deviant acts as coworkers, subordinates or supervisors so as to develop more effective mechanisms against such acts based on their targets. However, a further insight about how situational and individual related factors interact with each other to predict workplace deviance might also prove useful in developing a more comprehensive approach.

REFERENCES

Abbey, A., & Dickson, J. (1983). R&D work climate and innovation in semiconductors. *Academy of Management Journal*, *26*(2), 362-68.

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology,* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-300). New York: Academic Press.

Agarwal, J., & Malloy, D. C. (1999). Ethical work climate dimensions in a not-for-profit organization: An empirical study. *Journal of Business Ethics, 20*(1), 1-14.

Ali, S. Z. (2011). Absence of procedural justice leads to retaliation behavior. *International Journal Of Business Research*, *11*(4), 149-159.

Altıntaş, F. C. (2009). Kişiliğin algılanan örgütsel sabotaj davranışları üzerindeki etkisi [The effect of personality on perceived organizational sabotage behavior]. *H.Ü. İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 27*(1), 95-111.

Ambrose, M. L., Arnaud, A., & Schminke, M. (2007). Individual moral development and ethical climate: The influence of person–organization fit on job attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics, 77*(3), 323-333.

Ambrose, M. L., Seabright, M. A., & Schminke, M. (2002). Sabotage in the workplace: The role of organizational injustice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*(1), 947–965.

Appelbaum, S. H., DeGuire K. J., & Lay, M. (2005). The relationship of ethical climate to deviant workplace behaviour. *Corporate Governance. 5*(4), 43-55.

Appelbaum, S. H., Iaconi G. D., & Matousek A. (2008). Positive and negative deviant workplace behaviors: Causes, impacts, and solutions. *Corporate Governance, 7*(5), 586-598.

Aquino, K., Galperin, B. L., & Bennett, R. J. (2004). Social status and aggresiveness as moderators of the relationship between interactional justice and workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 34*(5), 1001-1029.

Aquino, K., Lewis, M. U., & Bradfield, M. (1999). Justice constructs, negative affectivity, and employee deviance: A proposed model and empirical test. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(7), 1073-1091.

Arbak, Y., Şanlı, P. S., & Çakar, G. (2004). İşyerinde sapkın davranış: Akademik personel üzerinde yerel bir tanım ve tipoloji çalışması [Deviant behavior in the workplace: Research on emic definition and typologyl]. *Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi, 4*(1), 5-24.

Arnaud, A. (2010). Conceptualizing and measuring ethical work climate: Development and validation of the ethical climate index. *Business and Society*, *49*(2), 345-358.

Ateş, H. (2012). Ethical perceptions of public-sector employees and citizens and their Impact upon attitudes against unethical behavior. *Turkish Studies*, *13*(1), 27-44.

Aycan, Z., Kanungo, R., Mendonca, M., Yu, K., Deller, J., Stahl, G., et al. (2000). Impact of culture on human resource management practices: A 10 country comparison. *Applied Psychology*, *49*(1), 192-221.

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A Social Learning Analysis*. New York: Prentice Hall.

Barnett, T., & Vaicys, C. (2000). The moderating effect of individuals' perceptions of ethical work climate on ethical judgments and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *27*(4), 351-362.

Baron, R. A., & Neuman, J. H. (1996). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence on their relative frequency and their potential causes. *Aggressive Behavior, 22*(3), 161-173.

Baron, R. A., Neuman, J. H., & Geddes, D. (1999). Social and personal determinants of workplace aggression: Evidence for the impact of perceived injustice and the type A behavior pattern. *Aggressive Behavior, 25*(4), 281-296.

Bayram, N., Gürsakal, N., & Bilgel, N. (2009). Counterproductive work behavior among white-collar employees: A study from Turkey. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 17*(2), 180-188.

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(3), 349-360.

Bensimon, H. F. (1994). Crisis and disaster management: Violations in the workplace. *Training and Development, 28,* 27-32.

Berry, C. M., Ones, S. D, & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2), 410-424.

Bies, R. J, & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & B. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 1, pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Bies, R. J. (2001). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 89-118). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1987). Interactional fairness judgments: The influence of causal accounts. *Social Justice Research*, *1*(2), 199-218.

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (1996). Beyond distrust: Getting even and the need for revenge. In R. Kramer, & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in Organizations* (pp. 18-36). Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.

Bolin, A., & Heatherly, L. (2001). Predictors of employee deviance: The relationship between bad attitudes and bad behavior. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 15*(3), 405-418.

Boye, M. W., & Slora, K. B. (1993). The severity and prevalence of deviant employee activity within supermarkets. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 8*(2), 245-253.

Boyne, G. (2002). Public and private management: What's the difference? *Journal of Management Studies, 39*(1), 97-122.

Brower, H. H., & Shrader, C. B. (2000). Moral reasoning and ethical climate: Not-for-profit vs. Holly Henderson Brower for-profit boards of directors. *Journal of Business Ethics, 26*(2), 147-167.

Buchan, H. (2009). Public accountants' perceptions of ethical work climate: An exploratory study of the difference between partners and employees within the instrumental dimension. *The Open Ethics Journal, 3,* 1-7.

Bulutlar, F., & Öz, E. U. (2009) The effects of ethical climates on bullying behaviour in the workplace. *Journal of Business Ethics, 86*(3), 273–295.

Burke, F. (1999). Ethical decision-making: Global concerns, frameworks, and approaches. *Public Personnel Management, 28*(4), 529-540.

Buss, D. (1993). Ways to curtail employee theft. *Nation's Business, 81,* 36-38.

Camara, W. J., & Schneider, D. L. (1994). Integrity tests: Facts and unresolved issues. *American Psychologist, 49*(2), 112-119.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*(2), 278-321.

Colbert, A. E., Mount, M. K., Harter, J. K., Witt, L. A., & Barrick, M. R. (2004). Interactive effects of personality and situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(4), 599-609.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 386-400.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Judge, T. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2006). Justice and personality: Using integrative theories to drive moderators of justice effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 100,* 110–127.

Cropanzano, R., & Ambrose, M. L. (2001). Procedural and distributive justice are more similar than you think: A monistic perspective and a research agenda. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 119-151). Lexington, MA: New Lexington Press.

Cropanzano, R., & Folger, R. (1989). Referent cognitions and task decision autonomy: Beyond equity theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(2), 293-299.

Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C. A., & Chen, P. Y. (2002). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. *Group & Organization Management, 27*(3), 324-351.

Cullen, J. B., Parboteeah, K. P., & Victor, B. (2003). The effects of ethical climates on organizational commitment: A two-study analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 46*(2)*,* 127-141.

Cullen, J. B., Victor, B., & Bronson, J. W. (1993). The ethical climate questionnaire: An assessment of its development and validity. *Psychological Reports, 73*(2), 667-674.

Cullen, J. B., Victor, B., & Stephens, C. (1989). An ethical weather report: Assessing the organization's ethical climate. *Organizational Dynamics, 18*(2), 50-62.

Dailey, R. C., & Kirk, D. J. (1992). Distributive and procedural justice as antecedents of job dissatisfaction and intent to turnover. *Human Relations*, *45*(3), 305–317.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(6), 1241-1255.

Delbecq, A. L., & Mills, D. K. (1985). Managing practices that enhance innovation. *Organizational Dynamics*, *14*(1), 24-34.

Demir, M. (2011). Effects of organizational justice, trust and commitment on employees' deviant behavior. *Anatolia – An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research, 22*(2), 204-221.

DeMore, S. W, Fisher, J. D., & Baron, R. M. (1988). The equity-control model as a predictor of vandalism among college students. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *18*(1), 80-91.

Denhardt, R. B. (1993). *Theories of Public Administration.* Belmont: Wadsworth.

Deshpande, S. P. (1996). The impact of ethical climate types on facets of job satisfaction: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics, 15*(6), 655-660.

Deutsch, M. (1975). Equity, equality, and need: What determines which value will be used as the basis of distributive justice? *Journal of Social Issues*, *31*(3), 137-149.

Dorsch, M. J., Swanson, S. R. & Kelley, S. W. (1998). The role of relationship quality in the stratification of vendors as perceived by customers. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 26*(2), 128–142.

Erakovich, R., Bruce, R., & Wyman, S. (2002, March). *Preliminary results: A study of the relationship of ethical work climate and organizational culture in public organizations*. Paper prepared for presentation at the American Society for Public Administration National Conference, Phoenix, Arizona.

Erben, G. S., & Güneşer, A. B. (2007). The relationship between paternalistic leadership and organizational commitment: Investigating the role of climate regarding ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 82*(4), 955-968.

Filipczak, B. (1993). Armed and dangerous at work. *Training, July,* 39-43.

Folger, R. (1977). Distributive and procedural justice: Combined impact of "voice" and improvement on experienced inequity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35*(2), 108-119.

Folger, R. (1986). Rethinking equity theory: A referent cognitions model. In H. W. Bierhoff, R. L. Cohen, & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Justice in social relations* (pp. 145-162). New York: Plenum.

Folger, R. (1987). Reformulating the preconditions of resentment: A referent cognitions model. In J. C. Masters, & W. P. Smith (Eds.), *Social comparison, justice, and relative deprivation: Theoretical, empirical, and policy perspectives* (pp.183-215). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Folger, R., & Baron, R. A. (1996). Violence and hostility at work: A model of reactions to perceived injustice. In G. R. VandenBos, & E. Q. Bulutao, (Eds.), *Violence on the job: Identifying risks and developing solutions* (pp.51-85). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Folger, R., & Bies, R. J. (1989). Managerial responsibilities and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *2*(2), 79-90.

Folger, R., & Konovsky, M. A. (1989). Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*(1), 115-130.

Folger, R., Rosenfield, D., & Robinson, T. (1983). Relative deprivation and procedural justification. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45*(2), 268-273.

Forte, A. (2004). Business ethics: A study of the moral reasoning of selected business managers and the influence of organizational ethical climate. *Journal of Business Ethics, 51*(2), 167-173.

Fredrickson, H. G. (1993). Ethics and public administration: Some assertions. In H. G. Fredrickson (Ed.), *Ethics and public administration* (pp. 243-261). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Fritzsche, D. J. (2000). Ethical climates and the ethical dimension of decision-making. *Journal of Business Ethics 24*(2), 125-140.

Gaertner, K. (1991). The effect of ethical climate on managers' decisions. In R. M. Coughlin (Ed.), *Morality, rationality, and efficiency: New perspectives on socioeconomics* (pp. 211-223). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2003). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference. 11.0 update*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Giacalone, R. A., & Greenberg, J. (1997). *Antisocial behavior in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Goodman, P. S., & Friedman, A. (1971). An examination of Adams' theory of inequity. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *16*(3)*,* 271-288.

Gottfredson, M. R., & Hirschi, T. (1990). *A general theory of crime*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Gould, S. (1979). An equity-exchange model of organizational involvement. *Academy of Management Review, 4*(1), 53–62.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*(2), 161–178.

Greenberg, J. (1987). Reactions to procedural injustice in payment distributions: Do the means justify the ends? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *72*(1), 55-61.

Greenberg, J. (1990a). Employee theft as a reaction to underpayment inequity: The hidden cost of pay cuts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(5), 561-568.

Greenberg, J. (1990b). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. *Journal of Management, 16*(2), 399-432.

Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79–103). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Greenberg, J., & Scott, K. S. (1996). Why do workers bite the hands that feed them? Employee theft as a social exchange process. In B. M. Staw, & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 111–156). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Greenberg, L., & Barling, J. (1999). Predicting employee aggression against coworkers, subordinates and supervisors: The roles of person behaviors and perceived workplace factors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(6), 897-913.

Griffin, R. W., O'Leary-Kelly, A., & Collins, A. (1998). Dysfunctional work behaviors in organizations. In C. L. Cooper, & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), *Trends in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 5, pp.65-82). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Gruys M. L. & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Investigating the dimensionality of counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 11*(1)*,* 30-42.

Gruys, M. L. (1999). *The dimensionality of deviant employee behavior in the workplace*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Henle, C. A. (2005). Predicting workplace deviance from the interaction between organizational justice and personality. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 12*(2), 247-263.

Henle, C. A., Giacalone, R. A., & Furkiewicz, C. L. (2005). The role of ethical ideology in workplace deviance. *Journal of Business Ethics, 56*(3), 219-230.

Hershcovis, M. S., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupre, K. E., Inness, M., et al. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(1), 228–238.

Hofstede, G. H. (1984). *Culture's consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. H., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hogan, J., & Hogan, R. (1989). How to measure employee reliability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(2), 273-279.

Hollinger, R. C., & Clark, J. P. (1982). Employee deviance: A response to the perceived quality of work experience. *Work and Occupations, 9*(1), 97-114.

Hollinger, R. C., & Clark, J. P. (1983). Deterrence in the workplace: Perceived certainty, perceived severity and employee theft. *Social Forces, 62*(2), 398-418.

Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behavior: Its elementary forms*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.

Jaramillo, F., Mulki, J. P., & Solomon, P. (2006). The role of ethical climate on salesperson's role stress, job attitudes, turnover intention, and job performance. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, *26*(3), 271-282.

Kernaghan, K. (2003). Integrating values into public service: The values statement as centerpiece. *Public Review 63*(6), 711–719.

Key, S. (1999). Organizational ethical culture: real or imagined? *Journal of Business Ethics, 20*(3), 217-225.

Kohlberg, L. (1984). *The Philosophy of Moral Development*. New York: Harper & Row.

Kurland, O. M. (1993). Workplace violence. *Risk Management, 40*(6), 76-77.

Lara, P. Z., & Verano-Tacoronte, D. (2007). Investigating the effects of procedural justice on workplace deviance: Do employees' perceptions of conflicting guidance call the tune? *International Journal of Manpower*, *28*(8), 715-729.

Lawler, E. E. (1968). Equity theory as a predictor of productivity and work quality. *Psychological Bulletin*, *70*(6), 596-610.

Lawrence, T. B., & Robinson, S. L. (2007). Ain't misbehavin: Workplace deviance as organizational resistance. *Journal of Management*, *33*(3), 378-394.

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(1), 131-142.

Lemmergaard, J. (2003). *Tolerance for Ambiguity: The Intersection between Ethical Climate, Psychological Climate, and Ethnic Diversity.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern Denmark, Sonderborg, Denmark.

Leung, A. S. M. (2008). Matching ethical work climate to in-role and extra-role behaviors in a collectivist work setting. *Journal of Business Ethics, 79*(1/2), 43-55.

Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? In K. J. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 27-55). New York: Plenum.

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 9*(4), 370–390.

Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Pattems of aggressive behavior in experimentally createdsocial climates. *Joumal of Social Psycholgy, 10*(2), 271-299.

Lewis, C. W. (1991). *The ethics challenge in public service: A problem solving guide*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lind, E. A. (1997). Litigation and claiming in organizations: Antisocial behavior or quest for justice? In R.A. Giacalone & J. Greenberg (Eds). *Antisocial behavior in organizations* (pp. 150-171). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lind, E. A., & Earley, P. C. (1992). Procedural justice and culture. *International Journal of Psychology, 27*(2), 227-242.

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York: Plenum.

Lind, E. A., Kanfer, R., & Earley, P. C. (1990). Voice, control and procedural justice: Instrumental and noninstrumental concerns in fairness judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *59*(5), 952-959.

Loi, R., Lam, L. W., & Chan, K. W. (2012). Coping with job insecurity: The role of procedural justice, ethical leadership and power distance orientation. *Journal of Business Ethics, 108*(3), 361-372.

Lopez, T. R., Babin, B. J., & Chung, C. (2009). Perceptions of ethical work climate and person–organization fit among retail employees in Japan and the US: A cross-cultural scale validation. *Journal of Business Research*, *62*(6), 594-600.

Luthar, H. K, DiBattista, R.A., & Gautschi, T. (1997). Perception of what the ethical climate is and what it should be: The role of gender, academic status, and ethical education. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *16*(2), 205-217.

Mangione, T. W., & Quinn R. P. (1975). Job satisfaction, counter-productive behavior and drug use at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*(1)*,* 114-16.

Marcus, B. (2000). *Kontraproduktives Verhalten im Betrieb: Eine individuumsbezogene Perspektive* [Counterproductive behavior in organizations: An interindividual perspective]. Göttingen, Germany: Verlag für Angewandte Psychologie.

Marcus, B. (2001). Erklarungsansatze kontraproduktiven Verhaltens im Betrieb [Approaches to the explanation of counterproductive behaviors in organizations]. In R. K. Silbereisen (Ed.), *Psychologie 2000* (pp.414-425). Lengerich, Germany: Pabst.

Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of counterproductive behavior at work: A general perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 647-660.

Marcus, B., Schuler, H., Quell, P., & Hümpfner, G. (2002). Measuring counterproductivity: Development and initial validation of a German self-report questionnaire. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1/2)*,* 18-35.

Martin, K., & Cullen, J. (2006). Continuities and extensions of ethical climate theory: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Business Ethics, 69*(2)*,* 175-194.

Martinko, M. J., & Gardner, W. L. (1982). Learned helplessness: An alternative explanation for performance deficits. *Academy of Management Review, 7*(2), 195-204.

Martinko, M. J., Gundlach, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. (2002). Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: A causal reasoning perspective. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1/2), 36-50.

Martinko, M. J., Henry, J. W., & Zmud, R. W. (1996). An attributional explanation of individual resistance to information technologies in the workplace. *Behavior and Information Technology, 15*(5), 313-330.

Mayer, D. M., Kuenzi, M., & Greenbaum, R. L. (2009). Making ethical climate a mainstream management topic: a review, critique, and prescription for the empirical research on ethical climate. In D. De Cremer (Ed.), *Psychological perspectives on ethical behavior and decision making*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

McClurg, L. A., & Butler, D.S. (2006). Workplace theft: A proposed model and research agenda. *Southern Business Review, 31*(2), 25-34.

McFarlin, D. B., & Sweeney, P. D. (1992). Distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction with personal and organizational outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*(3), 626-637.

Menguc, B. (2000). An empirical investigation of a social exchange model of organizational citizenship behaviors across two sales situations: A Turkish case. *The Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 20*(4), 205-214.

Merton, R. K. (1957). *Social theory and social structure*. New York: Free Press.

Mikula, G., Petri, B., & Tanzer, N. (1990). What people regard as unjust: Types and structures of everyday experiences of injustice. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 20*(2), 133-149.

Moberg, D. J. (1997). On employee vice. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 7*(4), 41-60.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(6), 845-855.

Moran, E. T., & Volkwein, J. F. (1992). The cultural approach to the formation of organizational climate. *Human Relations, 45*(1), 19–47.

Mulki, J. P., Jaramillo, J. F., & Locander, W. B. (2007). Effect of ethical climate on turnover intention: Linking attitudinal and stress theory. *Journal of Business Ethics, 78*(4), 559-574.

Murphy, K. R. (1993). *Honesty in the workplace*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Nasir, M., & Bashir, A. (2012). Examining workplace deviance in public sector organization of Pakistan. *International Journal of Social Economics, 39*(4), 240 – 253.

Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1998). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence concerning specific forms, potential causes, and preferred targets. *Journal of Management, 24*(3), 391-419.

Niehoff, B. P., & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(3), 527-556.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 492-499.

O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Griffin, R. W., & Glew, D. J. (1996). Organization motivated aggression: A research framework. *Academy of Management Review, 21*(1), 225-253.

Olson, L. (1995). Ethical climate in health care organizations. *International Nursing Review 42*(3), 85–95.

Omurgonulsen, U., & Oktem, M. K. (2009). Is there any change in the public service values of different generations of public administrators? The case of Turkish governors and district governors. *Journal of Business Ethics, 88*(1), 137-156.

Ones, D. S. (2002). Introduction to special issues on counterproductive behaviors at work. *International Journal of Selection & Assessment, 10*(1/2), 1-4.

Ones, D. S., Viswesvaran, C., & Schmidt, F. L. (1993). Comprehensive meta-analysis of integrity test validities: Findings and implications for personnel selection and theories of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(4), 679-703.

Organ, D. W., & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Fairness and organizational citizenship behavior: What are the connections? *Social Justice Research*, *6*(1)*,* 5-18.

Ott, J. S. (1989). *The organizational culture perspective.* Chicago: Dorsey Press.

Ott, J. S. (1998). Understanding organizational climate and culture. In S. E. Condrey (Ed.), *Handbook of Human Resource Management in Government* (3rd ed., pp. 323-348). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Özdevecioğlu, M. (2003). Organizasyonlarda saldırgan davranışlar ve bireyler üzerindeki etkilerinin belirlenmesine yönelik bir araştırma [A research directed to determine aggressive behaviors in organizations and their effects on employees]. *Uludağ Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 22*(1), 121-150.

Paşa, S. F., Kabasakal, H., & Bodur, M. (2001). Society, organizations and leadership in Turkey. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *50*(4), 559-589.

Pellegrini, E. K., & Scandura, T. A. (2008). Paternalistic leadership: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Management, 34*(3), 566-593.

Peterson, D. K. (2002a). Deviant workplace behavior and the organization's ethical climate. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17*(1), 47-61.

Peterson, D. K. (2002b). The relationship between unethical behavior and the dimensions of the ethical climate questionnaire. *Journal of Business Ethics, 41*(4), 313-326.

Pritchard, R. A. (1969). Equity theory: A review and critique. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 4*(2), 75-94.

Puffer, S. M. (1987). Prosocial behavior, noncompliant behavior, and work performance among commission salespeople. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(4), 615-621.

Rainey, H. G., Backoff, R. W., & Levine, C. H. (1976). Comparing public and private organizations. *Public Administration Review*, *36*(2), 233-244.

Renwick, P. A. (1975). Perception and management of superior subordinate conflict. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13*(3), 444-456.

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: Amultidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(2)*, 555-572.

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1997). Workplace deviance: Its definition, its manifestations, and its causes. In R. J. Lewicki, & R. J. Bies (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 6, pp. 3-27). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Robinson, S. L., & Greenberg, J. (1998). Employees behaving badly: Dimensions, determinants and dilemmas in the study of workplace deviance. In C. L. Cooper, & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), *Trends in Organizational Behavior* (pp. 1-30). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(6), 658-672.

Rosenblatt, Z., & Peled, D. (2002). School ethical climate and parental involvement. *Journal of Educational Administration 40*(4), 349–367.

Rothwell, G. R., & Baldwin, J. N. (2006). Ethical climates and contextual predictors of whistle-blowing. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 26*(3), 216-244.

Rousseau, D., & Fried, Y. (2001). Location, location, location: Contextualizing organizational research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *22*(1), 1-13.

Ruppel, C. P., & Harrington, S. J. (2000). The relationship of communication, ethical work climate, and trust to commitment and innovation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *25*(4), 313-328.

Sackett, P. R., & DeVore, C. J. (2001). Counterproductive behaviors at work. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial, Work, and Organizational Psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 145-164). London: Sage.

Sackett, P. R., Berry, C. M., Wiemann, S. A., & Laczo, R. M. (2006). Citizenship and counterproductive work behavior: Clarifying relationships between the two domains. *Human Performance*, *19*(4), 441-464.

Salancik, G., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *23*(2), 224-253.

Schneider, B. (1975). Organizational climate: An essay. *Personnel Psychology, 28*(4), 447-479.

Schneider, B., Parkington, J. J., & Buxton, V. M. (1980). Employee and customer perceptions of service in banks. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *25*(2), 252-267.

Schneider, B., White, S. S., & Paul, M. C. (1998). Linking service climate and customer perceptions of service quality: Test of a causal model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*(2), 150-163.

Schroeder, J. (2011). *The impact of paternalism and organizational collectivism in multinational and family-owned firms in turkey.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of South Florida, Tampa.

Schwepker, C. H., Jr. (1999). The relationship between ethical conflict, organizational commitment and turnover intentions in the salesforce. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, *19*(1)*,* 43-49.

Schwepker, C. H., Jr. (2001). Ethical climate's relationship to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in the salesforce. *Journal of Business Research*, *54*(1), 39-52.

Shacklock, A., Manning, M., & Hort, L. (2011). Dimensions and types of ethical climate within public sector human resources management. *Journal of New Business Ideas & Trends, 9*(1), 51-66.

Sims, R. L., & Kroeck, K. G. (1994). The influence of ethical fit on employee satisfaction, commitment and turnover. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *13*(12)*,* 939-947.

Sims, R. L., Keon, T. L. (1997). Ethical work climate as a factor in the development of person-organization fit. *Journal of Business Ethics, 16*(11)*,* 1095-1105.

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(3), 434-443.

Slora, K. B., Joy, D. S., & Terris, W. (1991). Personnel selection to control employee violence. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 5*(3)*,* 417- 426.

Spreitzer, G. M, & Sonenshein, S. (2004). Toward the construct definition of positive deviance. *Behavioral Scientist*, *47*(6), 828-847.

Spreitzer, G. M., & Sonenshein, S. (2003). Positive deviance and extraordinary organizing. In K. Cameron, J. Dutton, & R. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive Organizational Scholarship* (pp. 207-24), San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Stewart, S. M., Bing, M. N., Davison, H. K., Woehr, D. J., & McIntyre, M. D. (2009). In the eyes of the beholder: A non-self-report measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(1), 207-215.

Sweeney, B., Arnold, D., & Pierce, B. (2010). The impact of perceived ethical culture of the firm and demographic variables on auditors' ethical evaluation and intention to act decisions. *Journal of Business Ethics, 93*(4), 531-551.

Sweeney, P. D., & McFarlin, D. B. (1993). Workers' evaluations of the "ends" and "means": An examination of four models of distributive and procedural justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 55*(1), 23-40.

Thibaut, J. W., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Thomson, D. F. (1992). Paradoxes of government ethics. *Public Administration Review, 52(3),* 254-259.

Trevino, L. K. (1986). Ethical decision-making in organizations: A person-situation interactionist model. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(3), 601-617.

Trevino, L. K. (1990). A cultural perspective on changing and developing organizational ethics. *Research in Organizational Change and Development. 4,*195-230.

Trevino, L. K., & Youngblood, S. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision-making behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(4)*,* 378–38.

Trevino, L. K., Butterfield, K. D., & McCabe, D. L. (1995, August). *Contextual influences on ethics-related outcomes in organizations: rethinking ethical climate and ethical culture*. Paper presented at the Annual Academy of Management Meeting, Vancouver, BC.

Trevino, L. K., Butterfield, K. D., & McCabe, D. L. (1998). The ethical context in organizations: Influences on employee attitudes and behaviors. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 8*(3)*,* 447-476.

Tyler, T. R. (1989). The psychology of procedural justice: A test of the group value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *57*(5)*,* 830-838.

Tyler, T. R., & Bies, R. J. (1990). Beyond formal procedures: The interpersonal context of procedural justice. In J. Carroll (Ed.), *Applied social psychology and organizational settings* (pp. 77-98). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Tyler, T., Degoey, P., & Smith, H. (1996). Understanding why the justice of group procedures matters: a test of the psychological dynamics of the group-value model. *Journal Personality and Social Psychology, 70*(5)*,* 913-30.

Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37,* 765-802.

Van Wart, M. (1996). The sources of ethical decision making for individuals in the public sector. *Public Administration Review, 56*(6), 525-533.

VanSandt, C.V., Shephard, J. M., & Zappe, S. M. (2006). An examination of the relationship between ethical work climate and moral awareness. *Journal of Business Ethics, 68*(4), 409-432.

Vardi, Y. (2001). The effects of organizational and ethical climates on misconduct at work. *Journal of Business Ethics, 29*(4), 325-337.

Vardi, Y., & Wiener, Y. (1996). Misbehavior in organizations: A motivational framework. *Organizational Science, 7*(2), 151-165.

Victor, B., & Cullen J. B. (1987). A theory and measure of ethical climate in organizations. In W. C. Frederick (Ed.), *Research in Corporate Social Performance and Policy* (pp.51 -71). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Victor, B., & Cullen J. B. (1988). The organizational bases of ethical work climate. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 33*(1), 101-125.

Victor, B., & Cullen, J. B. (1990). A theory and measure of ethical climate in organizations. In W. C. Frederick & L. E. Preston (Eds.). *Business Ethics: Research Issues and Empirical Studies* (pp. 77-97). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Vidaver-Cohen, D. (1998). Moral climate in business firms: a conceptual framework for analysis and change. *Journal of Business Ethics, 17*(11), 1211-1226.

Warren, D. E. (2003). Constructive and destructive deviance in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 28*(4), 622-632.

Weber, J. (1995). Influences upon organizational ethical subclimates: A multi departmental analysis of a single firm. *Organization Science 6*(5), 509-523.

Weber, J., & Seger, J. E. (2002). Influences upon organizational ethical subclimates: A replication study of a single firm at two points in time. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *41*(1/2), 69-84.

Weber, J., Kurke, L., & Pentico, D. (2003). Why do employees steal?: Assessing differences in ethical and unethical employee behavior using ethical work climates. *Business and Society, 42*(3), 359-374.

Wech, B. A., Mossholder, K., Steel, W. R. P., & Bennett N. (1998). Does work group cohesiveness affect individuals' performance and organizational commitment? A cross-level examination. *Small Group Research, 29*, 472-494.

Weeks, W. A., Loe, T. W., Chonko, L. B., & Wakefield, K. (2004). The effect of perceived ethical climate on the search for sales force excellence. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, *24*(3), 199-214.

Weeks, W. A., Loe, T. W., Chonko, L. B., Martinez, C. R., & Wakefield, K. (2007). Cognitive moral development and the impact of perceived organizational ethical climate on the search for sales force excellence: a cross-cultural study. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, *26*(2), 205-217.

Wheeler, H. N. (1976). Punishment theory and industrial discipline. *Industrial Relations*, *15*(2), 235-243.

Wimbush, J. C., & Shepard, J. M. (1994). Toward an understanding of ethical climate: Its relationship to ethical behavior and supervisory influence. *Journal of Business Ethics, 13*(8), 637-647.

Wimbush, J. C., Shephard J. M., & Markham, S. E. (1997b). An empirical examination of the relationship between ethical climate and ethical behavior from multiple levels of analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *16*(16), 1705-1716.

Wimbush, J. C., Shephard, J. M., & Markham, S. E. (1997a). An empirical examination of the multi-dimensionality of ethical climate in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *16*(1), 67-77.

Winthrop, H. (1962). The Education of consciousness. *Journal of Educational Sociology, 36*(4), 185-189.

Wittmer, D., & Coursey, D. (1996). Ethical work climates: Comparing top managers in public and private organizations. *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, *6*(4), 559-570.

Wyld, D. C., & Jones, C. A. (1997). The importance of context: The ethical work climate construct and models of ethical decision making − An agenda for research. *Journal of Business Ethics, 16*(4), 465-472.

Zohar, D. (2000). A group-level model of safety climate: Testing the effect of group climate on microaccidents in manufacturing jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(4), 587-596.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

Değerli Katılımcı,

Aşağıda Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü öğretim üyesi Doç.Dr. Semra AŞÇIGİL danışmanlığında gerçekleştirilmekte olan yüksek lisans çalışması için hazırlanmış anket formu yer almaktadır. Çalışma, işyerlerindeki iş iklimi türlerinin, çalışanların davranışları üzerindeki etkisini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Lütfen ankette yer alan her bir ifadeye belirtilen kriterler doğrultusunda içtenlikle yanıt veriniz. Anket sonuçları kişi ya da kurum bazında değil sektörel olarak değerlendirilecektir; bu nedenle herhangi bir şekilde isminizi, bölümünüzü ya da çalıştığınız kurumu belirtmenize gerek bulunmamaktadır. Anketten elde edilecek bilgiler, yalnızca bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacak, kesinlikle hiçbir kişi veya kurumla paylaşılmayacaktır.

Anketi doldurmak yaklaşık 15-20 dakikanızı alacaktır. Gizliliğin korunması amacıyla, lütfen anketi tamamladıktan sonra, size dağıtılacak zarflara anketi koyarak zarfı açılmayacak şekilde kapatınız ve zarfı getirilecek kutuya atınız.
Ankete katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Ankete katılmama veya dilediğiniz zaman anketi yarıda bırakma hakkınız her zaman saklıdır. Değerli vaktinizi ayırıp araştırmaya katkıda bulunduğunuz için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımla,

Suna YÜKSEL
Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Çalışma hakkında detaylı bilgi edinmek veya sorularınız için: e-posta: sunayksel@gmail.com

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

□ *Evet* □ *Hayır*

Cinsiyetiniz: □ Erkek □ Kadın
Yaşınız: □ 25'in altı □ 25-34 arası □ 35-44 arası □ 45 ve üzeri
En Son Almış Olduğunuz Diploma:
□ İlkokul □ Ortaokul □ Lise □ Önlisans □ Lisans □ Lisans üstü □ Doktora
Kurumda Çalışma Süreniz: ....yıl ....ay
Toplam İş Deneyiminiz: ....yıl ....ay
Pozisyonunuz: □ Yönetici (bağlı çalışanı bulunan) □ Yönetici Olmayan
Biriminiz: □ Yatay □ Dikey
İstihdam Türünüz: □ Kadrolu □ Kadrosuz

1. BÖLÜM

Aşağıda kurumunuzda yer alan iş iklimi türünü belirlemek amacıyla bir takım ifadeler verilmiştir. Lütfen kurumunuzun genelindeki <u>mevcut</u> ortamı ve ilişkilerinizi göz önüne alarak aşağıdaki ifadelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı cevaplayınız.

		1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Pek Katılmıyorum	4 Biraz Katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Tamamen Katılıyorum
1	Bu iş yerinde herkes için en iyi olan, burada öncelikli olarak göz önüne alınır.						
2	En önemli endişemiz, bir bütün olarak iş yerindeki herkesin iyiliğidir.						
3	Ana kaygımız, daima diğerleri için en iyi olanı sağlamaktır.						
4	Bu iş yerinde, insanlar birbirlerinin iyiliğini kollar.						
5	Bu iş yerinde, daima müşteriler ve toplum için doğru olanın yapılması beklenir.						
6	Bu iş yerinde en etkin ve verimli olan yol, her zaman için en doğru olan yoldur.						
7	Bu iş yerinde, herkesten, her şeyden önce etkin ve verimli çalışması beklenir.						
8	Kişilerden yasaları ve profesyonel standartları her şeyin üstünde tutmaları beklenir.						
9	Bu iş yerinde, mesleki yasa veya ahlak kuralları, öncelikli olarak göz önüne alınır.						
10	Bu iş yerinde, herkesten sıkı sıkıya yasal veya profesyonel standartları takip etmesi beklenir.						
11	Bu iş yerinde ilk endişe, verilen bir kararın herhangi bir kuralı ihlal edip etmediğidir.						

		1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Pek Katılmıyorum	4 Biraz Katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Tamamen Katılıyorum
12	Burada, kurumun kural ve prosedürlerini izlemek çok önemlidir.						
13	Herkesin, kurum hüküm ve prosedürlerini harfiyen yerine getirmesi beklenir.						
14	Bu iş yerindeki başarılı insanlar, kurallara göre hareket eder.						
15	Bu iş yerindeki insanlar, kurumun politikalarına harfiyen uyar.						
16	Bu iş yerinde insanlar, kendi kişisel çıkarlarını diğerlerininkinden üstün tutarlar.						
17	Bu iş yerinde insanlar, çoğunlukla kendileri için çalışırlar.						
18	Bu iş yerinde, kişilerin kendi kişisel moral veya etik değerlerine yer yoktur.						
19	Bu iş yerinde kişilerden, kurumun çıkarları uğruna, sonuçlarını gözetmeksizin her şeyi yapmaları beklenir.						
20	Bu iş yerinde kişiler, her şey bir yana, kurumun çıkarlarıyla ilgilidir.						
21	Bu iş yerinde bir iş, ancak kurumun çıkarlarını zedelediğinde standartların altında olarak nitelendirilir.						
22	Bu iş yerindeki insanların ana sorumluluğu, maliyeti kontrol etmektir.						
23	Bu iş yerinde kişilerden, kendi kişisel ve ahlaki inançlarına uymaları beklenir.						
24	Bu iş yerindeki herkes, kendisi için neyin doğru neyin yanlış olduğuna karar verir.						
25	Bu iş yerindeki en önemli kaygı, herkesin doğru ve yanlış konusunda kişisel hissiyatıdır.						
26	Bu iş yerinde kişiler, kendi kişisel etik değerleri rehberliğinde hareket eder.						

2. BÖLÜM

Aşağıda bir kurum içerisinde çalışanların gösterebileceği 19 davranışı betimleyen ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen <u>son 1 yıl içerisinde</u> aşağıda belirtilen her bir davranışta ne kadar sıklıkla bulunduğunuzu göz önüne alarak, ifadelerin yanında yer alan kutuları doldurunuz.

		1 Hiçbir zaman	2 Yılda birkaç kez	3 Hemen hemen her ay	4 Hemen hemen her hafta	5 Hemen hemen hergün
1	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisiyle alay ettiğim oldu.					
2	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisine kırıcı sözler söylediğim oldu.					
3	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisi hakkında, etnik, dini veya ırkla ilgili bir konuda fikir beyan ettiğim oldu.					
4	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisine beddua ettiğim oldu.					
5	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisine tatsız bir şaka yaptığım oldu.					
6	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisine karşı kaba davrandığım oldu.					
7	İş yerinde çalışanlardan birisini herkesin içinde mahcup ettiğim oldu.					
8	İş yerine ait bir eşyayı izinsiz olarak dışarı çıkardığım oldu.					
9	İş yerinde çalışmak yerine farklı düşüncelere ve hayallere dalarak çok zaman harcadığım oldu.					
10	İşle ilgili yaptığım bir harcamanın geri ödenmesi esnasında daha fazla para alabilmek için harcamayı belgeleyen faturada doğru olmayan bildirimde bulunduğum oldu.					

		1 Hiçbir zaman	2 Yılda birkaç kez	3 Hemen hemen her ay	4 Hemen hemen her hafta	5 Hemen hemen hergün
11	İş yerinde çalışmaya, hoş görülebilir süreden daha sık ve daha uzun bir şekilde mola verdiğim oldu.					
12	İş yerine izinsiz olarak geç geldiğim oldu.					
13	İş yerinde çevreyi çöpe çevirdiğim oldu.					
14	İş yerinde amirimin talimatlarını yerine getirmeyi göz ardı ettiğim oldu.					
15	İş yerinde kasıtlı olarak çalışabileceğimden daha yavaş bir şekilde çalıştığım oldu.					
16	İş yeri ile ilgili gizli bir bilgiyi yetkili olmayan birisiyle görüştüğüm oldu.					
17	Çalışırken yasal olmayan bir ilaç veya alkol tükettiğim oldu.					
18	İşimi yaparken az çaba gösterdiğim oldu.					
19	Fazla mesai ücretinden/maddi imkanlarından (araç,yemek vb.) faydalanmak için bir işi gereğinden fazla uzattığım oldu.					

3. BÖLÜM

Aşağıda kurumunuzdaki çeşitli davranışlarla/uygulamalarla ilgili algılamaları yansıtan ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Pek Katılmıyorum	4 Biraz Katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Tamamen Katılıyorum
1	İşle ilgili kararlar yöneticiler tarafından tarafsız bir biçimde alınır.						
2	Yöneticilerim, işle ilgili kararlar alınmadan önce bütün çalışanların görüşlerini alır.						
3	Yöneticilerim, işle ilgili kararlar almadan önce doğru ve eksiksiz bilgi toplar.						
4	Yöneticilerim, alınan kararları çalışanlara açıklar ve çalışanlar tarafından talep edildiğinde ek bilgiler sunar.						
5	İşle ilgili alınan bütün kararlar, karardan etkilenen tüm çalışanlara tutarlı şekilde uygulanır.						
6	Çalışanlar, yöneticilerin işle ilgili aldıkları kararlara karşı çıkabilir veya bu kararların üst makamlarca yeniden görüşülmesini isteyebilirler.						
7	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, yöneticilerim bana saygılı ve itibarlı davranır.						
8	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken yöneticilerim bana nazik ve düşünceli davranır.						
9	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, yöneticilerim kişisel gereksinimlerime duyarlıdır.						
10	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, yöneticilerim bana karşı gerçekçi bir tavır sergiler.						

		1 Hiç Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Pek Katılmıyorum	4 Biraz Katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Tamamen Katılıyorum
11	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, yöneticilerim bir çalışan olarak sahip olduğum hakları göz önünde bulundurur.						
12	Yöneticilerim, işimle ilgili alınan kararların etkilerini benimle tartışır.						
13	Yöneticilerim, işimle ilgili alınan kararlar hakkında yeterli gerekçeler sunar.						
14	Yöneticilerim, işimle ilgili kararlar alırken, bana mantıklı açıklamalarda bulunur.						
15	Yöneticilerim, işimle ilgili alınan her kararı bana net olarak açıklar.						
16	İş programım adildir.						
17	Ücret düzeyimin adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.						
18	İş yükümün oldukça adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.						
19	Genel olarak, bu kurumda aldığım ödüller oldukça adildir.						
20	İş yükümlülüklerimin adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.						

ANKET BURADA SONA ERMEKTEDİR.

DEĞERLİ VAKTİNİZİ AYIRDIĞINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ.

APPENDIX B: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

METU LIBRARY

TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

<u>**ENSTİTÜ**</u>

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü ☒ **x**

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü ☐

Enformatik Enstitüsü ☐

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

<u>**YAZARIN**</u>

Soyadı   : Yüksel
Adı   : Suna
Bölümü   : İşletme

<u>**TEZİN ADI**</u> (İngilizce) : The Impact of Perceptions of Ethical Work Climates and Organizational Justice on Workplace Deviance

<u>**TEZİN TÜRÜ**</u> : Yüksek Lisans ☒ **x**   Doktora ☐

1. Tezimin tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılsın ve kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla tezimin bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınsın. ☐

2. Tezimin tamamı yalnızca Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi kullanıcılarının erişimine açılsın. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.) ☐

3. Tezim bir (1) yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olsun. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.) ☒ **x**

Yazarın imzası   ....   Tarih ....

190