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An empirical examination of individual, issue-related, and organizational determinants of ethical judgments

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**AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF INDIVIDUAL,
ISSUE-RELATED, AND ORGANIZATIONAL
DETERMINANTS OF ETHICAL JUDGMENTS**

by

Sean Valentine, A.S., B.S., M.B.A.

**A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Business Administration**

**COLLEGE OF ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY**

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by Sean Robert Valentine

entitled An Empirical Examination of Individual,
Issue-Related, and Situational Determinants of
Ethical Judgments

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation was to empirically examine an ethical decision-making model that contained individual, issue-related, and organizational factors. At the individual level, the relationship between two job attitudes, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and ethical judgments was assessed. At the issue-related level, the association between moral intensity and ethical judgments was examined. At the organizational level, the relationship between ethical context and ethical judgments was examined. The hypothesized moderating effect of ethical context on the relationship between job attitudes and ethical judgments was also tested.

A national sample of 3,000 sales professionals was used to test the hypotheses. The model was assessed using hierarchical linear regression and moderated regression analysis. Overall, the results provided marginal support for a relationship between job attitudes and ethical judgments, strong support for a relationship between moral intensity and ethical judgments, weak support for a

relationship between ethical context and ethical judgments, and no support for the proposed moderating effects.

The study makes several contributions to the ethics literature. First, the empirical assessment of an ethics model containing constructs that have received inadequate attention fills a gap in the literature. Second, the study found that (1) issue-related factors appear to be stronger predictors of ethical judgments than job attitudes and ethical context and (2) job attitudes and ethical context appear to be poor predictors of ethical judgments, which provides further insight into ethical decision making in organizations. And finally, the empirical analysis determined that individual, issue-related, and organizational factors might simultaneously influence ethical judgments in some contexts.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of Chapter 1 is to introduce this dissertation, which examines (1) the relationships among job attitudes and ethical judgments, (2) the relationship between moral intensity and ethical judgments, and (3) the relationship between perceived corporate ethical values and ethical judgments. Therefore, this dissertation provides an empirical assessment of the effects of individual, issue-contingent, and situational variables on ethical decision-making.

Business ethics has become one of the more important areas of study for organizational researchers (Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Viswesvaran & Deshpande, 1996; Sims, 1991; Cullen, Victor, & Stephens, 1989). Much of this attention has resulted from the awareness that business professionals often do not act responsibly, engaging in unethical and even illegal behaviors. According to Jones and Kavanagh (1996, p. 511):

On almost a daily basis the popular press is replete with accounts of unethical behavior on

the part of corporate managers and employees. In recent years there have been numerous accounts of insider trading, defense contract fraud, marketing of dangerous products, health risk cover-ups, discrimination against minorities, and embezzlement of funds in our savings and loan industry.

Thus, it appears that it has never been more important to increase our understanding of the factors affecting individuals' ethical decision-making.

Research has focused on individual values and personality as factors affecting ethical decision-making. Researchers have proposed theoretical models (Brass, Butterfield, & Skaggs, 1998; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; Jones, 1991; Trevino, 1986) that emphasize the importance of moral philosophy, personality, values, and attitudes, as well as demographic factors such as gender and age. However, the models also explicitly recognize the role of situational factors that influence ethical decisions. Jones (1991) argues that ethical decision-making models should also incorporate characteristics of the ethical issue in question, since the moral intensity of ethical issues is likely to influence individuals' ethical judgments and intentions.

Although ethical decision making models are interactionist in nature, incorporating individual, situational, and even issue-related variables, empirical

research has not simultaneously examined individual, situational, and issue-related antecedents to ethical decision making. In their review of the ethics empirical literature, Ford & Richardson (1994, p. 218) comment that:

There is a great deal of work to be done in better understanding the influence of the many factors discussed here on the ethical approach used by the decision maker. There are even some obvious factors for which no studies are apparently available.

This dissertation attempts to fill a void in the empirical ethical decision making literature by examining individual-level, issue-related, and situational variables that may affect individuals' ethical judgments. Specifically, individuals' job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be examined. This dissertation will also examine dimensions of the moral intensity of ethical issues. Finally, this study will examine two situational variables, corporate ethical values and ethical environment. The following sections briefly introduce these constructs.

The Importance of Job Attitudes

In general, attitudes are relatively good predictors of behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Much of the research on attitudes is consistent with the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), which was previously called the theory of

reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The theory of planned behavior suggests that attitudes lead to behavioral intentions, which predict subsequent behavior. In general, behavior is caused by: (1) a person's attitudes toward behavior, their perceived outcomes, and the associated valences of the outcomes, (2) the subjective norms derived from the expectations of referent individuals and groups, and (3) the differences of the social actors such as locus of control and self-efficacy (Vallerand, Deshaies, Cuerrier, Pelletier, & Mongeau, 1992).

This dissertation examines two attitudes: job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction represents a positive emotional state reflecting a cognitive response to the work situation (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction, like organizational commitment, has been linked to many key behavioral variables including withdrawal cognitions, turnover, and performance (Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984; Lawler & Porter, 1967). Job satisfaction has been associated with theft, counterproductive behavior, and drug use at work (Viswesvaran, Deshpande, & Joseph, 1998; Viswesvaran & Deshpande, 1996; Greenberg, 1990; Mangione & Quinn, 1975), but its effect on ethical judgments is untested. Clearly,

more research is needed to identify other potentially important relationships between job satisfaction and ethical judgments and behavioral intentions in a wide variety of situations and organizational settings (Viswesvaran, et al., 1998).

Organizational commitment is described as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organizational commitment is often characterized in terms of a strong acceptance of organizational goals and a desire to maintain membership in an organization (Mowday et al., 1979). Similarly, organizational commitment exists when social actors express concern for well being of the organization (Sims, 1991). Organizational commitment appears to reduce withdrawal cognitions such as lateness and turnover and to enhance job satisfaction and performance (Leong, Randall, & Cote, 1994; Cohen, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). More relevant to ethics research, organizational commitment seems to influence factors related to ethical decision making such as reactions to perceived unfairness and certain citizenship behaviors such as altruism (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Miceli, Near, & Schwenk, 1991; Powell, 1990; Westin, 1981).

The Importance of Moral Intensity

Until recently, ethics models did not consider the characteristics of the ethical issue itself. Jones (1991) developed an issue-contingent model and called the multidimensional construct moral intensity. Moral intensity is defined by Jones (1991, p. 372) as "a construct that captures the extent of the issue-related moral imperative in a situation." Moral intensity includes the following six dimensions: (1) magnitude of consequences, (2) social consensus, (3) probability of effect, (4) temporal immediacy, (5) proximity, and (6) concentration of effect. The model suggests that moral intensity will impact individuals' recognition of moral issues, moral judgments, moral intentions, and moral behaviors.

Empirical efforts to date generally provide support for the Jones (1991) issue-contingent model. Moral intensity is significantly associated with ethical judgments (Singer, Mitchell, & Turner, 1998; Singer and Singer, 1997; Singer, 1996; Singer and Singer, 1995; Dukerich, Waller, George, & Huber, 1993). However, more empirical research is needed with a reliable and valid measure of moral intensity. Empirical research is also needed that examines how moral intensity interacts with

individual and situational-level factors that affect ethical judgments.

The Importance of Organizational Factors

One of the major areas examined in ethical decision-making research is the effect of situational factors on ethical judgments and intentions. Situational factors include all situation-specific and general environmental variables that influence behavior such as peer pressure, group influence, compensation, and organization size/level (Brass et al., 1998; Jones & Kavanagh, 1996). Specifically, companies can infuse ethical conduct into daily business life by providing formal codes and regulations, as well as informal norms that guide behavior (Sims, 1991). According to Trevino, Butterfield, and McCabe (1998, p. 447), the study of contextual factors that affect organizational ethics is particularly important because (1) "managers have more control over the work environment than they do over individuals' values or moral development", and (2) organizations are presently investing a great deal of money into "ethics initiatives" and programs to improve ethics in the workplace.

With the increased emphasis on organizational change and development, institutionalizing an organization's

ethics has become a salient issue in the organizational sciences. An institutional act is one that persists over time, thereby becoming an integral part of daily functioning for groups of social actors (Goodman & Dean, 1981). According to Sims (1991, p.495), ethics can be institutionalized in companies by:

(1) managing the psychological contracts between its employees and the organizations, (2) reinforcing the employee's organizational commitment, and (3) encouraging (creating and nurturing) an ethically-oriented organizational culture.

Codes of conduct and corporate ethical values will also facilitate the institutionalization of organizational ethics by defining the general value system, by providing decision-making guidelines, and by highlighting the organization's purpose (Cassell, Johnson, & Smith, 1997; Sims, 1991; Hunt, Wood, & Chonko, 1989).

Corporate ethical values is a construct that reflects the norms, values, and practices of an organization in regard to ethical issues (Hunt et al., 1989). Corporate ethical values are the composite of the personal ethical values of the firm's managers and both the formal and informal ethics policies of the firm (Hunt et al., 1989, p. 79). The construct is considered the central dimension of an organization's culture and influences how the company

deals with employees, outside parties such as suppliers and customers, and communities (Schein, 1985).

Indeed, the cause of ethical failure in organizations can possibly be traced to the failure of management to develop a culture that supports ethical practices and ideals (Brien, 1998). For instance, Fraedrich and Ferrell (1992) concluded that if managers are not given guidance in decision making, the company becomes decentralized with regard to ethical practices and should therefore expect a wide variation in ethical behavior. Therefore, a company must foster a culture or climate that encourages ethical behavior thereby increasing firm productivity and survival (Sims, 1991; Victor & Cullen, 1988).

Statement of the Problem

The ethics literature has not examined key individual, issue-contingent, and contextual variables in a common. Specifically, there is a need for a hierarchical framework of ethical judgments that highlights relationships among attitudinal, issue-related, and organizational constructs. Ford and Richardson (1994, p. 218) state that:

Even more surprising is the omission of the many attitudinal factors frequently noted in the behavior literature. No study found in this review, for example, investigated the relationship between such obvious factors as job

or organizational commitment and ethical decision making behavior.

An ethics framework that incorporates job attitudes would fill gaps that exist in the literature because job attitudes have been surprisingly absent from the ethics literature. A framework that includes issue-contingent factors would also provide empirical justification for the moral intensity construct proposed by Jones (1991). And finally, a hierarchical model that incorporates organizational factors such as corporate ethical values (Hunt et al., 1989) and ethical environment (Trevino et al., 1998) could provide further testing of and validation for these constructs.

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine four research questions:

1. Are attitudinal and continuance organizational commitment and various aspects of job satisfaction associated with ethical judgments?
2. Are the moral intensity dimensions of seriousness of consequences, proximity, probability of effect, temporal immediacy, and social consensus associated with ethical judgments?

3. Are corporate ethical values and ethical environment associated with ethical judgments?
4. Are there significant interaction effects among job attitudes, corporate ethical values, and ethical environment on ethical judgments?

A model (see Figure 1.1) will be tested empirically to answer the questions above. By addressing these proposed relationships, this dissertation will contribute to the ethics literature by incorporating underrepresented job attitudes, by addressing empirically the relationship between moral intensity and ethical judgments, by assessing the relationship between ethical context and ethical judgments, and by combining these individual, issue-related, and organizational variables in a comprehensive interactional model.

Plan of Study

The first chapter of this dissertation provides an overall introduction to the proposed study. Chapter 1 also includes specific research questions, a proposed model, and the contributions of the dissertation. Chapter 2 presents a thorough literature review, which provides the relevant background information regarding job satisfaction, organizational commitment, moral intensity, corporate

ethical values, and ethical environment. The proposed hypotheses and their justification, the methodology used in the dissertation, data collection, sample information, research instruments and scales, and sampling strategy are discussed in Chapter 3. The results are presented in Chapter 4. And finally, the conclusions, implications, study limitations, and recommendations for future research are highlighted in Chapter 5.

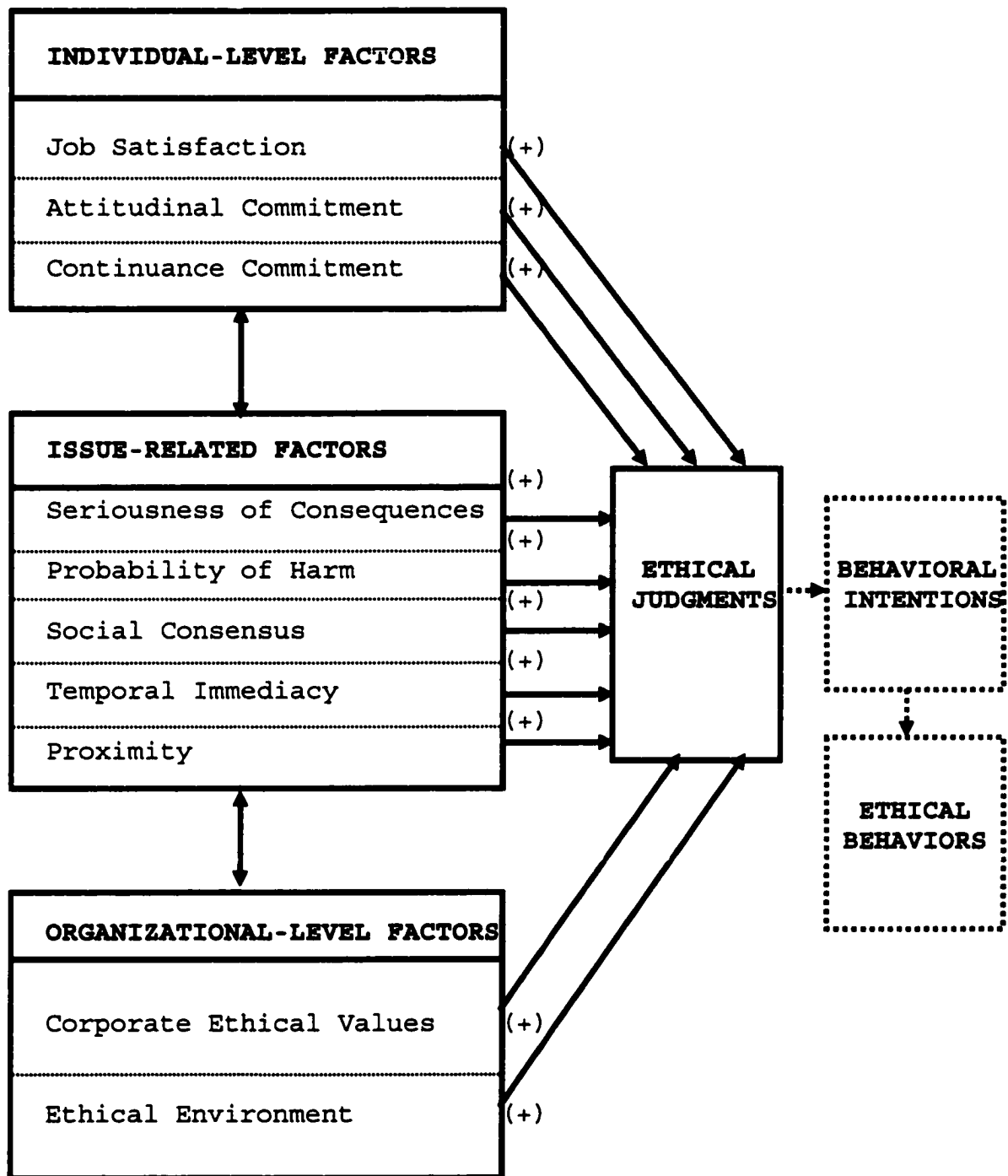


FIGURE 1.1
Study Framework

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature relevant to the empirical study. Each variable relevant to the dissertation is discussed in the following manner:

- 1) The conceptualization and measurement of each construct is discussed.
- 2) The antecedents, consequences, and correlates of each construct are individually reviewed.
- 3) Relationships more salient to this dissertation will be emphasized.

The literature review is divided into several sections. The first section provides a review of ethical decision-making. The second section introduces the job attitude variables (i.e. job satisfaction and organizational commitment). The third section addresses the moral intensity construct and its relationship to ethical judgments. The final section reviews organizational-level factors thought to influence ethical decision making

including organizational values, corporate ethical values, and ethical climate.

Ethical Decision Making

There has been increased interest in business ethics, which has been fueled by a perception among practitioners that some business school graduates are not capable of upholding ethical standards (Sims, 1993; Gilbert, 1992; Martin, 1990; Nappi, 1990). This perception is reinforced by the reality that unethical business practices continue throughout the world (Brien, 1998, Sims, 1991; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990; Hunt et al., 1989). The development of business ethics journals such as the *Journal of Business Ethics* and the *Business Ethics Quarterly* has provided a specialized platform for academic ethics studies to reach interested parties.

Some researchers have developed theoretical models that identify individual and environmental variables that relate to ethical decision making (Jones, 1991; Trevino, 1986; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). Most of these models identify the relevant variables associated with both ethical and unethical behavior in organizations (Brass et al., 1998). Other scholars have dedicated attention to developing better methods of measuring various ethics

constructs (Vitell & Ho, 1997; Singer & Singer, 1997; Reidenbach & Robin, 1988, 1990, 1993; Hansen, 1992; Cullen, Victor, & Stephens, 1988; Victor & Cullen, 1988).

Ethical Decision-Making Perspectives

Ethical decision-making models differ regarding the determinants of ethical behavior (Brass et al., 1998; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990). Some scholars embrace a "bad apples" argument, which is based on the idea that ethical and unethical behaviors can be traced to the characteristics of individuals (Brass et al., 1998). Other scholars cite the importance of a "bad barrels" perspective that is centered on the idea that organizational and societal variables contribute most heavily to ethical/unethical behavior (Brass, et al., 1998; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990).

Much of the early work on individual-level determinants of ethical decision making focused on the moral development construct (Kohlberg, 1984, 1981, 1969). The cornerstone of Kohlberg's idea was that moral reasoning is a conscious process. In essence, ethical reasoning was developed through a process of interaction between the individual's inner structure and external structures of the environment.

Kohlberg theorized that reasoning processes are manifested in a multistage process that indicates a person's degree of moral maturity or development. Kohlberg's model included three levels of moral development, each consisting of two stages:

- Pre-conventional--Stage 1: Individual avoids punishments and tries to receive rewards. Stage 2: Individual places great emphasis on an exchange of favors; instrumental relativist orientation.
- Conventional--Stage 3: Individual assumes socially desirable roles and does good deeds. Stage 4: Individual emphasizes social rules, law and order.
- Post-conventional--Stage 5: Individual tries to define moral values outside of authority figures. Stage 6: Individual universal ethical principles; emphasis on standard moral principles.

Research has shown that managers tend to reason at the conventional level (Weber, 1990). Younger individuals as well as people of a lower educational level tend to reason at a lower level than others (Rest, 1979, 1983; Blasi, 1980). Women also tend to make moral judgments at a higher level than do men (Abdolmohammadi, Gabhart, & Reeves,

1997). And finally, business students sometimes reason at a low moral level (Duizend & McCann, 1998).

Interactionist and Contingency Models

Kohlberg's stages of moral development provide an initial theoretical starting point. However, the development of the interactionist perspective has provided a substantive framework for more comprehensive models of ethical decision-making. This perspective suggests that behavior is influenced by both individual and situational factors. Authors cite the importance of this view, which explains how individual, organizational, and behavioral constructs are related (Turban & Keon, 1993; George, 1992; Trevino, 1986).

Many of the interactionist ideas have been derived from social cognitive theory (Wood & Bandura, 1989). The premise of social cognitive theory is that psychosocial functioning is a product of a triadic reciprocal causation between behavior (B), cognitive and other personal factors (P), and the external environment (E). Researchers generally acknowledge the importance of both situational (behavior conjured through context and environment) and dispositional (behavior prompted by individual differences)

causes of ethical behavior (Turban & Keon, 1993; George, 1992; Bowen et al., 1991).

Trevino (1986) Interactionist Model. Trevino (1986) developed a model of ethical decision-making based largely on Kohlberg's work, which is shown in Figure 2.1. According to this model, ethical decision making is influenced by an individual's level of moral development. This relationship is moderated by individual factors that include locus of control, ego strength, and field dependence. It is also moderated by several key environmental variables, which include job context, organizational structure, and work characteristics. The model suggests that organizations have a profound effect on an individual's ethical behavior.

Hunt & Vitell (1986) Model. Hunt and Vitell (1986) developed a general theory of marketing ethics. The theory suggests that deontological evaluations and teleological evaluations affect ethical judgments. According to the model, which is shown in Figure 2.2, the perception of an ethical problem triggers the ethics decision process. Alternative responses are evaluated on deontological and teleological grounds. An individual's ethical judgments

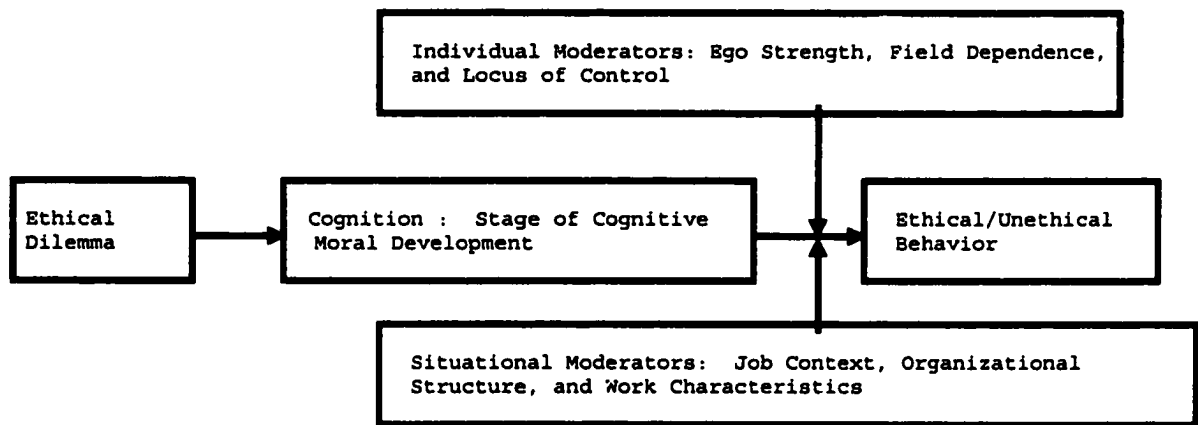


FIGURE 2.1
Trevino (1986) - Ethical Decision-Making Model

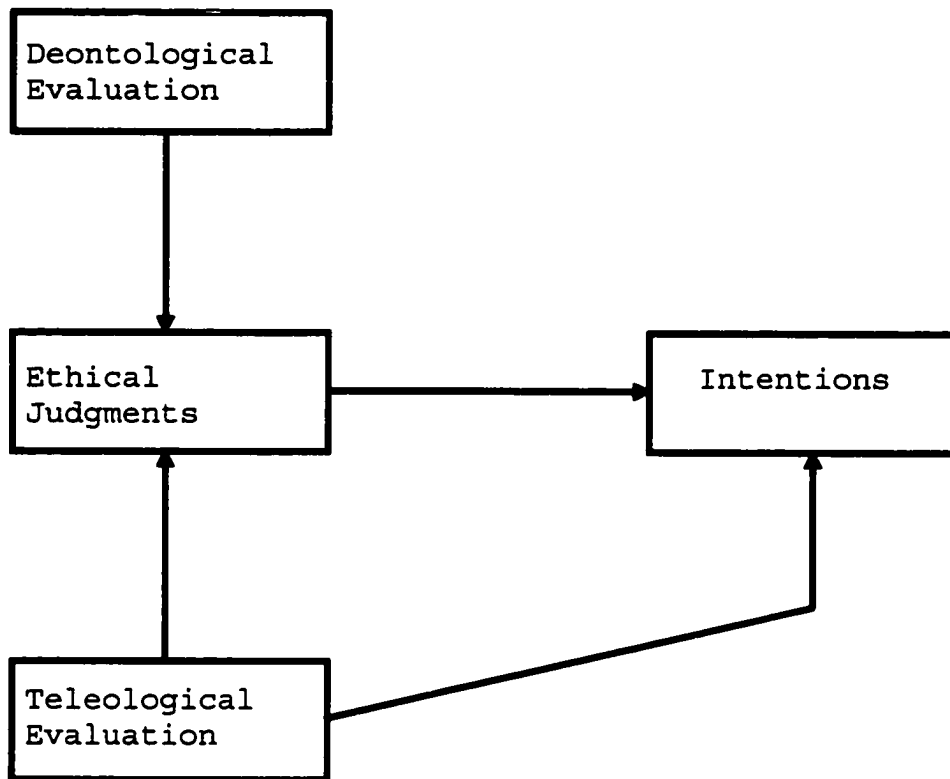


Figure 2.2
Hunt & Vitell (1986) - Theory of Ethics - Core Relationships

and intentions affect ethical decisions. The consequences of alternatives affect future ethical judgments.

Hunt and Vitell (1986) also argue that there are four sources of variance in ethical beliefs caused by the perceptions of factual reality, any differences in teleological evaluations, any differences in deontological evaluations, and any differences in how people combine deontological and teleological evaluations. Hunt and Vasquez-Parraga (1993) expand on these ideas by proposing that marketers rely primarily on deontological factors and only secondarily on teleological factors when confronting ethical dilemmas.

Ferrell, Gresham, & Fraedrich (1989) Model. Ferrell and Gresham (1985) integrated key determinants of ethical and unethical behavior in a multistage contingency model. The framework is based on the assumption that decisions about an ethical dilemma are based on the first order interaction between the nature of the situation, the cognitive characteristics of the individual, significant others, and opportunity.

Ferrell, Gresham, and Fraedrich (1989) expanded on the model and created an integrated model for ethical decision making in marketing. This framework appears in Figure 2.3.

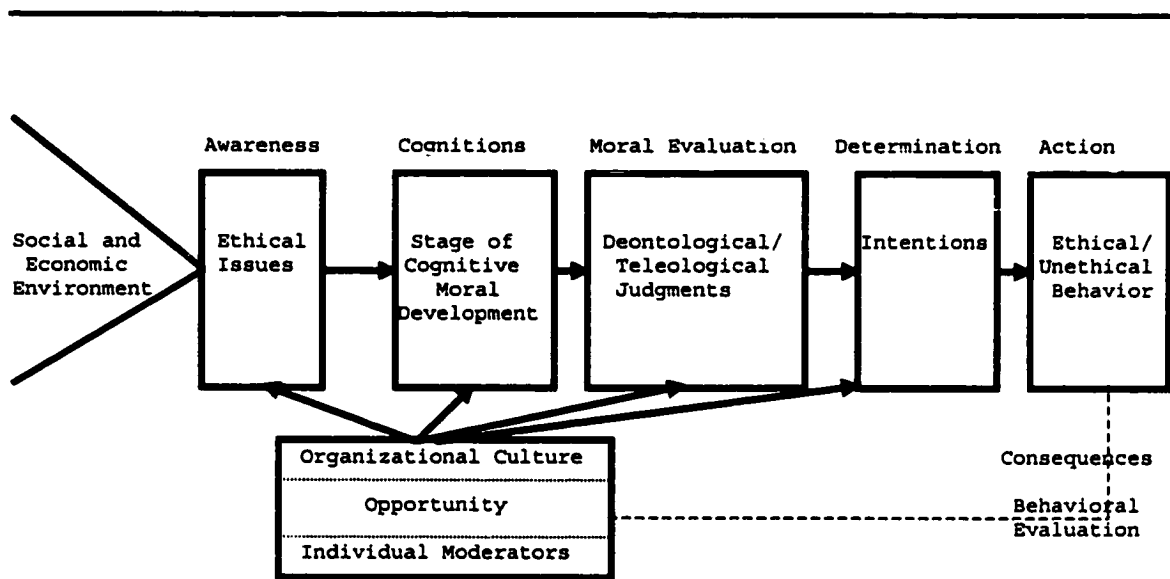


Figure 2.3
Ferrell, Gresham, & Fraedrich (1989) - Synthesis of Ethical Decision-Making Models for Marketing

The decision situation begins with individual awareness of an ethical issue, which then leads to an ethical judgment based on one's level of cognitive moral development. Intentions are created after a judgment is made and subsequent behavior is the result. Organizational culture, opportunity, and individual moderators influence awareness, cognition, moral evaluations, and determinations. Subsequent evaluations are also affected by a feedback loop derived from the consequences of previous moral evaluations and actions.

Rest (1986) Ethics Model. Based on the theoretical development of Lawrence Kohlberg and the theory of reasoned action posited by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), Rest (1986) developed a model that described not only several key antecedents of moral judgments, but also several key consequences. The premise of the model is that behavior is preceded by behavioral intentions that are, in turn, proceeded by individual moral judgments. Moral judgments are a product of an individual's stage of cognitive moral development and his or her subsequent level of moral reasoning.

The theoretical rationale for the model lies in the implied associations among individual attitudes, subjective

norms, and judgments that create behavioral intentions (Randall, 1989). Empirical work demonstrates that the constructs in the model are associated and that more empirical study should be devoted to the theory of reasoned action as applied to ethical decision making (Simpson, Brown, & Widing, 1998; Barnett, Bass, & Brown, 1995; Weber, 1990; Randall, 1989). Figure 2.4 shows the Rest (1986) model.

Jones (1991) Issue-Contingent Model. Jones (1991) developed an integrative model of ethical decision making. According to Jones (1991), ethical decisions are contingent upon factors that define the characteristics of the ethical dilemma itself. Jones (1991) referred to the characteristic of ethical issues as moral intensity. The dimensions of moral intensity include the magnitude of consequences, social consensus, probability of effect, temporal immediacy, proximity, and concentration of effect. In essence, various individual and other situation variables moderate the relationship between moral intent and moral behavior, while moral intensity has a direct affect on recognition of moral issues, moral judgments, moral intent, and moral behavior. Figure 2.5 displays the Jones (1991) model.

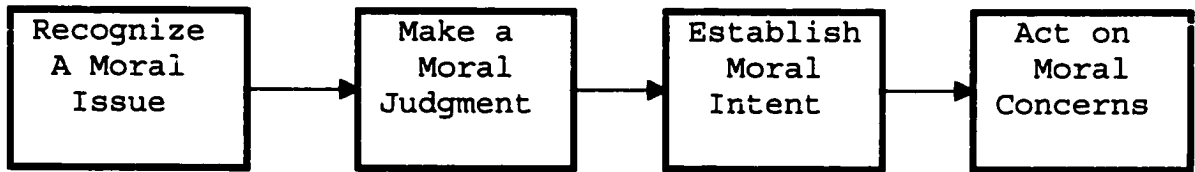


FIGURE 2.4
Rest (1986) - Ethics Model

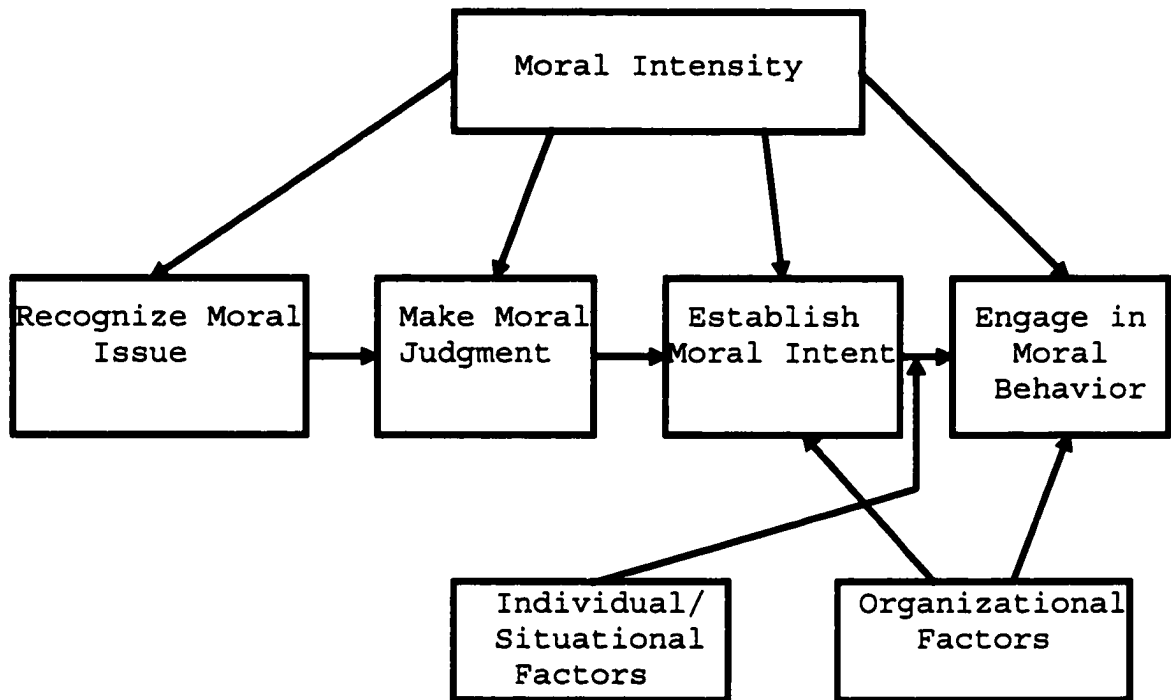


Figure 2.5
Jones (1991) - Issue Contingent Model of Ethical Decision Making

Brass, Butterfield, & Skaggs (1998) Model. More

recently, Brass et al. (1998) integrated individual, organizational, and relational factors among social actors in an ethical decision-making model (see Figure 2.6). The premise of the model is that ethical decision making is inherently a social process that affects the interests, well being, and expectations of others. Brass et al. (1998) noted that a social network perspective is already taking shape in the ethics literature in the form of trust and conspiracy research. Based on these ideas, a social network is defined as "a set of actors and the set of ties representing some relationship—or lack of relationship—between the actors"

(Brass et al., 1998, p. 17).

Brass et al. (1998) highlighted factors that moderate the direct relationships between organizational, individual, and issue-related factors and ethical decision making. Relationships are defined by their strength (based on emotional intensity, reciprocity, intimacy, and frequency), multiplex patterns (actors are linked by more than one relationship), asymmetric properties (trust and emotional involvement are not reciprocated), and the status of the social actors involved. Brass et al. (1998) also

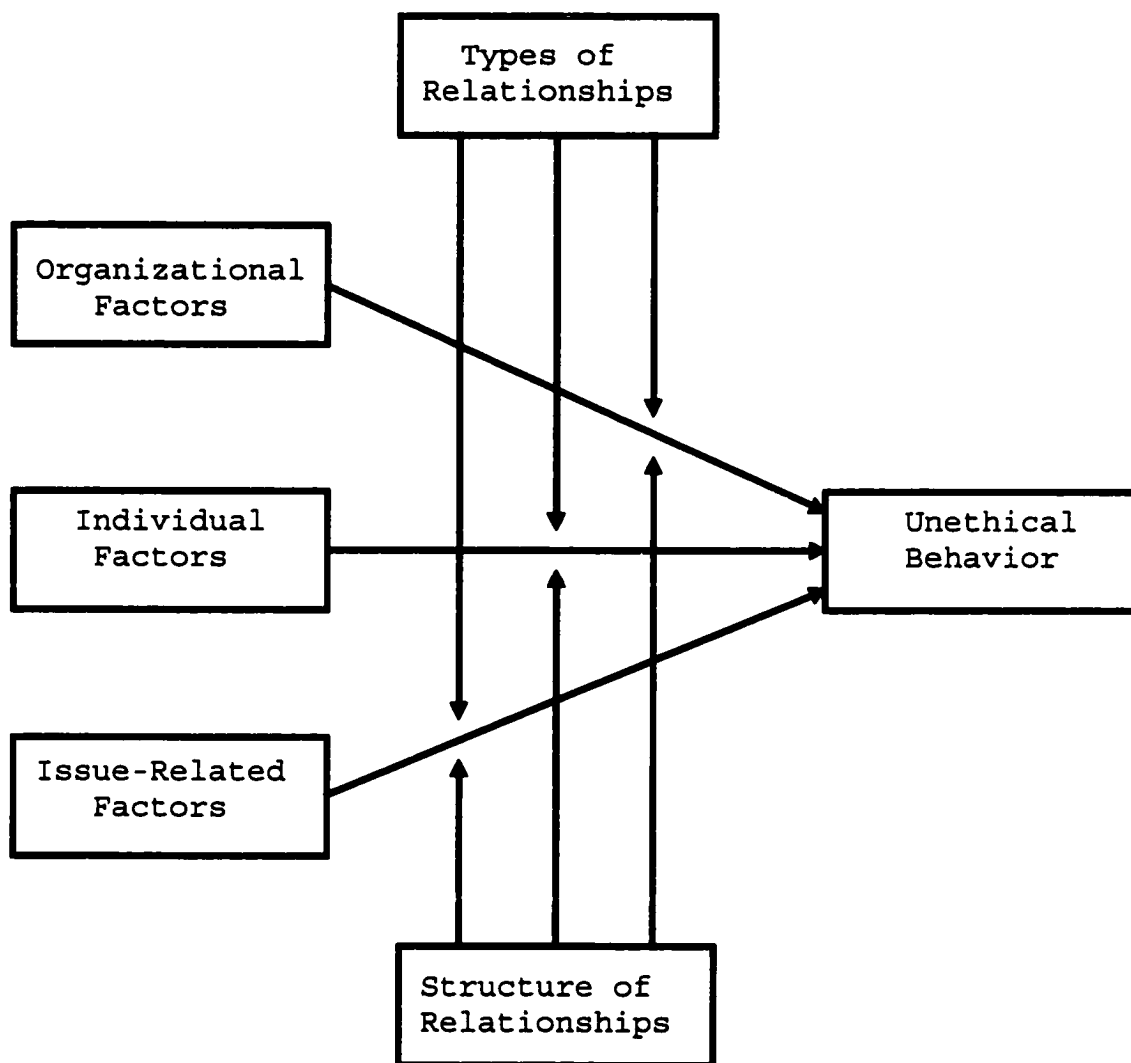


FIGURE 2.6
Brass, Butterfield, & Skaggs (1998) - A Model of Unethical Behavior

suggested that ethical/unethical behavior is affected by the structure of relationships. These structural properties include density (interconnectedness of social actors), cliques (densely connected subgroups prompted by growing size and decentralization), structural holes (absence of a link between two actors), and centrality (the extent to which social actors can reach others in the network with very few contacts).

Antecedents of Ethical Decision Making

A great deal of empirical attention has been given to certain antecedents of ethical and moral judgments. The variables studied have ranged from individual and demographic variables to various organizational factors (see Table 2.1). Individual factors have received the most attention in the ethics literature (Ford & Richardson, 1994).

Demographic Variables. Gender, age, and experience appear to affect ethical decision making. In general, older workers and females, and more experienced individuals seem to make somewhat more ethical decisions than other work groups (Borkowski & Ugras, 1998; Dawson, 1997; Abdolmohammadi et al., 1997; Glover, Bumpus, Logan, &

TABLE 2.1
Antecedents of Ethical Decision Making

VARIABLE Study	Sample	Major Findings
SEX		
Borkowski & Ugras (1998)	Meta-analysis	Females are more ethical than males
Dawson (1997)	Salespeople (N = 203)	Females are more ethical than males
Abdolmohammadi, Gabhart, & Reeves (1997)	Business students (N = 273)	Females are more ethical than males
Glover, Bumpus, Logan, & Ciesla (1997)	Business students (N = 367)	Females are more ethical than males
Singhapakdi, Rao, & Vitell (1996)	Services marketing professionals (N = 252)	Females are more ethical than males
Whipple & Swords (1992)	Students	Females are more ethical than males
AGE		
Borkowski & Ugras (1998)	Meta-analysis	Age and ethical attitudes are positively related
Dawson (1997)	Salespeople (N = 203)	Age and EJ are positively related
Singhapakdi, Rao, & Vitell (1996)	Services marketing professionals (N = 252)	Age and EJ are positively related
Ruegger & King (1992)	Students	Age and EDM are positively related

TABLE 2.1 (continued)**EXPERIENCE**

Glover, Bumpus, Logan, & Ciesla (1997)	Business students (N = 367)	Experience and EB are positively related
Dawson (1997)	Salespeople (N = 203)	Experience and EJ are positively related

MACHIAVELLIANISM

Jones & Kavanagh (1996)	Students (N = 138)	Machiavellianism and unethical intentions are positively related
Singhapakdi & Vitell (1990)	Marketing managers	Machiavellianism and EDM are negatively related

LOCUS OF CONTROL

Jones & Kavanagh (1996)	Students (N = 138)	External LOC and unethical intentions are positively related
Zahra (1989)	Managers	External LOC mgrs. perceived politics as ethical

DEONTOLOGICAL/TELEOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS/ETHICAL IDEOLOGY

DeConinck & Lewis (1997)	Salespeople (N = 183)	Deontological and teleological evaluations and EJ are positively related
Barnett, Bass, & Brown (1995)	Business students (N = 267)	Idealism and EJ are pos. related Relativism and EJ are neg. related

TABLE 2.1 (continued)

Barnett, Bass, & Brown (1994)	Business students (N = 166)	Idealism/relativism and EJ are pos./neg. related
Fraedrich (1993)	Retail mgrs. (N = 189)	Deontologists score higher on EB than other considerations

REWARD SYSTEMS & SANCTIONS

Greenberg (1990)	Manufacturing plant workers	Pay cuts and theft are positively related
Laczniak & Inderrieden (1987)	MBA students	Mixed discipline leads to ethical behavior

ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE/LEVEL

Kaynama, King, & Smith (1996)	Undergraduate/ MBA students (N = 104)	People act more ethical when they perceive themselves as managers
Akaah (1996)	Marketing professionals/ researchers (N = 756)	Marketing pros. make more ethical judgments than researchers
Delaney & Sockell (1992)	Columbia U. alumni	Lower mgrs. perceived greater to act unethically to get ahead

IDENTIFICATION WITH THE ORGANIZATION

Akaah (1992)	Marketing professionals/ researchers (N = 756)	Identification w/ org. and ethical behavior are positively related
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TABLE 2.1 (continued)**ETHICS TRAINING**

Delaney & Sockell (1992)	Columbia U. alumni	Ethics training and ethical behavior are positively related
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TYPE/QUALITY OF THE WORK EXPERIENCE/WORK VALUES

Glover, Bumpus, Logan, & Ciesla (1997)	Business students (N = 367)	Achievement orient. and EDM are positively related
Jones & Kavanagh (1996)	Students (N = 138)	High quality experience and ethical intentions are positively related
Singhapakdi, Rao, & Vitell (1996)	Services MKT professionals (N = 252)	Perceptions of ethical problems at work and ethical judgments are positively related

CODES OF CONDUCT/CORPORATE CULTURE

Nwachukwu & Vitell (1997)	Advertising practitioners (N = 364)	Org. culture/ethics and ethical considerations are positively related
Weeks & Nantel (1992)	Salespeople	Well communicated code of ethics and ethical behavior are positively related
Singhapakdi & Vitell (1990)	Marketing managers	Ethical policy enforcement and EJ are positively related

TABLE 2.1 (continued)

Ferrell & Skinner (1988)	Marketing researchers	Well enforced code of ethics and ethical behavior are positively related
Laczniak & Inderrieden (1987)	MBA students	Codes & sanctions and ethical behavior are positively related
ETHICAL CONTEXT		
Trevino, Butterfield, & McCabe (1998)	318 private college alumni	Ethical org. culture/climate and unethical behavior are negatively related
Wimbush, Shepard, & Markham (1997)	Employees of sales org. (N = 525)	Positive climate and ethical behavior are positively related
Bartels, Harrick, Martell, & Strickland (1997)	HR managers (N = 1078)	Ethical climates and ethical violations/success in responding to ethical issues are negatively/positively related
Akaah & Lund (1994)	Marketing researchers (N = 407)	Org. values and ethical behavior are positively related

Ciesla, 1997; Singhapakdi, Rao, & Vitell, 1996; Whipple & Swords, 1992; Ruegger & King, 1992).

Dispositional Factors. Specific dispositions are also related to ethical decision making. Empirical research shows that *Machiavellianism* tends to decrease ethical decision making (Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Singhapakdi & Vitell, 1990), as does an external *locus of control* (Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Zahra, 1989).

Both *deontological* & *teleological* considerations share relationships with ethical judgments and behavior, however, deontological factors appear to exert a much influence on ethical judgments (DeConinck & Lewis, 1997; Fraedrich, 1993). Based on the idea that individuals use their own system of ethics to make morality judgments, ethical ideologies influence individual ethical reasoning (Forsyth, 1980; Schlenker & Forsyth, 1977). A summary of these ethical ideologies is found in Figure 2.7.

Organizational Factors. Many job and organizational factors are related to ethical decision making. Reward systems tend to influence ethical decision making (Greenberg, 1990; Laczniak & Inderrieden, 1987; Fritzsche & Becker, 1983), as does *organizational level* (Kaynama, King, & Smith, 1996; Akaah, 1996; Delaney & Sockell, 1992; Chonko

	Relativism	
Idealism	High	Low
High	Situationists Rejects moral codes; advocates individualistic analysis of each act in each situation; relativistic	Absolutists Assumes that the best possible outcome can always be achieved by following universal moral codes
Low	Subjectivists Appraisals based on personal values and perspective rather than universal moral principles; relativistic	Exceptionists Moral absolutes guide judgments but pragmatically open to exceptions to these standards; utilitarian

FIGURE 2.7
Forsyth (1980) - Taxonomy of Ethical Ideologies

& Hunt, 1985). In addition, *identification with the organization* (Akaah, 1992), *involvement in ethics training* (Delaney & Sockell, 1992), and the *quality of the work experience* (Jones & Kavanagh, 1996) have been linked to ethical decision making. Furthermore, *codes of conduct/ethics* generally influence ethical judgments in a positive fashion (Nwachukwu & Vitell, 1997; Weeks & Nantel, 1992; Singhapakdi & Vitell, 1990; Ferrell & Skinner, 1988; Laczniak & Inderrieden, 1987). *Corporate values* emphasizing ethics tend to increase organizational commitment (Hunt et al., 1989).

More and more emphasis is now being placed on the normative influences organizations exert over their employees through socialization processes (Denison, 1996; Jones, 1986). In particular, the relationship between work climates and ethical decision making receives a great deal of research attention (Akaah & Lund, 1994; Cullen et al., 1989; Victor & Cullen, 1988).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment (OC) has been a widely studied phenomena in the organizational behavior and organizational psychology fields (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Huselid & Day, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Organizational commitment is a global construct representing an individual's affective response to the organizational as a whole (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1979) and refers to an unusually strong attachment or bond an employee has with his or her company (Huselid & Day, 1991). The construct has been associated with many work-related behaviors and phenomena (Morrow, 1993); however, organizational commitment has not been directly linked to ethical decision making. Its absence creates a conceptual and empirical gap in the ethics literature.

Organizational commitment is different from job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1979). In general, commitment is a more global construct reflecting an individual's attitude toward the organization while job satisfaction is a emotional or cognitive response reflecting an individual's cognitions and feelings about a given job (Mowday et al., 1979; Locke, 1976). Organizational commitment emphasizes identification with organizational values and goals while job satisfaction relies heavily on the very narrow job context or specific task environment. Furthermore, organizational commitment is more stable over time than job satisfaction since it is not affected by transitory elements in the work environment (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Conversely, job

satisfaction tends to be affected by situational variables such as pay, job characteristics, supervision, and coworkers (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Porter et al., 1974).

Organizational commitment has been linked to employees' absenteeism, turnover, performance, job satisfaction, and job involvement, as well as job characteristics, environmental structure, role status, and other personal variables (Werbel, Landau, DeCarlo, 1996; Russ & McNeilly, 1995; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992; Huselid & Day, 1990; Brooke et al., 1988). Committed employees tend to receive higher extrinsic awards in an organization through better wages and benefits and also tend to receive higher intrinsic satisfaction and rewards through enhanced relationships with coworkers, managers, and subordinates (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). More importantly, organizational commitment is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors (or actions that go beyond the normal expectations of a job) such as creativeness or innovation (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

A summary of the conceptualizations of organizational commitment is provided in Table 2.2. The following sections of the dissertation summarize these conceptualizations and provide an in-depth look at OC

TABLE 2.2
SUMMARY OF MAJOR OC CONCEPTUALIZATIONS

CONCEPT	MAJOR CITATIONS	DEFINITION
Attitudinal	Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boullian (1974) Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979) Mowday, Porter, & Steers (1982)	Attitudinal OC is the attachment, bond, or linking of an individual to an organization and is measured by the relative strength of one's identification and involvement in the organization. Three dimensions of attitudinal OC exist which include: a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.
Affective	Meyer & Allen (1984) Allen & Meyer (1990b) McGee & Ford (1987)	Positive or negative feelings an individual has for his or her organization which affects attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.
Calculative	Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972) Huselid & Day (1991)	Individuals become bound to an organization because of extensive sunk costs or side-bets.

TABLE 2.2 (continued)

Continuance	Meyer & Allen (1984) McGee & Ford (1987)	Individuals become bound to an organization because of extensive sunk costs or side-bets. Also includes the personal difficulty in moving from one organization to another.
Normative	Weiner (1982) Allen & Meyer (1990b)	Normative OC is produced through cultural, familial expectations, and organizational socialization processes that demonstrate and emphasize the importance of company loyalty among organizational members (Morrow, 1993; Weiner, 1982).

measurement instruments, OC antecedents, and OC consequences.

Attitudinal and Affective Commitments

Definition(s). Attitudinal OC is the attachment, bond, or linking of an individual to an organization and is measured by the relative strength of one's identification and involvement in the organization (Porter et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974). Three dimensions of attitudinal OC exist:

- a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday et al., 1982, p.27).

This relationship is usually nurtured through an exchange agreement whereby the individual receives various rewards such as verbal accolades or promotions. Viewed in this context, organizational commitment represents a relationship far beyond the norm in that people with high OC are willing to give something of themselves in order to ensure the well-being and proliferation of their organizations (Mowday et al., 1979).

Meyer and Allen (1984) developed a definition of OC similar to attitudinal commitment. Affective OC

encompasses any positive or negative feelings an individual has for his or her organization (Morrow, 1993). These personal feelings subsequently affect attachment to, identification with, and involvement in organizational activities, policies, and ideologies.

Measurement. Attitudinal commitment is usually measured with the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday et al., 1979). The OCQ is comprised of fifteen items that measure the degree to which an individual identifies with a particular organization and wishes to remain a part of the organization. A nine-item scale can be employed when questionnaire length is an issue. Both versions demonstrate acceptable internal consistency reliability and good convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity (Mowday et al., 1979).

Affective commitment is often measured with the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), which was developed by Meyer and Allen (1984). The ACS measures an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization.

Antecedents. A great deal of attention has been given to the antecedents of affective/attitudinal organizational

commitment. Demographic variables associated with OC include age (Bedeian, Pizzolatto, Long, & Griffeth, 1991; Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Glisson & Durrick, 1988; Morrow & McElroy, 1987), sex (Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrow & McElroy, 1987), and education (Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996; Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Morrow & Wirth, 1989). Generally, older, less-educated, females are more committed than other groups.

Other individual characteristics appear to predict organizational commitment (Morrow, 1993). An individual's *perceived competence* is positively related to organizational commitment, which indicates that individuals become more committed to an organization as they learn to function more effectively (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morris & Sherman, 1981). *Protestant work ethic* also shares a positive association with attitudinal OC (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Both *job involvement* (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Morrow & Wirth, 1989) and *job satisfaction* (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998; Good, Page, & Young, 1996; Brown & Peterson, 1993; Brown, Cron, & Leigh, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1988) are positively related to attitudinal OC, which supports the notion that many job attitudes are synergistic in nature (see Brooke et

al., 1988). *Internal motivation* also exhibits a strong positive correlation with organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). *Positive affectivity* and *negative affectivity* also affect an employee's current level of affective organizational commitment (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997), while individuals with an internal locus of control tend to have higher pre-entry organizational commitment (Werbel et al., 1996).

Various organizational factors have been associated with affective/attitudinal organizational commitment. According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996), negative associations between routine tasks and attitudinal OC indicate that commitment is partially determined by job design. Furthermore, *job challenge* is positively related to attitudinal OC (Meyer & Allen, 1988). Both *tenure* (Riordan & Shore, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990; Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Meyer & Allen, 1984) and *salary/pay* tend to increase attitudinal and affective OC (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990; Brooke et al., 1988; Glisson & Durrick, 1988).

Role states are also key antecedents to attitudinal OC. Negative relationships have been found between OC and *role conflict*, *role overload*, and *role ambiguity* (Ko et

al., 1997; Good et al., 1996; Jamal, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1988; Glisson & Durrick, 1988).

Group cohesiveness (Podsakoff et al., 1996; Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Meyer & Allen, 1988), *transformational (charismatic) leadership* (Podsakoff et al., 1996), and *supervisory/organizational support* (Ko et al., 1997; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997) enhance the commitment levels of employees. Similarly, distributive justice and attitudinal commitment are positively related, which indicates that perceived fairness in the distribution of rewards and punishments establishes commitment among employees (Ko et al., 1997; Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996). In the ethics literature, ethical fit, a comparison of preferred and actual ethical climates, positively influences affective commitment (Sims & Kroeck, 1994). This relationship is caused by positive feelings generated by congruence or fit between the employee and the organization. A summary of the antecedents of both affective and attitudinal commitments is provided in Table 2.3.

Consequences. OC is linked to many withdrawal behaviors. The most predictable withdrawal behavior

TABLE 2.3
Antecedents of Attitudinal & Affective* Commitments

VARIABLE		
Study	Sample	Major Findings
AGE		
Bedeian, Pizzolatto, Long, & Griffeth (1991)	Nursing Professionals (N = 302)	Age and OC are positively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Age and OC are positively associated
Cohen & Lowenberg (1990)	Meta-analysis	Age and OC are positively associated
Glisson & Durrick (1988)	47 work groups in 22 human service organizations (N = 319)	Age and OC are positively associated
Morrow & McElroy (1987)	Department of Transportation employees (N = 2200)	Age and OC are positively associated
SEX		
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Women are more committed than men
Cohen & Lowenberg (1990)	Meta-analysis	Men are more committed than women
Morrow & McElroy (1987)	Department of Transportation employees (N = 2200)	Women are more committed than men

TABLE 2.3 (continued)**EDUCATION**

Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996)	VA Medical Center employees (<i>N</i> = 200)	Education and OC are negatively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Education and OC are negatively associated
Cohen & Lowenberg (1990)	Meta-analysis	Education and OC are negatively associated
Morrow & Wirth (1989)	Professional/scientific university employees (<i>N</i> = 728)	Education and OC are negatively associated
Mathieu & Hamel (1989)	Two government agencies and a state university	Education and OC are negatively associated

PERCEIVED COMPETENCE

Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Competence and OC are positively associated
Morris & Sherman (1981)	Professional/scientific university employees (<i>N</i> = 506)	Competence and OC are positively associated

PROTESTANT WORK ETHIC

Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	PWE and OC are positively associated
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TABLE 2.3 (continued)**JOB INVOLVEMENT**

Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Job Involvement and OC are positively associated
Morrow & Wirth (1989)	Professional/scientific university employees (<i>N</i> = 728)	Job involvement and OC are positively associated
Morrow & McElroy (1987)	Department of Transportation employees (<i>N</i> = 2200)	Job involvement and OC are positively associated

JOB SATISFACTION

Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola (1998)	Hospital nurses (<i>N</i> = 466)	JS and OC are positively associated
Good, Page, & Young (1996)	Department store employees (<i>N</i> = 383)	JS and OC are positively associated
Brown, Cron, & Leigh (1993)	Salespeople (<i>N</i> = 466)	JS and OC are positively associated
Brown & Peterson (1993)	Meta-analysis	JS and OC are positively associated
Meyer & Allen (1988)	Recent university graduates (<i>N</i> = 110)	JS and OC are positively associated

TABLE 2.3 (continued)**INTERNAL MOTIVATION**

Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Internal motivation and OC are positively associated
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POSITIVE/NEGATIVE AFFECTIVITY

Ko, Price, & Mueller (1997)	278 Research institute employees and 589 Korean Korean airline employees	Pos./Neg. affectivity and OC* are pos./neg. associated
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LOCUS OF CONTROL

Werbel, Landau, & DeCarlo (1996)	Financial services org. marketers (N = 114)	Internal LOC and OC are positively associated
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ROUTINE TASKS

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996)	Employees from several large Companies in U.S./Canada (N = 1539)	Routine tasks and OC are negatively associated
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JOB CHALLENGE

Meyer & Allen (1988)	Recent University Graduates (N = 110)	Job challenge and OC are positively associated
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TENURE

Riordan & Shore (1997)	Insurance Company employees (N = 1554)	Tenure and OC are positively associated
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TABLE 2.3 (continued)

Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Tenure and OC are positively associated
Cohen & Lowenberg (1990)	Meta-analysis	Tenure and OC are positively associated
Morrow & McElroy (1987)	Department of Transportation employees (N = 2200)	Tenure and OC are positively associated
Meyer & Allen (1984)	64 Intro. Psychology Students	Tenure and OC* are positively associated
SALARY/PAY		
Ko, Price, & Mueller (1997)	218 research institute employees and 589 Korean airline employees	Pay and OC* are positively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Pay and OC are positively associated
Cohen & Lowenberg (1990)	Meta-analysis	Pay and OC are positively associated
Brooke, Russell, & Price (1988)	VA Medical Center employees (N = 327)	Pay and OC are positively associated
Glisson & Durrick (1988)	47 work groups in 22 human service organizations (N = 319)	Pay and OC are negatively associated

TABLE 2.3 (continued)**ROLE CONFLICT**

Ko, Price, & Mueller (1998)	278 research institute employees and 589 Korean airline employees	Role conflict and OC* are negatively associated
Good, Page, & Young (1996)	Multiunit department store employees (N = 383)	Role conflict and OC* are negatively associated
Jamal (1990)	Nurses (N = 215)	Role conflict and OC are negatively associated
Allen & Meyer (1990b)	Undergraduate & graduate business students (N = 132)	Role conflict and OC* are negatively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Role conflict and OC are negatively associated
Meyer & Allen (1988)	Recent university graduates (N = 110)	Role conflict and OC are negatively associated
Glisson & Durrick (1988)	47 work groups in 22 human service organizations (N = 319)	Role conflict and OC are negatively associated

ROLE AMBIGUITY

Ko, Price, & Mueller (1997)	278 research institute/ 589 airline employees	Role ambiguity and OC* are negatively associated
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TABLE 2.3 (continued)

Jamal (1990)	Nurses (N = 215)	Role ambiguity and OC are negatively associated
Allen & Meyer (1990b)	Undergraduate & graduate business students (N = 132)	Role ambiguity and OC* are negatively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Role ambiguity and OC are negatively associated
Meyer & Allen (1988)	Recent university graduates (N = 110)	Role ambiguity and OC are negatively associated
Glisson & Durrick (1988)	47 work groups in 22 human service organizations (N = 319)	Role ambiguity and OC are negatively associated

ROLE OVERLOAD

Jamal (1990)	Nurses (N = 215)	Role overload and OC are negatively associated
Allen & Meyer (1990b)	Undergraduate & graduate business students (N = 132)	Role overload and OC* are negatively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Role overload and OC are negatively associated

TABLE 2.3 (continued)

Meyer & Allen (1988)	Recent university graduates (N = 110)	Role overload and OC are negatively associated
Glisson & Durrick (1988)	47 work groups in 22 human service organizations (N = 319)	Role overload and OC are negatively associated

GROUP COHESIVENESS

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996)	Employees from several large Companies in U.S./Canada (N = 1539)	Cohesiveness and OC are positively associated
Allen & Meyer (1990b)	Undergraduate & graduate business students (N = 132)	Cohesiveness and OC* are positively associated
Meyer & Allen (1988)	Recent university graduates (N = 110)	Cohesiveness and OC are positively associated

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996)	Employees from several large Companies in U.S./Canada (N = 1539)	Trans. leadership and OC are positively associated
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SUPERVISORY/ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

Ko, Price, & Mueller (1997)	278 research institute/ 589 airline employees	Supervisory support and OC* are positively associated
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TABLE 2.3 (continued)

Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth (1997)	Manufacturing company employees (<i>N</i> = 69)	Org. support and OC* are positively associated
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DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

Ko, Price, & Mueller (1997)	278 research institute employees and 589 Korean airline employees	Distributive justice and OC* are positively associated
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Tang & Sarsfield- Baldwin (1996)	VA Medical Center (<i>N</i> = 200)	Distributive justice and OC are positively associated
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ETHICAL FIT

Sims & Kroeck (1994)	Hospital employees (<i>N</i> = 66)	Ethical fit and OC* are positively associated
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* Indicates affective OC.

associated with OC is turnover. Previous research highlights a negative association (Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Cohen, 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). *Intention to leave and search behavior* are negatively associated with organizational commitment, even though the relationships are weaker compared to those derived from turnover-JS studies (Ko et al., 1997; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Jamal, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrow & McElroy, 1987). In a similar fashion, *individual intention to stay* is positively linked to OC (Ko et al., 1997).

OC tends to increase *job satisfaction* (Vandenberg & Lance, 1992), *job performance* (Leong et al., 1994; Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and *organizational citizenship behavior* (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Also, individuals high in attitudinal commitment are found to be less likely to lie to senders of role expectations (Grover & Hui, 1994).

A summary of the OC research that has identified specific consequence variables of attitudinal/affective OC is provided in Table 2.4.

TABLE 2.4
Consequences of Attitudinal and Affective* Commitments

VARIABLE		
Study	Sample	Major Findings
TURNOVER		
Griffeth & Hom (1995)	Meta-analysis	OC and turnover are negatively related
Cohen (1993)	Meta-analysis	OC and turnover are negatively related
Tett & Meyer (1993)	Meta-analysis	OC and turnover are negatively related
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	OC and turnover are negatively related
INTENTION TO LEAVE/STAY		
Ko, Price, & Mueller (1997)	218 research institute employees and 589 Korean airline employees	OC and intention to stay are positively associated
Tett & Meyer (1993)	Meta-analysis	OC and turnover are negatively related
Jamal (1990)	Nurses (N = 215)	OC and intention to leave are negatively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	OC and intention to leave are negatively related

TABLE 2.4 (continued)

Morrow & McElroy (1987)	Department of Transportation employees (N = 2200)	OC and intention to leave are negatively associated
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JOB SATISFACTION

Vandenberg & Lance (1992)	MIS professionals (N = 455)	OC and JS are positively associated
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JOB PERFORMANCE

Leong, Randall, & Cote	Salespeople (N = 308)	OC and job performance are positively related
Mathieu & Farr (1991)	311 Engineers	OC and job performance are positively related
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	OC and job performance are positively related

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Organ & Ryan (1995)	Meta-analysis	OC* and OCB are Positively related
Shore & Wayne (1993)	Employees and managers of a large MNC (276 pairs)	OC* and OCB are positively related

LYING

Grover & Hui (1994)	248 undergraduate students	OC and lying are negatively related
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* Indicates affective OC.

Calculative and Continuance Commitments

Definition(s). The second most utilized conceptualization of organizational commitment is derived from Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, which suggests that individual behavior is based on person-organization exchanges that benefit an individual. Based on this theory, two very similar measures of OC have been delineated as *calculative OC* (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972) and *continuance OC* (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Both calculative OC and continuance OC occur when an individual cannot afford to separate from an organization because of extensive sunk costs (seniority, pension plans, longevity bonuses, high rank, etc.) and side bets that have been derived from person-organization interactions over time (Morrow, 1993; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). The degree of continuance/calculative commitment is directly affected by the degree to which an employee benefits from the person-organization exchange (Huselid & Day, 1991). Similarly, these dimensions of OC are affected by the things an individual might lose if he or she were to leave their employer (Morrow, 1993). Their only difference lies in the fact that continuance OC incorporates perceived difficulty

in moving from one organization to another while calculative OC does not.

Measurement. A four-item scale developed by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) is used to assess calculative commitment. The respondent is asked whether he or she would be willing to leave an organization given specific circumstances such as getting a more interesting job, receiving more compensation, getting a more prestigious job, or having friendlier coworkers (Morrow, 1993). Overall, this OC scale measures the degree to which a person is bound to an organization by side-bets or sunk costs. The scale has demonstrated acceptable reliability (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter et al., 1974).

Continuance commitment is measured by the eight-item Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1984). Almost conceptually identical to the Hrebiniak and Alutto OC scale, the CCS not only measures the bond between person and organization based on individual need, but also the perceived ease of movement from one firm to another (Morrow, 1993). Previous research has demonstrated that the CCS possesses acceptable reliability and reasonable discriminant and convergent

validity (Ko et al., 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990b; McGee & Ford, 1987).

Antecedents. The demographic variables that are associated with calculative OC include age (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), sex (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and education (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Allen & Meyer, 1990b). Employees that are older, less educated, and female tend to be more committed based on side-bets than other individuals.

Other individual characteristics have been used to predict organizational commitment. Job involvement is positively related to continuance OC (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998). Similar relationships exist between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986).

Various organizational factors have been associated with calculative/continuance commitment. According to Mayer & Schoorman (1998) and Mathieu & Zajac (1990), a positive relationship between tenure and OC exists.

Role states have also been proposed as antecedents to OC, and negative relationships have been found between OC and *role ambiguity* (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998). In the ethics literature, ethical fit, a comparison of preferred and actual ethical climates, has been found to negatively

influence continuance OC (Sims & Kroeck, 1994). Table 2.5 provides a summary of the antecedents of calculative and continuance commitments.

Consequences. The most predictable withdrawal behavior associated with OC is turnover, and previous research highlights a negative association both empirically and conceptually (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Cohen, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Intentions to leave are also negatively associated with calculative OC (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A summary of the consequences of calculative and continuance commitments is provided in Table 2.6.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction (JS) is one of the most heavily discussed and extensively researched areas in the field of organizational behavior. The construct can be found in literally thousands of articles throughout the management and marketing literatures. However, job satisfaction receives little attention in the ethical decision-making literature (Ford & Richardson, 1994).

According to Locke (1976, p. 1300), job satisfaction is "the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experience." Job

TABLE 2.5
Antecedents of Calculative and Continuance* Commitments

VARIABLE		
Study	Sample	Major Findings
AGE		
Mayer & Schoorman (1998)	Employees of a large financial org. (N = 146)	Age and OC* are positively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Age and OC are positively related
SEX		
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Females are more committed than males
EDUCATION		
Mayer & Schoorman (1998)	Employees of a large financial org. (N = 146)	Education and OC* are negatively associated
Allen & Meyer (1990b)	Undergraduate & graduate business students (N = 132)	Education and OC* are negatively associated
TENURE		
Mayer & Schoorman (1998)	Employees of a large financial org. (N = 146)	Tenure and OC* are positively associated
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Tenure and OC are positively related

TABLE 2.5 (continued)**ROLE AMBIGUITY**

Mayer & Schoorman (1998)	Employees of a large financial org. (N = 146)	Role ambiguity and OC* are negatively associated
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JOB INVOLVEMENT

Mayer & Schoorman (1998)	Employees of a large financial org. (N = 146)	Job involvement and OC* are positively associated
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JOB SATISFACTION

Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	Salespeople (N = 120)	JS and OC are positively associated
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ETHICAL FIT

Sims & Kroeck (1994)	Hospital employees (N = 66)	Ethical fit and OC* are positively associated
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* Indicates continuance OC.

TABLE 2.6
Consequences of Calculative and Continuance* Commitments

VARIABLE		
Study	Sample	Major Findings
TURNOVER		
Mayer & Schoorman (1998)	Employees of a large financial org. (N = 146)	Turnover and OC* are negatively associated
Cohen (1993)	Meta-analysis	Turnover and OC are negatively related
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Turnover and OC are negatively related
INTENTION TO LEAVE		
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Meta-analysis	Intention to leave and OC are negatively related
* Indicates continuance OC.		

satisfaction is sometimes treated as a unidimensional job attitude, however, the construct has been compartmentalized into several dimensions which include satisfaction with pay, the work itself, promotion opportunities, supervision, and coworkers (Deshapande, 1996; Moorman, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In other words, an employee can and will have varying attitudes regarding the different facets of his or her current employment situation.

Definitions of Job Satisfaction

At least two major types of job satisfaction have been identified— affective and cognitive (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Moorman, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Affective satisfaction is based on a positive emotional appraisal of the current job situation. In general, affective JS focuses on the degree to which jobs evoke positive feelings, emotional states, and moods (Moorman, 1993). Cognitive JS is based on an employee's rational evaluation of his or her current work situation.

Measurement

Job satisfaction is measured in a variety of ways. In general, "job satisfaction measures will differ in the extent to which they tap more of an affective satisfaction

or a cognitive satisfaction" (Moorman, 1993, p. 761). The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) and measures cognitive aspects of job satisfaction (Brief & Roberson, 1987). The MSQ demonstrates strong psychometric qualities, is used to measure both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, and correlates well with other measures of job satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 1996; Moorman, 1993; Price & Mueller, 1986). The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was developed by Smith, Kendall, & Hulin (1969) and demonstrates strong cognitive elements as well as slight affective qualities (Moorman, 1993). The JDI measures five specific areas of job satisfaction including satisfaction with supervision, the opportunity for promotion, coworkers, pay, and the work itself (Brown et al., 1993). Due to its high validity and ongoing acceptance among scholars, many variations of the scale have been used throughout the management and marketing literatures (Pettit, Goris, & Vaught, 1997).

A number of affective job satisfaction scales have been developed over the last several decades. The Faces Scale developed by Kunin (1955) and the Female Faces Scale developed by Dunham & Herman (1975) contain elements that detect an individual's feelings toward his or her job, and

these qualities are measured by having respondents select from a group of faces that represent different levels of job satisfaction. Both Faces scales demonstrate moderate discrimination among the several areas of job satisfaction and good convergence with other graphic methods (Dunham & Herman, 1975). In fact, the Faces Scale demonstrates adequate convergent and discriminant validity when compared to elements of the Job Descriptive Index (Dunham & Herman, 1975). Brayfield and Rothe (1951) developed an affective-oriented job satisfaction scale that utilizes 18 questions that identify happiness toward, enjoyment of, and pleasantness of one's current job. Most of the questions found in the Brayfield-Rothe scale center on emotional reactions to work rather than on specific appraisals of the work itself. Nearly 22% of the variance in the Brayfield-Rothe scale is explained by affective measures compared to the 16% that is explained by cognitive items (Dunham & Herman, 1975). Elements of the scale correlate well with measures taken from the Job Descriptive Index, and the instrument displays acceptable reliability (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998).

Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

As shown in Table 2.7, specific demographic variables share relationships with job satisfaction including sex, age, and education (Lum et al., 1998; Smith, Smits, & Hoy, 1998; Fields & Blum, 1997; Burke & McKeen, 1996; Judge & Hulin, 1993; Morrow & McElroy, 1987). In general, older workers, females, and highly educated individuals tend to be more satisfied with their current jobs more than other employed groups. Specific dispositions and individual mood states are also related to personal job satisfaction including an individual's perceptions of well being (Judge & Hulin, 1993), positive and negative affectivity (Watson & Slack, 1993), Type A personal tendencies (Jamal, 1990), locus of control (Behrman & Perreault, 1984), self-esteem (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Gardner & Pierce, 1998), and self-efficacy (Judge et al., 1998; Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

Several personal factors related to work are associated with job satisfaction. Both experience (Lum et al., 1998) and tenure (Smith et al., 1998; Fields & Blum, 1997; Lynn, Cao, & Horn, 1996; Tang, & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996; Morrow & McElroy, 1987) are related to job satisfaction, and the associations are found to be

TABLE 2.7
Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

VARIABLE		
Study	Sample	Major Findings
SEX		
Fields & Blum (1997)	U.S. workers (N = 1634)	Women are more satisfied with their jobs than men
AGE		
Smith, Smits, & Hoy (1998)	Small business employees (N = 702)	Age and JS are positively related
Burke & McKeen (1996)	Alumni of Canadian university (N = 792)	Age and JS are negatively related
Morrow & McElroy (1987)	Department of Transportation employees (N = 2200)	Age and JS are positively associated
DISPOSITIONS		
Gardner & Pierce (1998)	Employees of utility company (N = 186)	Self-esteem/self-efficacy are positively related
Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger (1998)	1300 doctors, 1086 recent college grads, 200 Israelis	Self-esteem/self-efficacy are positively related
Judge & Hulin (1993)	Employees of a clinic/HMO (N = 255)	Well-being and JS are positively related

TABLE 2.7 (continued)

Watson & Slack (1993)	82 Full-time university employees	Pos./Neg. affectivity is pos./neg. related to JS
Jamal (1990)	Hospital employees (N = 215)	Type A tendencies and JS are negatively related
Behrman & Perreault (1984)	Industrial salespeople (N = 196)	Internal LOC and JS are positively related

EDUCATION

Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola (1998)	Hospital nurses (N = 466)	Education and JS are positively related
Fields & Blum (1997)	U.S. workers (N = 1634)	Education and JS are negatively related
Judge & Hulin (1993)	Employees of a clinic/HMO (N = 255)	Education and JS are positively related

TENURE

Smith, Smits, & Hoy (1998)	Small business employees (N = 702)	Tenure and JS are negatively related
Fields & Blum (1997)	U.S. workers (N = 1634)	Tenure and JS are negatively related
Lynn, Cao, & Horn (1996)	Accounting professionals (N = 718)	Tenure and JS are positively related
Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996)	VA Medical Center employees (N = 200)	Tenure and JS are positively associated

TABLE 2.7 (continued)

Morrow & McElroy (1987)	Department of Transportation employees (N = 2200)	Tenure and JS are positively associated
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EXPERIENCE

Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola (1998)	Hospital nurses (N = 466)	Experience and JS are positively related
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JOB PERFORMANCE & BEHAVIOR

Pettit, Goris, & Vaught (1997)	Two large U.S. firms	JP and JS are positively related
Brown & Peterson (1994)	Salespeople (N = 380)	JP and JS are positively related
Brown, Cron, & Leigh (1993)	Salespeople (N = 466)	JP and JS are positively related
Mathieu, Hofmann, & Farr (1993)	Engineers (N = 450 males)	JP and JS are positively related
Vitell & Davis (1990)	114 MIS professionals	Unethical behavior and JS are negatively related
Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	Salespeople (N = 120)	JP and JS are positively related

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Vandenberg & Lance (1992)	455 MIS professionals	OC and JS are positively associated
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TRUST/SUPPORT

Viswesvaran, Deshpande, & Joseph (1998)	77 Indian managers	Support for ethical behavior and JS are positively related
Rich (1997)	Salespeople (N = 466)	Trust and JS are positively related

TABLE 2.7 (continued)

Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth (1997)	69 labor company employees & 185 undergraduates	Org. support and JS are positively associated
Viswesvaran & Deshpande (1996)	150 Indian Managers	Perceptions that managers are ethical and JS are positively related

REWARDS

Fields & Blum (1997)	U.S. workers (N = 1634)	Salary and JS are positively related
Challagalla & Shervani (1996)	Salespeople (N = 270)	Rewards and JS are positively related
Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996)	White-collar employees (N = 1535)	Indifference to rewards and JS are positively related
Judge & Hulin (1993)	Employees of a clinic/HMO (N = 255)	Current pay and JS are positively related

PUNISHMENTS

Challagalla & Shervani (1996)	Salespeople (N = 270)	Punishments and JS are positively related
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ROLE AMBIGUITY

Good, Page, & Young (1996)	Retail managers (N = 383)	Role ambiguity and JS are negatively related
Jamal (1990)	215 Nurses	Role ambiguity and JS are negatively related

TABLE 2.7 (continued)

Behrman & Perreault (1984)	Industrial salespeople (N = 196)	Role ambiguity and JS are negatively related
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ROLE CONFLICT

Good, Page, & Young (1996)	Department store employs. (N = 383)	Role conflict and JS are negatively related
Jamal (1990)	215 Nurses	Role ambiguity and JS are negatively related

Behrman & Perreault (1984)	Industrial salespeople (N = 196)	Role ambiguity and JS are negatively related
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JOB STRESS

Jamal (1990)	215 Nurses	Job stress and JS are negatively related
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CLIMATE/ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth (1997)	Manufacturing company employees (N = 69)	Org. politics and JS are negatively associated
Deshpande (1996)	Middle level managers of charitable org (N = 252)	Ethical climates: professional/caring climates and JS are positively related; instrumental climate and JS are negatively related

TABLE 2.7 (continued)

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996)	White-collar employees (<i>N</i> = 1539)	Organizational inflexibility/group cohesiveness and JS are positively related
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positive in nature. In similar models, an individual's education affects various job satisfaction levels (Lum et al., 1998; Fields & Blum, 1997; Judge & Hulin, 1993). Individual performance (Pettit et al., 1997; Brown & Peterson, 1994; Brown et al., 1993; Mathieu, Hofmann, & Farr, 1993; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986) and organizational commitment (Vandenberg & Lance, 1992) are also positively related to job satisfaction. In the ethics literature, research efforts have shown that *unethical behavior* and individual job satisfaction are negatively associated (Vitell & Davis, 1990).

The association between job satisfaction and job performance has generated more controversy than any of the relationships already mentioned (Petty et al., 1984; Motowidlo, 1984; Behrman & Perreault, 1984; Vroom, 1964). Most of the controversy has existed regarding the direction of the relationship, while peripheral arguments have developed regarding whether or not the association really exists (Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986).

Some previous research suggests there is a consistent relationship between job satisfaction and performance, but what relationship exists is still subject to heated discussion (Moorman, 1993; Petty et al., 1984; Fisher, 1980; Lawler & Porter, 1967; Vroom, 1964; Brayfield &

Crockett, 1955). Assuming that there is a relationship, one faction argues that satisfaction causes performance while another group claims the reverse (Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986). Still another collection of scholars believe that the low correlations found in job satisfaction/performance literature logically leads one to believe that moderating factors such as group dynamics, self-esteem, and the degree of job fit may affect the relationship (Petty et al., 1984). And finally, some researchers believe that low correlations and frequently reported insignificant levels imply little or no association between the two constructs (Fisher, 1980). In a meta-analysis of this proposed relationship, Petty et al. (1984) found an average correlation of .31 between JS and individual performance. In a review that included subjective and/or unidimensional performance criteria, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) found a stronger correlation between JS and performance.

Many organizational factors share strong relationships with job satisfaction, and these factors include characteristics of the job as well as organizational qualities. For instance, role states such as *ambiguity*, *conflict*, and *stress* tend to decrease JS in the same fashion they decrease employee commitment (Good et al., 1996; Jamal, 1990; Behrman & Perreault, 1984). Both *trust*

and support tend to increase job satisfaction. Viswesvaran et al. (1998) and Viswesvaran and Deshpande (1996) found that support for ethical behavior and perceptions that managers are ethical both improved job satisfaction. Similarly, Rich (1997) found that trust increased JS, while Cropanzano et al. (1997) concluded that organizational support and individual job satisfaction are positively associated. Furthermore, both *rewards* and *punishments* affect job satisfaction in an opposing manner. Rewards positively influence job satisfaction (Fields & Blum, 1997; Challagalla & Shervani, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Judge & Hulin, 1993), while punishments tend to decrease job satisfaction levels (Challagalla & Shervani, 1996).

Several other organizational characteristics are linked to job satisfaction. *Ethical climate* has been linked to different facets of job satisfaction (Deshpande, 1996). *Organizational politics* (Cropanzano et al., 1997) tends to decrease job satisfaction, while an *instrumental climate* negatively influences global satisfaction, satisfaction with promotions, coworkers, and supervisors (Deshpande, 1996). Conversely, *organizational inflexibility* (Podsakoff et al., 1996) and *group cohesiveness* (Podsakoff et al., 1996) tend to increase job

satisfaction, while professional and caring work climates increases satisfaction with supervisors, promotions, and the work itself (Deshpande, 1996).

Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is examined quite extensively in the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) literature (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, Ahearne, 1998; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Moorman, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). According to Organ and Ryan (1995, p. 775), OCBs represent "individual contributions in the workplace that go beyond role requirements and contractually rewarded job achievements." Examples of these behaviors include volunteering for extra/difficult assignments, helping others, preventing others from being harmed, and supporting organizational policies and procedures regardless of their personal inconvenience (MacKenzie et al., 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Recognized as an integral component of an effective, prosperous organization, organizational citizenship behaviors represent a significant portion of individual employee contributions that further organizational goals rather than personal ones (Moorman, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989, Motowidlo, 1984).

Since job satisfaction contains both affective and cognitive elements, much attention is dedicated to identifying which of the two dimensions explains the most OCB variance in behavioral models. Many researchers conclude that, since many of the job satisfaction measures utilize items that tap cognitive elements, OCB is influenced more by cognitive JS than affective JS (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). However, other scholars adopt an affective orientation and note that affective mood states are already associated with other helping behaviors throughout the OB literature. Previous work generally underscores a positive relationship between cognitive job satisfaction and OCB (Kidwell, Mossholder, & Bennett, 1997; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Moorman, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Most studies have highlighted associations between certain components of OCB (such as altruism) and JS (Kidwell et al., 1997; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Moorman, 1993; Smith et al., 1983).

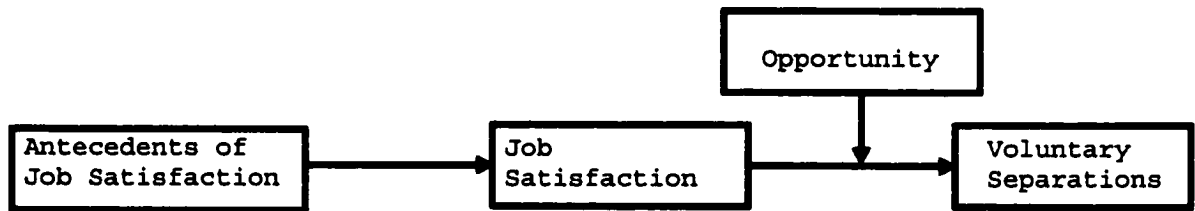
Employee intentions to leave and worker turnover remain some of the more studied topics in organizational behavior literature, encompassing over 1,000 published articles in the last century (Bluedorn, 1982; Price, 1977). Earlier studies highlighted the control and prediction of

turnover, while current studies aim at developing comprehensive theories that afford predictive capabilities (Hom, Caranikas-Walker, & Prussia, 1992).

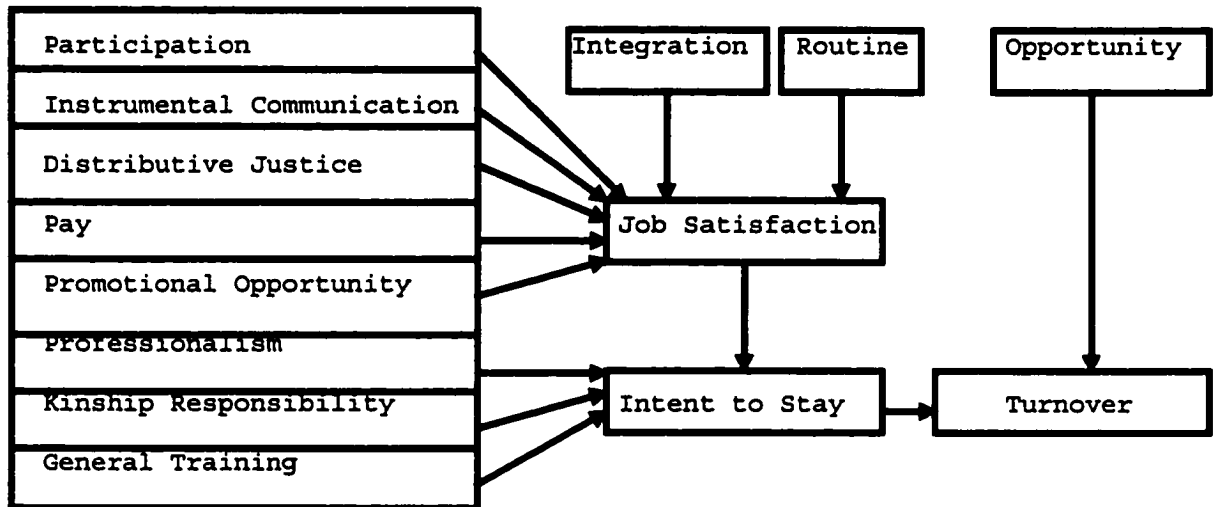
Several turnover models were developed during the 1970s and 1980s, and some of the key models are presented in Figure 2.8. Much of the current research in turnover has focused on establishing the antecedents of withdrawal behaviors, and job satisfaction is identified as a key antecedent. In general, empirical efforts highlight job satisfaction as a chief determinant of absenteeism (Lee, 1989; Frechette, 1981; Terborg, Lee, Smith, Davis, & Turbin, 1980). A strong statistical association has also been found between job satisfaction and intentions to quit/turnover (Lum et al., 1998; Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Spector & Jex, 1991; Futrell & Parasuraman, 1984).

A fair amount of empirical attention is given to the various associations between job satisfaction and individual behavioral patterns. Motowidlo (1984) found a positive relationship between cognitive JS and consideration. Similarly, Mangione and Quinn (1975) and Hingson, Mangione, and Barrett (1981) concluded that *counterproductive behavior* (causing trouble, stealing, or damaging equipment at work) and *alcohol/drug use at work*

Price's (1977) Turnover Model



Price & Mueller's (1981) Model of Turnover



Bluehorn's (1982) Unified Turnover Model

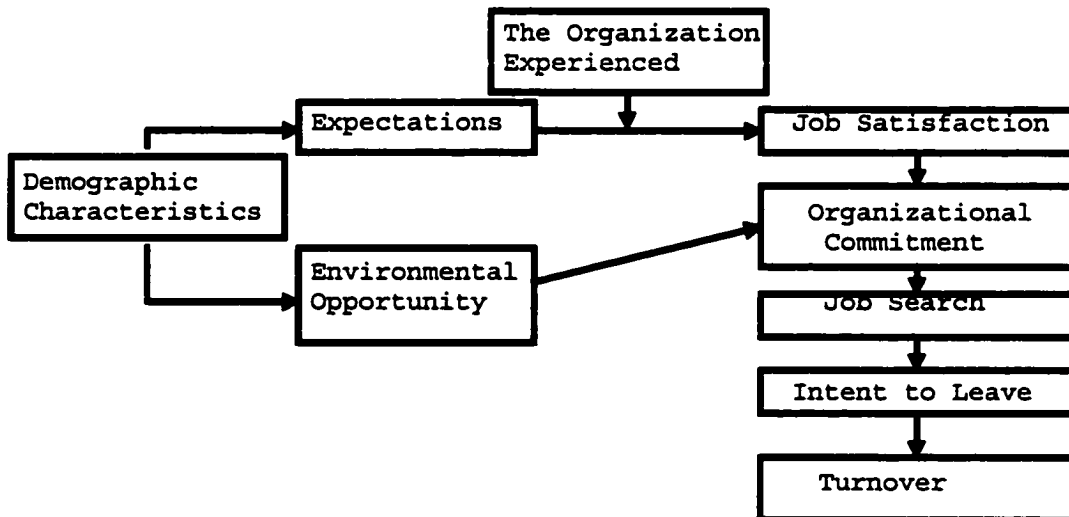


FIGURE 2.8
Early Turnover Models Incorporating Job Attitudes

was negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Highly satisfied employees tend to blow the whistle on unethical acts. A summary of the consequences of job satisfaction is found in Table 2.8.

Moral Intensity

Until recently, the business ethics literature has centered on the interplay between individual and situational variables. Absent from the ethics models was an issue-contingent perspective that takes into account the characteristics of the decision to be made. Jones (1991) introduced a comprehensive model that incorporates an issue-contingent approach to ethical decision making based on a concept called moral intensity. The moral intensity of an ethical situation is affected by perceptions of, evaluations of, and responses to the actual decision to be made (Davis, Johnson, & Ohmer, 1998; Jones, 1991).

Moral intensity is a multidimensional construct comprised of issue descriptions including magnitude of consequences, social consensus, probability of effect, temporal immediacy, proximity, and concentration of effect (Davis et al., 1998; Singer & Singer, 1997; Singer, 1996;

TABLE 2.8
Consequences of Job Satisfaction

VARIABLE		
Study	Sample	Major Findings
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR		
MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne (1998)	Insurance sales agents (N = 672)	JS and extra-role behavior is positively related
Kidwell, Mossholder, & Bennett (1997)	Service employees (N = 260)	JS and OCB are negatively related
Konovsky & Organ (1996)	Hospital employees (N = 402)	JS and OCB are negatively related
Organ & Ryan (1995)	Meta-analysis	JS and OCB are negatively related
Moorman (1993)	Employees of two paint companies (N = 270)	JS and OCB are negatively related
Williams & Anderson (1991)	MBA students (N = 461)	JS and OCB are negatively related
Organ & Konovsky (1989)	Hospital employees (N = 542)	JS and OCB are negatively related
TURNOVER/TURNOVER INTENTIONS		
Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola (1998)	Hospital nurses (N = 466)	JS and turnover are positively related
Griffeth & Hom (1995)	Meta-analysis	JS and turnover are negatively related
Tett & Meyer (1993)	Meta-analysis	JS and turnover are negatively related

TABLE 2.8 (continued)

Spector & Jex (1991)	Civil service employees (state) (N = 232)	JS and turnover intentions are negatively related
Futrell & Parasuraman (1984)	Salesperson/ sales manager pairs of a pharmaceutical company (N = 263)	JS and turnover are negatively related

ABSENTEEISM

Lee (1989)	Employees of a large financial institution	JS and absenteeism are negatively related
Frechette (1981)	Manufacturing employees	JS and absenteeism are negatively related
Terborg, Lee, Smith, Davis, & Turbin (1980)	Retail employees (N = 150)	JS and absenteeism are negatively related

JOB PERFORMANCE

Russ & McNeilly (1995)	Sales reps & Supervisors	JS and JP are negatively related
Mathieu, Hofmann, & Farr (1993)	Engineers (450 males)	JS and JP are positively related

PRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOR

Motowidlo (1984)	Utility Company management trainees (N = 156)	JS and consideration are positively related
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TABLE 2.8 (continued)

Miceli, Near, & Schwenk (1991)	653 Dir. of Int. auditing	JS and whistleblowing are positively related
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**COUNTERPRODUCTIVE
BEHAVIOR**

Mangione & Quinn (1975)	National household survey (<i>N</i> = 1377)	JS and drug use/ counterproductive behavior are negatively related
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Hingson, Mangione, & Barrett (1981)	Employees in Boston area	JS and alcohol/drug use are negatively related
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Jones, 1991). The various dimensions of moral intensity are defined as follows (Jones, 1991, p. 374-377):

1. Magnitude of consequences: the sum of the harms (or benefits) done to victims (or beneficiaries) of the moral act in question.
2. Social consensus: the degree of social agreement that a proposed act is evil (or good).
3. Probability of effect: is a joint function of the probability that the act in question will actually take place and the act in question will actually cause the harm (or benefit) predicted.
4. Temporal immediacy: The length of time between the present and the onset of consequences of the moral act in question (shorter length of time implies greater immediacy).
5. Proximity: The feeling of nearness (social, cultural, psychological, or physical) that the moral agent has for victims (beneficiaries) of the evil (beneficial) act in question.
6. Concentration of effect: An inverse function of the number of people affected by an act of a given magnitude.

No more than a dozen or so relevant articles have been published since Jones (1991) introduced the moral intensity

concept. With regard to ethical judgments, Singer (1996) found that social consensus and magnitude of consequence affected individual moral reasoning. Similarly, Singer and Singer (1997) found that ethical judgments were predicted by the magnitude of consequences and social consensus. Davis, Johnson, and Ohmer (1998) also concluded that social consensus predicts moral judgments. Morris and McDonald (1995) found that social consensus and perceived magnitude of consequences significantly influence moral judgments. With regard to ethical behavior, Singer et al. (1998) concluded that several of the moral intensity dimensions including magnitude of the consequences, likelihood of the consequence, and empathy are associated with the likelihood to whistle-blow. Using a newly developed moral intensity scale, Singhapakdi, Vitell, & Kraft (1996) found that perceived harm to a victim and perceived social pressure were positively related to perceptions of ethical problems and negatively related to intentions to act unethically. More recently, Singhapakdi, Vitell, and Franke (1999) found that perceived moral intensity was related to perceptions of ethical problems.

Ethical Context

Corporate Ethical Values

The topic of corporate values has received a great deal of attention over the last several decades (Connor & Becker, 1975). Corporate values represent a major dimension of corporate culture, which clearly defines the standards of behavior and role expectations for organizational members (Hunt et al., 1989; Badovick & Beatty, 1987). According to Badovick, & Beatty (1987, p. 20):

Members of organizations hold values relating to desirable roles of conduct and desirable states of existence for the organization also. These organizational values, if commonly held, are referred to as shared organizational values. Over time, these shared values often become institutionalized and reflect what is important to the members of the organization.

Organizational value research has focused on several key areas. First, a substantive amount of effort has been dedicated to value congruence among individuals and organizations and the interaction between individual and corporate values on behavior (Posner & Schmidt, 1993; Liedtka, 1989). According to Liedtka's (1989) values congruence model, fit is posited to affect individual decision making and job attitudes. Indeed, Posner &

Schmidt (1993) found that those managers who experience better value fit with their organizations exhibited higher levels of commitment and success compared to those that experienced less value fit. Similarly, Akaah & Lund (1994) found that the interaction between personal and organizational values explained more variance among the ethical behavior of marketing research professionals when compared to their individual associations.

Hunt et al. (1989) developed a scale to measure corporate ethical values. The unique and highly applicable characteristics of this scale include its ability to assess the degree to which firms support ethical acts. The scale also captures the association between "reward systems", which have been found to directly shape employee behavior through motivation, and corporate ethical values (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992; Hunt et al., 1989).

Other Conceptualizations of Ethical Values

More and more emphasis is now being placed on the normative influences organizations have over their employees, as well as how individuals in an aggregate fashion influence the contextual factors around them in their jobs (Akaah & Lund, 1994; Cullen et al., 1989; Victor

& Cullen, 1988). According to Reidenbach & Robin (1991, p. 273) :

The development of a corporation is determined by the organization's culture and, in reciprocal fashion, helps define that culture. In essence, it is the organization's culture that undergoes moral development.

The idea of ethical reciprocity has permeated the organizational behavior literature in areas such as organizational socialization (Jones, 1986), organizational culture/climate (Denison, 1996; Cullen et al., 1989; Victor & Cullen, 1988), and organizational values (Hunt et al., 1989; Liedtka, 1989). Indeed, the theoretical links among organizational climates/cultures and individual ethical decision making are being articulated with some frequency in the literature.

In particular, the relationship between work climate and ethical decision making has received a great deal of attention. Work climates are defined as the commonly agreed sets of perceptions that define the practices and procedures of an organization (Victor & Cullen, 1988). The ethical component of work climate drives the content of moral decisions as well as the process of decision-making (Cullen et al., 1989). An ethical climate is derived from the composite individual ethical values of the members of the firm (organizational values). Furthermore, the

environment in which a firm operates, the organization's form or structure, and the company's history determine ethical climate.

Several different types of ethical work climates exist. Using theories of ethical behavior, Victor & Cullen (1988) developed a matrix that describes nine different ethical work climates based on two dimensions—ethical criterion and locus of analysis (see Figure 2.9). The ethical criterion dimension is comprised of self-interest, benevolence, and principle (deontology), while the locus of analysis dimension includes individual, local, and cosmopolitan levels of analysis. The ethical climate questionnaire has demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Empirical results using the ethical climate measures demonstrate that ethical climate and ethical decision making are highly associated (Deshpande, 1996; Victor et al., 1988; Akaah & Riordan, 1989; Victor & Cullen, 1988).

Recently, Trevino et al. (1998) assessed the theoretical similarities and differences between ethical climate and culture. Climate is used to describe broad normative characteristics that tell individuals something about what the employment experience is like, as well as what the company desires from its employees.

	Individual	Local	Cosmopolitan
Egoism	Self-Interest	Company Profit	Efficiency
Benevolence	Friendship	Team Interest	Social Responsibility
Principle	Personal Morality	Company Rules and Procedures	Laws and Professional Codes

FIGURE 2.9
Victor & Cullen - Ethical Climate Types

Conversely, culture refers to broad notions of rules, norms, rewards, and practices that guide and shape behavior. Empirical results suggest that the constructs tap slightly different elements of organizational values (Trevino et al., 1998).

Chapter Summary

Chapter 2 presents a review of the constructs relevant to this study, including ethical decision-making, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, moral intensity, and corporate ethical values manifested in ethical culture. The first section discussed key ethical decision-making constructs, models, and research. The second section was dedicated to a review of the organizational commitment research. The third section reviewed job satisfaction. The final section discussed the current developments in the business ethics literature and included a presentation of moral intensity, corporate ethical values, and ethical climate.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research hypotheses and the research design used in this dissertation. The research framework shown in Figure 3.1 highlights the hypothesized relationships in the study.

The first section of Chapter 3 introduces the research hypotheses along with their theoretical justification. A discussion of the operationalization of key constructs used in this dissertation is then provided as well as information about the questionnaire used to collect data. Finally, the research design of this study is discussed.

Research Hypotheses

The following sections describe the hypothesized relationships among the dependent and independent variables included in this dissertation. A description of the theoretical basis for these relationships is also provided.

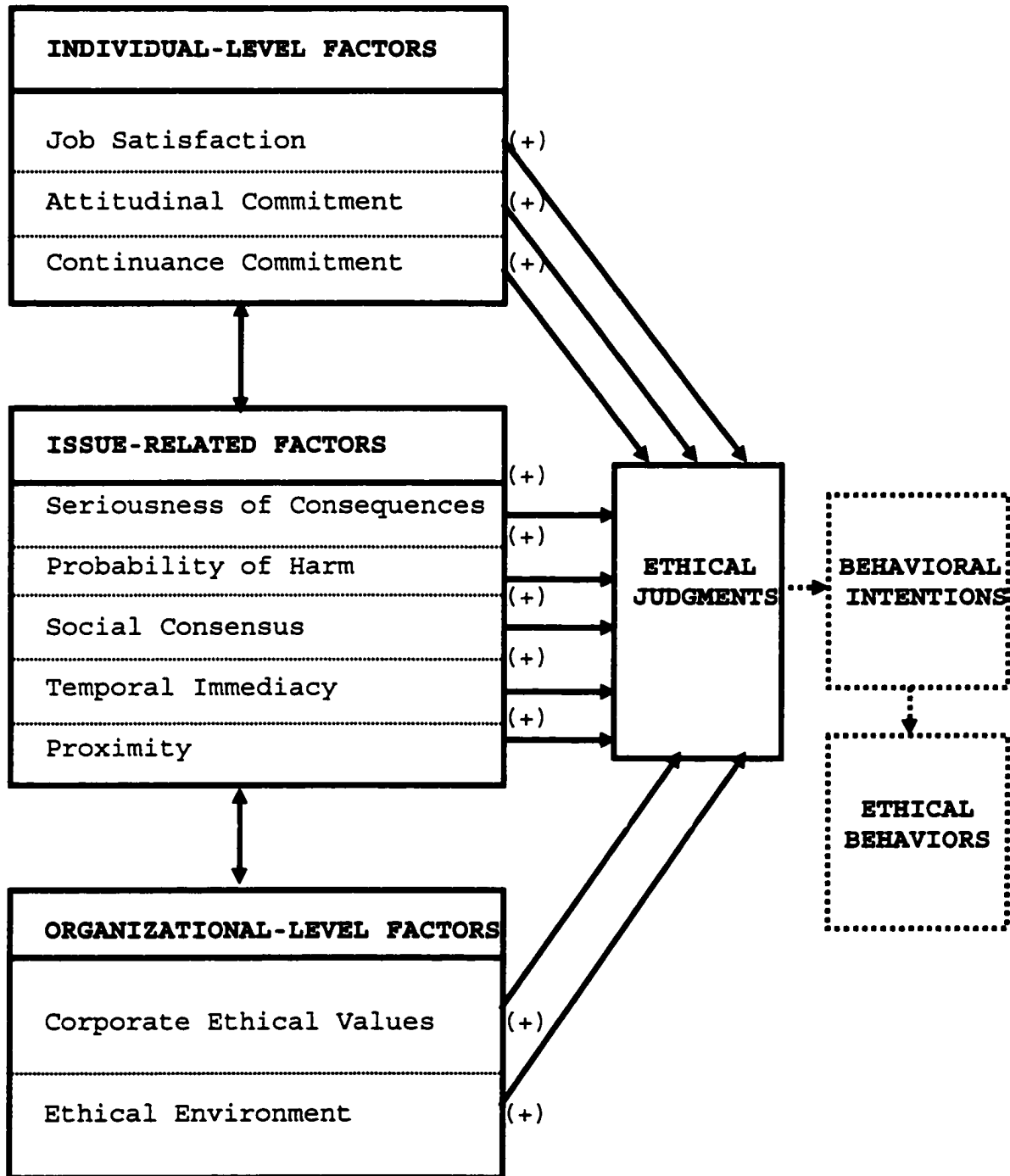


FIGURE 3.1
Study Framework

Job Attitudes and Ethical Judgments

Individual job attitudes are associated with many job-related behaviors such as organizational citizenship, turnover, absenteeism, counterproductive actions, job involvement, and performance (Lum et al., 1998; Kidwell et al., 1997; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Russ & McNeilly, 1995; Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Bluedorn, 1982; Hingson et al., 1981; Price, 1977; Mobley, 1977). As stated in Chapter 1, attitudinal research is guided by the theoretical prescriptions found in the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to this theory, attitudes toward a behavior and/or subjective norms regarding behavior lead to behavioral intentions that are strongly predictive of behavior (Vallerand, Deshaies, Cuerrier, Pelletier, & Mongeau, 1992; Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Attitudes toward behavior specify whether or not individuals believe certain actions are desirable, while subjective norms specify how individuals believe others feel about the appropriateness of specific actions.

Both organizational commitment and job satisfaction are widely studied job attitudes (Allen & Meyer, 1990a).

However, associations between these job attitudes and ethical judgments have not been empirically demonstrated.

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment is associated with factors that closely relate to ethical decision making such as reactions to perceived unfairness, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors such as altruism (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Evidence also suggests that whistleblowers tend to be highly committed to their organizations and act in an effort to either better the organization or to prevent further harm (Miceli et al., 1991; Powell, 1990; Westin, 1981). Furthermore, Sims and Kroeck (1994) found a negative association between affective commitment and ethical behavior that was labeled as self-serving.

This dissertation will examine two types of organizational commitment: attitudinal and continuance. These two definitions of OC will be used because they are caused by different work-related situations, both of which should share relationships with ethical judgments. Differences have also been noted in the literature between attitudinal and continuance commitments, with attitudinal OC having a positive influence on performance and

continuance OC having a negative influence on performance (Sims & Kroeck, 1994).

Theoretical arguments have been made regarding the importance of organizational commitment in developing organizational values (Sims, 1991). Attitudinal commitment is significantly related to concern for other workers (Steers, 1977) and participation in decision making (Rhodes & Steers, 1981), which both could affect ethical judgments. Furthermore, job commitment, a variation of OC, is found to reduce the likelihood that people will lie to senders of role expectations (supervisors) (Grover & Hui, 1994). Therefore, a positive association between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments is expected.

By definition, attitudinal commitment is partly determined by the degree to which an individual strongly believes in and accepts an organization's goals and values. Also, highly committed people are quite willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and exhibit a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Individuals with high attitudinal commitment are likely to invest a great deal of effort to ensure that their employers prosper, and they usually receive incentives that reinforce these

loyalties. Therefore, it is likely that corporate ethical values will moderate the relationship between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments. As ethical values increase, they will strengthen the relationship between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments. As they decrease, they will weaken the relationship between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments.

H1a: Attitudinal organizational commitment will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H1b: The relationship between attitudinal commitment and judgments that the issue presented is unethical will be moderated by the ethical context of the organization.

With regard to continuance commitment, Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) state:

One might expect a strong correlation between continuance commitment to the occupation and to the organization in cases in which (a) continued employment in an organization requires continued involvement in the occupation, or (b) there are relatively few organizations that employ members of a particular occupation.

Gini (1998) states that materialistic tendencies, debt and dependency, and a "work-and-spend" philosophy perpetuate this necessity of work. Such commitment to consumerism can also cause a breakdown in spiritual and moral fiber.

Since ethical behavior is encouraged and rewarded in many organizations today and contributes to longevity in an occupation, one would expect a positive relationship between continuance OC and ethical judgments. However, this relationship would also tend to be influenced by the corporate ethical values held by the members of the organization. This principle coincides with self-interest theory that posits that individuals will conduct themselves in a manner that benefits them over time (Grover & Hui, 1994; Etzioni, 1988).

Self-interest theories have been criticized based on their lack of reference to values developed through group consensus outside of the organization itself (Grover & Hui, 1994; Etzioni, 1988). Often, organizational values differ from the personal values an individual uses to guide decision making (Gini, 1998). All too frequently, there is a difference between what is proper in the corporation and what is proper in an individual's home or church, and individuals typically do what is necessary to succeed in their jobs and support the status quo (Gini, 1998). Lincoln, Pressley, and Little (1982, p. 475) suggest that:

unethical executive behavior has a multistage socialization effect. First, executive personnel values and ethical beliefs tend to effect the ethics of existing and emerging executives. Second, these same values and beliefs have an

effect on the organization's consuming publics. Third, other employees of the organization are affected.

Therefore, the proposed association between continuance OC and ethical judgments seems quite appropriate. If corporate values are corrupt, then an individual with high continuance commitment would tend to make unethical judgments to remain employed in a particular organization. Conversely, if corporate ethical values support high ethical standards, then a committed individual would be expected to make highly ethical judgments at work to ensure continued employment.

H2a: Continuance commitment will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H2b: The relationship between continuance commitment and judgments that the issue presented is unethical will be moderated by the ethical context of the organization.

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction is related to prosocial behavior, which are actions that benefit or assist the individuals, groups, or organizations with which people frequently interact (Sims & Keenan, 1998; Lee, 1995). Generally speaking, individuals who are satisfied with their current work situation are more likely to engage in various types of prosocial behavior (Motowidlo, 1984). Similarly, ethical and unethical behaviors can either help

(e.g. increased performance, enhanced reputation, and in some cases whistleblowing behavior) or hinder (e.g. suspicion from customers, loss of revenue, and loss of merchandise) an organization's performance (Sims & Keenan, 1998; Duizend & McCann, 1998; Victor, Trevino, & Shapiro, 1993).

Job satisfaction, like organizational commitment, influences organizational citizenship behaviors (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Such altruistic actions are associated with mitigating interpersonal conflicts, peacekeeping, cheerleading efforts that recognize and compliment employees' contributions, and assisting others in professional development when reciprocity is not expected. Altruism, sportsmanship (being a good sport about work conditions), and civic virtue are instrumental in the effective functioning of an organization (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Moorman, 1993; Organ, 1988).

Job satisfaction is also negatively associated with behaviors that arguably embody ethical elements. Some of these behaviors such as theft, counterproductive behavior (spreading rumors, doing badly at work, stealing from an employer, damaging employer's equipment), and drug use at work (Greenberg, 1990; Motowidlo, 1984; Hingson et al.,

1981; Mangione & Quinn, 1975) have been used to develop ethical behavior scales in previous empirical work. Therefore, it is likely that job satisfaction influences the ethical judgments that, in turn, precipitate unethical acts.

Furthermore, job satisfaction is influenced by several situational factors, such as support for ethical behavior, perceptions that one's managers are ethical, trust, and organizational support (Viswesvaran et al., 1998; Rich, 1997; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Viswesvaran & Deshpande, 1996). Therefore, it is likely that job satisfaction would, in turn, encourage more ethical appraisals and decisions at work.

Based on the previous discussion of related theoretical and empirical efforts, support for a relationship between job satisfaction and ethical judgments is apparent.

H3a: Job satisfaction will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H3b: The relationship between job satisfaction and judgments that the issue presented is unethical will be moderated by the ethical context of the organization.

Moral Intensity and Ethical Judgments

Moral intensity is "a construct that captures the extent or degree of issue-related moral imperative in a situation" (Jones, 1991, p. 372). Moral intensity is based on the premise that ethical decisions are contingent, in part, upon characteristics of the moral issue that are separate from individual or situational factors. The link between moral intensity and ethical decision making is based on the theory of proportionality. Proportionality relates to the "type of goodness or evil involved in a decision-making task, the urgency of the situation, the certainty of probability of effects, the extent of a moral agent's influence on events, and the availability of alternate means" (Jones, 1991, p. 373). Practical applications of legal theory also support such a conceptual link insomuch that courtroom sentencing is frequently affected by the characteristics of the decision made (Jones, 1991).

Jones (1991) identifies several dimensions of moral intensity. *Magnitude of consequences* refers to the sum of the harms or benefits resulting from the action. *Social consensus* is the degree of societal agreement about the morality or legality of an act. *Probability of effect* is

the probability than the act will take place and cause harm or benefit. *Temporal immediacy* refers to the time lapse between the action and its consequences. *Proximity* is the perception of nearness a social actor has to his or her victims or beneficiaries. *Concentration of effect* is the inverse function of the number of people affected by an act of a given magnitude.

The moral intensity construct has received limited empirical attention over the last several years. Barnett, Brown, Bass, and Hebert (1999) found that moral intensity components are associated with harsh judgments of ethical issues. Dukerich et al. (1993) concluded that individuals perceive greater moral intensity when dealing with a realized ethical problem than to an immoral dilemma that may result in a problem in the future. Singer (1996) and Singer and Singer (1997) found that judgments tend to be more ethical when the consequences of an action are extreme and concerns for the moral agent are high. Singer and Singer (1997) also found that ethicality ratings are influenced by the magnitude of the consequences and the social consensus dimensions. More recently, Singer et al. (1998) provide support for the Jones (1991) model by identifying positive associations between a *likelihood* to

whistle-blow and magnitude of the consequences, likelihood of the consequences, and empathy.

H4a: The seriousness of consequences of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H4b: The social consensus of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H4c: The probability of harm of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H4d: The temporal immediacy of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H4e: Proximity will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Ethical Context and **Ethical Judgments**

Corporate ethical values are the norms, values, and practices in organizations that ultimately reflect a composite of the personal ethical values of the firm's members and both the formal and informal ethics policies of the firm (Hunt et al., 1989). Corporate ethical values are a partial reflection of an organization's culture. These ethical values demonstrate to what degree an organization's employees feel the organization as a whole acts ethically or unethically (Schein, 1985).

Since ethical values are persistent over time and represent norms of behavior, they represent a key area of concern for organizational leaders. Ethical values are enforced through formalized codes, regulations, and culture that guide individual decision making (Brien, 1998; Sims, 1991). If no such guides are provided, individual behavior may not reach desired standards (Fraedrich & Ferrell, 1992).

Such guidance is provided in codes of conduct, corporate ethical values, and ethical cultures that institutionalize ethical conduct. By defining the company values and decision-making guidelines, a company takes a proactive posture by creating an environment that defines and enhances ethical conduct (Cassell, Johnson, & Smith, 1997; Sims, 1991; Hunt et al., 1989; Victor & Cullen, 1988). Similarly, when an organization generates an ethical environment that facilitates ethical practices and exchanges among its members, higher productivity and loyalty is prompted (Trevino et al., 1998; Hunt et al., 1989; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

H5a: Corporate ethical values emphasizing the importance of ethical behavior will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

H5b: Ethical environments emphasizing the importance of ethical behavior will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Operationalization of Variables

The constructs in this dissertation are assessed using previously developed multi-item measurement scales that have exhibited acceptable psychometric properties. Each will be assessed for reliability, which is the degree to which an instrument is free from random error and is consistent. Cronbach's alpha is arguably the most widely used technique for determining reliability, and Nunnally (1978) specifies that 0.70 is acceptable for most research efforts. In addition, factor analysis will be employed to determine the dimensionality of the moral intensity scale.

Ethical Judgments

The ethical judgments construct was assessed with an 8-item, 7-point semantic differential scale developed by Reidenbach and Robin (1990). The Multidimensional Ethics Scale (MDES) is designed to measure the ethical judgments of respondents exposed to ethical issues or dilemmas. The vignettes used in this dissertation are composed of sales scenarios (see Table 3.1).

The first four questions of the MDES assess a broad-based moral equity dimension that specifies beliefs about

TABLE 3.1
Sales Situations Scenarios - Dabholkar & Kellaris (1992)
and Singhapakdi, Rao, & Vitell (1996)

SITUATION A:

A young salesperson has been working very hard to impress the sales manager. At times, the salesperson has exaggerated the value of products or withheld relevant information from customers in order to get an order.

Action: The sales manager is aware of the salesperson's actions, but has done nothing to stop them.

SITUATION B:

The ABC wholesale company developed an interesting promotional offer. Any retail account ordering 100 cases or more would receive a free color T.V. According to a brochure which described the promo, the retailer could sponsor a contest or drawing in which the T.V. could be given away as a "Grand Prize." ABC left the administration of the program "details" up to its salesforce. One ABC salesperson told several retail buyers that if they placed a 100 case order, he would have the T.V. shipped to their home address. "What you do with it after that is entirely up to you..."

SITUATION C:

A company that has many out-of-town clients has negotiated a special rate with airline A—a 35% discount between designated cities—and encourages its employees to use that airline whenever possible. Salesperson X prefers to use airline B because of their "frequent flier" program (which allows him to earn free personal trips). In some cases X has booked flights on airline B even though the tickets cost up to \$200 more than similar flights on A, just so he could "rack up those frequent flier points."

right and wrong human conduct. The following two questions measure a relativistic dimension that specifies the degree to which an individual rejects universal moral principles in favor of socially constructed laws and norms. The last two items assess a contractualism dimension that articulates the degree to which social contracts are honored between businesses and society or a *quid pro quo*. Table 3.2 lists each of the items of the MDES.

The Multidimensional Ethics Scale has demonstrated acceptable reliability, as shown in Table 3.3. Reidenbach and Robin (1990, 1988) provide evidence of construct validity and nomological validity.

Job Satisfaction

Global job satisfaction was assessed by a 3-item scale based on a measure developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). The items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale. The items include "All in all, I'm satisfied with my job", "In general, I like working for my company", and "In general, I don't like my job". Rich (1997) used the same three-item scale and reported an acceptable coefficient alpha ($\alpha = .82$).

Individual facets of JS were measured with the Managerial Job Satisfaction Scale developed by Cellucci and

TABLE 3.2
Multidimensional Ethics Scale

Situation X: *Ethical dilemma is presented.*

Do you believe that this situation involves an ethical issue or problem? (Please place a check mark between the opposite adjectives that reflects your belief about the behavior.)

Completely agree ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ it involves an ethical issue.	Completely disagree it involves an ethical issue.
--	---

The eight-item, seven-point Multidimensional Ethics Scale

Fair ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Unfair
Just ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Unjust
Morally right ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Not morally right
Acceptable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Unacceptable to my Family
Traditionally acceptable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Not traditionally acceptable
Culturally acceptable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Culturally acceptable
Violates an unspoken promise ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Does not violate an unspoken promise
Violates an unwritten contract ___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Does not violate an unwritten contract

TABLE 3.3
Reliability Coefficients for Multidimensional Ethics Scale

Study	Alpha
Simpson, Brown, & Widing (1998)	0.93
Barnett, Bass & Brown (1995)	0.91
Barnett, Bass & Brown (1994)	0.84 - 0.97
Reidenbach & Robin (1990)	0.71 - 0.92

DeVries (1978). The instrument is a 20-item, 7-point Likert scale (see Table 3.4) that has been used by researchers in various fields including ethics (Viswesvaran et al., 1998; Deshpande, 1996; Viswesvaran, 1996; Vitell & Davis, 1990). The scale is designed to assess several JS dimensions that include satisfaction with pay, promotions, co-workers, supervision, and work. The instrument is a reliable instrument for measuring job satisfaction with previous research providing adequate evidence of internal consistency (see Table 3.5).

Organizational Commitment

Attitudinal OC. Attitudinal organizational commitment was assessed with the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (see Table 3.6) developed by Mowday et al. (1979). All questions were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale.

Mowday et al. (1979) found that the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire demonstrated acceptable levels of discriminant, convergent, and predictive validity by comparing the scale to the Job Descriptive Index and measures of job involvement. They also found that the OCQ displayed adequate levels of reliability by using internal consistency analysis, factor analysis, and item analysis.

TABLE 3.4
Cognitive Job Satisfaction Scale

-
1. Satisfaction with pay
 1. My organization pays better than competitors.
 2. My pay is adequate, considering the responsibilities I have.
 3. I am underpaid for what I do.*
 4. My fringe benefits are generous.

 2. Satisfaction with promotions
 1. I do not like the basis on which my organization promotes people.*
 2. Promotions are infrequent in my organization.*
 3. If I do a good job, I am likely to get promoted.
 4. I am satisfied with my rate of advancement.

 3. Satisfaction with co-workers
 1. The people I work with do not give me enough support.*
 2. When I ask people to do things, the job gets done.
 3. I enjoy working with the people here.
 4. I work with responsible people.

 4. Satisfaction with supervisors
 1. The managers I work for back me up.
 2. The managers I work for are "top notch."
 3. My supervisors don't listen to me.*
 4. My management doesn't treat me fairly.*

 5. Satisfaction with work itself
 1. My job is interesting
 2. I feel good about the amount of responsibility in my job.
 3. I would rather be doing another job.*
 4. I get little sense of accomplishment from doing my job.*

* these items are reverse coded

TABLE 3.5
Reliability Coefficients for the Cognitive Job Satisfaction Scale

Study	Alpha
Viswesvaran, Deshpande, Joseph (1996)	0.72 - 0.84
Viswesvaran & Deshpande (1996)	0.72 - 0.84
Deshpande (1996)	0.72 - 0.84
Vitell & Davis (1990)	0.76 - 0.88

Note: Table indicates range of coefficient alphas for various JS dimensions.

TABLE 3.6
Organization Commitment Questionnaire - Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979)

Instructions: Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you now working please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement entering the number which corresponds to you choice in the blank to the left of that statement.

- 1-I strongly disagree
- 2-I somewhat disagree
- 3-I slightly disagree
- 4-I neither agree or disagree
- 5-I slightly agree
- 6-I somewhat agree
- 7-I strongly agree

Example:

 5 In our organization we bend over backward to satisfy each customer.

By writing 5 in the blank above you would be indicating that you slightly agree that your organization bends over backward to satisfy customers.

 1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.*

 2. I talk up the organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.*

 3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.

 4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.*

 5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.*

 6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.*

TABLE 3.6 (continued)

_____ 7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.

_____ 8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.*

_____ 9. I would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me leave this organization.

_____ 10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.*

_____ 11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.

_____ 12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.

_____ 13. I really care about the fate of this organization.*

_____ 14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.*

_____ 15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.

* Indicates items in 9-item scale.

Coefficient alphas in their 1979 study ranged from .82 to .93, and an average $\alpha = .90$ was obtained. Several recent meta-analyses show an average coefficient alpha of .88 (Morrow, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Other scholars report similar reliability coefficients, as shown in Table 3.7.

Continuance OC. Continuance OC was measured by the Continuance Commitment Scale developed by Allen & Meyer (1990). The questions in this 8-item scale are assessed on a 7-point, Likert format (see Table 3.8). The scale measures the degree to which a person feels that he or she is self-invested (accrued valuable resources such as effort, time, and energy) in a firm (Ko et al., 1997). This self-investment translates into a desire to stay in an organization for extended periods of time.

Both an 8-item and a 6-item version of Meyer & Allen's (1984) Continuance Commitment Scale have been developed. The 8-item scale demonstrates adequate levels of discriminant validity as well as acceptable internal consistency (see Table 3.9), but has suffered from dimensionality problems (McGee & Ford, 1987). Meyer and Allen (1990a) developed a revised version of the original scale, and this version reflected a unidimensional

TABLE 3.7
Reliability Coefficients for the Organizational Commitment
Questionnaire

Study	Alpha
Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996)	0.92
Good, Page, & Young (1996)	0.90 & 0.91
Rosenblatt & Ruvio (1996)	0.84
Werbel, Landau, & DeCarlo (1996)	0.71 & 0.76
Vandenberg & Lance (1992)	0.83 & 0.84
Morrow & Wirth (1989)	0.89
Mathieu & Hamel (1989)	0.89 & 0.92

TABLE 3.8
Continuance Commitment Scale- Allen & Meyer (1990a)

Instructions: Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you now working please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement entering the number which corresponds to you choice in the blank to the left of that statement.

- 1-I strongly disagree
- 2-I somewhat disagree
- 3-I slightly disagree
- 4-I neither agree or disagree
- 5-I slightly agree
- 6-I somewhat agree
- 7-I strongly agree

_____ 1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)

_____ 2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

_____ 3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

_____ 4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (R)

_____ 5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

_____ 6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

_____ 7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

_____ 8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

(R) Indicates reverse keyed items.

TABLE 3.9
Reliability Coefficients for the Continuance Commitment Scale

Study	Alpha
<u>Eight-item version</u>	
Meyer & Allen (1984)	0.77
McGee & Ford (1987)	0.70
Meyer & Allen (1990a)	0.75
<u>Six-item version</u>	
Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	0.74
Ko, Price, & Mueller (1997)	0.58 & 0.64

construct and therefore corrected several problems addressed by McGee and Ford (1987). The 6-item scale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) is unidimensional but exhibits low reliabilities and a lack of construct validity in some samples (Ko et al., 1997). Reliabilities of the 6-item CCS are also presented in Table 3.9. The 8-item CCS developed by Meyer and Allen (1990a) was used in this dissertation.

Moral Intensity

An instrument developed by Barnett, Brown, Bass, and Hebert (1999) was used to assess five dimensions of moral intensity. The scales consist of 24 items in a semantic differential format, as shown in Table 3.10. Barnett et al. (1999) found that the scale exhibited sound psychometric properties with coefficient alphas for the individual dimensions of moral intensity ranging from .89 to .98.

Corporate Ethical Values

Corporate ethical values were measured by a scale developed by Hunt et al. (1989). The measurement tool is designed to "capture the broader principles of the degree to which organizations take an interest in ethical issues and act in an ethical manner, rather than product, service,

TABLE 3.10
Moral Intensity Items Used with Vignettes - Barnett, Brown,
Bass, & Hebert (1999)

Magnitude of the Consequences

Do you believe any harm resulting from the action depicted in SITUATION X will be...

Minor	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Severe
Serious	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Trivial
Significant	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Insignificant
Great	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Slight
Small	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	Large

Probability of Effect

The likelihood that consequences will actually occur as a result of the action in SITUATION X is...

Likely	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __	Unlikely
Improbable	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __	Probable
Impossible	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __	Possible
Definitely would	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __	Definitely would not

Social Consensus

Indicate the degree to which you feel society as a whole considers the action depicted in SITUATION X...

Evil	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ :	Good
Ethical	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ :	Unethical
Legal	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ :	Illegal
Wrong	__ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ :	Right
Inappropriate	: : : : : :	Appropriate

TABLE 3.10 (continued)

Temporal Immediacy

Do you anticipate that any consequences of the action depicted in Situation X are likely to occur:

Immediately	__:__:__:__:__:__	After a long time
Never	__:__:__:__:__:__	Soon
Quickly	__:__:__:__:__:__	Slowly
Belatedly	__:__:__:__:__:__	Swiftly
Gradually	__:__:__:__:__:__	Rapidly

Proximity

Compared to yourself, do you believe those potentially affected by the action depicted in SITUATION A are...

Similar	__:__:__:__:__:__	Dissimilar
Not alike	__:__:__:__:__:__	Alike
Compatible	__:__:__:__:__:__	Incompatible
Close	__:__:__:__:__:__	Distant
Different	__:__:__:__:__:__	Same

or industry-specific issues (p. 82). The broadness in measurement scope mitigates the transitory nature of ethical issues in organizations. The unique and highly applicable characteristics of this scale include its ability to measure broad principles of the degree to which firms support ethical acts. The scale also captures the association between "reward systems", which have been found to directly shape employee behavior through motivation, and corporate ethical values (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992; Hunt et al., 1989).

The instrument consists of 5 items on a seven-point Likert scale (see Table 3.11). Factor analysis reveals that all items load on one factor, 43% of the variance is explained, and internal consistency is acceptable at $\alpha = .78$ (Hunt et al., 1989).

Ethical Environment

Ethical environment was measured by a scale developed by Trevino et al. (1998). According to the authors, this scale is used to measure "peer behavior, the extent to which norms support ethical conduct, the extent to which ethical behavior is rewarded, the extent to which organizational leaders act as models of ethical conduct," and the extent to which employees are obedient and

TABLE 3.11
Corporate Ethical Values Scale

-
1. Managers in my company often engage in behaviors that I consider to be unethical. ^b
 2. In order to succeed in my company, it is often necessary to compromise one's ethics. ^b
 3. Top management in my company has let it be known in no uncertain terms that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated.
 4. If a manager in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in *personal* gain (rather than corporate gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded.
 5. If a manager in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in *corporate* gain (rather than personal gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded.

1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.
b = reverse scored.

supportive of ethical behavior (Trevino et al., 1998, p. 455).

This instrument consists of 14-item seven-point Likert scale (see Table 3.12). Factor analysis results produced by Trevino et al. (1998) showed that all items load on one factor, and internal consistency is acceptable at $\alpha = .94$.

Social Desirability

Organizational researchers recognize a tendency for some respondents to bias their answers on questionnaires in a socially desirable manner (Ballard, 1992; Paulhus, 1984). These biases are driven by an individual's respect for current social norms and practices, a need for approval, or a need for others to see them abide by societal rules (Randall & Fernandez, 1991; Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987). Conceptually speaking, social desirability is similar to impression management, self-deception, and self-justification, but is sometimes found to be empirically discriminant (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987; Paulhus, 1984). Since social desirability reduces the explanatory power of self-report measures, it is seen almost exclusively as a research contaminant (Ganster, Hennessey, & Luthans, 1983).

Many of the measures and scales that are utilized in OB research are affected by social desirability bias

TABLE 3.12
Ethical Environment Scale

-
1. Management in this organization disciplines unethical behavior when it occurs.
 2. Employees in this organization perceive that people who violate the ethics code still get formal organizational rewards. (R)
 3. Penalties for unethical behavior are strictly enforced in this organization.
 4. Unethical behavior is punished in this organization.
 5. The top managers of this organization represent high ethical standards.
 6. People of integrity are rewarded in this organization.
 7. The ethics code serves as "window dressing" only in this organization. (R)
 8. Top managers of this organization regularly show that they care about ethics.
 9. Top managers of this organization are models of unethical behavior.
 10. Ethical behavior is the norm in this organization.
 11. Top managers of this organization guide decision making in an ethical direction.
 12. The ethics code serves only to maintain the organization's public image. (R)
 13. Ethical behavior is rewarded in this organization.
 14. Ethics code requirements are consistent with informal organizational norms.
-

(R) = reverse coded

(Ganster et al., 1983). In particular, many ethics measures may suffer from bias because of their sensitive nature and self-report format (Randall & Fernandez, 1991). According to Randall and Fernandez (1991), items that tap socially desirable traits rather than impression management dimensions are particularly suspect.

Various methods are employed in ethics research to reduce social desirability bias, which include assuring anonymity and administering questionnaires in non-threatening environments (Randall & Fernandez, 1991). Such precautions do not always fully mitigate impression management and the need for approval. Therefore, it is common in ethics research to verify whether or not social desirability is a problem by correlating ethical and moral measures with a measure of social desirability (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987; Reynolds, 1982).

The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) is the most commonly used measure of social desirability (Reynolds, 1982), and various shortened forms of the Marlowe-Crowne scale have been developed (see Fischer & Fick, 1993; Ballard, 1992; Reynolds, 1982). A 10-item short version of the Marlowe-Crowne scale was used in this dissertation to account for bias, and the measure is presented in Table 3.13. According to Fischer and Fisk

TABLE 3.13
The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally.

1. I like to gossip at times.
 2. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
 3. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
 4. I always try to practice what I preach.
 5. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
 6. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.
 7. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.
 8. I never resent being asked to return a favor.
 9. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
 10. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
-

(1993), this scale is superior to many other commonly used short forms and has exhibited sound psychometric properties and acceptable reliability.

Research Design

The sampling frame consisted of a list of 18,000 marketing professionals registered with Dun and Bradstreet. A stratified random sample of 3,000 names was generated from the Dun and Bradstreet database. The resulting sample was comprised primarily of residents of the United States who were sales managers or sales representatives. Sales professionals were selected for several reasons, including the fact that salespeople work in occupations that are subject to a variety of ethical situations and dilemmas (Simpson et al., 1998; Dawson, 1997; DeConinck & Lewis, 1997; Barnett et al., 1995; Barnett, Bass, & Brown, 1994; Weeks & Nantel, 1992; Dabholkar & Kellaris, 1992).

Data Collection Procedures

The survey instrument was sent to 3,000 sales professionals by mail. An initial mailing was sent at a specified point in time and approximately four weeks after this initial mailing, a second wave of questionnaires was sent. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter on university letterhead explaining the purpose of the

study, outlining relevant instructions, and thanking the participants for their help and cooperation. A postage-paid return envelope was provided to facilitate response, and a copy of the study's results was promised in exchange for participation. The cover letter appears in Appendix A.

The questionnaire consisted of the aforementioned measures as well as several demographic questions that provided necessary background and employment information. The questionnaire incorporated two vignettes developed by Dabholkar and Kellaris (1992) and one vignette developed by Dornoff and Tankersley (1975). The vignettes are shown in Table 3.1. The use of vignettes is common in the ethics literature (Barnett et al., 1998; 1995, 1994; Reidenbach & Robin, 1993, 1990, 1988; Singer & Singer, 1997). Since vignettes create a decision making situation for the respondent, the benefit of using scenarios in ethics research is drawn from their realism (Singhapakdi et al., 1996; Singhapakdi & Vitell, 1993; Barnett et al., 1994).

Statistical Techniques

Hypotheses 1a and 2a specify that organizational commitment is positively associated with ethical judgments that the issue presented is unethical. Hypothesis 3 posits that job satisfaction is positively associated with ethical

judgments that the issue presented is unethical. Hypotheses 4a-e specify that five components of moral intensity are positively associated with ethical judgments that the issue presented is unethical. And finally, Hypotheses 5a and 5b specify that corporate ethical values and ethical environment are positively associated with ethical judgments that the issue presented is unethical. Hierarchical regression analysis is an appropriate analysis tool for examining these hypotheses (Schmitt & Klimoski, 1991).

The variables were entered into the regression equation in a hierarchical fashion starting with micro-level constructs and followed by macro-level constructs. First, the job attitude variables were entered followed by the moral intensity variables. Corporate ethical values and ethical environment were then entered into the regression equation. Finally, moderated regression analysis was employed to test the hypothesis that corporate ethical values and ethical environment moderate relationship between job attitudes and ethical judgments.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the dissertation research. This chapter is divided into several sections. The first section describes the data collection process. The second section describes the characteristics of the sample and the organizations for which the respondents work. The third section provides descriptive statistics for each of the focal variables in the study. The fourth section presents the factor analysis of the moral intensity items, discusses reliability and validity issues, and shows the results of the correlation analysis. And finally, the fifth section examines the results for the hierarchical linear regressions and moderated regression analyses.

Data Collection

The sampling frame for this dissertation was 3,000 sales professionals in the United States. The mailing list of names was purchased from Dun and Bradstreet. The 3,000 individuals were sent the questionnaire approximately four

weeks apart. Both mailings included a detailed cover letter explaining the purpose and details of the dissertation, a postage-paid return envelope, and the questionnaire itself. In the first wave, 273 surveys were returned with 265 found to be usable. The second wave was mailed with an insert encouraging individuals that had not previously filled out the survey to complete the form. Those individuals that had already filled out the survey were told to disregard the second letter and questionnaire. The second wave of surveys yielded 128 returned questionnaires, and 108 of these were usable. Of the 373 usable questionnaires that were returned, 9 were discarded because sales professionals did not complete them. Using Churchill's (1991) response rate formula (see Table 4.1), the response rate of this dissertation was 12.83 percent with 373 completed questionnaires, 2615 uncompleted surveys, and 12 ineligible individuals.

Responses from the two mailings were compared to assess potential nonresponse bias. The means of all study variables were compared. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.2. All of the comparisons yielded insignificant differences except those between the first and second wave scores for probability of harm and temporal

TABLE 4.1
Response Rate—Churchill (1991) Formula

CQ = completed questionnaires
 NC = not completed or refused
 IN = ineligible

$$\frac{\text{CQ}}{\text{CQ} + [\text{CQ} / (\text{CQ} + \text{IN})] [\text{NC}]} = \text{Response Rate}$$

Completed questionnaires	373
Eligibility not determined (or refused)	2615
Ineligibility	12

$$\frac{373}{373 + [373 / (373 + 12)] [2615]} = 12.83\%$$

TABLE 4.2
Evaluation of Differences among Early Respondents
and Late Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Group</u> <u>Number</u>	<u>Mean</u> <u>Value</u>	<u>Separate Variance Estimates</u>	
			<u>t value</u>	<u>2-tail</u> <u>Probability</u>
<u>Scenario A</u>				
Ethical Judgments	1	5.58	1.23	.22
	2	5.40		
Probability of Harm	1	5.32	.73	.47
	2	5.18		
Seriousness of Consequences	1	4.74	.57	.57
	2	4.64		
Social Consensus	1	4.88	.45	.66
	2	4.82		
Temporal Immediacy	1	4.07	.29	.77
	2	4.02		
<u>Scenario B</u>				
Ethical Judgments	1	4.64	-1.13	.26
	2	4.88		
Probability of Harm	1	3.87	-2.24	.03
	2	4.34		
Seriousness of Consequences	1	3.54	-1.88	.06
	2	3.97		
Social Consensus	1	4.35	-.89	.38
	2	4.49		
Temporal Immediacy	1	3.62	-2.45	.02
	2	4.10		
<u>Scenario C</u>				
Ethical Judgments	1	5.65	1.42	.16
	2	5.42		

TABLE 4.2 (continued)

		<u>Separate Variance Estimates</u>		
	Group	Mean		2-tail
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>t value</u>	<u>Probability</u>
Probability of Harm	1	5.14	.06	.95
	2	5.13		
Seriousness of Consequences	1	4.53	.28	.78
	2	4.48		
Social Consensus	1	4.52	.51	.61
	2	4.44		
Temporal Immediacy	1	4.20	.05	.96
	2	4.19		
<u>Other Study Variables</u>				
Attitudinal Commitment	1	5.93	1.25	.21
	2	5.77		
Continuance Commitment	1	3.89	-.07	.95
	2	3.90		
Global Job Satisfaction	1	6.19	1.21	.23
	2	6.02		
Pay Satisfaction	1	4.38	-.90	.37
	2	4.52		
Promotion Satisfaction	1	4.50	-.71	.48
	2	4.60		
Coworker Satisfaction	1	5.62	-.77	.44
	2	5.72		
Supervisor Satisfaction	1	5.78	1.84	.07
	2	5.50		
Work Satisfaction	1	5.95	.75	.45
	2	5.85		
Corporate Ethical Values	1	5.73	1.31	.19
	2	5.53		

TABLE 4.2 (continued)

Ethical Environment	1	5.67	1.47	.14
	2	5.47		

immediacy in Scenario B. Overall, nonresponse bias did not appear to be a serious problem in this dissertation because most of the responses were similar.

Characteristics of the Sample

Information about the respondents and their employers are presented in this section.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Selected demographic characteristics of the respondents in this study are presented in Table 4.3. The mean age of the respondents was 46.11, with a standard deviation of 9.80 and median of 46 respectively. Approximately 4.1 percent of respondents were less than 30, 23.2 percent were between 30 and 39, 38.9 percent were between 40 and 49, 23.2 percent were between 50 and 59, and 10.5 percent were above 60. The sample was male-dominated with 86 percent of the respondents being men. An majority of the participants were white (96.2 percent). A majority of the respondents were married (83.4 percent).

Most of the participants reported having college experience with 28.2 percent having attended college without graduating, 39.9 percent having graduated, 11.8 percent having some graduate/professional hours, and 9.9

TABLE 4.3
Selected Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std Dev</u>	<u>Median</u>
Age	46.11	9.80	46
Gross Salary	90,077	69,155	75,000
Total Bonuses	16,579	32,497	5,000
Household Income	120,091	102,800	100,000

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Category</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Valid Percentage</u>
Gender	Male	319	86.0
	Female	52	14.0
Marital Status	Married	311	83.4
	Single	30	8.0
	Separated, Divorced	31	8.3
	Widowed	1	.3
Education Level	Grade school	3	0.8
	Some high school	0	0.0
	High school graduate	34	9.1
	Some college	105	28.2
	College graduate	149	39.9
	Some graduate/ Professional education	44	11.8
	Graduate/professional degree	37	9.9
	Doctoral degree	1	0.3
Employment of Spouse	Full time	155	43.4
	Part time	74	20.7
	Not employed	87	24.4

TABLE 4.3 (continued)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Category</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Valid Percentage</u>
Race	White	354	96.2
	Black	4	1.1
	Hispanic	2	0.5
	Oriental	2	0.5
	Other	6	1.6

percent possessing a graduate degree. The mean salary was \$90,077 with an average of \$16,579 coming from an individual's bonuses. A majority of the respondents' spouses worked either full time (43.4%) or part time (20.7%). Average total household income was \$120,091 with a median of \$100,000. Household income varied considerably as indicated by the standard deviation of \$102,800.

Various work-related information regarding the respondents is shown in Table 4.4. Almost half of the respondents were sales managers, with about 9.2 percent sales representatives, and almost 27 percent vice-presidents of sales. Almost 8 percent of respondents were either presidents or general managers of their companies. The mean and median of years of selling experience was 19.5 and 10.2 respectively. Respondents had an average of 14.1 years of management experience with a median value of 12 years. Participants had spent an average of 7 years in their present positions with a median of 5, and 10 years in their present companies with a median of 8 years of service. Respondents also indicated that they had previously worked in an average of 2.6 sales positions with other companies.

With regard to work activities, the respondents made an average of 5.5 sales calls per day and were responsible

TABLE 4.4
Work-Related Information

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std Dev</u>	<u>Median</u>
Selling experience in years	19.5	10.2	19
Management experience in years	14.1	9.5	12
Years in present position	7.0	5.9	5
Years with present company	10.0	7.2	8
Average sales calls made per day	5.5	12.1	3
Accounts respondent calls	170.9	737.7	20
Average hours spent in selling activities per wk.	27.9	17.8	25
Hours of sales training in last yr.	12.8	24.8	2
Hours of ethics training in last yr.	2.0	8.2	0
Sales positions w/ other companies	2.6	2.2	2
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Valid Percentage</u>
Present position	Sales manager	180	48.9
	Sales representative	34	9.2
	Vice-president sales	99	26.9
	President	13	3.5
	General Manager	14	3.9
	Other	28	7.6

for an average of about 170 accounts with a median number of 20. They spent an average of almost 28 hours in selling activities per week. With regard to training, respondents attended an average of around 13 hours of sales training and 2 hours of ethics training in the last year.

Characteristics of the companies for which the respondents work are presented in Table 4.5. Almost 40 percent of the organizations were in the manufacturing/construction industries. Other industry classifications represented in the sample included wholesale/retail/distribution (29.8 percent), services (14.5 percent), communications (4.3 percent), advertising/marketing research (1.9 percent), and chemical/technological (2.7 percent). Roughly 67 percent of employers represented had fewer than 100 employees, approximately 24 percent had 100 to 999 employees, and the remaining 9 percent had 1,000 or more employees. Approximately 40 percent of the companies had a formal code of ethics.

Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

Descriptive statistics for the study variables of this dissertation are presented in Table 4.6. Ethical judgment scores ranged from 1 (most ethical) to 7 (most unethical),

TABLE 4.5
Company Characteristics

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Category</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Valid Percentage</u>
Industry classification	Wholesale/retail/distribution	111	29.8
	Manufacturing/construction	147	39.4
	Services	54	14.5
	Communications	16	4.3
	Advertising/marketing research	7	1.9
	Chemical/Technological	10	2.7
	Other	28	7.4
Number of employees	Fewer than 100	247	66.6
	100 to 999	91	24.5
	1,000 to 9,999	20	5.4
	10,000 and more	13	3.5
Company has code of ethics	Yes	121	39.3
	No	187	60.7

TABLE 4.6
Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>	<u>Std Dev</u>	<u>Skewness</u>	<u>Kurtosis</u>
<u>Scenario A</u>						
Ethical Judgments	5.53	5.75	7	1.26	-1.04	.74
Probability of Harm	5.28	5.75	7	1.53	-.66	-.50
Seriousness of Consequences	4.71	4.80	4	1.45	-.31	-.41
Social Consensus	4.86	4.80	4	1.09	-.02	-.15
Temporal Immediacy	4.06	4.00	4	1.29	.26	-.15
Proximity	3.66	4.00	1	1.92	.06	-1.27
<u>Scenario B</u>						
Ethical Judgments	4.70	5.00	7	1.70	-.60	-.48
Probability of Harm	4.00	3.75	4	1.74	.33	-.89
Seriousness of Consequences	3.66	3.60	1	1.86	.25	-1.01
Social Consensus	4.39	4.20	4	1.35	-.16	-.14
Temporal Immediacy	3.75	3.80	4	1.60	.17	-.59
Proximity	3.55	4.00	1	1.96	.16	-1.20

TABLE 4.6 (continued)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>	<u>Std Dev</u>	<u>Skewness</u>	<u>Kurtosis</u>
<u>Scenario C</u>						
Ethical Judgments	5.59	5.88	7	1.33	-1.32	1.68
Probability of Harm	5.13	5.25	7	1.57	-.61	-.42
Seriousness of Consequences	4.52	4.50	4	1.60	-.26	-.59
Social Consensus	4.50	4.40	4	1.30	-.43	.32
Temporal Immediacy	4.20	4.00	4	1.51	.21	-.57
Proximity	3.61	3.40	2.2	1.26	.31	-1.33
<u>Other Variables</u>						
Corporate Ethical Values	5.68	6.00	7	1.30	-.92	-.20
Ethical Environment	5.62	6.00	6.57	1.13	-1.05	.50
Attitudinal Commitment	5.89	6.22	7	1.05	-1.28	1.42
Continuance Commitment	3.89	3.88	4	1.25	.02	-.53
Global Job Satisfaction	6.14	6.33	7	1.13	-1.96	4.20
Satisfaction with Pay	4.41	4.50	4.5	1.38	-.13	-.50
Satisfaction with Promotion	4.52	4.50	4	1.32	-.10	-.40

TABLE 4.6 (continued)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>	<u>Std Dev</u>	<u>Skewness</u>	<u>Kurtosis</u>
Satisfaction with Coworkers	5.65	5.75	7	1.09	-.79	.31
Satisfaction with supervisor	5.71	6.00	7	1.27	-.90	.01
Satisfaction with Work Itself	5.92	6.25	7	1.09	-.99	.65
Social Desirability	5.92	6.00	7	1.91	-.17	-.59

and were computed by averaging the scores from the scale's eight items. The mean scores and standard deviations for ethical judgments were 5.53 and 1.26 in Scenario A, 4.70 and 1.70 in Scenario B, and 5.59 and 1.33 in Scenario C, which indicates that all three actions were considered somewhat unethical by the respondents. When used by Dabholkar and Kellaris (1992) and Dornoff and Tankersley (1975), the same scenarios yielded slightly lower means.

The moral intensity construct was assessed on a 7-point semantic differential scale, with higher scores representing higher perceived moral intensity. Scores for each of the five moral intensity dimensions were computed by summing each scale's items and dividing by the number of items in the scale. The mean scores for these dimensions indicate that the decision-making tasks in Scenarios A and C were considered to have greater intensity than Scenario B. Mean scores ranged from 3.61 to 5.59 and standard deviations ranged from 1.09 to 1.97.

The variable corporate ethical values was calculated by averaging the five 7-point items from Hunt et al. (1989). Low scores represented unethical corporate values while high scores represented ethical corporate values. The mean score for corporate ethical values was 5.68 and the standard deviation was 1.30. An alternate measure of

ethical values using a 7-point Likert scale developed by Trevino et al. (1998) was computed by averaging values for fourteen items. Once again, low scores represented an unethical environment while high scores represented an ethical environment. The mean score for ethical environment was 5.62 and the standard deviation was 1.13. Overall, scores indicate that work environments were generally perceived by participants as ethical in nature.

Two measures of organizational commitment were obtained using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and the Continuance Commitment Scale. The mean of attitudinal commitment was 5.89 and the standard deviation was 1.05, indicating that respondents were generally committed to their organizations. The mean of continuance commitment was 3.89 and the standard deviation was 1.25, which implies that respondents were moderately committed to their organizations because of sunk costs or a lack of perceived opportunity elsewhere.

Satisfaction was measured with a three-item global job satisfaction scale and a 20-item multidimensional job satisfaction scale that taps five specific facets of cognitive job satisfaction. Global job satisfaction was high among the respondents with a mean score of 6.14 and standard deviation of 1.13. Facet-specific measures of job

satisfaction were moderate, with mean scores ranging from 4.41 to 5.92 and standard deviations fluctuating from 1.09 to 1.38.

One of the basic underlying assumptions in parametric statistics is that variables are normally distributed, and the skewness and kurtosis scores of several of the study variables indicated some violations of this assumption. However, small deviations from a normal distribution can be tolerated, since regression appears to be robust in regard to these violations. According to Younger (1979, p.293):

this is because F and t are what is called robust to the assumption of normality. This means that as long as the data are not too far from normal, the F -statistic will still follow the F -distribution reasonably well, and the probabilities from the t -tables will be reasonably applicable to the calculated value of the t -statistic. If we cannot assume that the data come from a normal population, then we can still look for 'large' versus 'small' t - or F -values in order to see if a variable is a strong predictor.

Measurement of Constructs

Factor Analysis

The psychometric properties of the Continuance Commitment Scale, the Organizational Commitment Scale, the Corporate Ethical Values Scale, the Ethical Environment Scale, the Multidimensional Ethics Scale, and the

satisfaction measures utilized in this study are documented elsewhere (Trevino et al., 1998; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Hunt et al., 1989; Reidenbach & Robin, 1988; Cammann et al., 1983; Mowday et al., 1979; Cellucci & DeVries, 1978). However, the moral intensity scales developed by Barnett et al. (1999) have not been widely used. Therefore, factor analysis was conducted to evaluate the factor structure of this scale.

Results of the maximum likelihood factor analysis for the moral intensity construct in Scenario A are presented in Table 4.7. Utilizing a varimax rotation, the factor analysis verified a five-factor solution with 86.63 percent of the total variance being explained. The solution was consistent with expectations and the items loaded on the factors in a manner consistent with *a priori* expectations. Factor analytic results for the moral intensity construct were similar when using an oblique rotation and were similar for all three scenarios overall.

Reliability

Scales were assessed for internal consistency, and coefficient alpha scores are summarized in Table 4.8. Internal consistency is an important part of tracking variable associations, since a lack of reliability would

TABLE 4.7
Moral Intensity Factor Analysis—Ethical Scenario A

Item Number	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Q35	.97	-.02	.04	.05	-.01
Q34	.96	-.04	.05	.01	.01
Q36	.96	-.07	.02	.05	.01
Q37	.95	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.04
Q38	.94	-.00	.03	.01	-.04
Q20	-.02	.92	.16	.07	.20
Q22	-.05	.92	.18	.07	.17
Q19	-.05	.91	.16	.07	.16
Q23	-.05	.88	.19	.07	.20
Q21	.03	.81	.10	.15	.29
Q31	.05	.17	.89	.04	.11
Q32	-.02	.16	.87	.10	.06
Q33	.001	.15	.86	.04	.02
Q29	.01	.07	.84	.00	.09
Q30	.05	.19	.69	.20	.27
Q27	-.03	.05	.00	.89	.04
Q28	.01	.01	.06	.87	-.02
Q25	.00	.08	.02	.82	.02
Q24	.07	.08	.08	.81	.05
Q26	.05	.11	.14	.69	.06
Q15	-.04	.25	.13	.01	.90
Q16	-.05	.23	.13	.03	.90
Q18	-.01	.24	.11	.01	.85
Q17	.02	.16	.10	.06	.81
<hr/>					
Eigenvalue	10.59	4.51	2.79	1.62	1.27
<hr/>					
Percent Variance Explained	44.14	18.79	11.62	6.78	5.30
<hr/>					
Percent of Total Variance Explained	86.63				

TABLE 4.8
Scale Reliability

<u>Construct</u>	<u>Coefficient Alpha</u>
Ethical Judgments	
Scenario A	.89
Scenario B	.95
Scenario C	.92
Moral Intensity	
Probability of Harm	
Scenario A	.92
Scenario B	.93
Scenario C	.98
Seriousness of Consequences	
Scenario A	.96
Scenario B	.98
Scenario C	.92
Social Consensus	
Scenario A	.87
Scenario B	.92
Scenario C	.90
Temporal Immediacy	
Scenario A	.91
Scenario B	.95
Scenario C	.95
Proximity	
Scenario A	.98
Scenario B	.98
Scenario C	.98
Corporate Ethical Values	.74
Ethical Environment	.91
Attitudinal Commitment	.90
Continuance Commitment	.77

TABLE 4.8 (continued)

<u>Construct</u>	<u>Coefficient Alpha</u>
Global Job Satisfaction	.92
Pay Satisfaction	.74
Promotion Satisfaction	.73
Coworker Satisfaction	.75
Supervisor Satisfaction	.86
Work Satisfaction	.78

lower initial correlations (Schmitt & Klimoski, 1991). Reliability also verifies validity (Churchill, 1991).

Coefficient alpha was employed in this dissertation to assess reliability. According to Nunnally (1978), reliability coefficients should be .70 or higher to be considered acceptable. Internal consistency scores for all of the variables in this study were .70 or greater, with values ranging from .73 to .98.

Correlations among Study Variables

Correlations among the study variables were calculated. The correlation matrix is presented in Table 4.9. The correlations that are significant at the 0.05 level are discussed in the following section.

Ethical judgments that the action in Scenario A was unethical was positively and significantly associated with probability of harm, seriousness of consequences, social consensus, temporal immediacy, corporate ethical values, ethical environment, attitudinal commitment, and satisfaction with the work itself. Ethical judgments that the action in Scenario B was unethical was positively and significantly related to probability of harm, seriousness of consequences, social consensus, temporal immediacy, and

TABLE 4.9
Correlation Matrix

	EJ(A)	EJ(B)	EJ(C)	PH(A)	SrC(A)	SoC(A)	TI(A)	Prx(A)	PH(B)	SrC(B)
EJ(A)	.885									
EJ(B)	.179 (.001)	.948								
EJ(C)	.191 (.000)	.114 (.035)	.918							
PH(A)	.357 (.000)	.119 (.028)	.088 (.108)	.922						
SrC(A)	.474 (.000)	.253 (.000)	.133 (.015)	.467 (.000)	.960					
SoC(A)	.216 (.000)	.053 (.334)	.138 (.011)	.096 (.077)	.188 (.000)	.874				
TI(A)	.196 (.000)	.118 (.029)	.110 (.042)	.309 (.000)	.364 (.000)	.168 (.002)	.911			
Prx(A)	-.073 (.190)	.034 (.540)	-.022 (.691)	-.043 (.436)	-.061 (.264)	.043 (.431)	.038 (.490)	.975		
PH(B)	-.004 (.937)	.556 (.000)	.029 (.593)	.158 (.003)	.176 (.001)	.077 (.154)	.187 (.000)	.058 (.290)	.930	
SrC(B)	.047 (.394)	.667 (.000)	.073 (.180)	.066 (.226)	.268 (.000)	.019 (.727)	.153 (.005)	.014 (.799)	.672 (.000)	.983
SoC(B)	-.063 (.255)	.593 (.000)	.061 (.264)	-.020 (.714)	.043 (.436)	.365 (.000)	.019 (.731)	.122 (.026)	.462 (.000)	.519 (.000)
TI(B)	-.054 (.332)	.377 (.000)	.024 (.665)	.066 (.232)	.146 (.008)	.009 (.875)	.290 (.000)	-.057 (.304)	.548 (.000)	.593 (.000)
Prx(B)	-.027 (.634)	-.224 (.000)	-.069 (.210)	-.032 (.559)	-.052 (.348)	.069 (.206)	.002 (.970)	.443 (.000)	-.107 (.051)	-.160 (.003)
PH(C)	.029 (.599)	-.089 (.103)	.378 (.000)	.217 (.000)	.076 (.160)	.078 (.149)	.088 (.102)	-.053 (.330)	.007 (.895)	-.013 (.812)
SrC(C)	.109 (.047)	.093 (.087)	.556 (.000)	.169 (.002)	.265 (.000)	.089 (.099)	.175 (.001)	-.127 (.020)	.103 (.057)	.160 (.003)
SoC(C)	.011 (.835)	.010 (.859)	.505 (.000)	-.059 (.274)	-.029 (.596)	.431 (.000)	.110 (.042)	.019 (.733)	.043 (.426)	.021 (.693)
TI(C)	-.082 (.133)	-.167 (.002)	.299 (.000)	.006 (.919)	.088 (.105)	.041 (.455)	.265 (.000)	-.044 (.422)	.035 (.523)	.049 (.369)
Prx(C)	-.070 (.209)	-.031 (.569)	-.220 (.000)	-.007 (.902)	.000 (.993)	.033 (.550)	.026 (.637)	.524 (.000)	.020 (.715)	-.013 (.807)
CEV	.161 (.003)	.047 (.390)	.076 (.161)	.074 (.170)	.128 (.018)	.088 (.104)	.102 (.058)	-.143 (.009)	.047 (.388)	.070 (.196)
EE	.203 (.000)	.123 (.026)	.131 (.017)	.134 (.014)	.178 (.001)	.096 (.078)	.171 (.002)	-.035 (.524)	.083 (.132)	.091 (.098)

TABLE 4.9 (continued)

	EJ(A)	EJ(B)	EJ(C)	PH(A)	SrC(A)	SoC(A)	TI(A)	Prx(A)	PH(B)	SrC(B)
OCQ	.125 (.022)	.095 (.081)	.142 (.009)	.087 (.107)	.166 (.002)	.114 (.034)	.066 (.225)	-.098 (.073)	.062 (.257)	.061 (.258)
CCS	.082 (.134)	-.016 (.773)	.047 (.393)	.007 (.895)	-.009 (.862)	.016 (.767)	.017 (.748)	-.107 (.051)	-.013 (.809)	-.060 (.266)
GJS	.034 (.528)	.021 (.700)	.058 (.291)	.049 (.362)	.108 (.046)	.103 (.056)	.022 (.683)	-.051 (.352)	-.004 (.947)	.030 (.581)
PayS	.016 (.766)	.063 (.251)	.140 (.010)	.076 (.159)	.071 (.194)	.063 (.247)	.008 (.885)	.013 (.817)	.018 (.745)	.021 (.695)
ProS	.035 (.517)	.070 (.196)	.019 (.725)	.074 (.173)	.093 (.087)	.046 (.395)	.072 (.185)	.020 (.712)	.093 (.086)	.034 (.532)
CoS	.101 (.063)	-.031 (.565)	.021 (.699)	.087 (.107)	.140 (.010)	-.005 (.932)	.005 (.931)	-.053 (.334)	-.056 (.304)	.001 (.980)
SupS	.104 (.056)	.007 (.902)	.074 (.177)	.026 (.631)	.117 (.031)	.027 (.613)	.011 (.843)	-.080 (.145)	-.036 (.512)	-.008 (.884)
WorkS	.113 (.038)	.012 (.822)	.063 (.245)	.053 (.331)	.132 (.015)	.135 (.012)	.072 (.184)	-.024 (.663)	.005 (.923)	.017 (.753)

TABLE 4.9 (continued)

	SoC(B)	TI(B)	Prx(B)	PH(C)	SrC(C)	SoC(C)	TI(C)	Prx(C)	CEV	EE
SoC(B)	.921									
TI(B)	.303	.952								
	(.000)									
Prx(B)	-.048	-.089	.979							
	(.385)	(.105)								
PH(C)	-.078	.034	.022	.927						
	(.154)	(.529)	(.683)							
SrC(C)	.013	.177	-.065	.586	.975					
	(.810)	(.001)	(.235)	(.000)						
SoC(C)	.281	.066	.027	.262	.378	.903				
	(.000)	(.230)	(.618)	(.000)	(.000)					
TI(C)	-.053	.188	.050	.457	.543	.302	.953			
	(.327)	(.001)	(.361)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)				
Prx(C)	.062	-.032	.378	-.095	-.104	-.028	-.019	.982		
	(.258)	(.558)	(.000)	(.080)	(.058)	(.608)	(.729)			
CEV	-.087	-.007	-.020	.007	.031	-.045	-.066	-.065	.774	
	(.106)	(.905)	(.719)	(.901)	(.568)	(.401)	(.220)	(.233)		
EE	-.003	.016	-.011	.066	.115	-.028	-.024	.013	.744	.906
	(.963)	(.766)	(.843)	(.225)	(.036)	(.611)	(.660)	(.818)	(.000)	
OCQ	-.008	-.049	-.039	.034	.152	-.036	-.033	-.032	.568	.719
	(.880)	(.372)	(.474)	(.534)	(.005)	(.508)	(.538)	(.561)	(.000)	(.000)
CCS	.019	-.050	-.005	.045	.035	.052	-.004	-.062	-.051	-.080
	(.725)	(.359)	(.930)	(.405)	(.519)	(.340)	(.936)	(.255)	(.329)	(.131)
GJS	-.049	-.032	-.019	-.035	.039	-.091	-.057	.019	.489	.562
	(.365)	(.555)	(.733)	(.520)	(.474)	(.093)	(.296)	(.724)	(.000)	(.000)
PayS	.043	.068	-.019	.056	.079	-.025	-.008	.012	.164	.278
	(.435)	(.217)	(.736)	(.301)	(.146)	(.644)	(.887)	(.821)	(.002)	(.000)
ProS	.006	.035	-.025	.001	.044	-.054	-.047	.062	.313	.445
	(.918)	(.519)	(.650)	(.986)	(.418)	(.319)	(.388)	(.259)	(.000)	(.000)
CoS	-.133	-.082	.008	.030	.027	-.116	-.033	-.020	.400	.436
	(.014)	(.136)	(.886)	(.583)	(.615)	(.032)	(.538)	(.722)	(.000)	(.000)
SupS	-.078	-.060	-.034	.043	.067	-.054	.004	-.015	.530	.624
	(.150)	(.272)	(.534)	(.426)	(.213)	(.321)	(.939)	(.779)	(.000)	(.000)
Works	-.033	.004	-.040	-.062	.036	-.023	-.035	.060	.409	.458
	(.547)	(.947)	(.463)	(.251)	(.513)	(.678)	(.518)	(.276)	(.000)	(.000)

TABLE 4.9 (continued)

	OCQ	CCS	GJS	PayS	ProS	CoS	SupS	Works
OCQ	.904							
CCS	-.016 (.756)	.767						
GJS	.762 (.000)	-.079 (.129)	.915					
PayS	.374 (.000)	.061 (.242)	.357 (.000)	.742				
ProS	.494 (.000)	-.095 (.070)	.438 (.000)	.438 (.000)	.727			
CoS	.495 (.000)	-.114 (.029)	.516 (.000)	.303 (.000)	.442 (.000)	.748		
SupS	.667 (.000)	-.130 (.013)	.590 (.000)	.322 (.000)	.564 (.000)	.656 (.000)	.857	
Works	.600 (.000)	-.103 (.050)	.635 (.000)	.304 (.000)	0.464 (.000)	.397 (.000)	.489 (.000)	.778

EJ = Ethical Judgments
 PH = Probability of Harm
 Src = Seriousness of Consequences
 SoC = Social Consensus
 TI = Temporal Immediacy
 Prx = Proximity
 CEV = Corporate Ethical Values
 EE = Ethical Environment
 OCQ = Attitudinal Commitment
 CCS = Continuance Commitment
 GJS = Global Job Satisfaction
 PayS = Pay Satisfaction
 ProS = Promotion Satisfaction
 CoS = Coworker Satisfaction
 SupS = Supervisor Satisfaction
 Works = Work Satisfaction

Note: Reliability coefficients on diagonal in bold.
 Scenarios are identified in parentheses after construct.

ethical environment and negatively associated with proximity. Ethical judgments that the action in Scenario C was unethical was positively associated with probability of harm, seriousness of consequences, social consensus, temporal immediacy, ethical environment, attitudinal commitment, and pay satisfaction and negatively associated with proximity.

With regard to moral intensity in Scenario A, probability of harm and ethical environment were positively related and seriousness of consequences was positively associated with corporate ethical values, ethical environment, attitudinal commitment, global job satisfaction, coworker satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, and work satisfaction. Positive relationships were also found among social consensus, attitudinal commitment, and work satisfaction, temporal immediacy, and ethical environment. Proximity was negatively associated with corporate ethical values and continuance commitment. In Scenario B, social consensus and coworker satisfaction were negatively related. In Scenario C, seriousness of consequences was positively associated with ethical environment and attitudinal commitment, while social consensus was negatively associated with coworker satisfaction.

Both corporate ethical values and ethical environment were positively related to all of the job attitude variables except continuance commitment, which exhibited insignificant negative relationships with these two variables. Most of the job attitudes were strongly and positively correlated with each other.

Tests of Hypotheses

Before testing the hypotheses in this dissertation, the problem of social desirability needs to be assessed. The practice of providing socially desirable responses on self-report questionnaires is widely documented in the behavioral sciences (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987; Reynolds, 1982) and is explicitly discussed in the ethics literature (Randall & Fernandez, 1991). In general, social desirability can contaminate behavioral research by causing misleading correlations among variables that are profoundly influenced by culturally or societal norms. According to Zerbe and Paulhus (1987, p. 251):

Individuals scoring high on SDR scales are assumed to be 'faking good' and reports of these individuals are considered invalid. Moreover, self-report measures that correlate highly with SDR scales are rejected as invalid because they confound content with style.

Scores for all of the focal variables in Scenarios A, B, and C were tested for associations with the measure. The correlations are presented in Table 4.10. Satisfaction with work and corporate ethical values were associated with social desirability, but the other study variables were not related to social desirability. Therefore, social desirability did not seem to be a major problem in this study.

Hierarchical Linear Regression Results

Hierarchical regression was used to test the hypotheses. First, individual-level variables including all job attitude measures were entered into the regression equation. Second, moral intensity variables were entered into the regression model. And finally, the organizational-level variables were entered into the regression equation. Overall model fit was assessed with the F value, and parameter significance was tested with the p-value.

Scenario A. A summary of the hierarchical regression results for Scenario A is provided in Table 4.11. In equation 1, individual variables were entered into the regression equation. Results indicated that the R^2 of .05

TABLE 4.10
Correlation Analysis—
Study Variables and
Social Desirability

<u>Construct</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>Significance</u> <u>(2-tailed)</u>
Ethical Judgment (A)	.01	.86
Ethical Judgment (B)	.07	.19
Ethical Judgment (C)	.07	.19
Probability of Harm (A)	-.04	.46
Seriousness of Consequences (A)	.07	.18
Social Consensus (A)	.02	.66
Temporal Immediacy (A)	.06	.31
Proximity (A)	.00	.97
Probability of Harm (B)	.07	.23
Seriousness of Consequences (B)	.07	.19
Social Consensus (B)	.02	.73
Temporal Immediacy (B)	-.00	.95
Proximity (B)	.03	.62
Probability of Harm (C)	-.01	.83
Seriousness of Consequences (C)	.02	.76
Social Consensus (C)	.04	.47
Temporal Immediacy (C)	.01	.81
Proximity (C)	-.04	.46
Attitudinal Commitment	.10	.06

TABLE 4.10 (continued)

<u>Construct</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>Significance (2-tailed)</u>
Continuance Commitment	-.03	.63
Global Job Satisfaction	.06	.30
Pay Satisfaction	.04	.40
Promotion Satisfaction	.08	.13
Coworker Satisfaction	.10	.06
Supervisor Satisfaction	.07	.20
Work Satisfaction	.12	.02
Corporate Ethical Values	.11	.03
Ethical Environment	.09	.11

TABLE 4.11
Hierarchical Linear Regression-Scenario A
Standardized Coefficients and Significance with
Ethical Judgments as Dependent Variable

Equ	Individual		Issue-Related	Organizational			Adj.	
#	Variables		Variables	Variables	ΔR^2	R^2	R^2	F value
(1)	OCQ .17				.05*	.05	.02	2.02*
	CCS .09							
	GJS -.21*							
	PayS -.04							
	ProS -.06							
	CoS .09							
	SupS .05							
	WorkS .13							
(2)	OCQ .07	PH .18***			.24***	.29	.26	10.00***
	CCS .09	SrC .36***						
	GJS -.16*	SoC .13**						
	PayS -.05	TI -.02						
	ProS -.06	Prx -.03						
	CoS .04							
	SupS .09							
	WorkS .09							
(3)	OCQ -.03	PH .17***	CEV .01		.02*	.31	.27	9.20***
	CCS .10*	SrC .36***	EE .17*					
	GJS -.16*	SoC .13**						
	PayS -.04	TI -.04						
	ProS -.07	Prx -.03						
	CoS .04							
	SupS .04							
	WorkS .09							
OCQ = Attitudinal Commitment CCS = Continuance Commitment GJS = Global Job Satisfaction PayS = Pay Satisfaction ProS = Promotion Satisfaction CoS = Coworker Satisfaction SupS = Supervisor Satisfaction WorkS = Work Satisfaction PH = Probability of Harm SrC = Seriousness of Consequences SoC = Social Consensus TI = Temporal Immediacy Prx = Proximity CEV = Corporate Ethical Values EE = Ethical Environment *** = significant at 0.001 level ** = significant at 0.01 level * = significant at 0.05 level								

and F score of 2.02 were significant ($p < 0.05$). Global job satisfaction was negatively associated with ethical judgments that the situation presented was unethical ($p < 0.05$).

In equation 2, the issue-related variables were added to the equation. The resulting regression model had an F score of 10.00 ($p < 0.001$), and there was a significant change in R^2 of 0.24 ($p < 0.001$), which indicates that moral intensity explained additional variance in ethical judgments. Three dimensions of moral intensity, including probability of harm ($p < 0.001$), seriousness of consequences ($p < 0.001$), and social consensus ($p < 0.01$) were positively associated with judgments that the action in Scenario A was unethical.

In equation 3, the organizational-level variables were entered into the regression equation. The resulting model had an F score of 9.20 ($p < 0.001$) and there was a small but significant change in R^2 of 0.02 ($p < 0.001$). The ethical environment was positively associated with individual ethical judgments that action in Scenario A was unethical ($p < 0.05$).

Scenario B. A summary of the hierarchical regression results for Scenario B is provided in Table 4.12. When

TABLE 4.12
Hierarchical Linear Regression—Scenario B
Standardized Coefficients and Significance with
Ethical Judgments as Dependent Variable

Equ	Individual		Issue-Related	Organizational			Adj.	
#	Variables		Variables	Variables	ΔR^2	R^2	R^2	F value
(1)	OCQ .23*				.03	.03	.01	1.24
	CCS -.04							
	GJS -.08							
	PayS .04							
	ProS .08							
	CoS -.08							
	SupS -.08							
	Works -.06							
(2)	OCQ .10	PH .14**			.53***	.56	.54	31.10***
	CCS -.01	SrC .42***						
	GJS -.04	SoC .32***						
	PayS .02	TI -.06						
	ProS .02	Prx -.13***						
	CoS -.01							
	SupS -.004							
	Works -.03							
(3)	OCQ .05	PH .13**	CEV -.03		.003	.57	.54	27.11***
	CCS -.001	SrC .41***	EE .10					
	GJS -.04	SoC .32***						
	PayS .02	TI -.06						
	ProS .02	Prx -.13***						
	CoS -.01							
	SupS -.02							
	Works -.03							

OCQ = Attitudinal Commitment
 CCS = Continuance Commitment
 GJS = Global Job Satisfaction
 PayS = Pay Satisfaction
 ProS = Promotion Satisfaction
 CoS = Coworker Satisfaction
 SupS = Supervisor Satisfaction
 Works = Work Satisfaction

PH = Probability of Harm
 SrC = Seriousness of Consequences
 SoC = Social Consensus
 TI = Temporal Immediacy
 Prx = Proximity

CEV = Corporate Ethical Values
 EE = Ethical Environment

*** = significant at 0.001 level
 ** = significant at 0.01 level
 * = significant at 0.05 level

individual-level variables were entered into the regression model, the overall F value was not significant (F value = 1.24, $p < 0.28$). However, attitudinal commitment was positively associated with judgments that the action presented was unethical ($p < 0.05$).

When issue-related variables were added to the regression equation, the model had an F-score of 31.10 ($p < 0.001$), and there was a significant change in R^2 of 0.53 ($p < 0.001$). Three dimensions of moral intensity including probability of harm ($p < 0.01$), seriousness of consequences ($p < 0.001$), and social consensus ($p < 0.001$) were positively associated with ethical judgments that the issue presented was unethical. A fourth dimension, proximity, was negatively and significantly associated with individual ethical judgments that the issue presented was unethical ($p < 0.001$). When the organizational-level variables were entered into the regression equation, the model had an F value of 27.11 ($p < 0.001$), but the change in R^2 of 0.003 was not significant ($p < 0.35$).

Scenario C. A summary of the hierarchical regression results for Scenario C is provided in Table 4.13. In the first regression model, the R^2 was 0.05, and the equation was significant (F value = 1.96, $p < 0.05$). Attitudinal

TABLE 4.13
Hierarchical Linear Regression-Scenario C
Standardized Coefficients and Significance with
Ethical Judgments as Dependent Variable

Equ #	Individual Variables	Issue-Related Variables	Organizational Variables	ΔR^2	R^2	Adj. R^2	F value
(1)	OCQ .23*			.05*	.05	.02	1.96*
	CCS .02						
	GJS -.12						
	PayS .14*						
	ProS -.10						
	CoS -.05						
	SupS .04						
	Works .02						
(2)	OCQ .05	PH .06		.41***	.46	.44	20.62***
	CCS -.01	SrC .37***					
	GJS .002*	SoC .36***					
	PayS .12*	TI -.04					
	ProS -.07	Prx -.16***					
	CoS -.01						
	SupS .02						
	Works .03						
(3)	OCQ .01	PH .06	CEV -.01	.002	.46	.44	17.94***
	CCS -.004	SrC .37***	EE .08				
	GJS .004	SoC .36***					
	PayS .12*	TI -.04					
	ProS -.07	Prx -.17***					
	CoS -.01						
	SupS .002						
	Works .03						

OCQ = Attitudinal Commitment
 CCS = Continuance Commitment
 GJS = Global Job Satisfaction
 PayS = Pay Satisfaction
 ProS = Promotion Satisfaction
 CoS = Coworker Satisfaction
 SupS = Supervisor Satisfaction
 Works = Work Satisfaction

PH = Probability of Harm
 SrC = Seriousness of Consequences
 SoC = Social Consensus
 TI = Temporal Immediacy
 Prx = Proximity

CEV = Corporate Ethical Values
 EE = Ethical Environment

*** = significant at 0.001 level
 ** = significant at 0.01 level
 * = significant at 0.05 level

commitment and pay satisfaction were predictors of individual ethical judgments, and the partial regression coefficients were both significant ($p < 0.05$).

In the second regression equation, which had an F score of 20.62 ($p < 0.001$), there was a significant change in R^2 of 0.41 ($p < 0.001$). Two dimensions of moral intensity including seriousness of consequences ($p < 0.001$) and social consensus ($p < 0.001$) were positively associated with judgments that the action in Scenario C was unethical. Proximity was negatively and significantly associated with ethical judgments that the action was unethical ($p < 0.001$). In the final regression equation, the overall model had an F score of 17.94 ($p < 0.001$), and the change in R^2 was not significant. The measures of corporate ethical values were not associated with ethical judgments.

Moderated Regression Analysis

According to Sharma, Durand, & Gur-Arie (1981), moderated regression analysis is the appropriate technique for assessing hypothesized moderator relationships. Moderated regression analysis is employed by first regressing the predictor variable on the dependent variable. In the second equation, the predictor variable and the proposed moderator variable are regressed on the

dependent variable. Finally, the predictor and proposed moderator variables and their interaction term are regressed on the dependent variable. These three regression models are expressed as:

- (1) $Y = a + b_1x$
- (2) $Y = a + b_1x + b_2z$
- (3) $Y = a + b_1x + b_2z + b_3xz$

a = intercept
 x = independent variable
 z = proposed moderator
 xz = interaction term

(Sharma et al., 1981, p. 295)

As the equations are estimated in progression from equation #1 to equation #3, significant increases in the R^2 of the regression model are assessed. However, significance among the main effects is not a requirement in moderated regression analysis (Bedeian & Mossholder, 1994). If the change in R^2 by adding the interaction term is statistically significant, then a moderator variable is present. If the change in R^2 is not statistically significant, then the variable is not a moderator. If both the proposed moderator and the interaction term cause a significant change in R^2 , then the variable is a quasi moderator. If there is no significant change in R^2 when the proposed moderator is entered into the regression equation, but there is a significant change when the interaction is

entered, then the variable is a pure moderator. There may also be a significant association between the predictor and dependent variables, but this is not a requirement for moderation (Sharma et al., 1981).

A summary of the moderated regression results for this dissertation is presented in Table 4.14. Forty-eight proposed moderated relationships were assessed. The regression models that contained significant moderators are presented in the table. In scenario A, one moderating relationship was found among satisfaction with coworkers, corporate ethical values, and ethical judgments the issue presented was unethical. Equation 1 indicates that coworker satisfaction did not significantly improve the R^2 ($p < 0.10$), and the F score for this first model was 3.45. In equation 2, corporate ethical values was significantly and positively related to ethical judgments that the issue presented was unethical, and the addition of corporate ethical values improved the R^2 by 0.02. The equation was significant at the 0.01 level (F value = 4.67) and had an overall R^2 of 0.03. Partial regression coefficients in equation 3 suggested a significant change in R^2 of 0.02 and negative associations among coworker satisfaction and ethical judgments ($p < .05$), corporate ethical values and

TABLE 4.14
Moderated Regression Analysis with
Ethical Judgments as Dependent Variable

Equ	Predictor	Proposed Moderator		Interaction		ΔR^2	R^2	Adj.	
#	Variable	Variable		Term				R^2	F value
<u>Scenario A</u>									
(1)	CoS	.10^				.01	.01	.01	3.45
(2)	CoS	.04	CEV	.14*		.02*	.03	.02	4.67**
(3)	CoS	-.64*	CEV	-.56*	CoS*CEV -1.09**	.02*	.05	.04	5.28***
<u>Scenario B</u>									
(4)	GJS	.02				.00	.00	.00	.15
(5)	GJS	-.002	CEV	.06		.00	.00	.00	.37
(6)	GJS	.55**	CEV	.84**	GJS*CEV -1.18**	.02**	.02	.01	2.45^
(7)	WorkS	.01				.00	.00	.00	.05
(8)	WorkS	-.01	CEV	.05		.00	.00	.00	.37
(9)	WorkS	.58**	CEV	.79**	WorkS*CEV -1.12**	.02**	.02	.01	2.52^
<u>Scenario C</u>									
(10)	OCQ	.14**				.02**	.02	.02	6.79**
(11)	OCQ	.10	EE	.06		.00	.02	.02	3.68*
(12)	OCQ	-.42^	EE	-.66*	OCQ*EE 1.07*	.02*	.04	.03	4.48***
OCQ = Attitudinal Commitment GJS = Global Job Satisfaction CoS = Coworker Satisfaction WorkS = Work Satisfaction CEV = Corporate Ethical Values EE = Ethical Environment *** = significant at 0.001 level ** = significant at 0.01 level * = significant at 0.05 level ^ = significant at 0.10 level									

judgments that the action was unethical ($p < .05$), and the interaction term of coworker satisfaction and corporate ethical values and ethical judgments ($p < 0.01$). Corporate ethical values was a quasi moderator since the addition of each variable significantly improved the R^2 . Subgroup analysis indicated that the relationship between coworker satisfaction and ethical judgments was stronger when corporate ethical values were high.

In scenario B, two moderating relationships were detected. Equation 4 shows that global job satisfaction alone was not associated with ethical judgments about the issue (F value = 0.15). The addition of corporate ethical values in equation 5 did not significantly improve the R^2 , and the F score of the model was 0.37. Adding the interaction term of global job satisfaction and corporate ethical values significantly improved the model R^2 ($p < 0.01$), and overall model fit was marginally significant ($F = 2.45$, $p < 0.10$). Global job satisfaction and corporate ethical values were positively and significantly associated with judgments that the action in Scenario B was unethical in equation 6 ($p < 0.01$), while the interaction between job satisfaction and corporate ethical values was negatively related with judgments that the action in Scenario B was unethical ($p < 0.01$). Since equation 6 was significantly

different from both 4 and 5, corporate ethical values was considered a pure moderator. Subgroup analysis indicated that the relationship between global job satisfaction and ethical judgments was positive when corporate ethical values were low and negative when corporate ethical values were high.

In Equation 7, work satisfaction was not associated with ethical judgments (F value = 0.05). The addition of corporate ethical values in equation 8 did not significantly improve the R^2 , and the F score of the model was 0.37. The addition of the interaction term of work satisfaction and corporate ethical values to the regression model significantly improved the model R^2 ($p < 0.01$), and overall model fit was marginally significant ($F = 2.52$, $p < 0.10$). Work satisfaction and corporate ethical values were positively and significantly associated with ethical judgments that the scenario presented was unethical in equation 9 ($p < 0.01$). Since equation 9 was significantly different from both 7 and 8, corporate ethical values was a pure moderator. Subgroup analysis indicated that the relationship between work satisfaction and ethical judgments was positive when corporate ethical values were low and negative when corporate ethical values were high.

In Scenario C, one moderated relationship was found among the dependent variable and the predictor variables. A positive association was found between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments that the action presented was unethical in Equation 10 ($p < 0.01$), and the F score was 6.79 ($p < 0.01$). Ethical environment was added to the model in Equation 11 (F value = 3.68, $p < 0.05$) with no significant change in R^2 , and attitudinal commitment was not a significant predictor in the presence of the proposed moderator. After the interaction term was added, a significant change in R^2 of 0.02 ($p < 0.05$) occurred, indicating that ethical environment was a pure moderator of the relationship between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments. Equation 12 had an F score of 4.48 ($p < .001$), and attitudinal commitment was negatively related to ethical judgments ($p < 0.10$), ethical environment was negatively related to ethical judgments ($p < 0.05$), and the interaction between attitudinal commitment and ethical environment was positively related to ethical judgments ($p < 0.05$). Subgroup analysis indicated that the relationship between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments was stronger when the environment was ethical.

Hypothesis Evaluation

Hierarchical linear regression and moderated regression analysis of the data collected provide a means for assessing the proposed relationships in this dissertation. The following section provides a summary of hypothesis testing.

H1a (Partially Supported). Attitudinal organizational commitment will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

In the hierarchical models of Scenarios B and C, attitudinal commitment was positively associated with ethical judgments that the issue presented was unethical ($p < 0.05$). The results provided only weak support for the hypothesized relationships.

H1b (Not Supported). The relationship between attitudinal commitment and judgments that the issue presented is unethical will be moderated by ethical context.

Moderated regression analysis revealed that the relationship between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments was moderated by ethical environment only in Scenario C. A significant interaction between attitudinal commitment and ethical environment was found, and this term caused a significant change in R^2 of 0.02 ($p < 0.05$) in the

model. However, the moderating effect was not present in Scenarios A and B. Thus, H1b was not adequately supported by the analyses.

H2a (Partially Supported). Continuance commitment will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

In the hierarchical linear model for Scenario A, equation 3 (the final model) showed a positive association between continuance commitment and judgments that the action presented was unethical ($p < 0.05$). The hypothesis was not supported in the other two scenarios.

H2b (Not supported). The relationship between continuance commitment and judgments that the issue presented is unethical will be moderated by ethical context.

Statistical evaluation of the three scenarios with moderated regression analysis did not indicate significant moderating effects. Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported.

H3a (Partially Supported). Job satisfaction will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

In the hierarchical linear model for Scenario C, equation 3 (the final model) showed a positive association between pay satisfaction and ethical judgments that the action presented was unethical ($p < 0.05$), which provides

some support for the hypothesis. The hypothesis was also marginally supported in Scenario A of the moderated regression analysis where coworker satisfaction was positively related to judgments that the action in Scenario A was unethical ($p < 0.10$). However, a significant negative association between global job satisfaction and judgments that the action was unethical was found in equation 3 ($p < 0.05$). Thus, the hypothesized relationship received only weak support.

H3b (Not Supported). The relationship between job satisfaction and judgments that the issue presented is unethical will be moderated by ethical context.

Thirty-six moderated relationships involving job satisfaction were tested, and only three were significant. In Scenario A, the addition of the interaction term between coworker satisfaction and corporate ethical values in equation 3 significantly improved the model R^2 by 0.02 ($p < 0.05$). In Scenario B, the addition of the interaction term between global job satisfaction and corporate ethical values in equation 6 significantly improved the model R^2 by 0.02 ($p < 0.01$). In Scenario B, the addition of the interaction term between work satisfaction and corporate ethical values in equation 9 significantly improved the model R^2 by 0.02 ($p < 0.01$). Support for this hypothesis

was not found in Scenario C. Overall, the analyses do not provide support for this hypothesis because the moderated relationships probably occurred by chance.

H4a (Supported). The seriousness of consequences of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Seriousness of consequences was positively and significantly associated with ethical judgments that the issue presented was unethical in all three scenarios. Therefore, the hypothesis received strong support.

H4b (Supported). The social consensus of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Social consensus was positively and significantly associated with ethical judgments in all three scenarios ($p < 0.01$ in Scenario A, $p < 0.001$ in Scenarios B and C). Therefore, the hypothesis received strong support.

H4c (Partially Supported). Probability of harm of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Probability of harm was positively and significantly associated with judgments that the action was unethical in Scenarios A and B. Therefore, the hypothesis was supported in Scenarios A and B, but not supported in Scenario C.

H4d (Not supported). Temporal immediacy of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Statistical evaluation of the three scenarios with hierarchical regression analysis did not provide support for this hypothesis. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected based on the lack of statistical evidence.

H4e (Not supported). Proximity of a morally questionable action will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Significant and negative associations between proximity and ethical judgments were found in Scenarios B and C in the presence of both individual and organizational variables in the first and final equations ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported because the association was the opposite of that expected.

H5a (Not Supported). Corporate ethical values emphasizing the importance of ethical behavior will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

Significant and positive relationships between corporate ethical values and ethical judgments were found in the moderated regression analyses for Scenario B in equations 6 and 9 ($p < 0.01$). The association was not found in the hierarchical linear regressions. Therefore, H5a was not adequately supported by the analyses.

H5b (Partially Supported). Ethical environments emphasizing the importance of ethical behavior will be positively associated with judgments that the issue presented is unethical.

A positive relationship between ethical environment and ethical judgment was found in the presence of the individual and issue-related variables in the hierarchical linear regression equation in Scenario A ($p < 0.05$). The association was not found in the other hierarchical models.

Summary

This chapter provides the results of the study including descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients for the study variables, factor analytic statistics, and hierarchical and moderated regression reports. Along with these results are the tests of hypotheses. The following chapter presents the conclusions and contributions of the dissertation, the limitations of the study, and the implications for future research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a discussion and interpretation of the results of the research conducted in this study. The first section will provide an overview of the relevant findings of the statistical analyses. The second section provides managerial implications that are drawn from the findings. The third section reviews the limitations of the study. The contributions of the dissertation are presented in the fourth section. And finally, suggestions for future research are highlighted in the fifth section.

Overview of Research Findings

This dissertation tested hypothesized relationships between individual, issue-related, and organizational-level antecedents to ethical judgments. This dissertation also tested several proposed moderating relationships involving interactions among various job attitudes, corporate ethical values, and ethical environment.

The overall purpose of this dissertation was to contribute to the ethics literature by simultaneously examining potential predictors of ethical judgments at the individual, issue, and organizational levels. Job attitudes' relationships to ethical judgments were examined. According to Ford and Richardson (1994), job attitudes have not been adequately studied in the ethics literature. Moral intensity components' relationships to ethical judgments were also examined. Jones (1991) argues that the moral intensity of ethical ethics should affect all stages of ethical decision-making, including ethical judgments. Organizational ethical values' relationship to ethical judgments was also tested. Finally, the moderating effect of an organization's ethical values was examined. Thirteen relationships were proposed and assessed in this dissertation. The proposed associations are illustrated in Figures 1.1 and 3.1. and are discussed in Chapter 3.

Job Attitudes and Ethical Judgments

Two types of organizational commitment (attitudinal and continuance) were examined along with six measures of job satisfaction. Overall, the results of the study provided little support for direct relationships between

job attitudes and ethical judgments. Positive associations were hypothesized between all of the job attitudes and ethical judgments that the issue presented was unethical, but the results of the hierarchical linear regression analyses and the moderated regression analyses provided only weak confirmation. In a few of the regression models, attitudinal commitment was positively associated with ethical judgments, while continuance commitment shared the same relationship with ethical judgments in only one hierarchical model.

Job satisfaction was hypothesized to positively influence ethical judgments. Generally speaking, little support was found for this relationship. A weak positive association between pay satisfaction and ethical judgments was found in the hierarchical regression results for Scenario C. Coworker satisfaction and ethical judgments were positively related for Scenario A, while global job satisfaction and ethical judgments were positively related in the hierarchical regression model for Scenario C and in the moderated regression analyses for Scenario B. However, global job satisfaction in Scenario A was found to negatively influence ethical judgments in the presence of the other study variables. These results provide conflicting evidence regarding the association between job

satisfaction and ethical judgments. Several explanations are possible. One explanation is that satisfied employees are less likely to make ethical judgments in certain situations because their overall satisfaction at work reflects a perception that one need not conform to ethical standards of conduct. Still another reason may lie in the content of the scenarios themselves and the nature of the industries utilized in this dissertation. Quite possibly the behavior described in Scenario A, which involved exaggerating the value of products to impress a sales manager, is seen as essential for career success in sales, while the bribery and misuse of travel funds described in Scenarios B and C are seen as less career enhancing. Satisfied salespersons are likely to exaggerate the characteristics of products to make sales to please their supervisors, and to enhance their career success. Conversely, they are likely to avoid abusing travel privileges and bribing customers because these behaviors do not benefit them at work. The relationships support self-interest theory.

Several weak relationships were detected in the moderated regression analyses. Ethical context was proposed to moderate the relationship among attitudinal and continuance commitments and ethical judgments. Results

indicated that a negative association between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments was moderated by ethical environment in Scenario C. When the environment was ethical, the relationship between attitudinal commitment and ethical judgments was stronger. Ethical context was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and ethical judgments. Three relationships were identified. A positive relationship between global job satisfaction and ethical judgments was moderated by corporate ethical values in Scenario B, and the relationship was positive when corporate ethical values were low and negative when ethical values were high. A positive association between work satisfaction and ethical judgments was moderated by corporate ethical values in Scenario B. The relationship was positive when corporate ethical values were low and negative when ethical values were high. And finally, a negative association between coworker satisfaction and ethical judgments in Scenario A was moderated by corporate ethical values, and the association was stronger when corporate ethical values were high.

Moral Intensity and Ethical Judgments

Five dimensions of moral intensity were hypothesized to positively influence individual ethical judgments. Hierarchical linear regression results provided strong support for three of the five hypotheses. Overall, seriousness of consequences, social consensus, and probability of harm were positively related to more ethical judgments in each of the three scenarios, which supports previous research (Singer, 1996; Singhapakdi et al., 1996; Morris & McDonald, 1995).

Temporal immediacy and ethical judgments were not associated, and proximity and ethical judgments were negatively related, which were both unexpected findings. With regard to proximity, salespeople may be more likely to make unethical judgments in morally questionable situations when they stand to directly benefit from their actions, even if they feel attached to their employers. Companies may tacitly approve of such unethical tendencies because they are trying to increase job satisfaction (getting employees frequent flyer miles; giving them gifts), which would tend to strengthen perceived proximity. Another reason for this unexpected finding may stem from the use of scenarios that present hypothetical situations rather than

real decision-making tasks. Finally, Singer (1996) suggests that proximity is comprised of social, cultural, psychological, and physical dimensions, and that these various dimensions affect decision-making tasks in much different ways. This could have influenced the results because the proximity scale may have tapped one fairly narrow dimension of proximity. Quite possibly, respondents could have perceived physical or social proximity for the victims or beneficiaries in the decision-making tasks, but little psychological proximity. Using scenarios that emphasize different decision-making tasks and social actors could easily yield different results.

With regard to temporal immediacy, the lack of support for its hypothesized relationship with ethical judgments can be attributed to the scenarios utilized in the study. Time was not an essential factor in the vignettes. The scenarios may not have adequately manipulated temporal immediacy, since little information regarding the onset of consequences was provided.

Organizational Ethical Values and Ethical Judgments

Organizational ethical values were hypothesized to positively influence ethical judgments. However, results provided very little support for such a relationship. In

Scenario A, ethical environment was positively associated with ethical judgments in the hierarchical analyses. In the moderated regression analyses, corporate ethical values was positively related to ethical judgments in Scenario B. However, negative associations between corporate ethical values and ethical environment were found in Scenarios A and C of the moderated regression analysis. These findings might be attributed to the use of vignettes in the study. The use of scenarios to assess ethical judgments tends to capture fairly narrow, issue-specific measures of ethical decision-making, while using global instruments that assess organizational-level ethical constructs tends to capture more general measures of ethical decision-making. Quite possibly, when the two measures are incorporated into a statistical model, little variance is explained because one is related to a specific situation and the other is based on many situations. This idea also explains why some of the associations between ethical judgments and ethical context were negative. Essentially, salespeople may make unethical judgments in certain situations even though the corporate-level values in the organization are ethical in nature.

Managerial Implications

The results of this dissertation have several implications for practitioners. Specifically, this study demonstrated that managers might consider three levels of influence when assessing individual ethical judgments in their organizations. However, the perceived moral intensity of the ethical issues was the most noteworthy influence on ethical judgments.

Job attitudes accounted for only a small portion of the variance in ethical judgments in the sample of sales professionals. This finding provides weak support for the notion that attitudes are relevant to the study of ethical decision making in organizations (Viswesvaran, et al., 1998; Viswesvaran & Deshpande, 1996; Deshpande, 1996).

Moral intensity was linked to judgments regarding the ethical issues. Seriousness of consequences, social consensus, and probability of harm were positively associated with ethical judgments. Based on these results, managers must realize that their employees are likely to be influenced strongly by their peer groups when making decisions. Furthermore, consensus among these coworkers that an act is either ethical or unethical can determine an individual's eventual course of action. They must also realize that that the positive or negative nature of a

decision-making task and the probability that something adverse will result from a selected course of action are likely to influence ethical judgments. These ideas can help managers develop realistic and effective ethics training for their employees. Managers can promote ethical judgments and behavior by emphasizing moral intensity in work scenarios and role-playing.

Finally, weak associations were found between ethical context and ethical judgments in this dissertation. This finding provides marginal support for the contention that employee behavior is partially controlled by organizational policies and values that are ethical in nature. Such an "ethical environment" is identified by Vitell & Davis (1990, p. 493) as a possible precursor of high job satisfaction among employees. Managers must also establish formalized codes of ethics that set parameters on decision making and behavior in organizations. These codes also create perceptions among employees that the organizations they work for support ethical conduct.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations of this study. These limitations generally influence the interpretation of results and the generalizability of findings, so they

should be taken into consideration when applying the study's findings to other business settings or situations.

Sample Frame

The sampling frame of this study was comprised of 3,000 sales professionals drawn from a national database owned and managed by a commercial provider. Applying the results to employees and situations in greatly varied fields should be performed with caution.

Nonresponse

Even though the sample of 3,000 marketing professionals used in this dissertation was taken from a national population, the calculated response rate of 12.83% raises the concern regarding bias. Nonresponse bias did not appear to be a problem because significant differences between the first and second waves of questionnaires were only found for two of the moral intensity dimensions in one of the scenarios.

Self-Reporting of Study Variables

All of the primary data for this study was collected using a self-report questionnaire. Therefore, same-source bias is a potential problem. Same-source bias occurs when relevant information is collected from one source, which

can lead to exaggerated associations, underrepresented relationships, and erroneous conclusions.

Research Design

Several other limitations of the study were the use of only three scenarios to measure ethical judgments and moral intensity, as well as the cross-sectional design of the dissertation. Future research should determine if the associations found in this study change over time. Also, new research should incorporate different scenarios to validate the results of this study. These scenarios were originally selected because in previous research they have exhibited acceptable variability in the measurement of ethical judgments; however, they are still fairly narrow in scope. In this study, the scenarios were viewed predominantly as unethical.

The use of scenarios to measure ethical judgments and moral intensity is another limitation to this study. Such scenario-based research is an approximation of reality and does not actually identify the actual ethical or unethical decision.

Contributions of the Study

This study has contributed to the ethics literature in several distinct ways. First, the results of this

dissertation suggest that job attitudes may be poor predictors of ethical judgments. Second, perceptions of moral intensity or the characteristics of the decision-making task appear to be strong predictors of ethical judgments. Third, the ethical context of an organization did not appear to be a strong predictor of ethical judgments. Fourth, significant interactions were found among job attitudes and organizational ethical values, which suggested that ethical context moderated the relationships among different job attitudes and ethical judgments. And last, job attitudes, moral intensity, and organizational ethical values were found to simultaneously influence ethical judgments in a hierarchical model of ethical decision making. The assessment of such a model is a distinct contribution because these variables have never been examined in the same study.

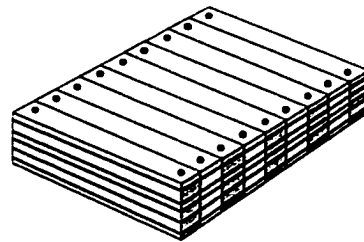
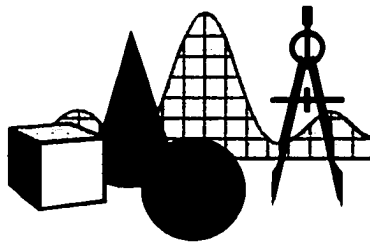
Suggestions for Future Research

The results of this dissertation generate an entirely new set of research questions. First, other job-related individual variables should be included in ethics models to test for potential significant interactions. Several variables that show promise include job involvement and organizational citizenship behavior, both of which have

been widely researched in the behavioral sciences. Second, new research on moral intensity needs to identify the individual and organizational variables that prompt these perceived characteristics of a decision making task. Third, ethics research needs to theoretically identify and empirically address the factors that moderate (i.e. strengthen or weaken) the relationship between moral intensity and ethical judgments. And last, more research is needed to address the dimensionality and measurement concerns of ethical context. Since most of the ethical context instruments are newly developed and not widely used, this appears to be a relatively fruitful research area.

APPENDIX A
DISSERTATION QUESTIONNAIRE

SALES SITUATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE



**Would you take a break,
enjoy a cup of coffee,
and complete my questionnaire?**

CONFIDENTIAL WHEN COMPLETED

Section 1:

INSTRUCTIONS: THE FOLLOWING PAGES PRESENT THREE SALES-RELATED SITUATIONS, WHICH WE HAVE LABELED SITUATIONS A, B, AND C. FOR EACH OF THESE SALES SITUATIONS, PLEASE ANSWER THE ASSOCIATED QUESTIONS, THEN MOVE ON TO THE NEXT SECTION. YOUR RESPONSES WILL BE COMPILED WITH THOSE OF ALL OTHER RESPONDENTS AND NO INDIVIDUAL RESPONSES WILL BE REPORTED. FURTHERMORE, YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE KEPT COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL AND YOU WILL REMAIN ANONYMOUS. SOME QUESTIONS ARE SIMILAR TO OTHERS. PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS. THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE IN MY PROJECT.

SITUATION A:

A young salesperson has been working very hard to impress the sales manager. At times, the salesperson has exaggerated the value of products or withheld relevant information from customers in order to get an order.

Action: The sales manager is aware of the salesperson's actions, but has done nothing to stop them.

Do you believe that this situation involves an ethical issue or problem? (Please place a check mark between the opposite adjectives that reflects your belief about the behavior.)

1. COMPLETELY AGREE IT _____ COMPLETELY DISAGREE IT
INVOLVES AN ETHICAL ISSUE INVOLVES AN ETHICAL ISSUE.

NEXT IS A SET OF ADJECTIVES THAT ALLOW YOU TO SHARE YOUR BELIEFS ABOUT SITUATION A. PLEASE PLACE A CHECK MARK IN THE SPACE THAT ACCURATELY REFLECTS YOUR OPINION.

2. FAIR _____ UNFAIR
3. JUST _____ UNJUST
4. MORALLY RIGHT _____ NOT MORALLY RIGHT
5. ACCEPTABLE TO MY FAMILY _____ UNACCEPTABLE TO MY FAMILY
6. TRADITIONALLY ACCEPTABLE _____ NOT TRADITIONALLY ACCEPTABLE
7. CULTURALLY ACCEPTABLE _____ CULTURALLY UNACCEPTABLE
8. ETHICAL _____ UNETHICAL
9. VIOLATES AN UNSPOKEN _____ DOES NOT VIOLATE AN
PROMISE UNSPOKEN PROMISE
10. VIOLATES AN UNWRITTEN _____ DOES NOT VIOLATE AN UNWRITTEN
CONTRACT CONTRACT

How likely is it that you would ignore the salesperson's actions, as the sales manager did in SITUATION A?

11. LIKELY _:_:_:_:_ UNLIKELY
12. IMPROBABLE _:_:_:_:_ PROBABLE
13. POSSIBLE _:_:_:_:_ IMPOSSIBLE
14. DEFINITELY WOULD NOT _:_:_:_:_ DEFINITELY WOULD

The likelihood that consequences will actually occur as a result of the action in SITUATION A is...

15. LIKELY _:_:_:_:_ UNLIKELY
16. IMPROBABLE _:_:_:_:_ PROBABLE
17. IMPOSSIBLE _:_:_:_:_ POSSIBLE
18. DEFINITELY WOULD _:_:_:_:_ DEFINITELY WOULD NOT

Do you believe any harm resulting from the action depicted in SITUATION A will be...

19. MINOR _:_:_:_:_ SEVERE
20. SERIOUS _:_:_:_:_ TRIVIAL
21. SIGNIFICANT _:_:_:_:_ INSIGNIFICANT
22. GREAT _:_:_:_:_ SLIGHT
23. SMALL _:_:_:_:_ LARGE

Indicate the degree to which you feel society as a whole considers the action depicted in SITUATION A...

24. EVIL _:_:_:_:_ GOOD
25. ETHICAL _:_:_:_:_ UNETHICAL
26. LEGAL _:_:_:_:_ ILLEGAL
27. WRONG _:_:_:_:_ RIGHT
28. INAPPROPRIATE _:_:_:_:_ APPROPRIATE

Do you anticipate that any consequences of the action depicted in SITUATION A are likely to occur...

29. IMMEDIATELY _:_:_:_:_ AFTER A LONG TIME
30. NEVER _:_:_:_:_ SOON

31. QUICKLY _:_:_:_:_ SLOWLY
32. BELATEDLY _:_:_:_:_ SWIFTLY
33. GRADUALLY _:_:_:_:_ RAPIDLY

Compared to yourself, do you believe those potentially affected by the action depicted in SITUATION A are...

34. SIMILAR _:_:_:_:_ DISSIMILAR
35. NOT ALIKE _:_:_:_:_ ALIKE
36. COMPATIBLE _:_:_:_:_ INCOMPATIBLE
37. CLOSE _:_:_:_:_ DISTANT
38. DIFFERENT _:_:_:_:_ SAME

SITUATION B:

The ABC wholesale company developed an interesting promotional offer. Any retail account ordering 100 cases or more would receive a free color T.V. According to a brochure which described the promo, the retailer could sponsor a contest or drawing in which the T.V. could be given away as a "Grand Prize." ABC left the administration of the program "details" up to its salesforce. One ABC salesperson told several retail buyers that if they placed a 100 case order, he would have the T.V. shipped to their home address. "What you do with it after that is entirely up to you..."

Do you believe that this situation involves an ethical issue or problem? (Please place a check mark between the opposite adjectives that reflects your belief about the behavior.)

39. COMPLETELY AGREE IT _:_:_:_:_ COMPLETELY DISAGREE IT
INVOLVES AN ETHICAL ISSUE INVOLVES AN ETHICAL ISSUE.

NEXT IS A SET OF ADJECTIVES THAT ALLOW YOU TO SHARE YOUR BELIEFS ABOUT SITUATION A. PLEASE PLACE A CHECK MARK IN THE SPACE THAT ACCURATELY REFLECTS YOUR OPINION.

40. FAIR _:_:_:_:_ UNFAIR
41. JUST _:_:_:_:_ UNJUST
42. MORALLY RIGHT _:_:_:_:_ NOT MORALLY RIGHT
43. ACCEPTABLE TO MY FAMILY _:_:_:_:_ UNACCEPTABLE TO MY FAMILY
44. TRADITIONALLY ACCEPTABLE _:_:_:_:_ NOT TRADITIONALLY ACCEPTABLE
45. CULTURALLY ACCEPTABLE _:_:_:_:_ CULTURALLY UNACCEPTABLE
46. ETHICAL _:_:_:_:_ UNETHICAL
47. VIOLATES AN UNSPOKEN _:_:_:_:_ DOES NOT VIOLATE AN
PROMISE UNSPOKEN PROMISE

48. VIOLATES AN UNWRITTEN _____ DOES NOT VIOLATE AN UNWRITTEN
CONTRACT CONTRACT

How likely is it that you would engage in the salesperson's action described in SITUATION B?

49. LIKELY _____ UNLIKELY

50. IMPROBABLE _____ PROBABLE

51. POSSIBLE _____ IMPOSSIBLE

52. DEFINITELY WOULD NOT _____ DEFINITELY WOULD

The likelihood that consequences will actually occur as a result of the action in SITUATION B is...

53. LIKELY _____ UNLIKELY

54. IMPROBABLE _____ PROBABLE

55. IMPOSSIBLE _____ POSSIBLE

56. DEFINITELY WOULD _____ DEFINITELY WOULD NOT

Do you believe any harm resulting from the action depicted in SITUATION B will be...

57. MINOR _____ SEVERE

58. SERIOUS _____ TRIVIAL

59. SIGNIFICANT _____ INSIGNIFICANT

60. GREAT _____ SLIGHT

61. SMALL _____ LARGE

Indicate the degree to which you feel society as a whole considers the action depicted in SITUATION B...

62. EVIL _____ GOOD

63. ETHICAL _____ UNETHICAL

64. LEGAL _____ ILLEGAL

65. WRONG _____ RIGHT

66. INAPPROPRIATE _____ APPROPRIATE

Do you anticipate that any consequences of the action depicted in SITUATION B are likely to occur...

67. IMMEDIATELY _____ AFTER A LONG TIME

68. NEVER _____ SOON

69. QUICKLY _:_:_:_:_ SLOWLY
70. BELATEDLY _:_:_:_:_ SWIFTLY
71. GRADUALLY _:_:_:_:_ RAPIDLY

Compared to yourself, do you believe those potentially affected by the action depicted in SITUATION B are...

72. SIMILAR _:_:_:_:_ DISSIMILAR
73. NOT ALIKE _:_:_:_:_ ALIKE
74. COMPATIBLE _:_:_:_:_ INCOMPATIBLE
75. CLOSE _:_:_:_:_ DISTANT
76. DIFFERENT _:_:_:_:_ SAME

SITUATION C:

A company that has many out-of-town clients has negotiated a special rate with airline A—a 35% discount between designated cities—and encourages its employees to use that airline whenever possible. Salesperson X prefers to use airline B because of their “frequent flier” program (which allows him to earn free personal trips). In some cases X has booked flights on airline B even though the tickets cost up to \$200 more than similar flights on A, just so he could “rack up those frequent flier points.”

Do you believe that this situation involves an ethical issue or problem? (Please place a check mark between the opposite adjectives that reflects your belief about the behavior.)

77. COMPLETELY AGREE IT _:_:_:_:_ COMPLETELY DISAGREE IT
INVOLVES AN ETHICAL ISSUE INVOLVES AN ETHICAL ISSUE.

NEXT IS A SET OF ADJECTIVES THAT ALLOW YOU TO SHARE YOUR BELIEFS ABOUT SITUATION A. PLEASE PLACE A CHECK MARK IN THE SPACE THAT ACCURATELY REFLECTS YOUR OPINION.

78. FAIR _:_:_:_:_ UNFAIR
79. JUST _:_:_:_:_ UNJUST
80. MORALLY RIGHT _:_:_:_:_ NOT MORALLY RIGHT
81. ACCEPTABLE TO MY FAMILY _:_:_:_:_ UNACCEPTABLE TO MY FAMILY
82. TRADITIONALLY ACCEPTABLE _:_:_:_:_ NOT TRADITIONALLY ACCEPTABLE
83. CULTURALLY ACCEPTABLE _:_:_:_:_ CULTURALLY UNACCEPTABLE
84. ETHICAL _:_:_:_:_ UNETHICAL
85. VIOLATES AN UNSPOKEN _:_:_:_:_ DOES NOT VIOLATE AN

UNSPOKEN PROMISE

- How likely is it that you would engage in the salesperson's action described in SITUATION C?**

- The likelihood that consequences will actually occur as a result of the action in SITUATION C is...**

- Do you believe any harm resulting from the action depicted in SITUATION C will be...**

- Indicate the degree to which you feel society as a whole considers the action depicted in SITUATION C...**

- Do you anticipate that any consequences of the action depicted in SITUATION C are likely to occur...**

- 208

106. NEVER _:_:_:_:_ SOON
107. QUICKLY _:_:_:_:_ SLOWLY
108. BELATEDLY _:_:_:_:_ SWIFTLY
109. GRADUALLY _:_:_:_:_ RAPIDLY

Compared to yourself, do you believe those potentially affected by the action depicted in SITUATION C are...

110. SIMILAR _:_:_:_:_ DISSIMILAR
111. NOT ALIKE _:_:_:_:_ ALIKE
112. COMPATIBLE _:_:_:_:_ INCOMPATIBLE
113. CLOSE _:_:_:_:_ DISTANT
114. DIFFERENT _:_:_:_:_ SAME

Section 2:

NEXT IS A SET OF QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR ORGANIZATION AND YOUR JOB. IN ANSWERING, USE THE FOLLOWING RESPONSE SCALE AND WRITE THE NUMBER CORRESPONDING TO YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH EACH STATEMENT IN THE SPACE PROVIDED BY THE STATEMENT.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- _____ 115. Managers in my company often engage in behaviors that I consider to be unethical.
- _____ 116. In order to succeed in my company, it is often necessary to compromise one's ethics.
- _____ 117. Top management in my company has let it be known in no uncertain terms that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated.
- _____ 118. If a manager in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in *personal gain* (rather than corporate gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded.
- _____ 119. If a manager in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in *corporate gain* (rather than personal gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded.
- _____ 120. Management in this organization disciplines unethical behavior when it occurs.
- _____ 121. Employees in this organization perceive that people who violate the ethics code still get formal organizational rewards.
- _____ 122. Penalties for unethical behavior are strictly enforced in this organization.
- _____ 123. Unethical behavior is punished in this organization.
- _____ 124. The top managers of this organization represent high ethical standards.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- _____ 125. People of integrity are rewarded in this organization.
- _____ 126. The ethics code serves as “window dressing” only in this organization.
- _____ 127. Top managers of this organization regularly show that they care about ethics.
- _____ 128. Top managers of this organization are models of unethical behavior.
- _____ 129. Ethical behavior is the norm in this organization.
- _____ 130. Top managers of this organization guide decision making in an ethical direction.
- _____ 131. The ethics code serves only to maintain the organization’s public image.
- _____ 132. Ethical behavior is rewarded in this organization.
- _____ 133. Ethics code requirements are consistent with informal organizational norms.
- _____ 134. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
- _____ 135. I talk up the organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
- _____ 136. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
- _____ 137. I find that my values and the organization’s values are very similar.
- _____ 138. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
- _____ 139. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
- _____ 140. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
- _____ 141. I really care about the fate of this organization.
- _____ 142. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.
- _____ 143. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
- _____ 144. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
- _____ 145. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
- _____ 146. It wouldn’t be too costly for me to leave my organization now.
- _____ 147. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
- _____ 148. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- _____ 149. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
- _____ 150. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.
- _____ 151. All in all, I'm satisfied with my job.
- _____ 152. In general, I like working at my company.
- _____ 153. In general, I don't like my job.
- _____ 154. My organization pays better than competitors.
- _____ 155. My pay is adequate, considering the responsibilities I have.
- _____ 156. I am underpaid for what I do.
- _____ 157. My fringe benefits are generous.
- _____ 158. I do not like the basis on which my organization promotes people.
- _____ 159. Promotions are infrequent in my organization.
- _____ 160. If I do a good job, I am likely to get promoted.
- _____ 161. I am satisfied with my rate of advancement.
- _____ 162. The people I work with do not give me enough support.
- _____ 163. When I ask people to do things, the job gets done.
- _____ 164. I enjoy working with the people here.
- _____ 165. I work with responsible people.
- _____ 166. The managers I work for back me up.
- _____ 167. The managers I work for are "top notch."
- _____ 168. My supervisors don't listen to me.
- _____ 169. My management doesn't treat me fairly.
- _____ 170. My job is interesting.
- _____ 171. I feel good about the amount of responsibility in my job.
- _____ 172. I would rather be doing another job.

_____ 173. I get little sense of accomplishment from doing my job.

Section 3:

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally. Then, please circle T or F found to the left of each statement.

174. T F I like to gossip at times.

175. T F There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.

176. T F I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.

177. T F I always try to practice what I preach.

178. T F I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.

179. T F At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.

180. T F There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.

181. T F I never resent being asked to return a favor.

182. T F I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.

183. T F I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

Section 4:

The following information will be used for classification purposes. Your answers will remain confidential and anonymous.

184. Your age? _____

185. Your sex? (please circle) M F

186. Years of selling experience? _____

187. Years of management experience? _____

188. How many sales positions have you held with other companies? _____

189. Years in present position? _____

190. Years with present company? _____

191. Title of present position? (please circle) Sales manager Vice-President

Sales representative/associate Other _____
(please specify)

192. What is the average number of sales calls you make per day? _____

193. How many accounts do you currently call on? _____

194. Average number of hours spent in selling activities per week? _____

195. How many hours of sales training have you attended within the last year? _____

196. How many hours of training has your company provided you about ethics in the last year? _____

197. Your yearly gross salary including bonuses and commission? \$ _____

198. Your total bonuses over the last year? \$ _____

199. What is your marital status? (please check)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Single | 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Widowed |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Married | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Separated, Divorced |

200. Please indicate your highest level of education. (please check)

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Grade school | 5. <input type="checkbox"/> College graduate |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Some high school | 6. <input type="checkbox"/> Some graduate/professional education |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> High school graduate | 7. <input type="checkbox"/> Graduate/professional degree |
| 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Some college | 8. <input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral degree |

201. If currently married, to what extent is your spouse employed?

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> not employed | 3. <input type="checkbox"/> full time |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> part time | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> not married |

202. What is your estimated total household income (including your spouse's)? _____

203. What is your race? (please check)

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Black | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> White |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Hispanic | 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____ |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Oriental | |

204. What geographic region best describes your sales territory? (please check)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> West | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> South |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> North Central | 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Southwest |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Northeast | 6. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____ |

205. In what industry classification does your company best fit into? (please check)

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Wholesale or retail | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Communications |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Manufacturing/construction | 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Advertising and marketing research |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Services | 6. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____ |

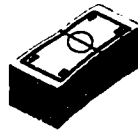
206. How many total employees does your company have? (please check)

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Fewer than 100 employees | 3. <input type="checkbox"/> 1,000 to 9,999 employees |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> 100 to 999 employees | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> 10,000 employees and more |

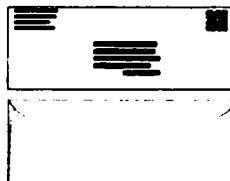
207. Does your organization have a written code of ethics? (please circle) YES NO

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY. YOUR EFFORTS ARE MUCH APPRECIATED. PLEASE PLACE THE SURVEY IN THE RETURN POSTAGE-PAID ENVELOPE AND MAIL PROMPTLY.

**I WISH I COULD PAY YOU FOR YOUR EFFORT
HOWEVER, I OFFER MY DEEPEST APPRECIATION TO YOU
FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY!!!**



**PLEASE PLACE THE COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE
IN THE RETURN POSTAGE-PAID ENVELOPE AND MAIL
PROMPTLY.**



APPENDIX B
LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Letter to Respondents

Dear Sales Professional:

I am a doctoral candidate conducting a nationwide survey of sales professionals for my dissertation research. The survey solicits your attitudes and opinions about aspects of the sales profession and the organization for which you work. It will only take about 15 minutes for you to complete. To make the process convenient for you, I have enclosed a postage-paid stamped envelope. When you complete the survey, just slip it in the reply envelope and drop it in the mail.

Your anonymity is guaranteed—your returned questionnaire cannot be distinguished from others by your name or the name of your organization. In addition, your responses will be grouped with responses from hundreds of other sales professionals—your individual responses will never be reported.

Your cooperation is vital to my study. I hope that you will take a few minutes from your busy schedule, complete the questionnaire, and return it to me. If you would like to see a copy of the aggregate results of this nationwide survey, feel free to contact me by phone (318) 257-3978, fax (318) 257-4325, or e-mail svr002@latech.edu.

Sincerely,

Sean Valentine
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX C

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM FROM HUMAN USE COMMITTEE



LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

RESEARCH & GRADUATE SCHOOL

MEMORANDUM

TO: Tim Barnett

FROM: Deby Hamm, Graduate School

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: August 4, 1999

In order to facilitate your project, an **EXPEDITED REVIEW** has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"An empirical examination of individual, issue-related, and situational determinants of ethical judgments" proposal # 1-QK

The proposed study procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Further, the subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary.

Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study.

If you have any questions, please give me a call at 257-2924.

A MEMBER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM

P.O. BOX 7923 • RUSTON, LA 71272-0029 • TELEPHONE (318) 257-2924 • FAX (318) 257-4487 • email: research@LaTech.edu

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

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