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GEBZE TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

THE ANTECEDENTS OF CONSTRUCTIVE AND DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS

BORA YILDIZ
DOCTORAL DISSERTATION
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

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ADVISORS

PROF. DR. BULENT SEZEN

PROF. DR. LÜTFİHAK ALPKAN

GEBZE

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DOKTORA TEZİ JÜRİ ONAY SAYFASI

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JÜRİ

ÜYE
(TEZ DANIŞMANI) : Prof. Dr. Bülent SEZEN

ÜYE : Doç. Dr. Alper ERTÜRK

ÜYE : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Meral ELÇİ

ÜYE : Prof. Dr. Lütfihak ALPKAN (II. Danışman)

ÜYE : Prof. Dr. Selim AREN

ONAY

GTÜ Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yönetim Kurulu'nun ……/……/20… tarih ve ……/…… sayılı kararı.

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SUMMARY

The construct of workplace deviance affecting well-being of organizations in terms of constructively and destructively is an important research area. Given the enormous gains and costs of it, the main purpose of this study is to determine the drivers of deviant workplace behaviors. In order to make a holistic assessment about it the theoretical model of the study is not only consists of destructive deviant workplace behaviors but also innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Specifically, in this study the effects of some employee orientations namely careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism on the destructive deviant workplace behaviors through moral disengagement was investigated. Likewise, the effects of some employee perceptions namely organizational justice, participative decision-making and person-organization fit on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors through psychological ownership was investigated.

The sample of this study consists of 1000 employees, who work in non-managerial positions from different service sectors in Istanbul. In order to collect data, survey method was used. Before testing the research hypotheses, a series of preliminary analyses was conducted. After of all these analyses, the theoretical model was tested with the structural equation modelling. Lastly, in order to test mediating effects hierarchical regression analyses were conducted.

The findings show that all employee orientations have significant effects on destructive deviant workplace behaviors and except for the relativism, which is one of the proposed predictors of destructive deviant workplace behaviors, moral disengagement as an attitude has a mediator role on these direct relationships. Similarly, all employee perceptions have significant effects on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors and psychological ownership, as an attitude, has a mediator role on these relationships. Managerial and practical implications, and further research directions are also forwarded.

Key Words: Innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors, Employee orientations, Employee perceptions, Destructive deviant workplace behaviors, Moral disengagement, Psychological ownership.

ÖZET

Örgütlerin refahını olumlu ve olumsuz yönde etkileyen sapkın işyeri davranışları önemli bir araştırma alanıdır. Sapkın işyeri davranışlarının sebep olduğu maliyet ve kazanımların büyüklüğü düşünüldüğünde bu davranışların öncüllerinin belirlenmesi araştırmanının temel amacını oluşturmaktadır. Bu davranışlar ile ilgili bütüncül bir değerlendirme yapabilmek için araştırma modeli sadece yıkıcı sapkın işyeri davranışlarını değil, aynı zamanda inovatif yapıcı sapkın işyeri davranışlarını da içermektedir. Özellikle, bu çalışmada kariyerizm, idealizm, relativizm ve makyavelizm gibi bazı çalışan eğilimlerinin bir tutum değişkeni olan ahlaki çözülme aracılığıyla yıkıcı sapkın işyeri davranışları üzerindeki dolaylı etkisi incelenmiştir. Benzer şekilde, algılanan örgütsel adalet, katılımcı karar verme ve kişi örgüt uyumu gibi bazı çalışan algılarının bir tutum değişkeni olan psikolojik sahiplik aracılığıyla inovatif yapıcı sapkın davranışlar üzerindeki dolaylı etkisi incelenmiştir.

Çalışmanın örneklemini İstanbul ilindeki yönetici olmayan kolayda örnekleme yöntemi ile ulaşılan 1000 hizmet sektörü çalışanı oluşturmaktadır. Araştırma verileri anket tekniği kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Araştırma hipotezlerini test etmeden önce bir dizi ön analizler yapılmıştır. Yapılan bu analizlerden sonra araştırmanın teorik modeli yapısal eşitlik modellemesi ile test edilmiş ve son olarak aracılık etkilerini test etmek için hiyerarşik regresyon analizleri kullanılmıştır.

Araştırma bulguları göstermektedir ki; relativizm dışındaki tüm çalışan eğilimlerinin ahlaki çözülme aracılığı ile yıkıcı sapkın davranışlar üzerinde dolaylı etkileri vardır. Benzer şekilde tüm çalışan algılarının psikolojik sahiplik aracılığı ile inovatif yapıcı sapkın davranışlar üzerinde dolaylı etkileri vardır. Araştırma bulgularına yönelik teorik ve pratik çıkarımlar ile birlikte gelecek araştırmalar için öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ahlaki çözülme, Çalışan algıları, Çalışan eğilimleri, İnovatif yapıcı sapkın işyeri davranışları, Psikolojik sahiplik, Yıkıcı sapkın işyeri davranışları.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my grandmothers Zarife YILDIZ and Şekernaz ERDOST. I am obligated to express that their efforts on me is indescribable. I wish they were alive and had a chance to see my PhD graduation. Rest in peace!

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ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	: Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
AVE	: Average Variance Explained
CDW-I	: Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors
CFA	: Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	: Comparative Fix Index
CR	: Careerism
DDWB	: Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors
DE	: Dehumanization
Df	: Degrees of Freedom
DIR	: Displacement of Responsibility
DIS	: Distributive Justice
DR	: Diffusion of Responsibility
D-W	: Durbin-Watson Value
DWI	: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance
DWO	: Organizational Destructive Deviance
EFA	: Explanatory Factor Analysis
GFI	: Goodness of Fit Index
IDE	: Idealism
ITC	: Item Total Correlation
KMO	: Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Value
LL	: Lower Limit
MAC	: Machiavellianism
MD	: Moral Disengagement
NFI	: Normed Fit Index
n.s.	: Non-significant
PDM	: Participative Decision Making
POF	: Person-Organization Fit
PRO	: Procedural Justice
PSY	: Psychological Ownership
REL	: Relativizm
RMR	: Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

SD : Standard Deviation

SE : Standard Error

TLI : Tucker-Levis Index

UL : Upper Limit

VIF : Variance Inflation Factor

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1. INTRODUCTION

Effectiveness and efficiency are main indicators of organizational success i.e. These concepts are commonly used to measure the performance of processes, products, machineries, etc. However, it is obvious that these concepts are also related with employees and their behaviors. Given the organizations' profit maximization policies, increasing efficiency level of employees has been an important concern for organizations. Similarly, today's organizations are more flexible, creative, innovative and decentralized than past organizations. In view of these facts, deviant workplace behaviors have a vital importance for organizations in terms of their negative and positive effects.

Although there are two types of workplace deviance namely constructive and destructive (Bennet and Stamper, 2001), in the literature, past researches mainly investigated the dark side of these behaviors (Yıldız and Alpkan, 2014; Örücü and Yıldız, 2014; Yıldız and Yıldız, 2015). However, workplace deviance has also positive and constructive impact on organizations and its members or both. For instance, constructive deviant workplace literature shows that violating significant organizational norms to contribute to the well-being of an organization provides an innovative atmosphere (Howell and Higgins, 1990; Robbins and Galperin, 2010; Vadera et al., 2013). In this respect, to make a holistic assessment, in this study, these two types of deviant workplace behaviors were investigated.

Destructive deviant behaviors have been defined as "voluntary behaviors that violate significant organizational norms and in so doing threaten the well-being of an organization and its members or both" (Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Bennett and Robinson, 2000). On the other hand, constructive deviant workplace behaviors are defined as intentionally behaviors, which break significant organizational norms and rules to improve and contribute to the well-being of organization or its members or both (Galperin, 2002). Although Galperin (2002) categorized this construct into three sub-dimensions namely challenging, innovative and interpersonal constructive deviant workplace behaviors, in this study, it was focused on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors which refer to "beneficial acts of an innovative or creative nature that are directed to the organization" (Galperin 2002).

Besides the aforementioned explanations, researches clearly indicate that deviant workplace behaviors are getting more and more important in today's organizations in terms of its gains and costs. Recent studies related with causes and consequences of deviant workplace behaviors (constructive and destructive), reflect the rising research interest in these behaviors. These studies include many individual and organizational-level factors that might be the possible antecedents of it. However, the predictors might trigger deviant workplace behaviors not directly but through some positive and negative attitudes. In this respect, to investigate the indirect effects of some employee orientations and perceptions on deviant workplace behaviors through moral disengagement and psychological ownership, we developed our mediator hypotheses in light of the Bandura et al.'s (1986, 1996, 1999) social cognitive theory, Blau's (1964) social exchange theory and Ajzen and Fishbein's (1975) theory of reasoned action.

In this study, we highlighted psychological ownership as a positive attitude (Van Dyne and Pierce, 2004) that links some possible employee perceptions (i.e. participative decision making, perceived organizational justice and person-organization fit) to innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Accordingly, we also stressed moral disengagement as a negative attitude that links some possible employee orientations (i.e. careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism) to destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

Generally, in past studies, the research interest is mainly focused on the negative side of deviant workplace behaviors. Correspondingly, the studies that investigate the positive side of deviant workplace behaviors are limited in the literature. Despite its importance, relations between some drivers of constructive deviant workplace behaviors and its predictors are interestingly under-investigated. Similarly, despite the plenty of studies in the literature, which investigate the relationship between moral disengagement and some negative outcomes of it, destructive deviant workplace behaviors related studies are interestingly limited. Moreover, the mediator role of moral disengagement on the relationship between some employee orientations (i.e. careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism) and destructive deviant workplace behaviors almost has not been investigated yet. Therefore, the present study has three main research questions: (a)

what might be some less studied antecedents of innovative constructive and destructive deviant workplace behaviors?, (b) is moral disengagement a missing link between some employee orientations and destructive deviant workplace behaviors?, and (c) is psychological ownership a missing link between some employee perceptions and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors? In this respect, the main purpose of this study is to close the gaps in the literature by the way of sorting out these research questions.

This study proceeds in the following manner. Chapter Two begins with the concept definition of workplace deviance and the types of it namely constructive and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In Chapter Three, after a literature review on workplace deviance, some rarely used employee orientations and perceptions, which are possible antecedents of it, are defined and discussed. In Chapter Four, after the concept definition of moral disengagement, the mediator role of it in the relations of careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism to destructive deviant workplace behaviors is discussed. In Chapter Five, the mediator role of psychological ownership in the relations of participative decision-making, perceived organizational justice and person-organization fit to innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is discussed. Chapter Six focuses on the research design and methodology which was used in the study. In Chapter Seven, the statistical analyses related with the study are explained and reported. Chapter Eight focuses on summarising the finding of the study, discusses the managerial and practical implications along with the limitation of the study and gives some directions for further researches.

2. DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS

Workplace deviance is one of the most important research topics affecting well-being of organization and its members, thereby also has considerable impact on its outcomes. In the literature, there are two types of workplace deviance behaviors; namely, constructive and destructive (Bennet and Stamper, 2001). Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2004) depicted this categorization with a statistical approach (see Figure 1).

Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2004) clarified workplace deviance as deviance from normal behaviors in a positive and negative meaning. They also state that by means of this illustration understanding of this construct will be easier. Additionally, they argue that despite illustrating the construct of workplace deviance with the normal distribution curve is a simple solution; this method is not sufficient for explaining complex human behaviors. In line with these explanations, destructive deviant workplace behaviors are defined as “voluntary behaviors that violate significant organizational norms and in so doing threaten the well-being of an organization and its members or both” (Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Bennett and Robinson, 2000). On the other hand, constructive deviant behaviors defined as ”intentionally behaviors, which break significant organizational norms and rules to improve and contribute to well being of organization, its members or both” (Galperin, 2002). It is clear that these behaviors are like a two-edged sword (Yıldız and Alpkan, 2014). In other words, these behaviors are not only harmful (destructive) but also can be beneficial (constructive) for organizations and its members.

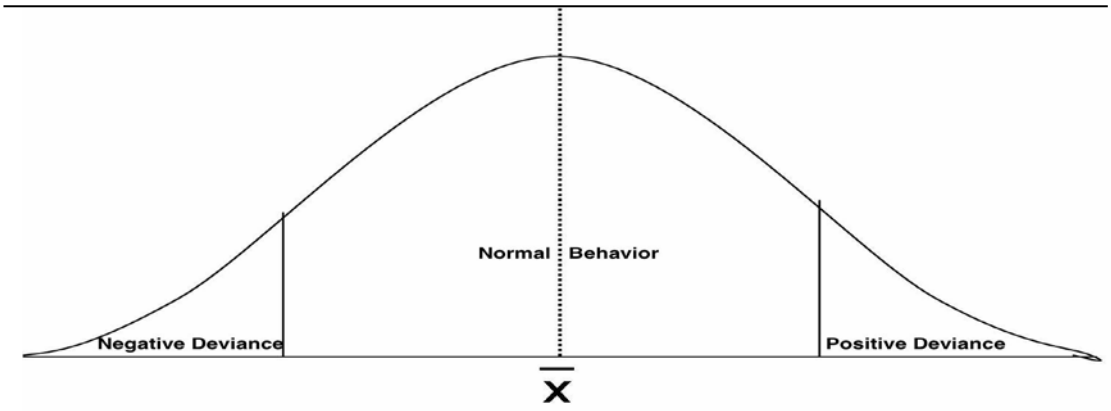


Figure 1. A Statistical Approach to Deviance (Spreitzer and Sonenshein, 2004)

2.1. Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The concept of destructive deviance has a long historical background. Therefore, there are numerous studies investigating the affective reasoning behind it and its consequences (Fox et al., 2001). However, because of the complexity of the human nature, there is still need for new studies to clarify these complex relations.

The concept of destructive deviant workplace behaviors has been defined as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization and its members or both" (Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Bennett and Robinson, 2000). On the other hand Fox et al. (2001) defined this construct as "behavior that is intended to have a detrimental effect on organizations and their members". Likewise, Vardi and Wiener (1996) defined this construct as "any intentional action by members of organizations that defines and violates (a) shared organizational norms and expectations, and/or (b) core societal values, mores and standards of proper conduct". In a recent study, Gruys and Sacket (2003) extended this definition as "any intentional behavior on the part of an organization member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests". With this definition it is clear that behaviors or behavioural intentions are important as much as its negative results.

In the literature, the construct of destructive deviant workplace behaviors are also labelled as an organizational misbehaviour (Vardi and Weiner, 1996), counterproductive workplace behavior (Fox, Spector and Miles, 2001; Gruys and Sacket, 2003), deviance (Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Hollinger, 1986), antisocial behavior (Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Aquino and Douglas 2003) and dysfunctional work behavior (Griffin et al., 1998). Although these concepts have different names, they have nearly same definitions and are measured with similar methods (Spector and Fox, 2005). For instance, counter-productive workplace behavior is defined as" behavior that is intended to have a detrimental effect on organizations and their members" (Fox et al., 2001). Based on the these definitions, it is easy to see that destructive behaviors have two common distinct characteristics; (a) these behaviors are performed voluntarily, (b) the main purpose of these behaviors is harm to the organization's significant norms, or tend to harm

organization and its members, stakeholders or all of them (Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Bennett and Robinson, 2000).

Robinson and Bennet (1995, 1997) categorized destructive deviance into two sub dimensions; namely, interpersonal and organizational. According to their studies, interpersonal deviance can be defined as any intentional behavior, which target to harm or violate members of the organization. On the other hand, organizational deviance can be defined as any intentional behavior violating and harming organization, and its significant norms or both. Additionally, Robinson and Bennet (1995) also state that destructive deviant workplace behaviors can be classified into four distinct and interrelated dimensions; minor vs. serious and interpersonal vs. organizational.

Robinson and Bennet (1995) presented the classification of destructive deviant workplace behaviors in a quadrant (see Figure 2). According to this quadrant, minor and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors refer to production deviance, which consists of the behaviors such as leaving early, taking excessive breaks, intentionally working slow and wasting resources. Minor and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors refer to political deviance, which consists of the behaviors such as showing favouritism, gossiping about co-workers, laming co-workers and competing nonbeneficially. On the other hand, serious and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors refer to property deviance, which consists of the behaviors such as sabotaging equipment, accepting kickbacks, lying about hours worked and stealing from company. Lastly, serious and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors refer to personal aggression, which consists of the behaviors such as sexual harassment, verbal abuse, stealing from co-workers and endangering co-workers.

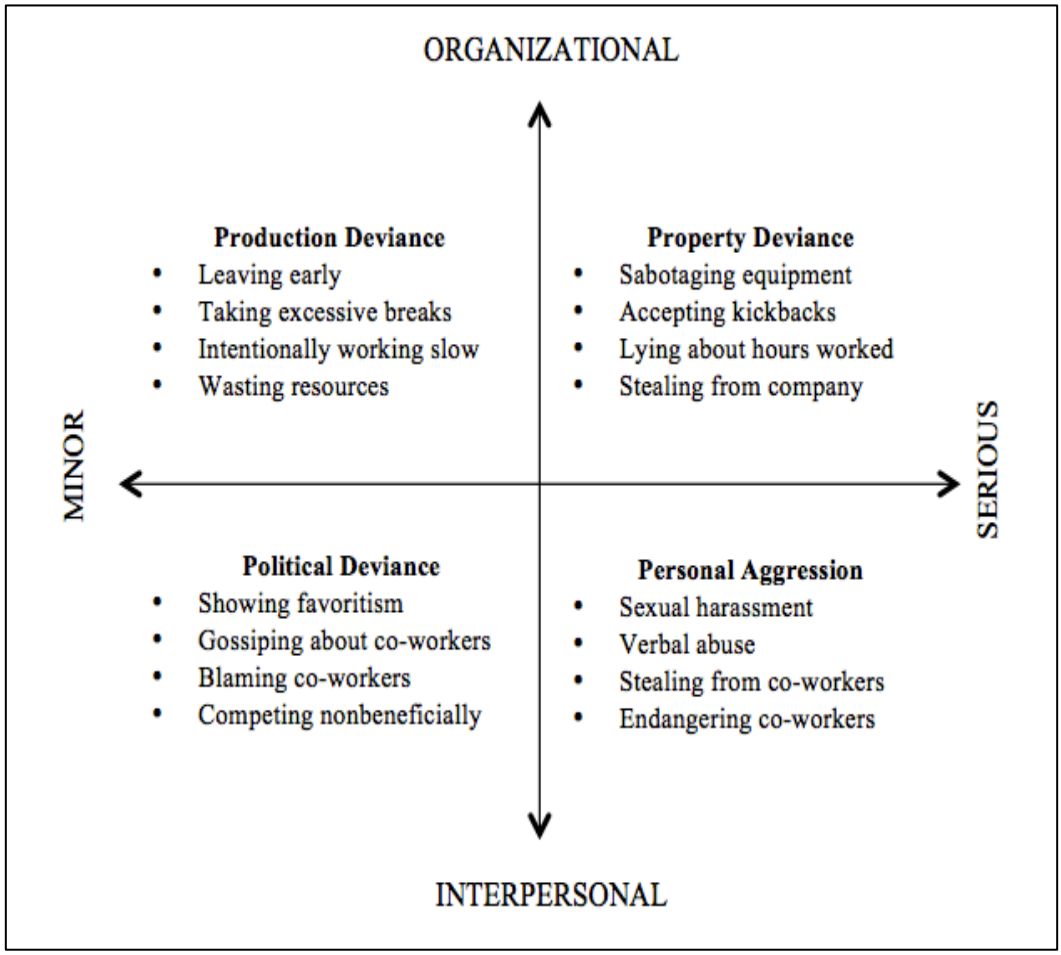


Figure 2. Classification of Destructive Deviance (Robinson and Bennet, 1995)

Because of its detrimental effects, destructive deviant workplace behaviors have long been one of the main concerns of organizations. Supporting this notion, Warren (2003) stated that the results of destructive deviant workplace behaviors are not only harmful for organization itself but also harmful for entire industries and society. Destructive deviant workplace behaviors are important problem for organizations from two aspects; it is a common problem and its cost is enormous (Bennet and Robinson, 2000). Therefore, understanding and managing these behaviors is an important research area. In the literature, many possible antecedents of these behaviors have been widely studied and some of them are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors Related Studies

Source(s)	Predictor	Dependent Variable
Appelbaum et al., 2007; Galperin, 2002; Fox et al., 2001; Ambrose et al., 2002; Henle, 2005; Appelbaum et al., 2006; Yang and Diefendorff, 2009; Jones, 2009; Chang and Smithikrai, 2010; Kantur, 2010; Kelloway et al., 2010; Syaebani and Sobri, 2011; O'Neill et al., 2011; Fatima et. al., 2012; Yen and Teng, 2013; Khan et al., 2013, Alias et al., 2013; Beauregard, 2014; Bhatti et al., 2015; Alias and Rasdi, 2015; Matta et al., 2014	Organizational justice	Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors
Mulki et al., 2006; Mount et al., 2006; Appelbaum et al., 2006; Bayram et al., 2009; Kidwell and Walentile, 2009; Kantur, 2010; Kisamore et al., 2010; Omar et al., 2011; Fatima et. Al., 2012; Le et al., 2014; Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015; Shamsudin et al., 2014; Greenidge et al., 2014; Walsh, 2014; Bahri et al., 2013	Job Satisfaction	
Kanten and Er Ülker, 2013	Organizational climate	
Fida et al., 2014; Samnani et al., 2014; Hystad et al., 2014; Christian and Ellis, 2014: Yıldız et al., 2015c),	Moral disengagement	
Alias et al., 2013; Fox et al., 2001; Hung et al., 2009; Kantur, 2010; Spector, 2011; Ho, 2012; Samnani et al., 2014	Negative affect	
Appelbaum et al., 2006; Brooks, 2012	Organizational commitment	
Peterson, 2002; Appelbaum et al., 2005; Alias et al., 2013; Alias and Rasdi, 2015	Ethical climate	
Zimmerman, 2001; Yen and Teng, 2013; Fatima et al., 2012	Organizational structure	
Chung and Moon, 2011; Galperin, 2002; Grijalva and Newman, 2015	Organizational culture	
Cohen et al., 2013	Guilt proneness	

Table 1. continued

Source(s)	Predictor	Dependent Variable
Galperin, 2002; Kanten et al., 2015	Machiavellianism	Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors
Galperin, 2002	Ethical orientation	
Salgado, 2002; Bolton et al., 2010; O'Neill and Hastings, 2011; Miller, 2015; Kluemper et al., 2015; Garcia et al., 2015; DeShong et al., 2015; Grijalva and Newman, 2015; Greenidge et al., 2014; Spector and Zhou, 2014; Oh et al., 2013; Kanten et al., 2015	Personality traits	
Kanten and Ülker, 2014; Chiaburu et al., 2013b; Yıldız and Alpkan, 2014	Work alienation	
Wilson et al., 2015	Emotional exhaustion, Job autonomy, Employment opportunity	
Wang and Lian, 2015	Psychological Capital	
Uddin et al., 2015; van Gils et al., 2015	Leadership Styles	
Chiu et al., 2015; Spector and Zhou, 2014;Shoss et al., 2015	Role Stressors	
Avey et al., 2014; Eschleman et al. 2014; Garcia et al., 2015; Avey et al., 2015	Abusive Supervision	
Greenidge et al., 2014; Wang and Lian, 2015; De Clercq et al., 2014	Emotional intelligence	
Van den Broeck etal., 2014	Job Insecurity	
Khan et al., 2015; Alias and Rasdi, 2015	Perceived Organizational Support	
Henle et al., 2005	Ethical ideology	

Apparently, as seen from Table 1, since the last two-decades numerous researches have been tried to clarify the construct of workplace deviance. Most of these studies accepted that perceived fairness, injustice and some negative emotions play a crucial role in occurrences of this kind of behaviors (Fox et al., 2001; Appelbaum et al., 2006; Kantur, 2010; Kelloway et al., 2010). In light of these studies, it is easy to say that there are many negative variables that relate to destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In addition to above-mentioned predictors, destructive deviant workplace behaviors also can lead to some undesired consequences. According to Bodankin and Tziner (2009) the negative effects of destructive deviance can be economic, sociological and psychological. For instance, Coffin (2003) states that the financial cost of employee related thefts in the United States is estimated at 50 billion dollars for per year. Supporting this notion Appelbaum et al. (2007) state that three out of four employees in the USA engage in destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Additionally 95 percent of all USA companies claim that they faced some kind of destructive deviant workplace behaviors in their organizations (Henle et al., 2005). On the other hand, Muafi (2011) emphasized that destructive deviant workplace behaviors cause poor level individual performance. Likewise, Dunlop and Lee (2004) found a negative and significant relationship between destructive deviant workplace behaviors and business unit performance. According to Henle et al. (2005), destructive deviant workplace behaviors are positively related to the turnover intention, decreased productivity and loss of work ours. O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996) state that the emergence of destructive deviant workplace behaviors is related to the low level of morale and stress related problems. As understood from these examples, destructive deviant workplace behaviors are detrimental for organizations in terms of financial, economic, sociological and psychological aspects.

2.2. Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The concept of constructive deviance has gained popularity in recent organizational behavior literature. According to different studies, there are many different types of constructive deviance definitions in the literature. For instance, constructive or positive workplace deviant behaviors are defined by Galperin (2002) as intentionally behaviors, which break significant organizational norms and rules to improve and contribute to well-being of organization or its members or both. In Spreitzer and Sonenshein's (2003) study, this concept is defined as "intentional behaviors that depart from the norms of a referent group in honourable ways". Additionally, Warren (2003) defined it as "behavior that deviates from the reference group norms but conforms to hypernorms". To reach a more comprehensive definition, Vadera et al. (2013) combined these definitions as "behaviors that deviate from the norms of the reference group such that they benefit the reference group and

conform to hypernorms". According to Vadera et al.' (2013) definition, it can be said that the concept of constructive deviance has three main characteristics; "(a) deviate from reference group norms, (b) benefit the reference group and (c) conform to hypernorms".

Although these behaviors are out of the formal job definition, performing these behaviors assists to achieving organizational goals and gets benefit to the organization (Galperin and Burke, 2006; Robbins and Galperin, 2010). According to Galperin's (2012) study, employees, who break the organizational norms to organization's well-being, are source of the innovation and pioneer actors of positive organizational change. Because of the innovation's increasing affect on competitive advantage, constructive deviance is a pivotal factor for organizations (Howell et al., 2005; Howell and Higgins, 1990).

In addition to above-mentioned explanations, Galperin (2002) categorized this construct into three dimensions namely interpersonal constructive deviance, challenging organizational constructive deviance and innovative organizational constructive deviance. According to her definition interpersonal constructive deviance refers to "beneficial acts that are directed towards individuals" (Galperin 2002). This type of constructive deviance refers to such behaviors as; disobeying the others or reporting wrongdoing to co-workers for positive organizational change. Challenging organizational constructive deviance refers to "beneficial acts that outwardly challenge the existing norms or rules that are directed toward the organization" (Galperin 2002). This type of constructive deviance refers to such behaviors as; breaking organization's significant norms and rules to wellbeing of it. Lastly, innovative organizational constructive deviance refers to "beneficial acts of an innovative or creative nature that are directed to the organization" (Galperin 2002). This type of constructive deviance refers to such behaviors as; searching for innovative methods for routine tasks and generating creative solutions for overcome problems.

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) stated that "acts such as helping, sharing, donating, cooperating, and volunteering are forms of the pro-social behavior". Like the other pro-social behaviors (i.e. organizational citizenship behavior, corporate social responsibility, employee voice, whistleblowing and creativity/innovation)

constructive deviant behaviors are also pro-social behaviors (Spreitzer and Sonenshein, 2004; Galperin, 2012). Although these constructs are located in the same category, constructive deviance differs from these constructs with some important aspects. For instance, although OCB and constructive deviance are similar in terms of their nature, OCB, which goes beyond the existing role expectations, has a passive nature. In other words, OCB requires obeying to the organizational and managerial norms and rules. However, constructive deviance requires employee's proactive action against to norm violation. Given the Crant's (2000) definition, proactive behaviors are defined as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions". According to this definition, it can be said that employees engaging constructive deviance are also more prone to risk-taking than the others (Galperin, 2012).

Although constructive deviance is an important factor in terms of facilitating innovation and organizational change, in comparison with the destructive deviant workplace behaviors, the studies, defining the antecedents of constructive deviance, are interestingly limited and require more theoretical and empirical approach to clarify its nature (Spreitzer and Sonenshein, 2004; Robbins and Galperin, 2010; Vadera et al., 2013).

According to the literature, the antecedents of constructive deviant workplace behaviors such as; psychological ownership (Chung and Moon, 2011; Vandewalle et al., 1995), social risk-taking (Warren, 2001), workaholism (work involvement and joy in work) (Galperin and Burke, 1996) personality traits (Big Five) (Bodankin and Tziner, 2009), cultural factors (Galperin, 2002), psychological empowerment (Appelbaum et al., 2007), and leader-member-exchange and confidence in the appraisal (Tziner et al. 2010) have been widely studied in last decade. However, in Vadera et al.' (2013) study, they summed these factors into three mechanisms; intrinsic motivation, felt obligation and psychological empowerment. In this respect, intrinsic motivation refers to "the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn" (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Similarly, according to Ateş et al.' (2012) study, intrinsic motivation is an important factor affecting employee's satisfaction and self-

motivation. Felt obligation is defined within Blau's (1964) social exchange theory. According to this theory, if people perceive their organizations positively, they may feel obligated to behave positively to contribute its well-being. Lastly, psychological empowerment refer to "a myriad of variables that work to fortify or strengthen the individual in some way, allowing her or him the capacity to engage in constructive deviance" (Vadera et al., 2013). Based on these studies, it is easy to say that there are some person and organization-related variables that relate to the constructive deviance and employees engage these behaviors via three mechanisms.

In addition to aforementioned explanations, related to its positive nature, constructive deviant workplace behaviors are related to the some positive outcomes. For instance, past resources assert that these behaviors are related to the employee performance (Galperin and Burke, 2006), work performance (Warren, 2001), greater productivity (Warren, 2013), innovation (Robbins and Galperin, 2010; Galperin, 2012; Howell et al., 2005; Howell and Higgins, 1990; Yıldız et al., 2015a), employee voice and internal whistle-blowing (Robbins and Galperin, 2010; LePine and Van Dyne, 1998). As seen from these examples, constructive deviant workplace behaviors are a source of positive organizational change, innovation and creativity for organizations.

2.2.1. Innovative Behaviors

In the literature, there are numerous studies that emphasize the importance of innovation for organizations (Woodman et al., 1993; Jansen et al., 2004). From this perspective, organizations' innovation capacity constitutes one of the most important assets of organizations (West and Far, 1990; Kanter; 1983). According to Howel et al. (2005) employees who are prone to breaking rules that are accepted by majority, are a significant source of innovation. Right at this point, one related construct in the literature is innovative behaviors (Galperin, 2012), which are defined as behaviors that require creating new and useful ideas, then implementing these ideas in process, progress, products and organization as a whole (Farr and Ford, 1990).

Yuan and Woodman (2010) exemplified innovative behaviors with such activities; searching out new technologies, generating new ideas to achieve goals, searching and applying new work methods and implementing of resources that

investigated and secured. Obviously, these behaviors have a vital importance in terms of organizations' innovative performance. Scott and Bruce (1994) warn that these behaviors must be either novel or adopted. In order to stress importance of these behaviors, Carmeli and Spreitzer (2009) state that it is possible "doing more with less" with the innovative workplace behaviors in today's competitive environment.

Although innovative behaviors can be seen as an output of the innovation process, it should not be evaluated without the stage of innovative idea generation (Jong and Hartog, 2007). In this respect it can be said that the innovation process consists of two stages; idea generation and the application of it (Axtell et al., 2000). Supporting this notion Kanter (1988) stated that explaining innovation process with the only idea generation process is unsatisfactory method since there are numerous social factors may affect this process.

Of course, there are plenty of studies on investigating the appearance of innovative behaviors and affective reasoning behind it. For instance, Scott and Bruce (1994) suggest a theoretical model to clarify the antecedents of innovative behaviors. In their model they investigated the effect of leadership style, climate of group, individual attributes and psychological climate for innovation on the appearance of innovative behaviors. Their findings show that these predictors significantly predict individual innovative behaviors.

Vinarski-Peretz and Carmeli (2011) also suggest that perceived care from co-workers is one of the sources of innovative behaviors. According to their study, if employees feel themselves cared by their colleagues they would be motivated about engaging innovative behaviors and encouraged in terms of being a risk taker to exhibit innovative behaviors. Additionally Carmeli and Spreitzer (2009) find a positive relationship among trust, connectivity, thriving and innovative work behaviors. Basu and Green (2006) also investigated the effects of leader member exchange (LMX), commitment, support and autonomy on the innovative behaviors. Their findings indicate that there is positive relationship among these behaviors. Supporting these studies Yıldız et al. (2015d), in their moderated mediation model, investigated the moderator role of perceived organizational support on the risk taking propensity, network building and innovative constructive deviant workplace

behaviors relationship. In their model, they hypothesized that perceived organizational support would moderate the positive and indirect effect of risk taking propensity on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors (through networking ability). Specifically, networking ability will mediate the indirect effect when perceived organizational support is low but not when it is high. Accordingly, their findings show that to exhibit innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors employees who have high-level risk taking propensity compensate lack of organizational supports by strengthening their networks.

In addition to above mentioned studies, in order to formulate the emergence of innovative behaviors, researchers focused on the beginning of this process and suggested that the recognition of the problem is the trigger of this process (Jong and Hartog, 2007; Scott and Bruce 1994). According to these studies, employees who recognize the non-functional norms and rules in the routine work stream will capture the gaps in the work performance and the idea generation process will come in to play (Jong and Hartog, 2007; Scott and Bruce 1994; Howel et al., 2005). In other words, after the recognizing problem, idea generation process starts to generate solutions to overcome problems and with the application of generated solutions innovative behaviors arise. As Jong and Hartog (2007) suggested, the opportunities of generating innovative ideas may require going beyond the formal work pattern. In other words, existing rules and norms may be insufficient to behave innovatively. Supporting this notion Carmeli and Spreitzer (2009) state that behaving innovatively requires thinking out of the box and taking more risks than the others. Right at this point, as previously mentioned, the roots of constructive deviant workplace behaviors are based on intentionally rule breaking activities to contribute the well-being of organizations (Morrison, 2006; Howell and Higgins, 1990).

2.2.2. Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

Innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors refer to “beneficial acts of an innovative or creative nature that are directed to the organization” (Galperin 2002). Right at this point, the importance of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors arises. Galperin (2002) exemplified these behaviors such as generating creative solutions to over come problems, searching innovative methods

to fulfil daily tasks, to achieve work goals break with tradition, start of change to develop the performance of your group.

One related construct in the literature is extra role behaviors (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Extra-role behavior (ERB) is defined as "behavior which benefits the organization and/ or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations" (Vandyne et al., 1995). Although these behaviors consist of some different sub-constructs widely investigated by the past researchers, many researchers still accept this construct as a uniform construct (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), whistle blowing, principled organizational dissent, ProSocial organizational behaviors, employee voice, helping behavior constitute an example of these behaviors (Van Dyne et al., 1995; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998; Miles et al., 2002; Chiaburu et al., 2007).

Although extra role behaviors have some similarities in terms of the helping nature to organization, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors differ from this construct in some aspects. Firstly, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors require a rule breaking nature. Of course, at first appearance the common sides of these behaviors can be seen as if they are the same thing, however, in the extra role behavior nature employees undertake a passive role in comparison with the innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In other words, in the innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors employees perceive the gaps in the performance then break organization's significant norms and rules to solve these problems. On the other hand, in OCB and other extra-role behaviors employees exhibit their helping behaviors within the routine task framework. Secondly, while innovative behaviors or innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors are unthinkable without risk, OCB and other extra role behaviors do not need risk. In other words "being a good citizen" requires obeying the rules. Last but not least, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors and innovative behaviors require a proactive perspective. As aforementioned, to behave innovatively or generating creative solutions to overcome problems, firstly, employees should be aware of the gaps in the performance which can not be seen easily by the coworkers.

In order to explain the innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors, another approach is that these behaviors can be seen as a conflict between the individual and the organization. However, the main purpose of this conflict is related to providing a basis for innovative and creative solutions. Van de Vliert et al. (1999) state that conflict may emerge "when an employee obstructed or irritated by another person or a group". As seen from this definition, conflict can emerge between individuals or organizations. According to Van de Vliert et al.' (1999) definition, conflict may be handled as constructive or destructive. Likewise, Assael (1969) stated that conflict between organizations may generate constrictive results. Kirchmeyer and Cohen (1992) also assert that the constructive conflict approach provides a power source for variety, openness and challenge. In this study, the constructive conflict defined as conflict in which individuals and organization, do not obey the organizational rules and feel better about contributing to the organization's wellbeing as a result of their conflict dynamics. In other words, the constructive conflict should constitute a basis of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

Song et al. (2006), in their study, investigated the relationships among five behavioural conflict handling strategies (integrating, accommodating, compromising, forcing, avoiding), destructive conflict, constructive conflict, and innovation performance set in the context of the innovation process and the task environment. In their study, they hypothesized that the greater conflict management is related to the greater innovative performance. Their result shows that constructive conflict is one of the significant and positive predictors of innovation performance. Tjosvold et al. (2001) also state that constructive conflict fosters effective teamwork, quality of services, innovation and problem solving abilities. Similarly, Uline et al. (2003) emphasized that constructive conflict contributes to the increase of individuals' productive and innovative capacity. Taken together, all of these explanations indicate that innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors can be seen as a conflict or controversy between employee and organization's significant norms and rules. However, as emphasized before, this conflict should be seen as constructive instead of destructive. In other words, employee exhibits constructive deviant workplace behaviors to contribute his/her organization's well-being. Accordingly, organizations may see innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors as must

since they foster innovation.

As remembered from the beginning of this chapter, constructive deviant workplace behaviors are the opposite form of destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Bennet and Stamper, 2001). Although these two constructs have some similarities in terms of the rule breaking nature and volunteering, the major difference between these two constructs is the purpose of the behavior. In this respect there is an inverse relationship between these two constructs (Warren, 2003; Galperin and Burke, 2006). It follows that;

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative relationship between innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors and destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

3. ANTECEDENTS OF DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS

In this chapter, some employee orientations, perceptions and attitudes that might be possible predictors of destructive deviant workplace behaviors and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors will be defined. Firstly, careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism as employee orientations will be defined. Then, employee perceptions of organizational justice, person-organization fit and participative decision-making will be defined. Lastly, moral disengagement and psychological ownership as employee attitudes will be defined.

3.1. Employee Orientations

According to the literature, in many studies investigating the predictors of destructive deviant workplace behaviors, they are mainly focused on the contextual predictors. Additionally, there are also studies that investigate the effects of individual differences and personal orientations. Accordingly, much of these studies investigated the effect of Big Five personality traits on destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Sacket and DeVore, 2001). Interestingly, the results of past studies indicate that the low-level of three personality traits (conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability) out of five is most commonly accepted predictors of destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Ones et al., 1993; Hough, 1992; McHenry et al., 1990; Judge et al., 1997; Ones and Viswevaran, 1998). However, in this study, after a comprehensive literature review, we want to draw attention to some rarely used employee orientations (e.g. careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism)' effects on destructive deviant workplace behaviors through moral disengagement as an attitude.

According to Bandura et al.'s (1986, 1996, 1999) social cognitive theory, people have a potential of control on their thoughts and behaviors by means of their self-regulatory and self-condemnation systems. Briefly, self-regulatory system refers to some personal ethical standards that guide individuals' thoughts and actions to be morally acceptable. In other words, these personal ethical standards serve as an evaluating system only if it is activated. In this respect, with the self-regulatory

system people are able to anticipate their positive and negative behaviors, and judge their rightness in terms of their internal moral standards. Of course, this theory also stresses that self-condemnation system also serves as a barrier to morally undesired behaviors. Right at this point, behaviours, which are accepted as bad, counter self-censure. Therefore, people, whose self-regulatory system works smoothly behave in accordance with their internal moral standards. In line with these definitions, the most important determinant of this theory is that activating self-regulatory system is selective (Bandura et al., 1996). In other words, self-regulatory system is not automatically activated. Activating of this mechanism varies from person to person.

In light of the above theoretical explanations, we propose that employees who have some negative orientations (i.e. careerism, relativism, machiavellianism) are more prone to deactivate their self-regulatory systems. In other words, such employees are more prone to overlook their behaviours' negative results to obtain their desired ends. Based on these rationales we propose that employee with high careerist, relativist and machiavellianist orientation should be a source of destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

3.1.1. Careerism

Careerism or careerist orientation is defined as "the propensity to pursue career advancement through non-performance-based means" by Feldman and Weitz (1991). In their study, they state that people, who have careerist orientations pretend to be successful even if they are not, use their social relationship with the co-workers or supervisors as an instrument to career advancement, and commit some deviant behaviors necessary to career development. They also state that careerist orientation consist of seven beliefs. Some of them are "it is difficult to advance in organizations trough merit alone", "Loyalty to an employer is unlikely to be rewarded" and " It is some times necessary to engage in deceptive behavior to get promotions to which one feels entitled" (Feldman and Weitz, 1991). To stress careerists' point of view, Builova (2000) states "there's no time for trivialities when you're forging your career".

Past studies show that careerist orientation is related to some negative outcomes such as absenteeism, alienation, and turnover (Aryee and Chen, 2004;

Feldman and Weitz, 1991; Chiaburu et al., 2013b). There are also studies investigating some antecedents (of it) such as career growth opportunities, justice perception and organizational trust (Aryee and Chen, 2004: Crawshaw and Brodbeck, 2011; Chay and Aryee, 1999). However, it was not found in any study in the literature on the effects of careerism on deviant behaviors.

In Adams' (2011) study, a negative relationship has been found between organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and careerism. Considering the negative relationship between OCB and deviant workplace behaviors (Dunlop and Lee, 2004; Dalal, 2005; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Levine, 2010) and the passive nature of organizational citizenship behavior (Spreitzer and Sonenshein, 2004) it can be hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between careerism orientation and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Additionally, although Chiaburu et al. (2013a) state that careerists may engage some negative behaviours, in this study, it was proposed that careerist may also exhibit some destructive deviant workplace behaviours as a tool for their career success/advancement.

In destructive deviant workplace behaviors literature, there are numerous predictors of these behaviors. Although these predictors have widely been used by recent researchers, careerism can be a potential predictor of destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Yıldız and Alpkan 2014). However, careerism related studies are interestingly limited in the literature. In Feldman and Weitz' (1991) study they state that managers use "non-performance based" methods to pursue their career advancement. From these explanations it can be concluded that careerist people can behave deviantly to advance in their career way and look for behaving deviantly as a necessary instrument to achieve it. Also, in Aryee and Chen's (2004) model, they used organizational justice (procedural and distributive) and career growth opportunities as a predictor of careerism, and trust in employer as a moderating variable. In their study, they state that employee having careerist orientation are paying more attention to self-interests than being an "organization-man". According to their study, careerism is related to some undesirable outcomes such as; turnover intention and absenteeism. Chiaburu and colleagues (2013) also used personality traits (Big-five) as a control variable, and primary psychopathy and exchange ideology as a predictor of careerism. According to their study, primary psychopathy

and exchange ideology was found as statistically significant predictors of careerism. Additionally, Yıldız and Alpkan (2014) and Yıldız et al., (2015c) also propose that careerism may lead to destructive deviant workplace behaviors and this relationship may not be directly but trough moral disengagement as an attitude.

3.1.2. Ethical Ideology (Idealism and Relativism)

The concept of ethics and ethics related constructs have been widely studied in recent literature (Arslan et al., 2013; Elçi and Alpkan, 2009; Henle et al., 2005; Elçi et al., 2012). Most of these studies have mainly emphasized that ethics can be an important factor, which is a guide for actions and to evaluating the morally questionable activities. For instance, in Elçi and Alpkan's (2006) study, they found that ethical climate has a positive impact on the organizational citizenship behavior. In another study, a positive relationship was found between ethical climate and organizational performance (Elçi et al., 2004). Despite the numerous studies, there are paucity of research investigating the relationship between ethical ideology (idealism and relativism) and workplace deviance (Henle et al., 2005; Hastings and Finegan, 2011). Of course, there are studies investigating the relationship among ethical ideology, personality, moral identity, perceived moral intensity and moral behaviors (McFerran et al., 2009; Nye and Forsyth, 1984; Singhapakdi et al., 1999). However, there are very few studies investigating the direct relationship between ethical ideology and destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In Forsyth (1980) study, ethical ideology is categorized into two sub-dimensions; idealism and relativism. According to his definition relativism is defined as "the individual rejects universal moral rules in favour of relativism". In line with this definition it is clear that people who have relativist characteristics do not fit the universal moral rules or moralization towards these rules. In other words, relativists' actions depend upon the nature of situation instead of universal moral rules (Forsyth, 1992). Relativists believe that their moral reasoning depend on the situation. According to relativists, sometimes harm to others can be seen necessary. Moreover, relativists do not believe in the universal moral rules when judging what is wrong or right. The right depends on their personal value in that situation (Forsyth, 1992). The low-level relativists believe that there is always one right action, which is related to

the universal moral rules but regardless of the context (Hastings and Finegan, 2011). On the other hand people who have high-level idealistic characteristics, as opposite to relativism, presume that "desirable consequences can, with the right action, always be obtained". This definition shows that idealists are more prone to follow universal moral rules than the relativists. According to idealists, harming others is wrong (Singhapakdi et al., 1999). They believe that well-being of others is more important than the other gains (Forsyth, 1992; Henle et al., 2005). However, low-level idealists disregard the possible undesired consequences of their acts. Forsyth (1980) classified these definitions in a 2x2 table; idealistic or non-idealistic and believe moral rules are universal or relative. However, to better understand this classification we depicted this classification in a quadrant instead of 2x2 table (see Figure 3).

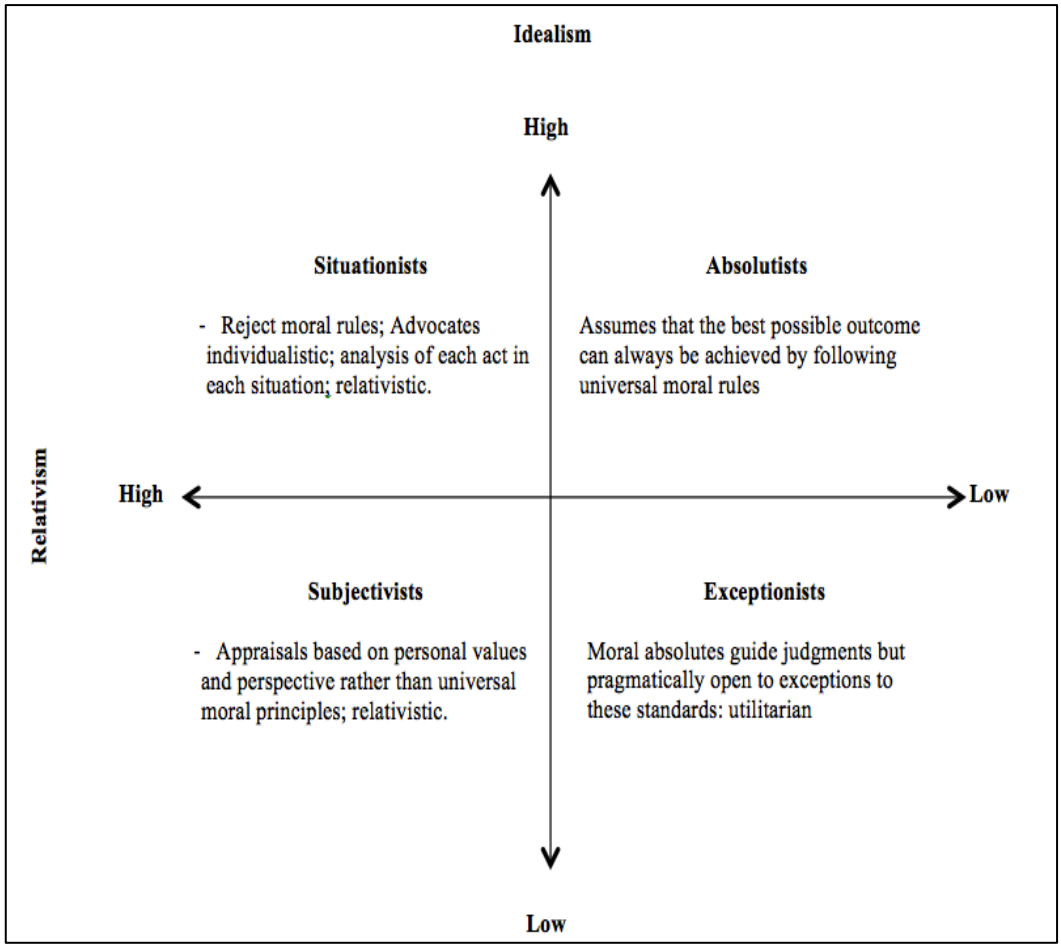


Figure 3. Taxonomy of ethical ideologies (Forsyth, 1980)

According to Figure 3, it can be said that Absolutists, who have high-level idealism and low-level relativism are the most idealistic characters in this typology. Schlenker and Forsyht (1977) state, "Exceptionists are more focus on the positive aspects". On the other hand, the common side of high-level relativism (i.e.

Situationists, Subjectivists) is personal values that are more important than the universal moral rules.

Past researches indicate that ethical ideology is one of the significant predictors of workplace deviance (Henle et al., 2005; Hastings and Finegan, 2011). Because of its ethically questionable nature, workplace deviance differs from person to person as a function of their ethical ideology (Henle et al., 2005). In their study, Hastings and Finegan (2011) state that employees with high-level idealism work for well-being of others and benefit them. In above-mentioned studies, the positive relationship between destructive deviant workplace behaviors and relativism, and the negative relationship between idealism and destructive deviance were hypothesized. For instance, McHoskey (1996) suggested that idealists have fewer propensities to rule breaking behaviors.

3.1.3. Machiavellianism

The construct of machiavellianism was firstly developed by Christie and Geis (1970) based on Machiavelli's works. According to Moore et al. (2012) machiavellianism is defined as "individual's propensity to be manipulative and ruthless in the pursuit of self-interested goals". Likewise, Wilson et al. (1996) defined this construct as "a strategy of social conduct that involves manipulating others for personal gain, often against the other's self-interest". They also state that this construct is accepted as a quantitative personality trait. Additionally, Galperin (2012) states "Machiavellianism describes the disposition to view and treat individuals as objects to be manipulated in order to achieve a desired end".

According to literature there are many studies which investigated the relationship between machiavellianism and some related negative consequences of it (i.e. antisocial behavior, lying, supervisor-rated deviance, destructive deviance, abusing others) (Cohen, 2015; Sakalaki et al., 2007; Bennet and Robinson, 2000; Galperin, 2012; Grover and Enz, 2005; Christie and Geis, 1970; Dahling et al., 2009). On other hand, there are also studies in the literature investigating the relationship between machiavellianism and some other positive consequences of it (i.e. supervisor rated performance, constructive deviance, whistle blowing, achievement motivation) (Skinner, 1981; Galperin, 2012; Dalton and Radtke, 2013).

As understood from these studies, there are positive and negative effects of machiavellianism on organizational outputs.

Christie and Geis, (1970) assert that one of the common characteristics of machiavellianists is paying more attention to their self-interests than the ethical rules or norms. In other words, economic concerns are near the top of their concerns (Dahling et al., 2009). Christie and Geis (1970) also developed an instrument, which is called Mach IV, to measure machiavellianism. The scores of this instrument indicate the level of the individuals' machiavellianist orientation levels whether high or low (Wilson et al., 1996). Although Wrightsman (1991) emphasized that people who have a high-level machiavellianist propensity are more prone to overlook ethical concerns, Gable and Dangello (1994) stated that people who have a high-level machiavellianist orientation are not always disengaged in universal ethical norms. Additionally, Galperin (2012) warns that individuals who have high level of machiavellianism exhibit rule-breaking activities in order to accomplish their goals. In other words, high-level Machiavellianists look for rule braking activities as necessary instruments to accomplish of their objectives. Supporting this notion, according to Christie and Geis' (1970) classification of machiavellianism, high-level machiavellianists are more utilitarian focused than low-level machiavellianists. Instead, no matter whether the results of behaviors are moral or immoral for high-level Machs since "Machs believe that the ends justify the means, they will do what it takes to satisfy their goals" (Galperin, 2012).

In light of the above-mentioned studies, it can be said that machiavellists have some potentials, which are breaking rules or manipulating actions to personal gains. Supporting this notion, in a recent study, Kanten et al., (2015) investigated the relationship between destructive deviant workplace behaviors and the dark side of personality (machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy), and they found a positive and statistically significant relationship among machiavellianism, and destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

3.2. Employee Perceptions

In the literature, there are many evidences that stressing the positive effects of some perceptions on employee behaviors. Supporting this notion, there are also some

theoretical foundations such as Blau's (1964) social exchange theory and theory of planned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1975) to explain perceptions' role on the behaviors. According to these theories, perceptions are significant drivers of behaviors. Moreover, there are some attitudes that convey the perceptions effects to behaviors. Colquitt et al. (2013) state that explaining deviant workplace behaviors within the social exchange framework is a useful theoretical approach. For instance, in their meta-analytical study they state that explaining the effect of justice perception on deviant workplace behaviors is one of the most widely accepted theoretical approach. Additionally, Organ and Konovsky (1989), to define the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior, hypothesized their causal relations based on social exchange theory. In their study, they state that the trust of employees is the product of their fairness perception.

Blau's (1964) social exchange approach suggests that there is an interaction among perception and behaviors. In other words, according to this theory employees' behaviors are the product of their perceptions. This social exchange relationship can also be seen as cost-benefit relation. According to this theory if employees see their positive perceptions as benefits, they feel obligated to give answer to these perceptions positively (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Similarly, Ajzen and Fishbein's (1975) theory of reasoned action suggests that employee attitudes, emotions and perceptions are significant predictors of deviant workplace behaviors. In line with these definitions, we proposed that if employees perceive their organizations positively, they should develop some positive attitudes, then exhibit positive behaviors. More clearly, if employees' perceptions of justice, person organization fit and participative decision-making level is high, they will be more prone to develop the attitude of psychological ownership, and then exhibit innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

3.2.1. Organizational Justice

The concept of organizational justice is based on Adam's (1963, 1965) equity theory. According to this theory, employees, who have perception of inequity or injustice related to their organizations, develop some cognitive and behavioural attitudes as a response to their organizations (Fox et al., 2001).

This concept is related to the "employee's perception of fairness and just treatment on the job" (Fox et al., 2001). Although early stage of this concept mainly refers to distributive justice (e.g., Khan et al., 2013; Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001; Greenberg, 1990b), there are also procedural and interactional justices. In line with this classification, it can be said that the concept of justice is categorized into three sub-dimensions (Ambrose et al., 2002). Respectively, distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of one's received outcomes such as pay (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Folger and Cropanzano, 1998), procedural justice refers to fairness of the procedures that are used to determine one's outcomes and decisions are made (Ambrose et al., 2002; Leventhal et al., 1980; Konovsky, 2000) and lastly interactional justice refers to "the quality of the interpersonal interaction between individuals" (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

According to Henle (2005), the construct of organizational justice addresses the perception of fairness in the workplace and plays a critical role in explanation of the workplace deviance's situational based explanation. In this respect, justice is an important factor for organizations. In Trevino and Brown's (2005) study, they address that if employees perceive some unacceptable behaviors acted by others in the workplace, they anticipate these behaviors will be punished. Conversely, if these acts are not punished, employees may feel disappointment, and accordingly develop some negative behaviors (i.e. destructive deviance; sabotage, theft, stress, cyber loafing) (e.g., Yıldız et al., 2014; Syaebani and Sobri, 2011; Ambrose et al., 2002; Jones and Skarlicki, 2005; Greenberg, 1990; Judge and Colquitt, 2004; Greenberg, 2004; Krings and Facchin, 2009).

In literature, fairness has a vital importance from the social exchange perspective (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Vadera et al., 2013). For instance, in Appelbaum et al.'s (2007) study, they stated that employees compare their input-output ratio to others' ratios. As a result of this comparison, if employees perceive their ratios as similar to others, they may feel equity. Conversely, if they do not perceive fairness or equity with related to their ratios, they may feel inequity. Therefore, Henle (2005) states that employees, who experienced inequity, compensate this negative feeling as acting deviantly. Additionally, Greenberg and Alge (1998) also emphasized that organizational justice is an up-coming predictor of

workplace deviance.

In line with above stated arguments, if employees' perception of fairness is enough for their satisfaction they might have some positive attitudes and accordingly exhibit some positive behaviors. Although past studies indicate that poor level of organizational justice (injustice) is associated with the negative outcomes, high-level of justice is also associated with some positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, positive work outcomes and constructive deviance etc. (e.g., Moorman, 1991; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Moorman et al., 1993; Ang et al., 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2007; Galperin, 2002; Vadera et al., 2013; Çakar et al., 2004). In this respect, it can be said that people having high-level of justice perception against their organizations may exhibit constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

3.2.2. Person-Organization Fit

Generally, the principle of right person to right organization is a pivotal factor for business life. Organizations spend excessive effort (i.e. time, money, manpower) to do this. Likewise, in this millennium, the conventional models about the compatibility between person and organizations do not meet the needs of organizations. As Chatman (1989) mentioned, to better understand employee's behaviors, person and situation based factors and the interaction of them must be considered. From this point of view, high-level P-O fit is one of the most desired factors to satisfy this deficiency.

Person-Organization fit (P-O fit) is a critical factor for organizations. In the literature, there are many different definitions of P-O fit according to different studies. Kristof-Brown et al.' (2005) definition is one of them, which is "the compatibility between people and entire organization". Although this definition is broadly accepted in the literature, there is some confusion about it (Judge and Ferris, 1992). Therefore, the following explanations are required to clarify these confusions. Acording to Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) there are two types of fit. The first of these, distinction is between complementary fit and supplementary fit (Kristof, 1996). They defined complementary fit as "it occurs when a person's characteristics make whole" the environment or add to it what is missing". On the other hand,

supplementary fit is defined as, when a person "supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individual in an environment". The second distinction is between needs-supplies and demand-abilities perspectives. From the needs-supplies perspective P-O fit occurs, when employee's expectations are satisfied by organization. On the other hand, from the demand-abilities perspective P-O fit occurs, when the employees have some skills to satisfy organizational requirements (Caplan, 1987). Kirstof (1996) integrated these two distinctions into one definition. According to Kristof (1996), P-O fit defined as "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both".

Past studies indicate that P-O fit is related to some positive outcomes such as; organizational commitment, organizational performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, low-level of intention to quit, organizational culture and career success (Bretz and Judge, 1994; Verquer et al., 2003; Elçi et al., 2008; Hoffman and Woehr, 2006; Suárez-Mendoza & Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2008; Tepper et al., 2009; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Chatman, 1989b). While the high-level of P-O fit is related to the desirable outcomes, the low-level of it is also related to undesirable outcomes (i.e. turnover intention, work alienation, destructive deviance, dissatisfaction) (Suárez-Mendoza & Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2008; Verquer et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2010; Sharkavi et al., 2013; Yıldız and Alpkan, 2014).

Liu and colleagues' (2010) state that P-O fit is a good predictor of job satisfaction and turnover intention. Moreover, they found a negative relationship between turnover intention and P-O fit, and job satisfaction fully mediated this relationship. Additionally in Verquer and colleagues' (2003) meta analytical study they reviewed 21 studies about the P-O fit and indicated that P-O fit is related to the commitment, turnover and intent to quit. On the other hand, Vardi (2001) stated that ethical climate (i.e. support, warmth, reward) is negatively related to the negative behaviors (i.e. misbehavior). Based on Vardi's (2001) study Jawad and colleagues (2013) hypothesized that P-O fit is negatively related to the destructive deviance. However, this hypothesized relationship was not supported. They found a positive

relationship between P-O fit and destructive deviance, which is inconsistent with the literature. On the contrary, in Sharkawi and colleagues' (2013) study, they indicated that P-O fit is negatively related to interpersonal and organizational destructive deviance, and P-O fit is a statistically significant predictor of interpersonal and organizational destructive deviance.

Most of the above studies, obviously, indicated that there is a positive relationship between P-O fit and positive outcomes, and P-O fit is an important and desired factor for organizations. Similarly, Yıldız and Alpkan (2014) also state that the best fit between person and organization is prerequisite for the organizations in terms of its wellbeing. In this study, we postulated that if there is a good fit between employees and organization, employees' propensity to constructive deviant workplace behaviors increases.

3.2.3. Participative Decision Making

Employees' feeling of themselves as a part of their organization has been one of the main topics of recent research interest (Lam et al., 2002). From this aspect, decentralized decision mechanisms are one of the key factors for employees' feeling of belongingness. Similarly, employees' involvement in the decision process is a crucial issue for employees. Participative decision-making (PDM) can be defined as a collaboration of all members of organization in decision-making process. Locke and colleagues (1987) explained this concept as "joint decision making". Likewise, Aiken and Hage (1966) also defined this construct as "the degree to which staff members participate in setting the goals and policies of the entire organization".

In literature there are numerous evidence about the positive effects of the PDM. For instance, Black and Gregersen (1997) investigated the effect of PDM on performance and job satisfaction. Additionally, a previous study investigated the effect of culture (individualism-collectivism and power distance) on PDM (Sagie and Aycan, 2003). In addition to these instances, past researches indicated that high level PDM is associated with numerous desirable outcomes such as; low-level absence, increasing productivity, improved employees' attitudes, empowerment, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment and psychological ownership (Porter et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2012; Bragg and Andrews, 1973; Black &

Gregersen, 1997; Bulut and Alpkan, 2006; Jain and Jain, 2014; Yıldız et al., 2015a). Supporting this notion, in Kearney and Hays' (1994) study, it was emphasized that PDM is a significant factor in terms of employees' personal benefits, HMR practitioners and organizations' well being. Based on these evidences, it can be said that PDM is an important component of the employees' job satisfaction and performance, and it can be seen as one of the strengths of organizations.

Despite the aforementioned desirable effect of PDM, the low-level of it is also associated with the undesirable effects such as alienation, low-level performance, dis satisfaction, cognitive and relationship conflict (Aiken & Hage, 1966; Eddleston et al., 2008; Allen & LaFollette, 1977; Black & Gregersen, 1997). According to these studies, it is easy to say that if employees don't feel themselves as a part of decision-making process they will be alienated. In literature there are a great number of evidence about the negative results of alienation (Ceylan and Sulu, 2011; Nair and Vohra, 2012; Dipietro and Pizam, 2008).

Bushman et al. (2001) state that employees exhibit detrimental behaviors as a protest tool to feel better in response to the stressors. From this perspective, employee may see low-level PDM as one of the most important stress factors. In this respect they may use harmful behaviors as a coping strategy (Shoss et al., 2015). Lazarous and colleagues (1986) defined coping skill as "the person's constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taking exceeding the person resources". According to Lazarous and colleagues' (1984, 1986) coping theory, we suggest that employees who lack the decision making process are more prone to the exhibits destructive deviant workplace behaviors to feel better. In other words, they may see destructive deviant workplace behaviors as a compensating instrument against stressors, which stem from being alienated. Shoss et al. (2015) summarized this relation as "doing bad to feel better".

In addition to above-mentioned arguments, according to Blau's (1964) social exchange theory and Lazarous et al.' (1984, 1986) coping theory, we can say that PDM is an important predictor of deviant workplace behaviors. More clearly, while high level of PDM is associated with the positive outcomes such as innovative

constructive deviant workplace behaviors, the low-level of it is also related to the possible negative behaviors such as destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

3.3. Employee Attitudes

In the literature, there are numerous theoretical approaches to explain some causal relations among perceptions, attitudes and behaviors. However, most of them only focus on predictors and outcomes. In other words, these theories mainly explain the direct relationship. Accordingly, these theories lack an understanding of which attitudes may play a mediator role in these direct relations. Right at this point, theory of reasoned action has a pivotal role to explain the role of attitudes on the relationship among some personality traits, organizational events, and behaviors as output (see Figure 4). According to Cullen and Sacket (2003) “attitudes are a summary evaluative judgement of a psychological object”.

In the literature, theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975, Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977) is a widely accepted theory to explain the effect of attitudes on behaviors (Ajzen, 2001). In brief, this theory explains that our attitudes toward any behavior are the product of two drivers; our beliefs about consequences of that behavior and beliefs about what others think. Specifically, our attitudes towards a behavior are mostly shaped by the two key elements; (a) behavioural intentions that “weighted additive function of a person’s attitude towards to behaviour” and (b) subjective norms of the behaviors (Cullen and Sacket, 2003). Additionally, according to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) behavioural intentions are the most powerful predictors of how a person will behave. Moreover, Ajzen (1991) state that behaviors are the product of behavioural intentions.

In light of the theory of reasoned action, we propose that moral disengagement, as an attitude, should be a product of some negative employee orientations (i.e. careerism, relativism, machiavellianism). In other words, moral disengagement, as an attitude, has a mediator role on the relationship between some employee orientations and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Similarly, according to theory of reasoned action, our beliefs shape our attitudes and behavior. In this perspective, we propose that positive beliefs about the organizations should lead to positive attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, according to theory of reasoned action we hypothesized

that psychological ownership, as an attitude, should have a mediator role on the relationship between some positive employee perceptions (i.e. participative decision making, perceived organizational justice, person organization fit) and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As we mentioned at the outset of this section, there are plenty of studies in the literature that investigate the direct relations between predictors and behaviors. However, to better understand the causal paths, we focus on the mediator role of some attitudes (i.e. moral disengagement, psychological ownership) based on theory of reasoned action.

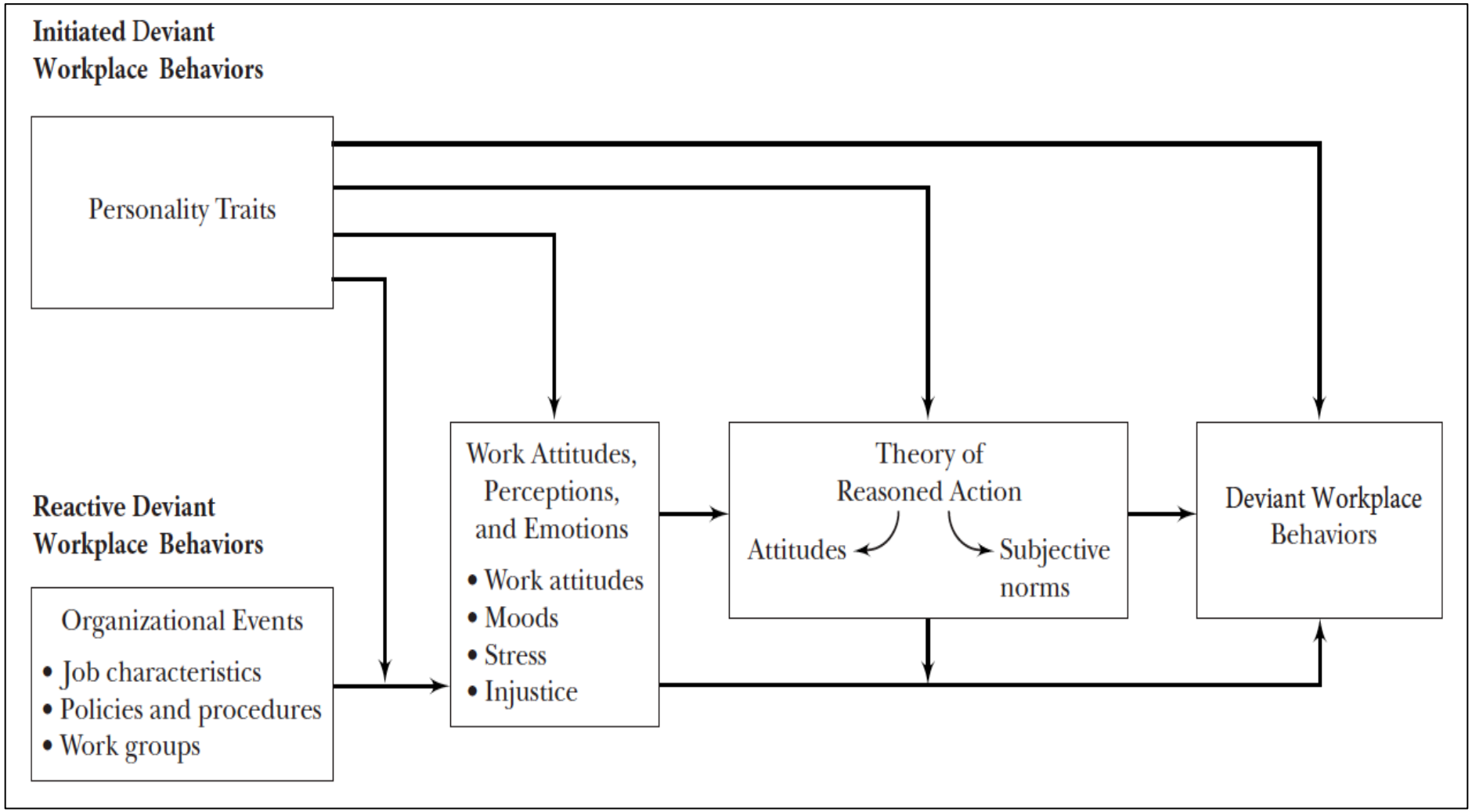


Figure 4. Model of Linkages between Personality and Deviant Workplace Behaviors (Cullen and Sacket, 2003)

3.3.1. Moral Disengagement

Moral disengagement, which can be accepted as a common result of work and organization related negative factors, is one of the newly studied drivers of destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Fida et al., 2014; Samnani et al., 2014; Hystad et al., 2014; Christian and Ellis, 2014). In our theoretical model, moral disengagement, as an attitude, has a mediator role. Additionally, moral disengagement and its relationship with the destructive deviant workplace behaviors will be discussed.

Besides the aforementioned explanations, past researchers rarely studied the relationship between moral disengagement and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Additionally, moral disengagement is a new concept applied in organizational behavior area (Samnani et al., 2014). As previously mentioned, the concept of moral disengagement is based on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. According to this theory, self-regulatory mechanism has a pivotal factor to explain this concept. The concept of self-regulatory refers to "the capacity of humans to decide on current behaviors based on a set of internal standards"(Hystad et al., 2014). Bandura and colleagues (1996), to emphasize importance of self regulatory-mechanism, state that "moral reasoning translated in to actions through self-regulatory mechanisms through which moral agency is exercised". If self-regulatory mechanism works smoothly, individual's self-condemnation mechanism will be activated, and then transgressive behaviors will be prevented. In other words, trough the self-condemnation mechanism the possible conflict between internalized moral standards and transgressive behaviors will be foreseen and previously blocked (Moore et al., 2012). In his study, Bandura (1999) stated that the existence of moral disengagement depends on the self-regulation mechanism's activation. In this perspective, the activation of this mechanism is selective. If self-regulation process is deactivated than the moral disengagement appears.

After of all these theoretical explanations, moral disengagement refers to an ability of deactivating self-regulatory mechanism, in turn, deactivating self-condemnation mechanism to rationalize his/her activities which is actually inconsistent with the internalized moral standards (Bandura et al., 1996; Detert et al.,

2008). Moral disengagement consists of eight different but interrelated mechanisms (Moore et al., 2012; Hystad et al., 2014). These eight mechanisms are categorized into three sub-groups. The first group consists of these tree mechanisms; moral justification, euphemistic labeling and advantageous comparison. The second group consists of dehumanization and attribution of blame. Lastly the final group consists of displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility and distortion of consequences. Respectively the first group focuses on "a cognitive restructuring of the act or behavior in order to make it more morally justifiable", the second group focus on the "cognitive misconstrual of the victims of the unethical behavior" and the final group focus on the "a cognitive restructuring of the agentic role of the actor of the behavior" (Hystad et al., 2014). In sum, as Alnuaimi and colleagues (2010) state that "moral disengagement explains why people misbehave when they believe no one is looking".

3.3.2. Psychological Ownership

Psychological ownership, which can be accepted as a common result of work and organization-related positive factors, is one of the rarely studied drivers of positive behaviors (e.g. Chung and Moon, 2011; Avey et al., 2009; Vandewalle et al., 1995; Avey et al., 2012; Buchko, 1993; O'driscoll et al., 2006). Avey et al. (2009) state that, the phenomenon of ownership is common nearly in all societies. They also address that psychological ownership is a positive source, which effects employee performance in organizations. Appelbaum et al. (2007) also state that psychological empowerment constitutes a powerful source of positive deviance.

There are numerous definitions of this construct in the literature. For instance, Pierce et al. (2003) defined psychological ownership as "that state where an individual feels as though the target of ownership or a piece of that target is 'theirs' (i.e., it is MINE!)". On the other hand Mayhew et al. (2007) defined this construct as "a feeling of possession in the absence of any formal or legal claims of ownership". O'Driscoll et al. (2006) explain this concept as psychological dependence on a specific object. Pierce et al. (2001) also state that "feeling of possession and being tied to an object psychologically" are root of the psychological ownership construct. According to Pierce et al. (2001, 2003) psychological ownership is "an attitude with

affective and cognitive elements". As understood from the comprehensiveness of this concept it can be used for plenty of targets or units such as job, organization, employees and tasks (Rudmin and Berry, 1987; Van Dyne and Pierce, 2004).

In addition to above construct definitions of psychological ownership, Pierce et al. (2001) state that the construct of psychological ownership consists of three sub dimensions namely belongingness, self-efficacy and self-identity. On the other hand Avey et al. (2009) tried to define components of psychological ownership adding one more dimension to previous dimensions namely accountability. Taking together these explanations, it can be said that the construct of psychological ownership consists of four sub-dimensions (belongingness, self efficacy, self identity and accountability).

Belongingness refers to the feeling of belonging against the organization taken place in (Avey et al. 2009). In other words, the feeling of belongingness emerges as a result of the satisfaction of need for belonging, which is met by taking place in organization. Self-efficacy refers to the belief of success towards to any targeted tasks. In order to clarify self-efficacy, Avey et al. (2009) addresses the questions "I need to do this tasks, I can do it, and I therefore own the responsibility for achieving success". Self-identity refers to how people identify themselves in terms of feeling of possession towards a specific target. Pierce et al. (2001) also state that possession, which is core feeling of psychological ownership; serves as a bridge between self-identity and individuality. On the other hand Avey et al. (2009) exemplified this concept as people may define himself/herself as a sports car driver, a yacht owner or an antique collector. Lastly, accountability defined as "the implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one's beliefs, feelings and actions to others" (Lerner and Tetlock, 1999). According to Avey et al. (2009), accountability is a source of psychological ownership through two mechanisms: "(1) the expected right to hold others accountable and (2) the expectation for one's self to be held accountable". In short, this concept emphasizes the expected rights and responsibilities against to society related to the targeted subject (Pierce et al., 2003; Avey, et al., 2009).

Pierce et al. (2003), in their study, tried to highlight the construct distinction of psychological ownership from the legal ownership. According to their study they

assert that psychological ownership is related to the "mind" instead of physical ownership. Supporting this notion Etzioni (1991) states that of course, property and the feeling of ownership are real, however, the feeling of ownership is completely related to mind. Likewise, Pierce et al. (2003) stress that the formal ownership can bee seen and perceived by society, however, the feeling of psychological ownership is related to the individual's inner world. Additionally, Pierce et al. (2003) also state that the formal ownership does not guarantee the feeling of psychological ownership. In other words, people may not have a feeling of psychological possession towards any object even they have a formal ownership on it. From these definitions, it can be said that psychological ownership is strongly related to the intrinsic factors, which are not seen as easy as formal ownership.

Pierce et al. (2003) explain the emergence of psychological ownership with four factors namely; target factors, individual factors, context and process. Target factors point the question "what can and can't be owned" Individual factors emphasized that different people have different and unique motivators towards the feeling of ownership. Therefore, the emergence of psychological ownership differs from person to person. On the other hand the context emphasized that the emergence of psychological ownership and the end of this feeling of possession depend on some environmental and structural factors such as cultural differences. According to Pierce et al. (2001, 2003), some situational forces influence the beginning and end of psychological ownership. They also proposed that the construct of psychological ownership is based on "a set of intra-individual motives" such as efficacy and effectance, self-identity, and having a place to dwell.

Although psychological ownership, as a positive attitude, conceptually differs from other related constructs, there is some confusion about it. Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) state "psychological ownership is different from other work-related attitudes and has unique explanatory power because its conceptual core is feelings of possession that trigger affect-driven behaviors". In order to clarify this confusion, Pierce et al. (2001) emphasized that because of its possession and motivational bases, it is distinct from other constructs. Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) also clarified this confusion with a few examples. For instance, "Psychological ownership asks, "How much do I feel this organization (workplace) is mine?" Organizational commitment

asks, “Why should I maintain my membership in this organization?” Organizational identification asks, “Who I am”, Internalization asks, “What do I believe?” Psychological empowerment asks, “ Do I feel capable and intrinsically motivated in my work role?” Job involvement asks “How important is the job and job performance to my self image?”

In addition to above-mentioned explanations, Mayhew et al. (2007) categorized this construct as an organization-based and job-based psychological ownership. They defined organization-based psychological ownership as “individual members’ feelings of possession and psychological connection to an organization as a whole”. They assert that this state can differ from various factors such as; organizational climate, organizational culture, managerial factors, corporate strategy, corporate vision, so on. On the other hand, they defined job-based psychological ownership as “individual’s feelings of possession toward their particular job”. Although these two concepts can be seen as personality traits, Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) state that these two concepts are attitudinal variables rather than the personality characteristics. Additionally, O’Driscoll et al. (2006) state that these two distinct forms of ownership are not synonymous, instead they have distinct roles, which provide a basis for some attitudes and behaviors. In line with these definitions, in this study the organization based psychological ownership was investigated.

4. MEDIATOR ROLES OF MORAL DISENGAGEMENT

Moral disengagement can affect detrimental behaviors both directly and by its impact on other theoretically relevant determinants (Bandura et al., 1996). Deter et al. (2008) assert that the comprehension of moral disengagement is unsatisfactory in the current literature. From this point of view, it can be said that the concept of moral disengagement still needs more research attention. In line with these explanations, the recent studies related to the moral disengagement are presented in Table 2.

Theoretically, the construct of moral disengagement is based on Bandura et al.'s (1986, 1996, 1999) social cognitive theory. In other words, moral disengagement is an extension of this theory. According to this theory, people have a potential of control on their thoughts and behaviors by means of their self-regulatory system. Briefly, self-regulatory system refers to some personal ethical standards that guide individuals' thoughts and actions to be morally acceptable. In other words, these personal ethical standards serve as an evaluating system only if self-regulatory system is activated. In this respect, with the self-regulatory system people can anticipate their positive and negative behaviors, and judge their rightness in terms of their internal moral standards. Of course, this theory also stresses that self-regulatory system also serve as a barrier to morally undesired behaviors. Right at this point, behaviours, which are accepted as bad counter self-censure. Therefore, people, whose self-regulatory systems work smoothly, behave in accordance with their internal moral standards. In line with these definitions, the most important determinant of this theory is that activating self-regulatory system is selective (Bandura et al., 1996). In other words, self-regulatory system is not automatically activated. Activating this mechanism varies from person to person. Bandura (1999) states that when self-regulatory system is deactivated moral disengagement comes in to play.

Table 2. Moral Disengagement Related Studies

Source	Predictor(s)	Mediator(s)	Moderator(s)	Depended Variable(s)
Alnuami et al., 2010	Team size	- Moral Disengagement - Diffusion of responsibility, - Attribution of blame - Dehumanization		- Dispersion on social loafing
Bandura et al., 1996	Moral Disengagement	- ProSocial behavior - Aggression proneness - Guilt and Restitution		Harmful behavior
Barsky, 2011	- Moral justification - Displacement of responsibility		Participation goal setting	Unethical behavior
Fida et al., 2014	- Interpersonal conflict - Constraints - Workload - Lack of Decision-making - Lack of Support - Negative emotions	- Negative emotions - Moral disengagement		Moral disengagement Destructive deviance
Hystad et al., 2014	- Organizational Justice	- Moral Disengagement		Destructive deviance
Moore et al., 2012	- Propensity to moral disengagement			- Self-reported unethical behavior, - A decision to commit fraud, - A self-serving decision in the workplace, - Supervisor and coworker reported unethical work behaviors
Samnani et al., 2014	Negative affect		- Moral disengagement - Gender	Destructive deviance
Saidon et al., 2010	- Personality - Gender - Ethical climate			Moral disengagement
Detert et al., 2008	Individual differences -Empathy -Moral identity -Trait cynicism -Chance locus of control orientation	Moral disengagement		Unethical decision making
Christian and Ellis, 2014	-Gender -Negative emotions -Moral disengagement -Turnover intentions -Moral disengagement		Moral disengagement	Destructive deviance
Chowdhury and Fernando, (2014)	- Empathy - Moral identity - Cynicism	Moral disengagement		Consumer ethics

4.1. The Relationship Between Moral Disengagement and Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

According to Bandura (1986), people can rationalize or justify their immoral activities by means of the deactivating self-regulatory mechanism. Detert et al. (2008) state that moral disengagement is one of the drivers of unethical decision-making; therefore, determining its antecedents and consequences is crucial for today's organizations. Especially, given the selective nature of moral disengagement, defining which employees are more prone to the moral disengagement is vitally important for organizations. In line with these explanations, we hypothesized those employees who have a set of orientations (i.e. careerism, relativism, idealism, machiavellianism) that have been linked to some negative behaviors by past researchers, may exhibit these behaviors not directly but through moral disengagement as an attitude. Accordingly, we will try to uncover the effects of these four individual differences on destructive deviant workplace behaviors and the mediator role of moral disengagement on these relationships.

According to Bandura and colleagues (1996), moral disengagement can diminish prosocialness and foster the detrimental activities. From this aspect, it can be said that moral disengagement may be a predictor of negative behaviors. Because of the moral disengagement is not a constant variable; the appearance of it depends on person or situation (Hystad et al., 2014). There are some supporting evidences for this notion. For instance, Saidon and colleagues' (2010) found a negative and modest relationship between ethical climate and moral disengagement. Additionally, in Deter and colleagues' (2008) study, they found a positive relationship between moral disengagement and unethical decisions. Moreover, they discussed that it might be a predictor of counterproductive workplace behaviors. Supporting this notion, in another study, moral disengagement was found as a significant predictor of destructive deviance (Hystad et al., 2014). Samnani and colleagues (2014) also state that people who have ability of moral disengagement are more prone to exhibit destructive deviant behaviors because of the less feelings of quilt.

According to the aforementioned studies, obviously, the causes and consequences of moral disengagement are numerous. However, there is a paucity of

studies investigating its relation to destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Fida et al., 2014; Hystead et al., 2014; Christian and Ellis, 2014; Samnani et al., 2014). Therefore, in this study, we hypothesized that moral disengagement is not only a cause of destructive deviant workplace behaviors but also a mediator that links the effects of some employee orientations (i.e. careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism) to destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

4.2. Mediator Role of Moral Disengagement in the Relation of Careerism to Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

Moral disengagement, as an important negative attitude, may play such a linking role between careerist orientation and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. As stated before, careerism is related to some negative outcomes, and destructive deviant workplace behaviors can be one of them (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Yıldız and Alpkan, 2014).

Recent studies with related to the moral disengagement indicate that this construct is associated with destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Fida et al, 2014; Samnani et al., 2014; Hystad et al., 2014; Christian and Ellis, 2014). For instance, Fida and colleagues (2014) used moral disengagement as a mediator in the relationship between negative emotions and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In addition to this study, Hystad and colleagues (2014) also used moral disengagement as a mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In past studies, it was hypothesized that moral disengagement is a missing link between some negative predictors and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Based on those theoretical and empirical studies, we propose that having careerist orientation should foster moral disengagement. Also, careerism should be positively related to moral disengagement since individuals having high careerist orientations are more likely to ignore their harmful behaviors to advance in their non-performance based career way. As a result, high careerist employees should be more likely to morally disengage through processes such as the moral justification (by

deactivating the self-regulatory system) of their acts that would harm others. It follows that;

Hypothesis 2: Moral disengagement mediates the positive relationship between careerism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors

4.3. Mediator Role of Moral Disengagement in the Relation of Ethical Ideology (Idealism and Relativism) to Destructive Deviant Workplace Behavior

In ethics literature, there are various different models of ethical ideology, which determine individual ethical perceptions and variety of the ethical decision making process. However, one of them that is widely used in literature, developed by Forsyth and colleagues (1988) consists of two sub dimensions; idealism and relativism.

According to Forsyth (1985), idealists believe that desirable consequences can be obtained with the universal right actions. On the other hand, relativists believe that to obtain desirable consequences misbehaving can be seen as a must. In other words, in his own words "good is often mixed with bad" for relativists. According to this study, idealism refers to importance of wellbeing of others and intrinsically believing the rightness of actions. According to this definition idealists believe that desirable consequences depend on the morally right actions. However, low-level of idealism is associated with the weakness of the engaging moral rules (Forsyth, 1992). Likewise, in Keller's (1997) study it was stated that low-level idealists follow ethical rules to satisfy their self-interests without thinking the others, which is potentially affected from the result of these actions. On the other hand, relativism refers to ignoring universal moral rules in morally decision-making process (Forsyth, 1980). In other words, relativists believe that moral rules depend on the difference of circumstances and can differ from situation-to-situation or person-to-person. In short, while the idealists always follow the universal moral rules, relativists take account of the context of situation before making a moral decision (Hastings and Finegan, 2011).

Instead, relativists are more sceptical than the idealists about engaging the universal ethical rules (Henle et al., 2005). According to Forsyth (1992) personal attitudes and interests, which can differ from situational or contextual factors, are more important than the fix moral rules. Conversely, there is a strong relationship between low-level of relativism and universal ethical moral rules. However this relationship is slightly different from the idealism. Harming others to obtain desirable consequences is not important for low-level relativist if they follow the universal moral rules strictly (Henle et al., 2005).

In the literature, there are numerous researches which investigated the relationship between ethical ideology and some potential predictors of it such as; authoritarianism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, moral identity and moral intensity (McFerran et al., 2009; McHoskey, 1996; Singhapakdi et al., 1999). Also, past researches indicated that relativism, as a subset of ethical ideology, is related to the destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Henle et al., 2005; Hastings and Finegan, 2011). More clearly, Hastings and Finegan (2011) found a positive but low and insignificant relationship between relativism and destructive deviance (r =0,04 interpersonal deviance and r =0,09 organizational deviance). Similarly, they found a negative and significant relationship between idealism and destructive deviance (r =-0,33 interpersonal deviance and r =-0,24 organizational deviance). On the other hand, Henle and colleagues (2005) hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between relativism and destructive deviance, and found a low and insignificant relationship between relativism and destructive deviance (r =0,10 interpersonal deviance and r =-0,09 organizational deviance). Similarly, they found a negative and significant relationship between idealism and destructive deviance (r =-0,24 interpersonal deviance and r =-0,26 organizational deviance). In a nutshell, these studies assert that employees, who are relativist, are more prone to the exhibits of destructive deviant workplace behaviors. As aforementioned, moral disengagement is also associated with destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Fida et al, 2014; Samnani et al., 2014;Hystad et al., 2014; Christian and Ellis, 2014). In past researches moral disengagement has a linking role between some negative predictors and destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Fida et al., 2014; Hystad et al., 2014).

In light of above-mentioned arguments, we proposed that employees having high relativist orientation should be more prone to destructive deviant workplace behavior. Accordingly, having high level relativist orientation should be one of the triggers of moral disengagement. As above mentioned, relativists have less ethical concern about the results of their harmful behaviors by comparison with idealists. In this respect, according to social cognitive theory, we propose that relativists should be more prone to deactivating their self-regulatory system. On the other hand, having high idealist orientation should inhibit moral disengagement, in turn, destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In other words, since idealists give more importance to universal ethical rules and since they care more about the wellbeing of others, having idealist orientation should prevent moral disengagement and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. To conclude, by comparison with the idealists, high relativist employees should be more likely to morally disengage through processes such as the moral justification (by deactivating the self-regulatory system) of acts that would harm others or the dehumanization of the targets of those acts. It follows that;

Hypothesis 3a: Moral disengagement mediates the positive relationship between relativism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors

Hypothesis 3b: Moral disengagement mediates the negative relationship between idealism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors

4.4. Mediator Role of Moral Disengagement in the Relation of Machiavellianism to Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

According to Moore et al. (2012) machiavellianism is defined as “individual’s propensity to be manipulative and ruthless in the pursuit of self-interested goals”. Likewise, Wilson et al. (1996) defined this construct as “a strategy of social conduct that involves manipulating others for personal gain, often against the other’s self-interest”. As previously mentioned, past studies show that people having high machiavellian orientations are likely to exhibit some negative and destructive deviant workplace behaviors (Sakalaki et al., 2007; Bennet and Robinson, 2000; Galperin, 2012; Grover and Enz, 2005; Christie and Geis, 1970; Dahling et al., 2009). On the

other hand, past studies also indicated that there is a positive relationship between destructive deviant workplace behaviors and moral disengagement (Christian and Ellis, 2014; Samnani et al., 2014; Fida et al., 2014; Hystad et al., 2014).

According to Christie and Geis, (1970), machiavellianists are self-interest focused individuals. In other words, they stress that giving more importance to the desired ends and ignoring the ethical rules or norms is a part of machiavellianism. Supporting this notion, as previously mentioned, Galperin (2012) states "Machs believe that the ends justify the means, they will do what it takes to satisfy their goals". Similarly, Wrightsman (1991) stress that machiavellianists are lack of ethical concern. Robbins and Judge (2011) also state that high machiavellianists are pragmatic individuals that keep themselves distance from emotional tendencies. In these studies, it can be easily seen that machiavellianists have a potential of intentionally overlook ethical and moral rules in their own interests. Of course, past studies have already indicated that there is a positive relationship between machiavellianism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In line with these explanations, we propose that machiavellianism will facilitate moral disengagement because, employees who have high machiavellianist orientation are extremely result-oriented people. Thus, an employee who is high on machiavellianism will be more likely to overlook ethical concerns and potential harms of their acts. In other words, employees with high machiavellianist orientation are more prone to deactivate their self-regulatory and self-condemnation systems. It follows that;

Hypothesis 4: Moral Disengagement mediates the relationship between machiavellianism and destructive deviant workplace behavior

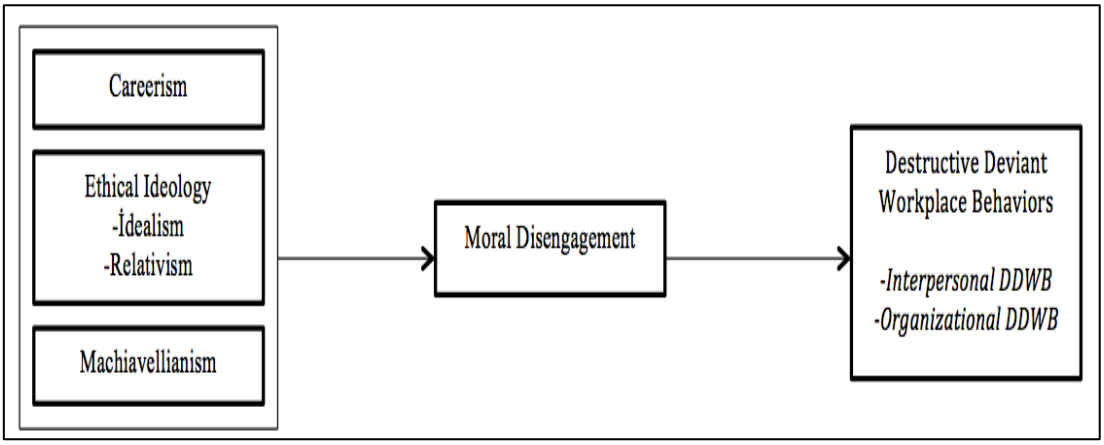


Figure 5. Mediator Role of Moral Disengagement

5. MEDIATOR ROLES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP

Studying and understanding innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is an important research area because of its positive effects on organizations (Galperin, 2002; Howell and Higgins, 1990; Robbins and Galperin, 2010; Vadera et al., 2013). In the literature, studies trying to define predictors of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors are limited. Accordingly, the research interest, which is necessary to close this gap, is also limited. From this aspect, the main difference of the present study from the past researches is the mediator role of psychological ownership in the proposed model (see Figure 6).

Past researches indicate that psychological ownership is an attitude that has some positive effects on organizations (i.e. job satisfaction, performance, extra-role behavior, commitment, and reduced negative behaviors)(Vandewalle et al., 1995; Pierce et al., 1992; Liu et al., 2012; Pierce et al., 2004; Avey et al., 2009; Sieger et al., 2013; Ghafoor et al., 2011). Of course, psychological ownership has already been studied as a mediator in past researches (see Table 3).

Wagner et al. (2003) investigated the mediating effect of psychological ownership on the relationship between participation plans and employee attitudes towards the organization. Likewise, they also investigated the mediator role of psychological ownership in the relationship between climate of self-determination and financial performance. Additionally, Mayhew et al. (2007) categorized this construct as organization-based and job-based psychological ownership. Accordingly, in their study, they tried to determine these two types of psychological ownership's antecedents and consequences. The results of their research indicates that psychological ownership has a mediator role in the relationship between autonomy and some work attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Specifically, they found job-based psychological ownership as a significant predictor of job satisfaction, and organization-based psychological ownership as a significant predictor of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. On the other hand, their findings indicate that job-based psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between job autonomy and job

satisfaction, while organization based psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between autonomy and organizational commitment.

In addition to above-mentioned instances, Sieger et al. (2011) investigated the mediator role of psychological ownership in the relationship between organizational justice (distributive and procedural) and some attitudes such as affective commitment and job satisfaction. According to their findings psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between distributive justice perception and affective commitment. Additionally their findings also show that psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction. On the other hand, Liu et al. (2012) investigated the mediator role of psychological ownership at the individual and unit level variables. In their study, at the unit level, they investigated the relationship between self-managing team climate and individual outcomes (organization-based self esteem, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior) through psychological ownership. On the other hand, at individual level, they investigated the relationship between participative decision-making and individual outcomes through psychological ownership. Their results indicate that psychological ownership has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between participative decision-making and organization-based self-esteem. Likewise, this significant mediating effect is also valid for self-managing team climate and organization-based self-esteem relationship, self-managing team climate and affective commitment relationship, and participative-decision making and affective commitment relationship.

Avey et al. (2012), in their study, hypothesized that psychological ownership mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. Consistent with this hypothesis, their results show that psychological ownership fully mediated this relationship. Similarly, Ghafoor et al. (2011) also investigated the mediating effect of psychological ownership in their model. In their study, they investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement as independent variables, and employee performance as dependent variable. Their results indicate that psychological ownership partially mediated the relationship between the independent variables (employee engagement and transformational leadership) and employee performance. On the other hand O'Driscoll et al. (2006)

investigated the mediator role of psychological ownership in the relationship between work environment structure (technology effects, job design autonomy effects, participative decision-making effects) and employee citizenship behaviors and organizational commitment. Their results show that organization-based psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between work environment structure and affective organizational commitment.

In addition to above-mentioned studies, the main difference of this study, predictor variables, in our theoretical model, do not predict other positive behaviors but they are used as a predictor for innovative constructive deviance. Of course, in the literature past studies have already studied the effect of some employee perceptions (i.e. organizational culture and climate) on employees' innovative behaviors (Yuan and Woodman, 2010). However, in this study, the effects of employees' organizational justice, participative decision-making and person-organization fit will be investigated.

In social sciences, many studies are explained in light of the Blau's (1964) social exchange theory (Suárez-Mendoza and Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2008). According to this theory, behaviors are product of some perceptions and attitudes. In other words, according to social exchange explanation, there is an interaction among perceptions, attitudes and behaviors. In this respect, because of this theory's interactional nature we can say that people have some positive and negative perceptions and these perceptions link some positive behaviors through some positive attitudes (Greenberg and Scott, 1996; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). Similarly, according to Ajzen and Fishbein' (1977) theory of reasoned action, attitudes play a critical role on behaviors. In other words, attitudes play a bridge role between perceptions and behaviors. According to this theory, psychological ownership, as a positive attitude, might cause innovative constructive deviance. More clearly, it was hypothesized that positive employee perceptions lead to innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors through psychological ownership as an attitude. Past studies stressing the mediator roles of psychological ownership in literature are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The Mediator Roles of Psychological Ownership

Source	Independent Variables	Mediator Variable	Dependent Variables
Wagner et al., 2003	- Participation in employee ownership initiative - Climate of self determination	Psychological Ownership	- Employee attitudes toward the organization - Financial Performance
O'Driscoll et al., 2006	- Work environment structure		- Organizational citizenship behavior - Organizational commitment
Mayhew et al., 2007	- Autonomy		- Job satisfaction - Organizational commitment
Sieger et al., 2011	- Distributive Justice - Procedural Justice		- Affective commitment - Job Satisfaction
Liu et al., 2012	- Self-managing team climate - Participative decision-making		- Organizational based self esteem - Affective commitment - Organizational citizenship behavior
Avey et al., 2012	- Ethical leadership		- Job satisfaction
Ghafoor et al., 2011	- Trans formational Leadership - Employee Engagement		- Employee Performance

5.1. The Relationship Between Psychological Ownership and Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

Psychological ownership as an attitudinal positive variable has been rarely related to deviant behaviors in the past literature. Although psychological ownership has a positive nature like organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, employee voice, job satisfaction, organizational effectiveness etc. (e.g. Avey et al., 2009, 2012; Buchko, 1993; Pierce et al., 2003; Wagner et al., 2003; Ghafoor et al., 2011), there is a paucity of research on this subject in the literature (Pierce and Morgan, 1991).

O'Driscoll et al. (2006) state that if employees have the feeling of ownership towards their organizations they probably engage in extra-role behaviors. Likewise, Pierce et al. (1991) proposed that psychological ownership would be associated with the constructive efforts, which go beyond the formal job definition, towards organization. Vandewella et al. (1995) also hypothesized that there is a positive relationship between psychological ownership and extra role behaviors. They found positive and significant relationship among psychological ownership, extra role behaviors and job satisfaction. Avey et al. (2009) also tried to define antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership, and they found positive relations between psychological ownership and some positive outcomes such as organizational commitment, intentions to stay, job satisfaction, and individual and organizational level citizenship behavior. They also found that transformational leadership is one of the significant predictors of psychological ownership. Additionally, their findings indicate that there is negative and significant relationship between destructive deviant workplace behaviors and psychological ownership.

In the literature, there are numerous studies stressing the positive relationship between psychological ownership and other positive outcomes. For instance, Wagner et al. (2003) found a significant and positive relationship among psychological ownership, ownership belief and financial performance. On the other hand O'Driscoll et al. (2006) investigated the relationship between attitudes and behaviors in terms of the work environment's structural effect. Specifically, they tried to

answer the question, “how work environment structure links up with employee attitudes and behavior”. They found that less structured work environment is lead to a greater level of job autonomy and control over the job, in turn; this promotes the emergence of psychological ownership. Likewise, Liu et al. (2012) investigated the mediating effect of psychological ownership in their model. Their findings show that psychological ownership is a significant predictor of organization based self-esteem, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. As aforementioned, Pierce et al.’ (2013) propositions support these results. Additionally, Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) found a positive and significant relationship among psychological ownership and positive employee attitudes (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organization-based self-esteem), and behaviors (organizational citizenship behavior and performance). Similarly, Avey et al. (2012) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and psychological ownership, and this result was also supported by past researches (Mayhew et al., 2007; Long, 1978; Sieger et al., 2011; Klein, 1987).

Supporting above explanations, Wright and Cropanzano (2000) state that psychologically well-being of employees is related to some positive outcomes such as job performance. Additionally, Pierce et al. (1991) state that if employees organization-based psychological ownership level increases the coherence between person-organization will be better. On the other hand, according to O’Driscoll et al. (2006), as a result of the high level of psychological ownership the integrity level of the employees in organization rises, and this leads to intention to stay in the organization. In other words, they assert that psychological ownership is positively related to the affective commitment.

In the literature, there are also studies that stress the positive and negative sides of psychological ownership. For instance, Pierce et al. (2003) state that there are some positive and negative affects of psychological ownership. According to their study the positive effects of psychological ownership are citizenship behavior, personal sacrifice and assumption of risk, experienced responsibility and stewardship. On the other hand, over level of it can cause an obsession, which leads to feeling of unwilling share the target of ownership, materialism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. However, Pierce et al. 2003 emphasized that these

negative effects can emerge in certain situations, which cannot be generalised. Instead, in this study, it was proposed that the optimal level of psychological ownership might cause some positive extra role behaviors such as innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In light of these explanations, given the employees' satisfaction as a result of the possessiveness of target object, it can be said that satisfied employees in organizations may engage in positive or extra role behaviors. From this aspect, organizations should look psychological ownership as a must to its well-being.

After the aforementioned explanations, we can say that the concept of psychological ownership has been widely studied in recent literature (Liu et al., 2012; Mayhew et al., 2007; Özler et al., 2008; Pierce et al., 2003, 2004;Sieger et al., 2011, 2013). However, its relation to constructive deviant behaviors is rarely studied (Chung and Moon, 2011). Additionally, Chung and Moon (2011) found a positive and significant relationship between innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors and psychological ownership. Therefore, in this study, it was proposed that using some new predictors with the mediating effect of psychological ownership could advance the understanding of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

5.2. Mediator Role of Psychological Ownership in the Relation of Justice Perception to Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

In the literature, fairness has a vital importance from the social exchange perspective (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Vadera et al., 2013). The concept of organizational justice is based on Adam's (1963, 1965) equity theory. According to this theory, employees who has perception of inequity or injustice with related to the their organizations develop some cognitive and behavioural attitudes as a response to their organizations (Fox et al., 2001).

As previously mentioned, the level of perceived organizational justice is one of the most important predictors of workplace deviance. Psychological ownership as an important positive attitude may play such a linking role between the employees'

perception of justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. As aforementioned, psychological ownership is associated with the constructive deviance (Chung and Moon, 2011; Vandewalle et al., 1995) and it was used as mediator between some perceptions and positive behaviors (see Table 3). From these studies it can be understood that psychological ownership serves like a bridge between positive perceptions and behaviors.

In the recent literature, there are also studies investigating the relationship between organizational justice and psychological ownership (Chi and Han, 2008). In their study, Chi and Han (2008) proposed that organizational justice (procedural and distributive) might play a mediator role in the relationship between formal ownership (profit sharing plans, participation decision-making and access to business information) and psychological ownership. However, in this study, the mediator role of psychological ownership was used between perceived organizational justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

A recent study has already investigated the relationship between organizational justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors, and they found a positive relationship between these two constructs (Riasudeen and Narayanan, 2014). However, in our theoretical model, according to Blau's (1964) social exchange explanation and Ajzen and Fishbein' (1977) theory of reasoned action we suggest that if people perceive their organizational milieu as fair or equitable they may develop some positive attitudes (i.e. psychological ownership) and, in turn, exhibit some positive behaviors (i.e. constructive deviant behaviors). Therefore, in the proposed model, the perception of justice could work through the mechanism of psychological ownership. It follows that;

Hypothesis 7a: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between distributive justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

Hypothesis 7b: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between procedural justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

5.3. Mediator Role of Psychological Ownership in the Relation of Person-Organization Fit to Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

Person-Organization fit (P-O fit) is defined as the coherence between personal and organizational characteristics (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). There are some supporting evidences for this notion. For instance, Rynes and Cable (2003) laid stress on the importance of the P-O fit in this century. In their study, they emphasized that choosing appropriate organization is one of the most important concerns of employees and this constitutes a basis for their job applications.

In the literature, many studies indicate that high-level of P-O fit is associated with the some positive outcomes (i.e. job satisfaction, organizational performance, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior) (e.g. Elçi et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2010; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Bretz and Judge, 1994; Suárez-Mendoza and Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2008). However, there are also studies, which relate to the undesirable effects of poor level of P-O fit such as; turnover intention, alienation, dissatisfaction, and counter productive workplace behaviors (e.g. Liu et al., 2010; Sharkavi et al., 2013, Jawad et al., 2013; Suárez-Mendoza and Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2008). These studies show that high-level of P-O fit is a desirable factor for organizations.

Balu's (1964) social exchange explanation suggests that there are interactions among perceptions, attitudes and behaviors. In this respect, although we did not find any study that investigates the direct relationship between P-O fit and constructive deviant workplace behaviors, according to this theory P-O fit can be a predictor of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In other words, if employees feel a good fit between themselves and their organizations they should have a felling of obligation to exhibit innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

Cable and Judge (1996) state that employee's perception of P-O fit is strongly associated with the employees' attitudes. On the other hand, psychological ownership, as a positive attitude, is associated with the constructive deviance (Chung and Moon, 2011; Vandewalle et al., 1995). In Van Dyene et al.' (1994) study, they

investigated the relationship between some predictors (i.e. positive job attitudes, cynicism, workplace values, motivating job characteristics, tenure, job level) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Also, they suggested that their proposed relations are not direct but trough some possible mediators (Netemeyer et al., 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1990). In view of the OCB is a pro-social behavior (Spreitzer and Sonenshein, 2004; Galperin, 2012), constructive deviance, which is to focus on helping others, is also one of the prosocial behaviors. In light of these relations, the relationship between P-O fit and constructive deviance should not be direct but through some possible attitudes (i.e. psychological ownership). According to these studies, we propose that an employee, who feels good fit between his characteristics and those of the organization he serves, may develop feeling of possession, which is psychologically, and then engages in constructive deviant behaviors. It follows that;

Hypothesis 8: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between person-organization fit (P-O fit) and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

5.4. Mediator Role of Psychological Ownership in the Relation of Participative Decision Making to Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behavior

Quality, flexibility, and innovativeness are seen as critical concerns for organizational performance (e.g., Alpkan et al. 2003; Ergun et al., 2004) where employee participation is a must. Aiken and Hage (1966) defined Participative decision-making as “the degree to which staff members participate in setting the goals and policies of the entire organization”. This concept is also defined by Pierce et al. (2004) as distribution of authority among employee in decision-making process. Likewise, Liu et al. (2012), addressing the power of control, defined this concept as “the opportunity an individual has in exercising control over matters that relate to his/her work and work outcomes”.

In Nassehi’s (2005) study, he used “decision machine” metaphor to emphasize the importance of decision-making process in organizations. Likewise, Liu et al. (2012) emphasized that by means of participative decision making employees may

feel themselves as an ownership of their organizations because of getting information about organization's existing state and future. For instance, Eren et al (2000) found that in most companies middle managers were consulted in the strategic planning process.

Although poor level of participative decision making has undesirable effects on organizations such as; alienation, low-level performance (Aiken and Hage, 1966; Allen and LaFollette, 1977; Black and Gregersen, 1997), high-level participation decision-making is also related to some positive effects on organizations (i.e. organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organization-based self-esteem) (Porter et al., 1996; Black and Gregersen, 1997; Wagner et al., 2003; Bulut and Alpkan, 2006; Gilbert et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2012; Sieger et al., 2011).

Of course, as mentioned before, positive outcomes of psychological ownership such as helping and extra-role behaviors, organizational commitment and job satisfaction were investigated in many studies (Mayhew et al., 2007; Pierce et al., 2004; Avey et al., 2009; Sieger et al., 2013). However, there are limited researches focusing on the relationship between psychological ownership and constructive deviance (Chung and Moon, 2011). In their study, Chung and Moon (2011) found a positive and significant relationship between interpersonal constructive deviance and psychological ownership.

Additionally, there are also studies indicating the positive effects of PDM on employees (i.e. psychological ownership) (Chi and Han, 2008). In their study, Chi and Han (2008) stated that employee's participation in decision-making is one of the significant predictors of psychological ownership. In Liu et al.' (2012) study, they found a positive relationship between participative decision-making and psychological ownership. Additionally, Wagner et al. (2003) found a positive relationship between psychological ownership and financial performance.

In light of these studies, it can be said that these constructs were widely studied in the past researches. However, to better understand these relations, a comprehensive model, which includes these three constructs (i.e. participative

decision making, psychological ownership, and constructive deviance) is lacking in literature.

Given the Blau's (1964) social exchange theory and Ajzen and Fishbein' (1977) theory of reasoned action, if employees feel themselves as a part of their organizations and take part in decision-making process, they might develop some positive attitudes and behaviors. Since participative decision-making is an antecedent of psychological ownership (Chi and Han, 2008) and since psychological ownership is an antecedent of constructive deviance (Chung and Moon, 2011) we can hypothesize that high-level participative decision-making might be a source of innovative constructive deviance and psychological ownership may mediate this relationship. In other words, if employees feel themselves as a part of the decision making process in their organizations, they may develop a feeling of possession that is psychological towards the their organizations and then exhibit constructive deviant workplace behaviors. It follows that;

Hypothesis 4: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between participative decision-making and innovative constructive deviant workplace behavior

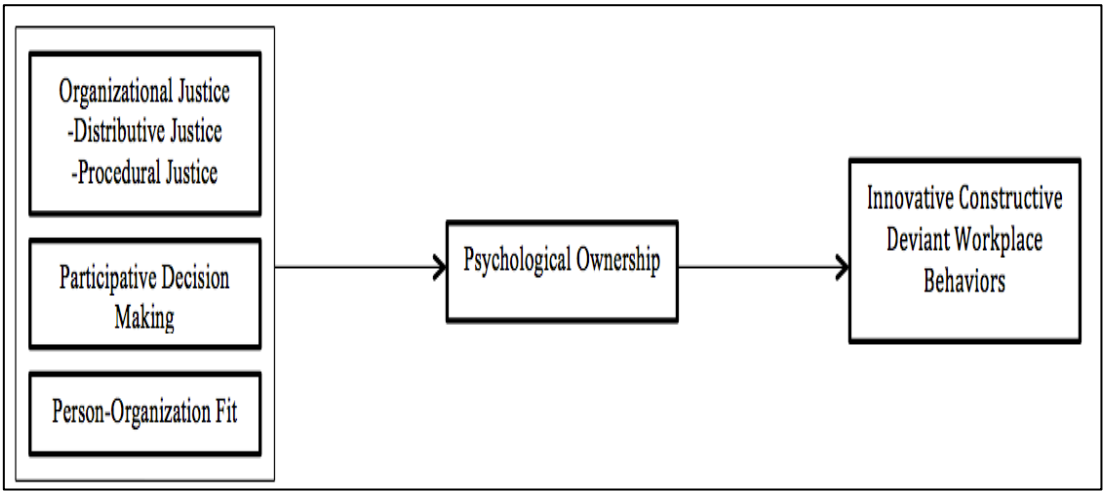


Figure 6. Mediator Role of Psychological Ownership

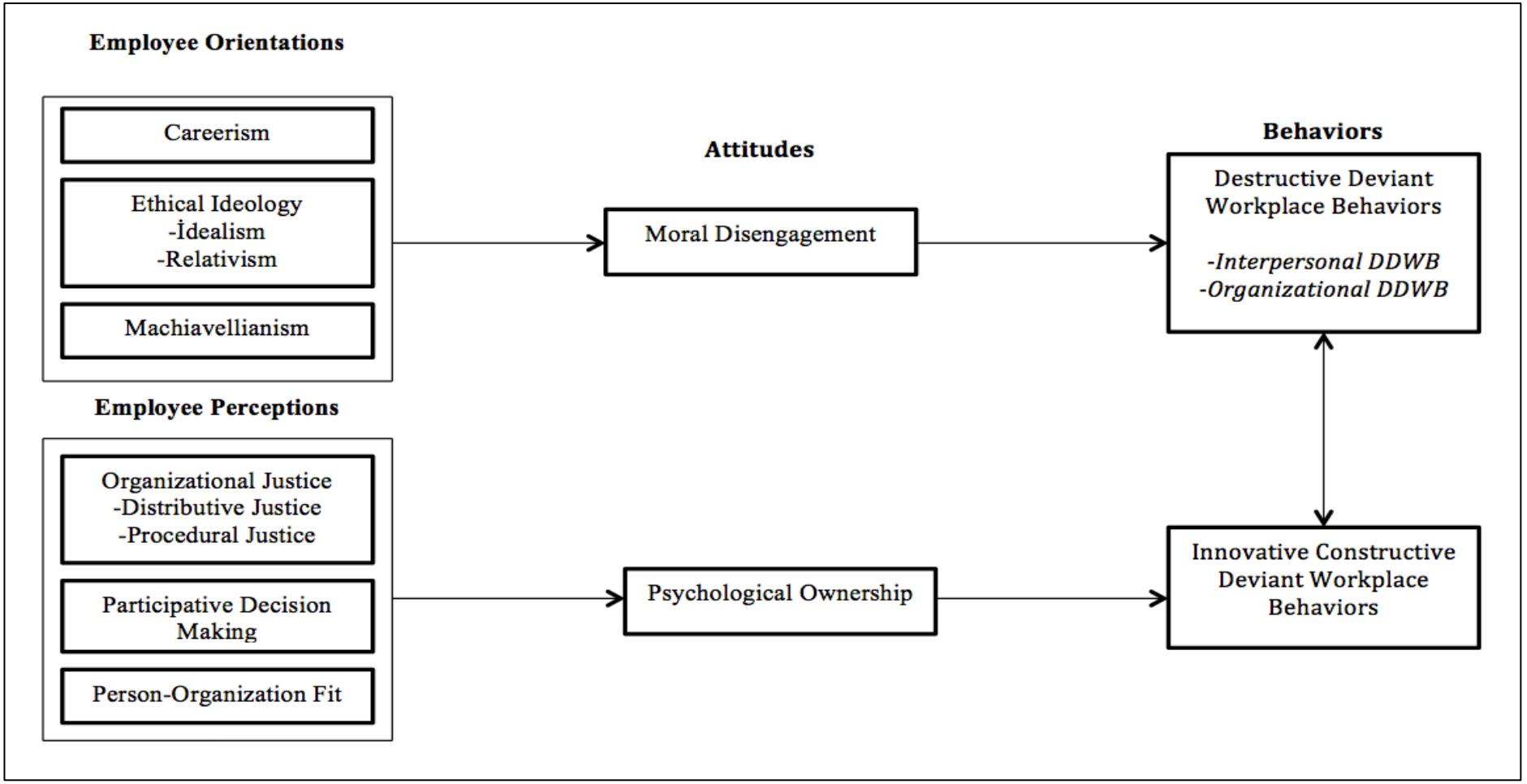


Figure 7. Conceptual Model

6. METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the information about the measures that were used in this study is provided. Specifically, this chapter provides an overview of all scales. Then, some information about plot study is provided. Lastly, the information about the final form of questionnaire is provided.

6.1. Measures

The questionnaire consists of three sections. In the first section, there is a cover letter to give information about the research to respondents. This section also contains some information about the privacy of their responds. To provide honesty in responds the names of the respondents and the names of institutions where they work were not wanted. It was also stated that responses would only be used for a scientific research and would be assessed only by researchers. In order to reach general information about the respondents, the second section of the survey contains 8 demographical questions (i.e. gender, martial status, age, level of education, tenure, work experience, field of activity and sector).

The last part of the survey consists of 6 independent variables (careerism, ethical ideology, machiavellianism, perceived organizational justice, participative decision making and person-organization fit), 2 depended variables (destructive deviant workplace behaviors and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors) 2 mediator variables (psychological ownership and moral disengagement).

Independent variables consist of two sub-groups namely employee orientations and employee perceptions. Employee orientations are careerism (6-item), ethical ideology (idealism 8-item and relativism 8-item) and machiavellianism (19-item). On the other hand, employee perceptions are organizational justice (distributive justice 5-item and procedural justice 6-item and interactional justice 9-item), participative decision-making (5-item) and person-organization fit (3-item) respectively. Additionally, mediator variables are psychological ownership (6-item) and moral disengagement (displacement of responsibility (4-item), dehumanization (4-item)

and diffusion of responsibility (4-item)). Lastly, depended variables are innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors (4-item) and destructive deviant workplace behaviors (interpersonal constructive deviant workplace behaviors (7-item) and organizational constructive deviant workplace behaviors (11-item)).

6.1.1. Careerism

The construct of careerism or careerist orientation was measured with 6-item Careerism Scale developed by Feldman and Weitz (1991). The scale focuses on the measuring participants' non-performance based orientations in their career way. A sample item included in the careerism scale is "It is important to cultivate the appearance of being successful; the appearance of being successful can be as instrumental in terms of advancement as competence". A 5-point response format was used to measure careerism construct, ranging from "1 = strongly disagree" and "5 = strongly agree".

6.1.2. Ethical Ideology

Ethical ideology was measured with 16-item The Ethic Position Questionnaire developed by Forsyth (1980). Originally, the scale consists of two sub dimensions; idealism and relativism. In order to assess these two dimensions the scale consists of 20 items, 10-item for each sub-dimension. Since, it was thought that participants would not understand four items, four items were eliminated. The two eliminated items out of four belong to idealism, which are "Deciding whether or not to perform an act by balancing the positive consequences of the act against the negative consequence of the act is immoral" and "Moral actions are those which closely match ideals of the most "perfect" action" were eliminated. On the other hand, the other two items belong to relativism, which are "Rigidly codifying an ethical position that prevents certain types of action could stand in the way of better human relations and adjustment" and "Whether a lie is judged to be moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action". Therefore, the final form of ethical ideology scale consists of 16 items.

Idealism assesses one's consideration of the universal ethical norms and giving more importance to others' wellbeing instead of harm. A sample item included in the

Idealism sub dimension is “One should not perform an action which might in any way threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual”. On the other hand relativism assesses the ones rejection of universal ethical norms when judging what is wrong or right. A sample item included in the relativism sub dimension is “Questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual”. A 5-point response format was used to measure idealism and relativism, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.1.3. Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism was measured with 20-item Mach-IV personality scale, which was developed by Christie and Geis (1970). Despite the scale consist of 10 reverse items, they were converted to the straight form and one item “It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there” was eliminated to avoid any comprehension error. Therefore, the final form of the scale consists of 19 items.

Mach-IV personality scale assesses one’s deceptive, misleading and self-seeking characteristics (Christie and Geis, 1970). A sample item included in the Mach-IV personality scale is “The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught”. A 5-point response format was used to measure machiavellianism construct, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.1.4. Organizational Justice

Organizational justice was measured using the 20-item Organizational Justice scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The scale consists of three sub-dimensions namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice. The sub dimensions are measured 5-item, 6-item and 9-item respectively.

Organizational justice scale assesses the employees’ perception of fairness in their organizations in terms of processes, awards and relations. Basically, this construct is based on the perception of the equity (Adams, 1963, 1964). Distributive justice assesses the perception of the fairness in terms of received outcomes such as

awards or pay. An example item of this sub-dimension is “I think that my level of pay is fair”. Procedural justice assesses the perception related to the fairness of the process such as decisions made. An example item of this sub-dimension is “My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees”. Lastly, interactional justice assesses the quality of relations between individuals such as the fairness in relations between supervisors and colleagues. An example item of this sub-dimension is “When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee”. A 5-point response format was used to measure respondents’ justice perceptions, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.1.5. Person-Organization Fit

The construct of person-organization fit was measured with 3-item Person-Organization Fit Scale developed by Cable and De Rue (2002). The scale focuses on the measuring participants’ perceptions of coherence between themselves and organization. A sample item included in the person-organization fit scale is “My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life”. A 5-point response format was used to person-organization fit construct, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.1.6. Participative Decision Making

The construct of participative decision-making was measured using the 5-item Participative Decision Making Scale firstly developed by Siegel and Ruh (1973) and adopted by Lam et al. (2002). The scale consists of 5 items.

Participative decision-making scale assesses the members of the organization’s level of participation in decision-making process. Aiken and Hage (1966) defined this construct as “the degree to which staff members participate in setting the goals and policies of the entire organization”. Participative decision-making can also be defined as a collaboration of all members of the organization in decision-making process. A sample item included in the participative decision making scale is “In this organization, I have high degree of influence in company decisions”. A 5-point

response format was used to measure participative decision making construct, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.1.7. Moral Disengagement

Moral disengagement was measured using the 16-item moral disengagement scale developed by Bandura et al. (1996). The scale consists of three sub-dimensions, diffusion of responsibility, displacement of responsibility and dehumanization. Each sub-dimension are measured with 4-item.

Moral disengagement scale assesses the employees’ ability of deactivating self-regulatory mechanism, in turn, deactivating self-condemnation mechanism to rationalize his/her activities, which is actually inconsistent with their internalized moral standards (Bandura et al., 1996; Detert et al., 2008). An example item of diffusion of responsibility is “A member of a group or team should not be blamed for the trouble the team caused”. An example item of displacement of responsibility is “If someone is pressured into doing something, they shouldn’t be blamed for it”. Lastly, an example item of dehumanization is “Some people deserve to be treated like animals”. A 5-point response format was used to measure moral disengagement construct, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.1.8. Psychological Ownership

Psychological ownership was measured with 6-item Psychological Ownership Scale. The scale was developed by Van Dyne and Pierce (2004). Psychological ownership scale mainly focuses on the feeling of possession. This instrument assesses participants’ feelings of ownership towards to their organization. A sample item included in the psychological ownership scale is “I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this organization”. A 5-point response format was used to measure psychological ownership construct, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.1.9. Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The construct of constructive deviant workplace behaviors was measured using the 16-item Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors scale developed by Galperin (2002). The scale consists of three sub-dimensions, namely challenging organizational, innovative organizational and interpersonal constructive deviance. The sub dimensions are measured 6-item, 5-item and 5-item respectively.

Constructive deviant workplace behaviors scale assesses the employees' intentionally rule breaking potential to wellbeing of organizations. According to Galperin and Burke (2006) interpersonal constructive deviance refers to such behaviors as; disobeying the others or reporting wrongdoing to co-workers for positive organizational change. An example item of this sub-dimension is "Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve the current work". Challenging organizational constructive deviance refers to such behaviors as; breaking organization's significant norms and rules for its wellbeing. An example item of this sub-dimension is "Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem". Lastly, innovative organizational constructive deviance refers to such behaviors as; searching for innovative methods for routine daily tasks and generating creative solutions to overcome problems. An example item of this sub-dimension is "Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures". A 5-point response format was used to measure respondents' constructive deviant workplace behaviors, ranging from "1 = strongly disagree" and "5 = strongly agree".

6.1.10. Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The construct of destructive deviant workplace behaviors was measured using the 17-item deviant workplace behaviors scale developed by Bennet and Robinson (2000). The scale consists of two sub-dimensions, namely interpersonal and organizational destructive deviance. The sub-dimensions are measured 7-item and 11-item respectively.

Destructive deviant workplace behaviors scale assesses the employees' intentionally and voluntary rule breaking potential to harm organization. According to Bennet and Robinson (2006) interpersonal destructive deviance refers to such

behaviors as; any intentional behavior, which target to harm or violate members of the organization.. An example item of this sub-dimension is “Said something hurtful to someone at work”. Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors refer to such behaviors as; any intentional behavior violating and harming organization, and its significant norms or both. An example item of this sub-dimension is “Come in late to work without permission”. A 5-point response format was used to measure respondents’ destructive deviant workplace behaviors, ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” and “5 = strongly agree”.

6.2. Sample

In this section, the information about the plot and main studies are provided. Firstly, the initial distribution of the items is presented. Then, final distribution of items in the scale is presented.

6.2.1. Plot Study

Before the main study to test wording and comprehension of all items, a plot study was conducted on 145 employees who work in non-managerial positions from different service sectors in Istanbul. The conventional survey method was used to gathering data, and surveys were distributed to respondents by using social networks. Accordingly, the majority of the respondents were female (%58.6), 18-31 age olds (%63.4), working in public sector (%88.3), graduated (%53.8), 1-10 years experienced (%69) and tenure for years 1-5 years (%71,7). The first version of the survey consists of 10 different constructs namely careerism, ethical ideology (idealism and relativism), Machiavellianism, organizational justice perception (procedural, distributive, interpersonal), participative decision-making, person-organization fit, psychological ownership, moral disengagement, constructive deviant workplace behaviors (interpersonal, challenging and innovative) and destructive deviant workplace behaviors (interpersonal and organizational). The numbers of the items of each construct were presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Initial Distribution of the Items for Plot Study

Constructs		Numbers of Items
Employee Orientations		
Careerism		7
Ethical Ideology	Idealism	8
	Relativism	8
Machiavellianism		19
Employee Perceptions		
Organizational Justice	Distributive Justice	5
	Procedural Justice	6
	Interactional Justice	9
Person-Organization Fit		3
Participative Decision Making		5
Mediators		
Moral Disengagement	Diffusion of Responsibility	4
	Displacement of Responsibility	4
	Dehumanization	4
Psychologıcal Ownership		6
Depended Variables		
Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors	Interpersonal	5
	Challenging	6
	Innovative	5
Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors	Interpersonal	7
	Organizational	11
TOTAL ITEMS		122

After the plot study, exploratory factor analysis was run to test factorial distribution and construct validity of all constructs. Because of the cross factor loadings and low reliability levels (less than $\alpha = .70$), some sub-dimensions and items were eliminated from the survey. According to these statistical interventions the survey was finalized. The final version of the survey, which consists of the 10 constructs (74-item) are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The Distribution of the Items for Final Form of the Survey

Constructs		Numbers of Items
Employee Orientations		
Careerism		5
Ethical Ideology	Idealism	7
	Relativism	5
Machiavellianism		8
Employee Perceptions		
Organizational Justice	Distributive Justice	5
	Procedural Justice	6
Person-Organization Fit		3
Participative Decision Making		5
Mediators		
Moral Disengagement	Diffusion of Responsibility	4
	Displacement of Responsibility	4
	Dehumanization	4
Psychologıcal Ownership		4
Depended Variables		
Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors	Innovative	5
Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors	Interpersonal	5
	Organizational	4
TOTAL ITEMS		74

6.2.2. Main Study

The sample of the main study consists of 1000 voluntary employees who work in non-managerial positions at different service sectors in Istanbul. Survey method was used to collect data with the use of conventional sampling method. The respondents were chosen both private and public sectors and the surveys were distributed to respondents by using social networks mostly by hand, via e-mail, e-survey, social media (i.e. Facebook, LinkedIn) and some key persons. In order to gather general demographic characteristics of the respondents, some demographical questions were asked such as gender, martial status, age, education level, tenure,

work experience, field of activity and sector. The majority of the respondents were male (%58), 18-31 age olds (%46.2), marital condition is married (%60.4), level of education is postgraduate (%45.4), 1-10 years experienced (%56.2), tenure for years 1-5 years (%59,7), working in public sector (%66.9) and work in education sector (%39.3). The details of demographic characteristics of the sample are tabulated in Table 6.

Table 6. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	Sample%
Gender		
Male	580	58
Female	420	42
Age (in years)		
18-31	462	46.2
32-45	424	42.4
46 and over	114	11.4
Marital Status		
Married	604	60.4
Single	396	39.6
Level of Education		
High School	87	8.7
College	111	11.1
Graduate	348	34.8
Post-Graduate	454	45.4
Experience (in years)		
1-10	562	56.2
11-20	305	30.5
21 and over	133	13.3
Tenure (in years)		
1-5	597	59.7
6-10	178	17.8
11-15	91	9.1
16-20	53	5.3
21-25	44	4.4
26 and over	37	3.7
Sector		
Public	669	66.9
Private	331	33.1
Service Industry		
Health	248	24.8
Banking	128	12.8
Trade	43	4.3
Education	393	39.3
Civil Servant	136	13.6
Communication	27	2.7
Others	25	2.5
TOTAL	1000	100

7. FINDINGS

In this chapter, the data that collected from the survey and the results of it are presented. It begins with the preliminary analysis of all items with the analyzing of skewness, kurtosis, mean and standard deviation values. Then, to test construct validity, exploratory factor analyses were conducted. Following such, Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach is followed to assess the theoretical model of this study. Since this study proposes the models of destructive and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors, the assessments of these two measurement models are presented separately. Accordingly, the fits of basic measurement models are confirmed by confirmatory factor analyses. Then, the fits of structural models are confirmed by structural equation modeling (SEM). Lastly, this chapter concludes with the hierarchical regression analyses to test research hypotheses. To analyze collected data, SPSS 21.0, AMOS 20.0 and SmartPLS (v.3.2.1) statistical packet programs are used.

7.1. Preliminary Data Analysis

In order to show the distribution of the items means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values of all items in the questionnaire are presented in Table 7. According to Kline (2011), to decide whether the data has a normal distribution or not skewness and kurtosis cut-off values are used to determine if any normal distribution problem exist in the raw data. From this perspective, cut-off values of the skewness and kurtosis should not be over 3 (absolute value) and 10 (absolute value) respectively. As seen in Table 7, the mean values of all items range from 1.34 to 4.47, standard deviation values range from .704 to 1.547, skewness values range from -1.874 to 2.639, and lastly kurtosis values range from -1.196 to 3.512. These indicators show that there is no normal distribution problem related to the raw data. Because of the all indicators are in the acceptable levels no items were eliminated in this phase.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics

	Construct/Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
CAREERISM					
CR1	It is difficult to advance in organizations trough merit alone.	3.40	1.158	-.320	-.763
CR2	It is often necessary to use social relationships with superiors, co-workers, and friends to get ahead	3.58	1.114	-.680	-.304
CR3	It is important to cultivate the appearance of being successful; the appearance of being successful can be as instrumental in terms of advancement as competence.	2.91	1.258	.113	-1.094
CR5	It is important to recognize that, in the long run, the individual's career goals will be inconsistent with the interests of the organization; therefore, ultimately, it is each person for himself/herself.	3.37	1.088	-.384	-.652
CR6	Loyalty to an employer is unlikely to be rewarded.	3.32	1.116	-.283	-.733
IDEALISM					
IDE1	A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree	4.09	1.034	-1.210	.994
IDE2	Risk to another should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risks might be.	4.09	.993	-1.147	.889
IDE4	One should never psychologically or physically harm another person	4.42	.859	-1.773	3.339
IDE5	One should not perform an action which might in any way threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual	4.47	.851	-1.874	3.512
IDE6	If an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done	4.47	1.547	-1.767	3.150
IDE7	The dignity and welfare of people should be the most important concern in any society	4.41	.838	-1.597	2.556
IDE8	It is never necessary to sacrifice the welfare of others	4.26	.932	-1.359	1.634
RELATIVISM					
REL2	What is ethical varies from one situation and society to another.	3.41	1.166	-.494	-.700
REL3	Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person	3.21	1.233	-.259	-1.018
REL4	Different types of moralities cannot be compared as to "rightness".	3.46	1.018	-.482	-.258
REL5	Questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual	3.23	1.237	-.268	-1.045
REL6	Moral standards are simply personal rules which indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgements of others.	3.35	1.155	-.439	-.754

Table 7. continued

	Construct/Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
MACHIAVELLIANISM					
MAC3	One should not take action only when sure it is morally right	2.24	1.038	.810	.121
MAC4	Most people are basically not good and kind	3.03	1.107	-.030	-.893
MAC5	It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.	2.75	1.105	.216	-.752
MAC6	Honesty is not the best policy in all cases	2.44	1.172	.550	-.628
MAC9	All in all, it is not better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest	1.86	1.090	1.260	.768
MAC11	Most people who get ahead in the world not lead clean, moral lives	2.60	1.173	.365	-.774
MAC13	The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught.	2.43	1.062	.473	-.407
MAC17	There's a sucker born every minute	2.30	1.198	.696	-.438
DISTRUBUTIVE JUSTICE					
DIS1	My work schedule is fair	3.07	1.231	-.265	-.976
DIS2	I think that my level of pay is fair	2.70	1.279	.136	-1.195
DIS3	I consider my work load to be quite fair	2.67	1.198	.095	-1.091
DIS4	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	2.67	1.204	.075	-1.061
DIS5	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	2.72	1.200	.055	-1.097
PROCEDURAL JUSTICE3					
PRO1	Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner	2.86	1.241	-.047	-1.056
PRO2	My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	2.75	1.259	.091	-1.126
PRO3	To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information	2.89	1.211	-.076	-1.020
PRO4	My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	3.03	1.190	-.254	-.961
PRO5	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	2.85	1.160	-.093	-1.002
PRO6	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager	2.90	1,273	-.130	-1.186
PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT					
POF1	The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values	2.89	1.102	-.113	-.812
POF2	My personal values match my organization's values and culture	3.02	1.109	-.229	-.765
POF3	My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life	3.03	1.097	-.203	-.727

Table 7. continued

	Construct/Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING					
PDM1	In this organization, I have high degree of influence in company decisions	2.42	1.119	.442	-.703
PDM2	In this organization, I often participate in decisions regarding my job	3.01	1.177	-.241	-1.075
PDM3	In this organization, I have high degree of influence in the decisions affecting me	2.71	1.136	.081	-.958
PDM4	In this organization, I can participate in setting new company policies	3.02	1.181	-.289	-.995
PDM5	In this organization, my views have a real influence in company decisions	2.74	1.133	.065	-.938
DIFFUSION OF RESPONSIBILITY (MD)					
DIR1	A kid in a gang should not be blamed for the trouble the gang causes.	3.29	1.170	-.223	-.911
DIR2	A kid who only suggests breaking rules should not be blamed if other kids go ahead and do it.	3.18	1.129	-.132	-.907
DIR3	If a group decides together to do something harmful it is unfair to blame any kid in the group for it.	2.94	1.174	-.085	-1.017
DIR4	It is unfair to blame a child who had only a small part in the harm caused by a group.	2.89	1.121	.134	-.893
DISPLACEMENT OF RESPONSIBILITY (MD)					
DR1	If kids are living under bad conditions they cannot be blamed for behaving aggressively.	2.89	1.163	.104	-.967
DR2	If kids are not disciplined they should not be blamed for misbehaving.	2.87	1.247	.130	-1.095
DR3	Kids cannot be blamed for using bad words when all their friends do it.	2.47	1.076	.627	-.283
DR4	Kids cannot be blamed for misbehaving if their friends pressured them to do it.	2.32	1.139	.653	-.466
DEHUMANIZATION (MD)					
DE1	Some people deserve to be treated like animals.	2.44	1.275	.521	-.846
DE2	It is okay to treat badly somebody who behaved like a "worm."	2.38	1.149	.596	-.409
DE3	Someone who is obnoxious does not deserve to be treated like a human being.	2.91	1.217	.020	-1.027
DE4	Some people have to be threated roughly, because they lack feelings that can be hurt	2.45	1.163	.552	-.559
PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP					
PSY2	It is easy for me to think about this organization as MINE	3.15	1.297	-.242	-1.114
PSY4	I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this organization.	3.55	1.177	-.669	-.422
PSY5	I sense that this is MY company.	2.96	1.275	-.063	-1.136
PSY6	This is MY organization.	2.97	1.307	-.077	-1.196

Note: MD: Moral Disengagement

Table 7. continued

Construct/Item		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
INNOVATIVE CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS					
CDWI1	Developed creative solutions to problems	3.88	.862	-1.049	1.579
CDWI2	Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures	3.86	.898	-.965	1.048
CDWI3	Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals	3.47	1.047	-.466	-.460
CDWI4	Departed from the accepted tradition to solve problems.	3.24	1.040	-.212	-.738
CDWI5	Introduced a change to improve the performance of your group	3.62	.930	-.640	.090
INTERPERSONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS					
DWI-1	Made fun of someone at work	1.56	.990	1.911	2.969
DWI-2	Said something hurtful to someone at work	1.58	.815	1.695	3.398
DWI-4	Cursed at someone at work	1.67	.890	1.445	1.916
DWI-5	Played a mean prank on someone at work	1.36	.791	2.639	7.082
DWI-6	Acted rudely toward someone at work	1.34	.695	2.608	7.963
ORGANIZATIONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS					
DWO-2	Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1.54	.871	1.663	2.293
DWO-4	Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1.72	1.011	1.436	1.501
DWO-5	Come in late to work without permission	1.53	.843	1.767	3.040
DWO-7	Neglected to follow your boss's instructions	1.40	.704	1.992	4.479

Notes: CR: Careerism, IDE: Idealism, REL: Relativism, MAC: Machiavellianism, DIS: Distributive justice, PRO: Procedural justice, POF: Person-Organization Fit, PDM: Participative Decision Making, PSY: Psychological Ownership, DR: Diffusion of responsibility, DE: Dehumanization, DIR: Displacement of Responsibility, CDW-I: Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace behavior, DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors, DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

7.2. Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA)

First of all, to investigate the complex relationships among independent, depended and mediator variables all constructs' construct validities must be provided. Factor analysis is defined by Hair et al. (2009) as "an interdependence technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis". According to Hair et al. (2009) EFA has two main purposes; data summarization and data reduction. Data summarization can be defined as simplifying the complex structures of variables and subsuming these under general and comprehensible concepts. On the other hand data reduction refers to reducing the number of the observed variables under the much smaller number of dimensions in terms of some statistical indicators (i.e. factor loadings, eigenvalue) and theoretical logic. In literature there are some indicators related to the quality of EFA such as; minimum factor loadings, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy value and Barlett's test of sphericity value.

In order to test construct validity of all constructs, SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 21.0 software was used. Before the starting analysis some required conditions were checked. Firstly, Hair et al. (2009) stated that despite the minimum sample size ratio is 5:1, the more accepted sample size ratio is 10:1 and number of observation would not be fewer than 50. Because of the observed variables in this study are 74 the minimum sample size of this study must be 74x10=740. Since the sample size of this study is 1000, the sample size is deemed exceedingly adequate for this study. Of course, although this criterion is like a rule of thumb, there is also a test namely measure of sampling adequacy (MSA), which test the required minimum level of sample. According to Hair et al. (2009), the threshold value of this test is 0.50 and this value exceedingly surpassed in this study (KMO =0.889). Supporting this notion Kaiser (1970, 1974) also suggest some KMO reference values. According to Kaiser (1970, 1974);

- .80 or above is meritorious,
- .70 or above is middling,
- .60 or above is mediocre,

- .50 or above is miserable and
- below .50 is unacceptable.

Hair at al. (2009) defined factor loading as the correlation between observed variable and its factor. According to this definition the higher the factor loading is the better in terms of explained variance. They emphasized that despite the ±30 to ±40 factor loadings constitutes minimum acceptable levels, more than ±50 is satisfied. As seen in Table 8 the factor loadings of this study range between .51 and .88. In this respect, it can be said that all items' factor loadings exceed the threshold values. On the other hand the item total correlation (ITC) is also an important criteria. Shortly, ITC refers to a correlation level between item and scale as a whole. According to Hair and colleagues (2009) the minimum level of ITC should be r = .50 or above. However, a great deal of study in literature also suggest that the acceptable level of this value is r = .30 or greater (Knapp and Brown, 1995; Ferketich, 1990; Field, 2005; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). As seen in Table 8 the minimum level of ITC is .418 in this study. In this way the ITC level is deemed adequate for this study.

Additionally, to assess the quality of factor analysis one of the rules of thumbs is Barlett's test of sphericity. This test measures the adequacy of the correlation level between variables, and the expected significance value is sig.<0,05 (Hair et al., 2009). As seen from Table 8 this significance level surpassed the expected level (p<0,001).

After the meeting of all aforementioned required basic conditions, EFA was run to test construct validity. To the best factor extraction, varimax method, which is one of the orthogonal rotation methods, was used because of the reducing the columns of the factor matrix (Hair et al., 2009). According to this rotation method the eigenvalue (1 and above) was chosen as a criterion. In this direction, 15 dimensions, having eigenvalues above 1 were extracted (min=1.182; max =10.485). In this rotation method as a minimum factor loading .50 was defined.

In addition to aforementioned indicators, the reliability level of all constructs also an import factor in terms of assessing the quality of the EFA. Reliability defined as "a measure of the degree to which a set of indicators of a latent construct is internally consistent based on how highly interrelated the indicators are with each

other" (Hair et al., 2010). In other words reliability measures the internal consistency of the observed variables, which are represented by the same construct. Therefore, the variables in the same construct must measure the same thing to desirable reliability levels (Hair et al., 2010). In literature, the commonly used method to measure reliability is Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Cronbach (1951) state that the actable internal consistency level of the measures is α = .70 and above. However, according to Hair and colleagues (2010) although the .70 or higher level of the reliability is suggestible, the range of reliability between .60 and .70 may also be acceptable if the other constructs' reliability levels are in desirable levels. Supporting this notion, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) state that although the acceptable level of reliability is .70, the range between .65 and .70 is also satisfying. As seen in Table 8, except the careerism (α=.69), all construct's Cronbach's Alpha coefficients are above the cut-off value .70. Only Careerism's Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is slightly below the commonly accepted cut-off value. However, as above-mentioned this value is also in acceptable levels (Hair et al., 2010; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

As presented in Table 8, the amount of the explained total variance by 15 constructs is %64.374. Procedural justice explains %6.764 of it, Idealism %6.728, participative decision-making %5.132, machiavellianism %4.700, psychological ownership % 4.430, interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors % 4.336, relativism %4.103, distributive justice %4.095, diffusion of responsibility %4.020, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors %3.979, dehumanization %3.709, organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors %3.279, careerism %3.158, displacement of responsibility %2.977 and lastly person-organization fit %2.967 respectively. The final EFA results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Result of the Exploratory Factor Analysis

Variable/Item	Factor Loadings	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Variance Explained
Procedural justice			.923	%6.764
PRO3	.885	.843		
PRO2	.854	.837		
PRO4	.843	.814		
PRO1	.815	.789		
PRO5	.754	.774		
PRO6	.625	.633		
Idealism			.908	%6.728
IDE5	.879	.839		
IDE6	.872	.821		
IDE4	.865	.810		
IDE7	.822	.774		
IDE2	.735	.664		
IDE8	.696	.613		
IDE1	.681	.608		
Participative Decision Making			.883	%5.132
PDM3	.820	.778		
PDM2	.778	.709		
PDM1	.771	.706		
PDM5	.753	.751		
PDM4	.711	.656		
Machiavellianism			.794	%4.700
MAC11	.668	.484		
MAC5	.644	.546		
MAC6	.632	.534		
MAC9	.611	.510		
MAC4	.604	.485		
MAC13	.597	.511		
MAC17	.594	.514		
MAC3	.514	.429		
Psychological Ownership			.927	%4.430
PSY6	.870	.856		
PSY5	.863	.885		
PSY2	.833	.844		
PSY4	.733	.737		
Interpersonal Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors			.836	%4.336
DWI-2	.821	.709		
DWI-6	.791	.713		
DWI-4	.785	.674		
DWI-5	.743	.610		
DWI-1	.632	.532		

Table 8. continued

Variable/Item	Factor Loadings	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Variance Explained
Relativism			.821	%4.103
REL5	.841	.732		
REL3	.827	.703		
REL4	.705	.584		
REL6	.677	.548		
REL2	.669	.514		
Distributive Justice			.876	%4.095
DIS3	.824	.810		
DIS2	.746	.622		
DIS5	.693	.770		
DIS1	.643	.664		
DIS4	.590	.669		
Diffusion of Responsibility (MD)			.871	%4.020
DR2	.860	.759		
DR3	.842	.749		
DR4	.820	.716		
DR1	.805	.678		
Innovative Constructive Deviance			.804	%3.979
CDW-I2	.778	.661		
CDW-I3	.767	.631		
CDW-I5	.724	.616		
CDW-I1	.689	.533		
CDW-I4	.656	.518		
Dehumanization (MD)			.849	%3.709
DE2	.797	.740		
DE1	.796	.700		
DE3	.781	.648		
DE4	.723	.668		
Organizational Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors			.766	%3.279
DWO-5	.767	.577		
DWO-4	.755	.613		
DWO-7	.730	.577		
DWO-2	.660	.613		
Careerism			.693	%3.158
CR2	.684	.443		
CR3	.659	.486		
CR6	.603	.425		
CR1	.599	.437		
CR5	.597	.451		

Table 8. continued

Variable/Item	Factor Loadings	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Variance Explained
Displacement of Responsibility (MD)			.716	%2.977
DIR3	.774	.628		
DIR2	.767	.539		
DIR1	.670	.418		
DIR4	.581	.443		
Person-Organization Fit			.899	%2.967
POF2	.798	.852		
POF3	.778	.806		
POF1	.687	.743		
Total Variance Explained				%64.374

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy= .889
The Barlett's test of sphericity (significance level)= .000
Approx. $\chi 2$ (2701) = 40052.305
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Notes: CR: Careerism, IDE: Idealism, REL: Relativism, MAC: Machiavellianism, DIS: Distributive justice, PRO: Procedural justice, POF: Person-Organization Fit, PDM: Participative Decision Making, PSY: Psychological Ownership, DR: Diffusion of responsibility, DE: Dehumanization, DIR: Displacement of Responsibility, CDW-I: Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace behavior, DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors, DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

7.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In this section, Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach was followed. According to this notion they suggest that before the testing structural model, firstly the construct validity of the model should be tested. Therefore, the beginning of the analysis was started with the Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In short, CFA is another type of the construct validity. However, this analysis differs from the EFA in some important aspects. As mentioned before the main purpose of the EFA is data summarization and data reduction to underlying some constructs, and stressing the distinction of the constructs. EFA is based on internal correlations among observed variables and used for comparing each construct's internal coherency to scale as a whole. Briefly, EFA is a useful analysis technique for exploratory researches. On the other hand CFA is used for theory test. In another words, after the validation of the constructs with the EFA, the quality of the scales can be tested with the CFA (Hair et al., 2009). According to Hatcher (1994), because the CFA measures the relationship between latent variables and their indicators, the models that are tested with the CFA also called measurement models. Anderson and

Gerbing (1992) state that the measurement model constitutes the basis of the structural model.

According to Hair et al. (2009) “confirmatory factor analysis enables us to test how well the measured variables represent the construct”. According to this definition it is easy to say that, CFA is a method used for assessing the theoretically proposed model’s righteousness in practice. Despite the EFA is based on correlations among the observed variables, CFA works covariance based (Hair et al., 2010). As seen in Figure 8 and Figure 9 in CFA analysis all constructs in the measurement model should be free to correlate with the other latent variables to see all constructs distinct from each other (Hair et al., 2010). In this process, covariance among all latent variables is drawn, and the significant factor loadings of observed variables are expected (see Table 11, 12). However, it is also important to state that in this covariance relation, there are no causal relationships among latent variables (Hatcher, 1994).

In order to test the quality of all constructs, AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) 20.0 software was used. Before the starting analysis some required conditions were checked. Firstly, because AMOS does not work with the missing data, the frequency analysis was run to determine missing data using SPSS 21.0 software. After the defining missing data these missing data were changed according to Maximum Likelihood (ML) method. Alison (2003) stated that although many researches use the conventional method such as listwise or pairwise deletion methods these methods are not useful because of some bias factors. According to this study maximum likelihood method is an optimum method to solve the missing data problem. Then, all latent variables in the model must be represented at least three observed variables to avoid bias factor (Netemeyer et al., 1990; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hatcher, 1994; Lomax, 1982; Bentler and Chou, 1987; James et al., 1982;). This criterion was also provided (see Figure 8, 9).

On the other hand, like the EFA the rule of minimum 5:1 sample ratio also goes for CFA (Hatcher, 1994; Hair et al., 2010). Additionally Hair et al. (2010, p.636) suggest some sample ratios depending on the used construct number (see Table 9). Because of the latent variable numbers of this study are 15 and the sample

size is 1000, the suggested minimum level of the sample size was exceedingly surpassed.

Table 9. Construct/Sample Ratios

Sample Size	Construct Numbers
Minimum sample size 100	Model containing five or fever constructs, each more than three items and (observed variables) and with high item communalities. (.6 or higher)
Minimum sample size 150	Models with seven constructs or less, modest communalities (.5), and no underidentified constructs
Minimum sample size 300	Models with seven or fewer constructs, lower communalities (below .45), and/or multiple underidentified (fewer than three) constructs.
Minimum sample size 500	Model with large numbers of constructs, some with lower communalities, and/or having fewer than three measured items

After solving the missing data issue, the CFA was run. There are some indicators to assess the quality of CFA. In the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) terminology the concept of fit is mainly used to stress quality of the analysis. Therefore some common fit indices are used to refer model fit. In many studies, it was stated that the X^2 value was accepted as a starting point (Hair et al., 2010; Hatcher, 1994). Hatcher (1994) explains the purpose of using X^2 value as "the chi-square test provides a statistical test of the null hypothesis that the model fit the data". According to this definition the lower X^2 values represent the better fit of the data. Likewise, Hatcher (1994) also states a rule of thumb which is the X^2 value should not be over twice the size of the degrees of freedom. From this point of view the expected significance level of the X^2 should be nonsignificant $p>0.05$ to better fit. However, according to Kline (2005) the X^2 value is not a reliable indicator for researches with large sample. Because of the sample size of this study is 1000, overall fit indices were used to evaluate model fit as well.

In many SEM related study, some common overall fit indices are reported to indicate model fits such as; X^2, GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), RMR (Root Mean Square Residual), SRMR and Normed X^2as absolute fit measures, NFI (Normed Fit Index), TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index), CFI (Comparative Fit Index) and RFI (Relative Fit Index) as incremental fit indices, AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index) and PNFI (Parsimony Normed Fit

Index) as parsimony fit indices (Hair et al., 2010; Şeşen and Meydan, 2011). Hair and colleagues (2010) suggest that as a rule of thumb, at least one absolute fit index and one incremental fit index should be reported with the chi-square (X^2) value. In this study to represent model fit as absolute fit indices X^2, Normed X^2, GFI, RMSEA, RMR, and as incremental fit indices NFI, TLI and CFI were used. In literature there are many instances about the threshold values of the overall fit indices. In Table 10 some threshold values of overall fit indices are presented (Ho, 2014; Bryne, 2001; Schumacker and Lomax, 2004; Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003, p. 52; Şimşek, 2007; Şeşen and Meydan; 2011).

Table 10. Recommended Overall Fit Indices

Fit Measure	Good fit	Acceptable Fit
$\chi 2$	$0 \leq \chi 2 \leq 2sd$	$2sd \leq \chi 2 \leq 3sd$
p value	$.05 \leq p \leq 1.00$	$.01 \leq p \leq .05$
Normed $\chi 2$	$0 \leq \chi 2/sd \leq 2$	$2 \leq \chi 2/sd \leq 3$
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$	$.05 < RMSEA \leq .08$
RMR	$0 \leq RMR \leq .05$	$.05 < RMR \leq .08$
NFI	$.95 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq NFI \leq .95$
CFI	$.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.95 \leq CFI \leq .97$
GFI	$.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq GFI \leq .95$
TLI	$.95 \leq TLI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq TLI \leq .95$

Notes: RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, RMR= Root Mean Square Residual, NFI= Normed Fit Index, CFI= Comparative Fit Index, GFI= Goodness of Fit Index, TLI= Tucker-Lewis Index.

The destructive deviance measurement model's CFA results show that the chi-square value is $X^2(905)$ =2053.228, P<0.05. Similarly, innovative constructive deviance measurement model's chi-square value is $X^2(299)$=873.357, P<0.05. As aforementioned, the expected significance level of X^2 is p>0.05 (non significance). According to Hair and colleagues (2010), because of the chi-square value's sensitivity of the sample size researchers should rely on the other fit indices. Otherwise, relying on the just X^2value may lead to type 1 error, which is defined as "the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis that is actually true" (Privetera, 2014, p.11)

According to recommended fit values in Table 10, the overall fit indices of the destructive deviance measurement model are Normed $\chi 2$=2.269 is in the acceptable fit range, RMR=. 051 is in acceptable level (less than 0.05 is preferable but acceptable in the range between 0.05 and 0.08) and RMSEA =.036 is in the good fit range, GFI =.914 is in the acceptable fit range , CFI =.938 is in the acceptable fit range, NFI =.894 is slightly below the acceptable fit range and TLI =. 932 is also in the acceptable fit ranges. In terms of these overall fit indicators it is easy to say that, the model fits to data well (see Table 11).

On the other hand, according to the recommended fit values in Table 10, the overall fit indices of the innovative constructive deviance measurement model are Normed $\chi 2$=2.921 is in the acceptable fit range, RMR=.055 is in acceptable level (less than 0.05 is preferable but acceptable in the range between 0.05 and 0.08) and RMSEA =.044 is in the good fit range, GFI =.940 is in the acceptable fit range , CFI =.969 is in the acceptable fit range, NFI =.953 is in the acceptable fit range and TLI =. 963 is also in the good fit ranges. In terms of these overall fit indicators it is easy to say that, the model fits to data well (see Table 12).

Table 11. Result of the Basic Measurement Fit for Measurement Model of Destructive Deviance

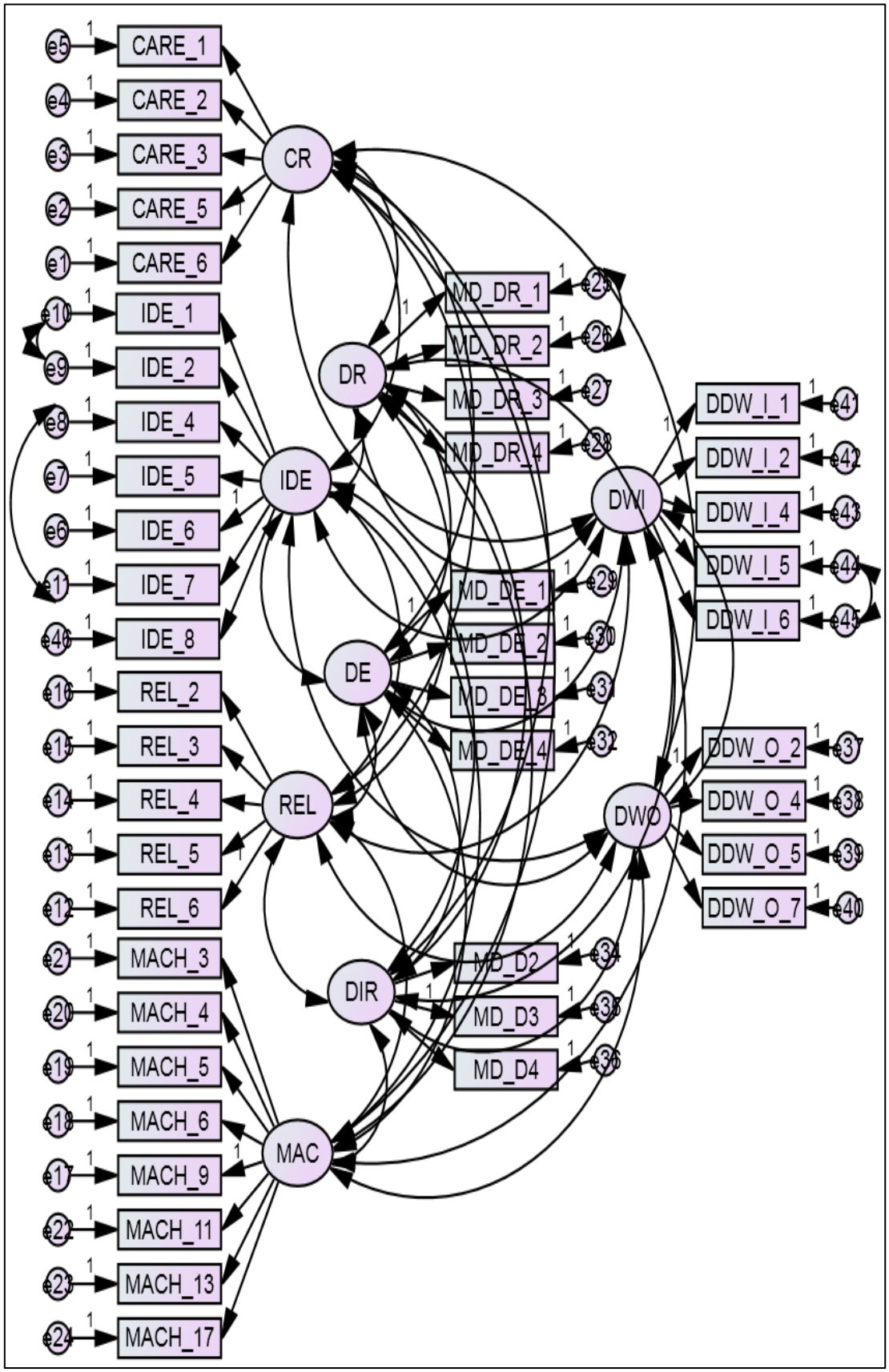
Construct/Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	Standard Error	t-values	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Average Variance Extracted
Careerism				.693	45%
CR6	.530 (a)	---	---		
CR5	.584	.090	11.983***		
CR3	.609	.106	12.238***		
CR2	.533	.088	11.384***		
CR1	.534	.092	11.392***		
Idealism				.908	66%
IDE6	.884(a)	---	---		
IDE5	.907	.023	42.960***		
IDE4	.877	.025	39.125***		
IDE2	.648	.035	23.773***		
IDE1	.586	.038	20.731***		
IDE7	.843	.026	36.021***		
IDE8	.664	.033	24.673***		
Relativism				.821	58%
REL6	.628(a)	---	---		
REL5	.834	.072	19.831***		
REL4	.639	.054	16.606***		
REL3	.794	.070	19.367***		
REL2	.577	.061	15.306***		
Machiavellianism				.794	41%
MAC9	.581 (a)	---	---		
MAC6	.613	.078	14.602***		
MAC5	.619	.073	14.703***		
MAC4	.542	.071	13.389***		
MAC3	.504	.065	12.680***		
MAC11	.522	.074	13.024***		
MAC13	.587	.069	14.182***		
MAC17	.597	.079	14.342***		
Diffusion of Responsibility				.821	72%
DR1	.630 (a)	---	---		
DR2	.725	.044	25.504***		
DR3	.885	.068	20.623***		
DR4	.834	.062	20.396***		

Table 11. continued

Construct/Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	Standard Error	t-values	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Average Variance Extracted
Dehumanization				.849	69%
DE1	.784 (a)	---	---		
DE2	.832	.037	26.100***		
DE3	.704	.039	22.072***		
DE4	.744	.037	23.416***		
Displacement of Responsibility				.703	63%
DIR3	.815 (a)	---	---		
DIR2	.572	.056	14.580***		
DIR4	.651	.054	15.727***		
Organizational Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors				.766	62%
DWO2	.625 (a)	---	---		
DWO4	.714	.081	16.469***		
DWO5	.681	.066	16.022***		
DWO7	.691	.055	16.161***		
Interpersonal Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors				.836	59%
DWI1	.578 (a)	---	---		
DWI2	.821	.065	17.965***		
DWI4	.793	.070	17.693***		
DWI5	.602	.056	14.751***		
DWI7	.753	.053	17.189***		

$\chi 2$ (905) = 2053.228 p-value = 0.000 Normed $\chi 2$=2.269
RMR=.051 RMSEA =.036 GFI =.914 CFI =.938 NFI =.894 TLI =. 932

Notes: (a) One of the paths for each construct is set to 1. Therefore, no standards errors or t-values are provided. (b) CR: Careerism, IDE: Idealism, REL: Relativism, MAC: Machiavellianism, DR: Diffusion of responsibility, DE: Dehumanization, DIR: Displacement of Responsibility, DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors, DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors.(c) RMR: Root Mean Square Residual, RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, GFI: Goodness of Fıt Index, CFI: Comparative Fit Index, NFI: Normed Fit Index, TLI: Tucker-Levıs Index.***p<0.001



Notes: $\chi 2$ (905) = 2053.228 p-value = 0.000 Normed $\chi 2$=2.269 RMR=.051 RMSEA =.036 GFI =.914 CFI =.938 NFI =.894 TLI =.932

Figure 8. Basic Measurement Model of Destructive Deviance

Table 12. Result of the Basic Measurement Fit for Measurement Model of Innovative Constructive Deviance

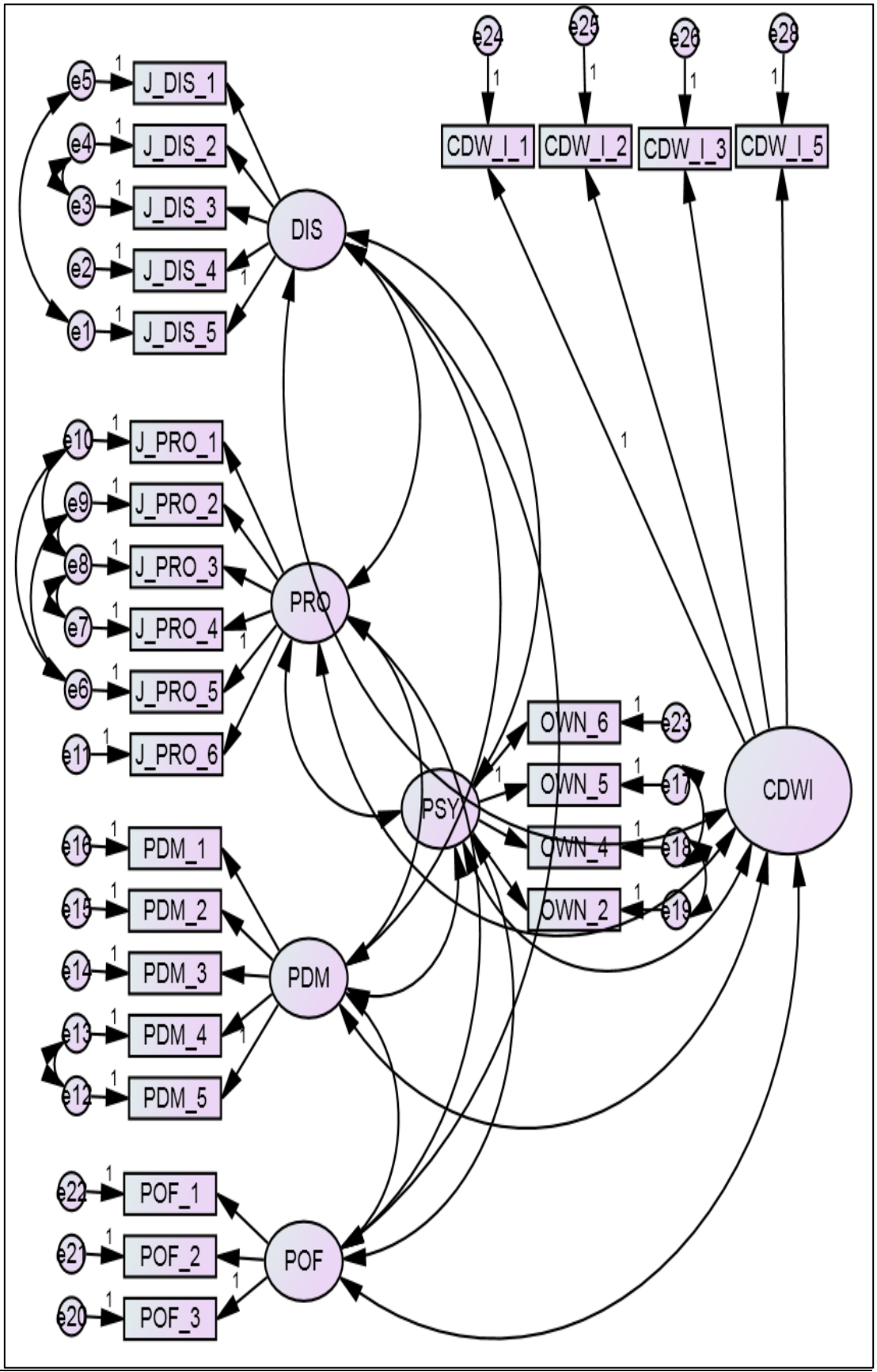
Construct/Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	Standard Error	t-values	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Average Variance Extracted
Distributive Justice				.876	67%
DIS5	.886(a)	---	---		
DIS4	.731	.031	26.668***		
DIS3	.830	.029	31.886***		
DIS2	.615	.035	20.842***		
DIS1	.773	.034	26.013***		
Procedural Justice				.923	73%
PRO5	.862 (a)	---	---		
PRO4	.826	.031	31.221***		
PRO3	.814	.034	29.324***		
PRO2	.885	.036	30.917***		
PRO1	.838	.034	31.008***		
PRO6	.666	.036	23.259***		
Participative Decision Making				.883	68%
PDM5	.790 (a)	---	---		
PDM4	.677	.036	24.905***		
PDM3	.848	.038	28.274***		
PDM2	.770	.040	25.388***		
PDM1	.775	.038	25.559***		
Person-Organization Fit				.899	83%
POF3	.877 (a)	---	---		
POF2	.927	.027	39.349***		
POF1	.801	.029	31.913***		
Psychological Ownership				.927	82%
PSY5	.962 (a)	---	---		
PSY4	.780	.024	30.562***		
PSY2	.862	.021	44.228***		
PSY6	.899	.019	49.595***		

Table 12. continued

Construct/Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	Standard Error	t-values	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Average Variance Extracted
Interpersonal Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors				.791	62%
CDW-I1	.693 (a)	---	---		
CDW-I2	.839	.061	20.647***		
CDW-I3	.609	.064	16.725***		
CDW-I5	.681	.058	18.436***		

$\chi 2$ (299) = 873.357 p-value = 0.000 Normed $\chi 2$=2.921
RMR=.055 RMSEA =.044 GFI =.940 CFI =.969 NFI =.953 TLI =. 963

Notes: (a) One of the paths for each construct is set to 1. Therefore, no standards errors or t-values are provided. (b) DIS: Distributive justice, PRO: Procedural justice, POF: Person-Organization Fit, PDM: Participative Decision Making, PSY: Psychological Ownership, CDW-I: Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace behavior..(c) RMR: Root Mean Square Residual, RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, GFI: Goodness of Fıt Index, CFI: Comparative Fit Index, NFI: Normed Fit Index, TLI: Tucker-Levıs Index.***p<0.001



Notes: $\chi 2$ (299) = 873.357 p-value = 0.000 Normed $\chi 2$=2.921 RMR=.055 RMSEA =.044 GFI =.940 CFI =.969 NFI =.953 TLI =. 963

Figure 9. Basic Measurement Model of Innovative Constructive Deviance

7.4. Reliability

Although reliability related explanations were presented in exploratory factor analysis section, after the confirmatory factor analysis some extra reliability analyses were performed because of the eliminated items. As aforementioned, reliability is defined as "a measure of the degree to which a set of indicators of a latent construct is internally consistent based on how highly interrelated the indicators are with each other" (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, reliability measures the internal consistency of the observed variables, which are represented by the same construct. Therefore, the variables in the same construct must measure the same thing to desirable reliability levels (Hair et al., 2010).

In literature, the commonly used method to measure reliability is Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Cronbach (1951) state that the actable internal consistency level of the measures is α=.70 and above. However, according to Hair and colleagues (2010) although the .70 or higher level of the reliability is suggestible, the range of reliability between .60 and .70 is also acceptable when the other constructs' reliability levels are in desirable levels. Supporting this notion, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) state that although the acceptable level of reliability is .70, the range between .65 and .70 is also satisfying. On the other hand, Hair and colleagues (2010) suggest that in CFA the standardized factor loadings should be used and this values should be at least .5 or ideally .7 or higher. According to this rule CDW-I4 (.418) and DIR1 (.423) were excluded from the scale. After this revision the reliability levels of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is α=.79 and displacement of responsibility is α=.70. As seen in Table 13, except for careerism (α=.69), all construct's Cronbach's Alpha coefficients are above the cut-off value .70. In this respect, only Careerism's Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is slightly below the commonly accepted cut-off value. However, as aforementioned this value is also in acceptable levels (Hair et al., 2010; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

Table 13. Mean, Standard Deviation and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of Constructs

Variable(s)	Mean ($\bar{X}$)	SD (±)	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Careerism	3.32	.769	.693
Idealism	4.31	.733	.908
Relativism	3.33	.889	.821
Machiavellianism	2.46	.717	.794
Distributive Justice	2.77	.999	.876
Procedural Justice	2.88	1.040	.923
Participative Decision Making	2.78	.949	.883
Person-Organization Fit	2.98	1.006	.899
Dehumanization	2.54	.997	.849
Psychological Ownership	3.16	1.145	.927
Interpersonal Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors	1.50	.654	.836
Organizational Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors	1.55	.662	.766
Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors	3.71	.734	.791

On the other hand Hair et al. (2012) also state that composite reliability, as a one of the reflective methods to evaluate a models internal consistency is a more useful and appropriate test. According to the literature numerous studies suggest that after the confirmatory analysis composite reliability should be conducted to evaluate constructs internal consistency. Supporting this notion, Hair et al. (2010) state that the threshold value of composite reliability should be at least .70. As presented in Figure 10 - 11 all constructs' composite reliability values higher than the suggested cut-off value.

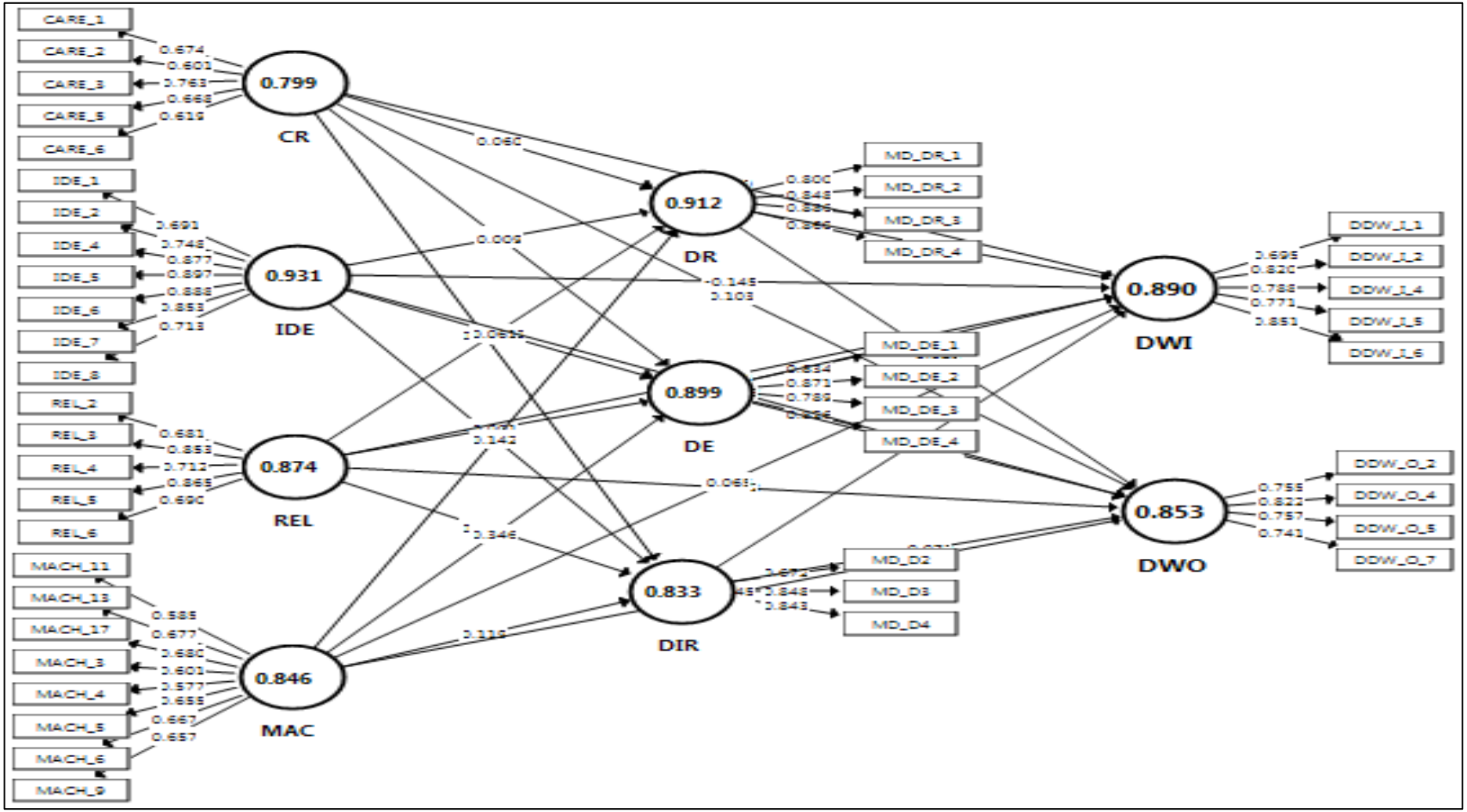


Figure 10. Composite Reliability Levels of Destructive Deviance Model

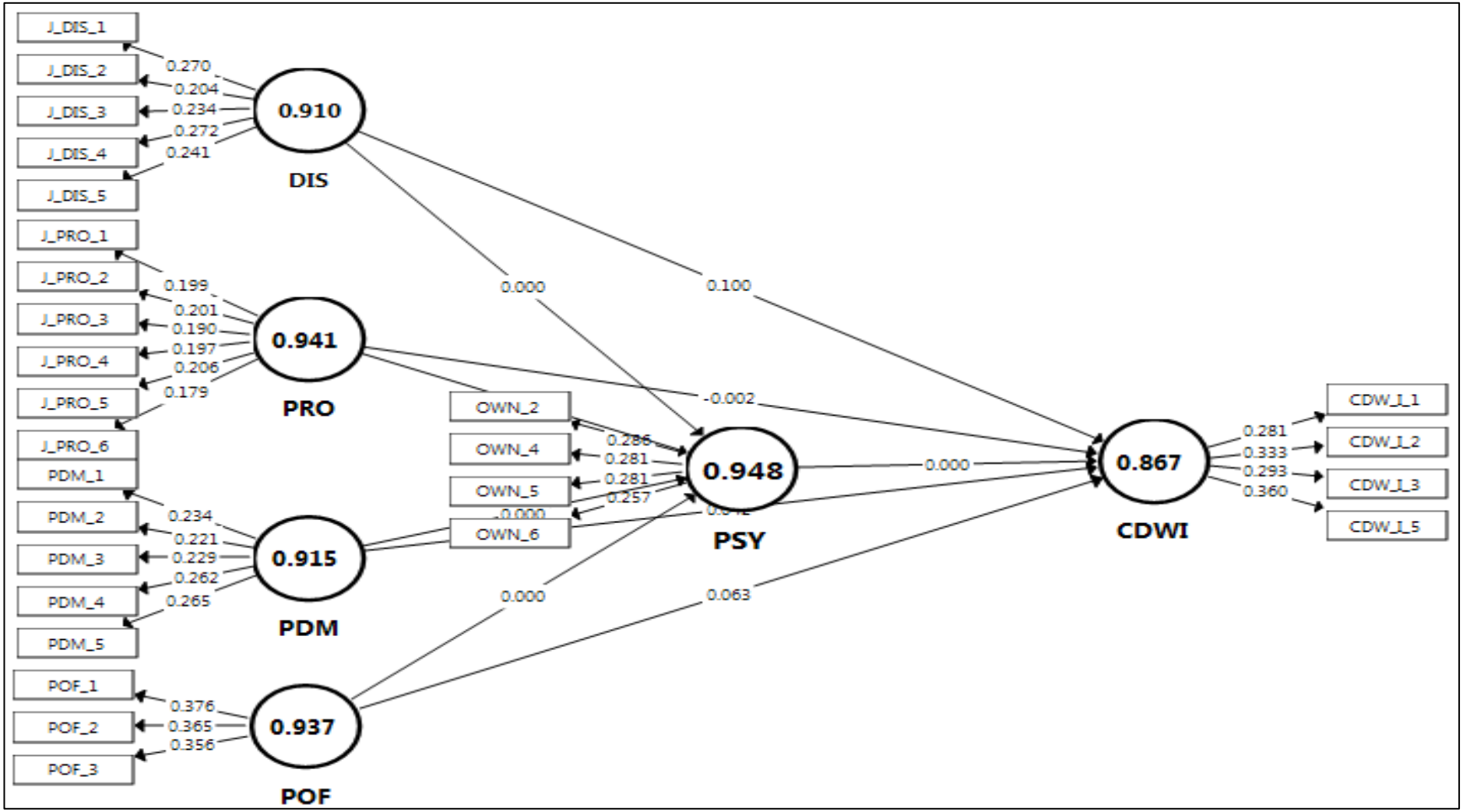


Figure 11. Composite Reliability Levels of Innovative Constructive Deviance Model

7.5. Validity

In order to measure construct validity, Hair and colleagues (2010) suggest a few measurement types of it namely convergent, discriminant and nomological validity. According to Hair and colleagues (2010) construct validity is “the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent constructs those items are designed to measure”. According to these explanations in this section the validities of all constructs were tested in terms of the convergent discriminant and nomological validity analyses.

7.5.1. Convergent Validity

According to Hair and colleagues (2010) convergent validity defined as “the items that are indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance”. There are several ways to measure convergent validity such as factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), and reliability levels (Hair et al., 2010).

According to the factor loadings method, the suggested rule is that after the confirmatory factor analysis all factor loadings should be significant to convergent validity. In other words, high factor loadings show convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). However, Hair and colleagues (2010) suggest that in this method the standardized factor loadings should be used and this values should be at least .5 or ideally .7 or higher. According to this rule CDW-I4 and DIR1 were eliminated from the scale. As presented above in Table 11 and Table 12 the minimum standardized factor loading is .504 in this study. On the other hand, as aforementioned all factor loadings are statistically significant. These results confirm that the required rules of significant factor loadings and minimum factor loadings for converged validity was achieved.

On the other hand, according to the average variance extracted method (AVE), the suggested rule is AVE value should be at least 0.5 or higher (Hair et al., 2010; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). According to Hair et al. (2010, p.679) “AVE is computed as the total of all squared standardized factor loadings (sugared multiple correlations) divided by the number of items”. In this respect, to calculate AVE

values SmartPLS (v.3.2.1) statistical software was used (Hair et al., 2013; Ringle et al., 2015). As seen from Figure 12-13 except for careerism (44.5%) and machiavellianism (%40.8) all constructs' AVE values exceed the threshold value 50%. From these results it is obvious that careerism and Machiavellianism' AVE values are below the cut-off value. However, Zait and Bertea (2011) state that if the square root of the AVE is larger than the correlation values among all other latent constructs the convergent validity is confirmed. In order to test this rule, the correlation levels of all constructs and root squares of the AVE values (in parenthesis) are presented in Table 14.

As seen in Table 14 all constructs' correlation levels below the root square of the AVE values. Fornell and Larcker (1981) also states that this criteria is also valid for discriminant validity.

In addition to above-mentioned explanations, Hair and colleagues (2010) state that another indicator of the convergent validity is reliability level. According to this point of view, if the constructs' reliability coefficients are higher than the .70 the convergent reliability is provided. On the other hand, they also state that if the other construct's validity levels are good, the range of reliability levels between .60 and .70 are also acceptable. As seen in Table 11 and Table 12 the minimum reliability level is α=.69 in this study. Taken together, all evidence supports that all constructs' convergent validities were provided.

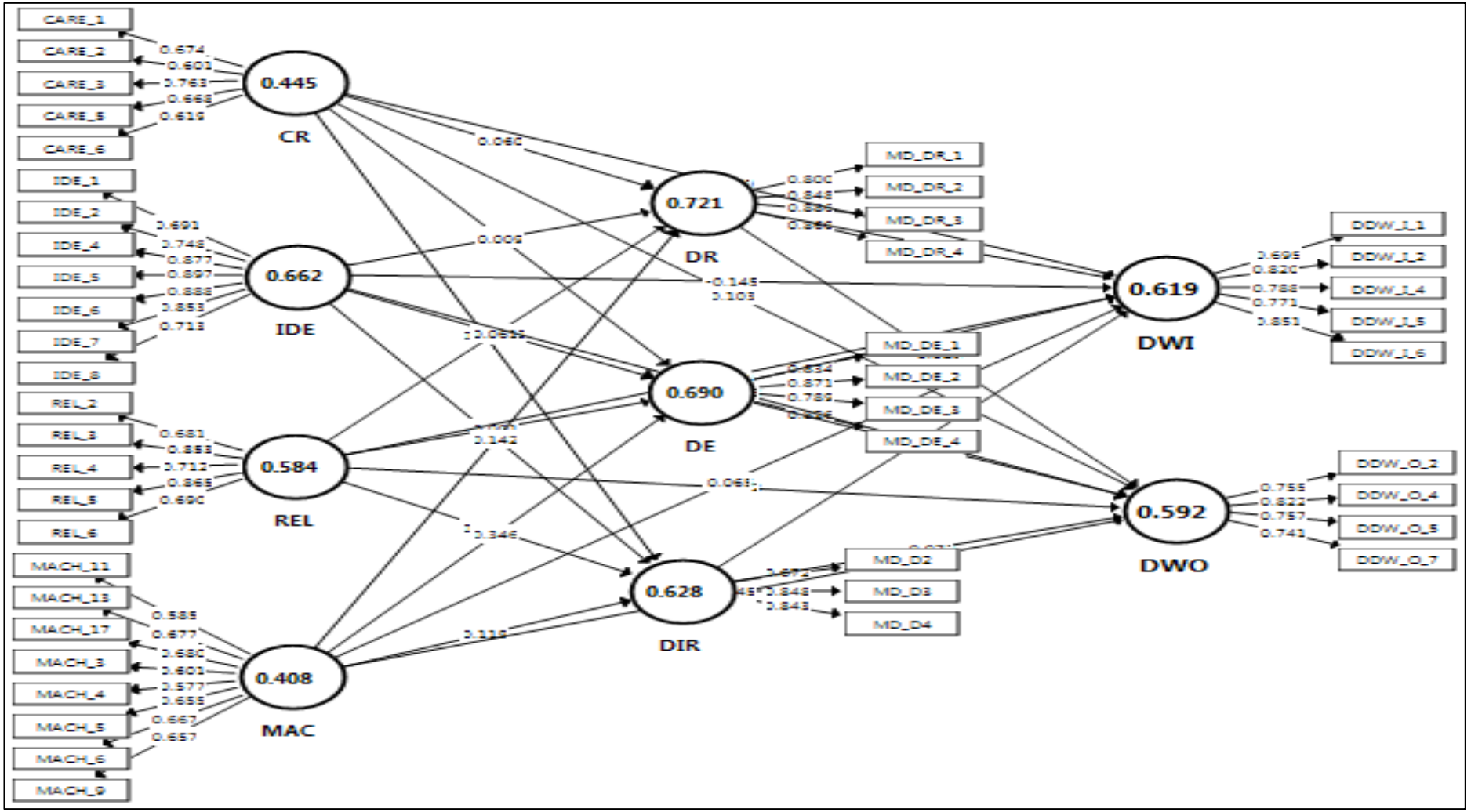


Figure 12. AVE values of Destructive Deviance Model

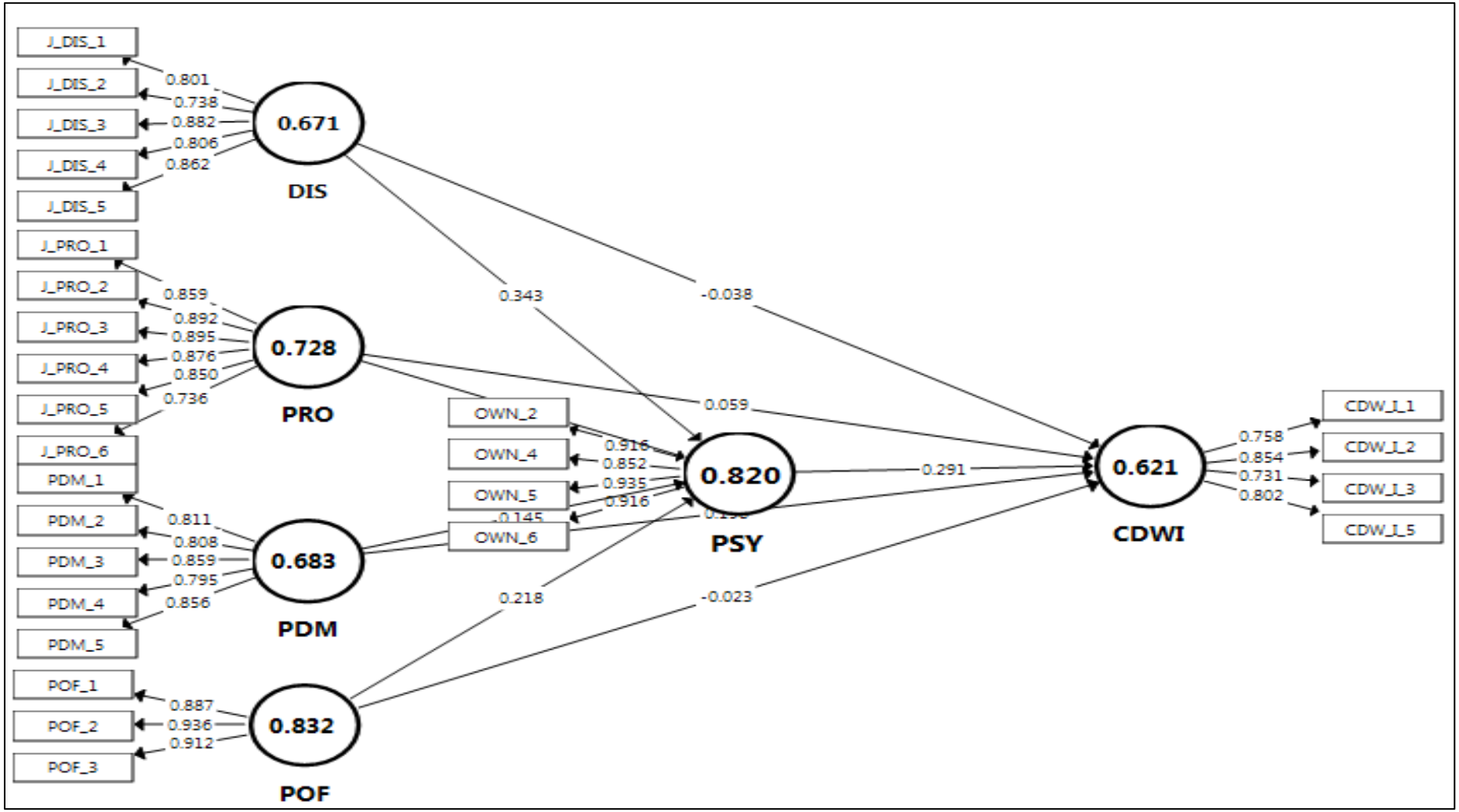


Figure 13. AVE values of Innovative Constructive Deviance Model

Table 14. Correlations among Constructs and Root Squares of AVE Values

Constructs	CR	IDE	REL	MAC	DIS	PRO	PDM	POF	PSY	DR	DE	DIR	DWI	DWO	CDWI
CR	**(.667)**														
IDE	.167	**(.853)**													
REL	.210	.126	**(.764)**												
MAC	.318	-.213	.223	**(.639)**											
DIS	.-.145	-.065	-.050	-.063	**(.819)**										
PRO	-.144	-.066	.027	-.029	.635	**(.853)**									
PDM	-.054	-.096	-.018	.048	.362	.427	**(.826)**								
POF	-.105	-.028	.016	-.049	.434	.434	.570	**(.912)**							
PSY	-.139	-.041	-.029	-.115	.480	.365	.389	.446	**(.905)**						
DR	.119	-.001	.104	.160	.044	.034	.105	.059	.050	**(.849)**					
DE	.254	-.157	.097	.409	-.006	.000	.045	.027	-.020	.248	**(.831)**				
DIR	.189	-.205	.209	.234	.026	.038	.083	.116	.023	.239	.267	**(.792)**			
DWI	.089	-.156	.026	.167	-.137	-.116	-.044	-.084	-.126	.024	.212	.033	**(.787)**		
DWO	.092	-.061	-.059	.085	-.080	-.114	-.067	-.083	-.135	.033	.099	-.027	.440	**(.769)**	
CDWI	.035	.144	.041	-.038	.199	.214	.308	.228	.358	.062	-.046	.017	-.092	-.117	**(.788)**

Notes: (a) CR: Careerism, IDE: Idealism, REL: Relativism, MAC: Machiavellianism, DIS: Distributive justice, PRO: Procedural justice, POF: Person-Organization Fit, PDM: Participative Decision Making, PSY: Psychological Ownership, DR: Diffusion of responsibility, DE: Dehumanization, DIR: Displacement of Responsibility, CDW-I: Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace behavior, DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors, DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors. (b) The root squares of the AVE values are presented in parenthesis.

7.5.2. Discriminant Validity

Hair and colleagues (2010, p.679) defined discriminant validity as “the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs”. In other words, this validity method measures the uniqueness of the construct compared with the other constructs. According to this definition each construct should measure only one phenomenon where others do not do a good job. Although Hair et al. (2010), in their previous study, state that the measuring discriminant validity in SPSS and AMOS software is not possible this problem was solved in SmartPLS (v.3.2.1) (Hair et al., 2013; Ringle et al., 2015). Therefore, to test discriminant validity SmartPLS (v.3.2.1) software was used.

According to Hair and colleagues (2010) Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) method is the most rigorous method to measure discriminant validity. The shared variance and AVE values are the key elements for this analysis. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the AVE values of all constructs should be higher from the squared correlations (shared variance) among other constructs. Hair and colleagues (2010) explain this logic as “a latent construct should explain more of the variance in its item measures that it shares with another construct”. They also assert that if the constructs pass this test it means that they are doing a good job in terms of discriminant validity. In accordance with the aforementioned explanations, in this study, Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) method was followed to test discriminant validity of all constructs. The AVE (in parenthesis) and squared correlation values of all constructs are tabulated in Table 15. As seen from Table 15, all constructs’ squared correlation levels below the AVE values. This evidence confirms the discriminant validities of the constructs were provided.

Table 15. Fornell and Larcker Discriminant Validity

Constructs	CDWI	CR	DE	DIR	DIS	DR	DWI	DWO	IDE	MAC	PDM	POF	PRO	PSY	REL
CDWI	**(.788)**														
CR	.021	**(.667)**													
DE	-.049	.260	**(.831)**												
DIR	.012	.197	.279	**(.792)**											
DIS	.204	-.155	-.002	.031	**(.819)**										
DR	.057	.119	.254	.244	.046	**(.849)**									
DWI	-.102	.092	.216	.043	-.132	.028	**(.787)**								
DWO	-.130	.107	.103	-.016	-.095	.034	.449	**(.766)**							
IDE	.154	.148	-.167	-.225	-.061	-.008	-.164	-.056	**(.814)**						
MAC	-.046	.322	.425	.267	-.053	.173	.174	.095	-.235	**(.639)**					
PDM	.310	-.063	.048	.098	.366	.105	-.042	-.082	-.094	.060	**(.826)**				
POF	.230	-.120	.029	.124	.440	.062	-.079	-.088	.029	-.036	.575	**(.912)**			
PRO	.216	-.154	.004	.037	.642	.033	-.114	-.121	-.061	-.018	.424	.434	**(.853)**		
PSY	.362	-.148	-.017	.025	.487	.049	-.124	-.149	-.037	.104	.392	.449	.368	**(.905)**	
REL	.042	.202	.101	-.209	-.050	.107	.027	.-045	.111	.229	-.017	.014	.024	-.025	**(.764)**

Notes: (a) CR: Careerism, IDE: Idealism, REL: Relativism, MAC: Machiavellianism, DIS: Distributive justice, PRO: Procedural justice, POF: Person-Organization Fit, PDM: Participative Decision Making, PSY: Psychological Ownership, DR: Diffusion of responsibility, DE: Dehumanization, DIR: Displacement of Responsibility, CDW-I: Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace behavior, DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors, DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors. (b) The root squares of the AVE values are presented in parenthesis.

7.5.3. Nomological Validity

Hair and colleagues (2010) defined nomological validity' function as "examining whether the correlations among the constructs in a measurement theory make sense". In other words, this validity is conducted for determining the consistency/coherence between correlations among constructs and theory based expected relations. For instance, based on theoretical logic, if the researcher hypothesized that X significantly and positively effects Y, or the changes in Y depend on the X, and if this relation is confirmed with the correlation analysis, it is easy to say that nomological validity is supported. The correlations among constructs were presented in Table 16. As seen in Table 16 the correlation results show that most of the proposed relations are consistent with their theoretical rationales. Therefore, the evidence supports the nomological validity of the model.

Table 16. Constructs Correlation Matrix

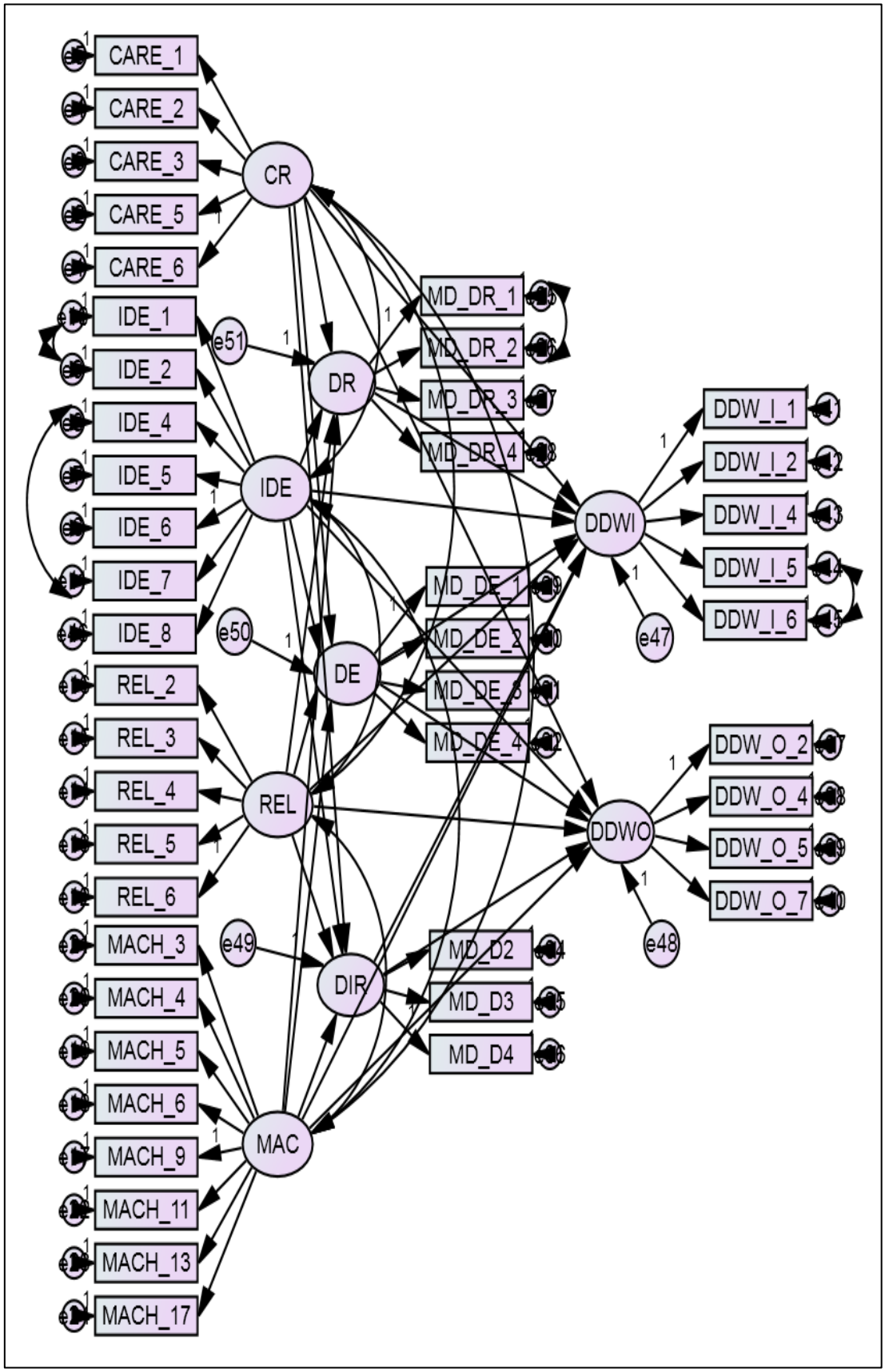
Constructs	CR	IDE	REL	MAC	DIS	PRO	PDM	POF	PSY	DR	DE	DIR	DWI	DWO	CDWI
CR	**(.693)**														
IDE	.167**	**(.908)**													
REL	.210**	.126**	**(.821)**												
MAC	.318**	-.213**	.223**	**(.794)**											
DIS	.-.145**	-.065*	-.050	-.063*	**(.876)**										
PRO	-.144**	-.066*	.027	-.029	.635**	**(.923)**									
PDM	-.054	-.096**	-.018	.048	.362**	.427**	**(.883)**								
POF	-.105**	-.028	.016	-.049	.434**	.434**	.570**	**(.899)**							
PSY	-.139**	-.041	-.029	-.115**	.480**	.365**	.389**	.446**	**(.927)**						
DR	.119**	-.001	.104**	.160**	.044	.034	.105**	.059	.050	**(.871)**					
DE	.254**	-.157**	.097**	.409**	-.006	.000	.045	.027	-.020	.248**	**(.849)**				
DIR	.189**	-.205**	.209**	.234**	.026	.038	.083**	.116**	.023	.239**	.267**	**(.716)**			
DWI	.089**	-.156**	.026	.167**	-.137**	-.116**	-.044	-.084**	-.126**	.024	.212**	.033	**(.836)**		
DWO	.092**	-.061	-.059	.085**	-.080*	-.114**	-.067*	-.083**	-.135**	.033	.099**	-.027	.440**	**(.766)**	
CDWI	.035	.144**	.041	-.038	.199**	.214**	.308**	.228**	.358**	.062	-.046	.017	-.092**	-.117**	**(.804)**

Notes: (a) CR: Careerism, IDE: Idealism, REL: Relativism, MAC: Machiavellianism, DIS: Distributive justice, PRO: Procedural justice, POF: Person-Organization Fit, PDM: Participative Decision Making, PSY: Psychological Ownership, DR: Diffusion of responsibility, DE: Dehumanization, DIR: Displacement of Responsibility, CDW-I: Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace behavior, DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors, DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors; (b) *p<0.05 **p<0.01; (c) Cronbach's alpha reliability levels are presented in parenthesis.

7.6. Testing the Structural Models

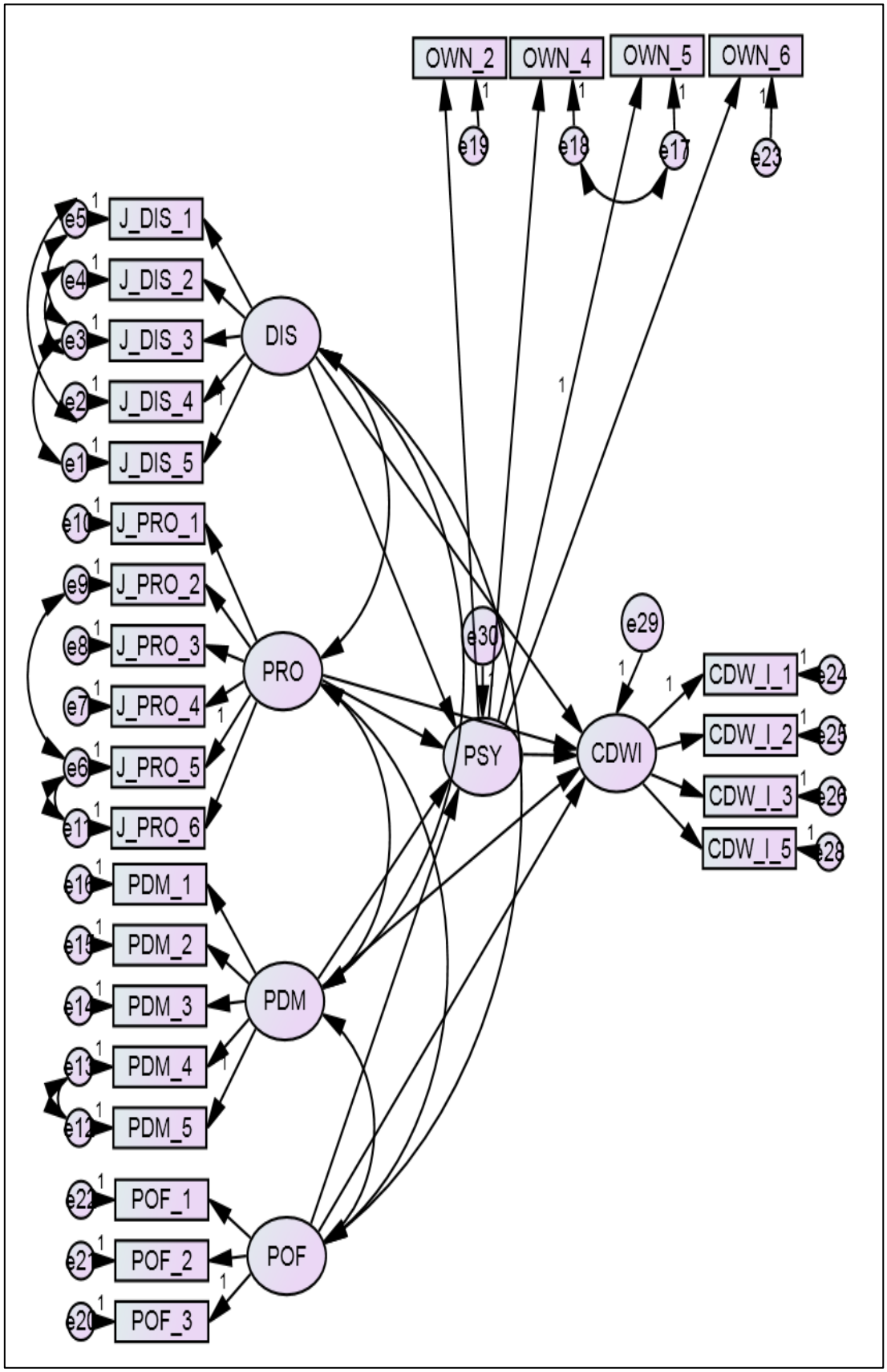
According to recommended fit values in Table 10, the overall fit indices of the structural model of destructive deviance (see Figure 14) are Normed $\chi 2$=2.543 is in the acceptable fit range, RMR=.061 is in acceptable level (less than 0.05 is preferable but acceptable in the range between 0.05 and 0.08) and RMSEA =.039 is in the good fit range, GFI =.905 is in the acceptable fit range , CFI =.924 is in the acceptable fit range, NFI =.881 is slightly below the acceptable fit range and TLI =. 917 is also in the acceptable fit ranges. In terms of these overall fit indicators it is easy to say that, the structural model fits to data well (see Table 11).

On the other hand, the overall fit indices of the structural model of innovative constructive deviance (see Figure 15) are Normed $\chi 2$=2.912 is in the acceptable fit range, RMR=.054 is in acceptable level (less than 0.05 is preferable but acceptable in the range between 0.05 and 0.08) and RMSEA =.044 is in the good fit range, GFI =.938 is in the acceptable fit range , CFI =.969 is in the good fit range, NFI =.953 in the good fit range and TLI =. 964 is also in the good fit ranges. In terms of these overall fit indicators it is easy to say that, the structural model fits to data well (see Table 12).



Notes: $\chi 2$ (910) = 2313.751 p-value = 0.000 Normed $\chi 2$=2.543 RMR = .061 RMSEA = .039
GFI = .905 CFI = .924 NFI = .881 TLI = .917

Figure 14. Structural Model of Destructive Deviance



Notes: $\chi 2$ (301) = 876.590 p-value = 0.000 Normed $\chi 2$=2.912 RMR = .054 RMSEA = .044 GFI = .938 CFI = .969 NFI = .953 TLI = .964

Figure 15. Structural Model of Innovative Constructive Deviance

7.7. Testing the Research Hypotheses

Mediator effects were tested with the simple mediation analyses. Additionally, the research hypotheses were tested with the hierarchical regression analyses. Past researches define the mediating effect as two relationships in the same model namely direct and indirect (Alwin and Hauser, 1975). In this point of view, the mediating effect is simply defined as, independent variable causes the mediator, and the mediator causes the dependent variable (Holland, 1988; Sobel, 1990). However, in this study to test simple mediation analyses, Baron and Kenny' (1986) three steps approach was followed. The advantage of this approach is that it does not allow the confounding and suppression effects (MacKinnon et al., 2000).

In light of the above explanations, we conducted three separate regression analyses. In the first step the independent variable is expected to significantly predict the mediator variable. In the second step the independent variable should significantly predict the dependent variable. Then, in the last step when mediator variable included in the model, the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable should be lessened (or became non-significant) as compared to the first model. However, recent studies state that although Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach is the most commonly used approach to assessing mediating effect, this approach is insufficient when testing the significance of the indirect effect (Hayes, 2009). To alleviate this problem Sobel test is used (Sobel, 1982). Preacher and Hayes (2004) state that Sobel test is useful and reliable when testing a mediation effect. They assert that the most powerful side of the Sobel test (compared to the Baron and Kenny' approach) is that it directly assesses the indirect effect. In line with these explanations to assess mediating affects "PROCESS" which is a SPSS' macro was used (Hayes, 2012).

7.7.1. The Relationship between Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors and Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation values of all constructs are presented in Table 16. As seen in Table 17, there is a negative and statistically significant relationship among

innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors, interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors (r=-.092; p<0.01) and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors (r=-.177; p<0.01). According to the correlation results H1 was supported.

Table 17. The relationship between DDWB and CDW-I

Constructs	Mean	SD.	DWI	DWO	CDWI
DWI	1.50	.654	**(.836)**		
DWO	1.55	.662	.440**	**(.766)**	
CDWI	3.71	.734	-.092**	-.117**	**(.804)**

Notes: (a) SD: Standard deviation, CDW-I: Innovative constructive deviant workplace behavior, DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors, DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors (b) *p<0.05 **p<0.01(c) Cronbach's alpha reliability levels are presented in parenthesis.

7.7.2. The Mediating Effect of Moral Disengagement on the Relationship between Careerism and Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.250; P>.01) between independent variable (careerism) and mediator variable (dehumanization). Similarly, there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.092; p<.01) between independent variable (careerism) and depended variable (organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship (r=.099; p<.01) between mediator variable (dehumanization) and depended variable (organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors). As understood from the correlation results the requirements of Baron and Kenny' (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H2 Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: Dehumanization		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: DWO		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: DWO	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Careerism	.254	.000***				
Careerism			.092	.004**		
Careerism					.071	.028*
Dehumanization					.080	.013*
R^2	.064		.007		.013	
F	68.738		8.489		7.333	
ΔR^2					.002	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) DWO: organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors

As presented in Table 18 Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were provided. According to the regression models, dehumanization was significantly and positively (β =.254; t=8.291; p<.001) predicted by careerism. Similarly, organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =.092; t=2.914; p<.01) predicted by careerism. Additionally, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the beta value of the careerism decreased (β =.071; t=2.197; p<.05) and still statistically significant. Besides, the relationship between dehumanization and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors is also significant (β =.080; t=2.476; p<.05), when controlling for careerism (in step 3). According to these regression results, it is easy to say that dehumanization –a subset of moral disengagement partially mediates the relationship between careerism and organizational destructive deviant workplace behavior.

As seen in Table 19, Sobel's (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =2.3571, p<.05). According to these results H2 was supported.

Table 19. Sobel Test Results of the H2 Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results						
	Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
			Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution			
Sobel	.0176	.0075	.0030	.0322	2.3571	.018*

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

7.7.3. The Mediating Effect of Moral Disengagement on the Relationship between Idealism and Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a significant and negative relationship (r=-.157; P>.01) between independent variable (idealism) and mediator variable (dehumanization). Similarly, there is a significant and negative relationship (r=-.156; p<.01) between independent variable (idealism) and depended variable (interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship (r=.212; p<.01) between mediator variable (dehumanization) and depended variable (interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors). As understood from the correlation results the requirements of Baron and Kenny' (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 20.

Table 20. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H3a Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: Dehumanization		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: DWI		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: DWI	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Idealism	-.157	.000***				
Idealism			-.156	.000***		
Idealism					-.126	.000***
Dehumanization					.193	.000***
R^2	.024		.023		.059	
F	25.089		25.036		32.210	
ΔR^2					.012	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As presented in Table 20 Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were provided. According to the regression models, dehumanization was significantly and positively (β =-.157; t=-5.009; p<.001) predicted by idealism. Similarly, interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =-.156; t=-5.004; p<.001) predicted by idealism. Additionally, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the beta value of the careerism decreased (β =-.126; t=-4.063; p<.001) and still statistically significant. Besides, the relationship between dehumanization and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors is also significant (β =.193; t=6.200; p<.001), when controlling for idealism (in step 3). According to these regression results, it is easy to say that dehumanization –a subset of moral disengagement partially mediates the relationship between idealism and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As seen in Table 21, Sobel's (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =-3.8661, p<.000). According to these results H3a was supported.

Table 21. Sobel Test Results of the H3a Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results						
	Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution						
Sobel	-.0269	.0070	-.0406	-.0133	-3.8661	.000***

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

7.7.4. The Mediating Effect of Moral Disengagement on the Relationship between Relativism and Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

In order to test the mediating effect of moral disengagement on the relationship between relativism and destructive deviance Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step approach was followed. However, since the correlation coefficients between relativism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors are not significant the

hierarchical regression analysis was not conduct. Therefore, H3b hypothesis was not supported.

7.7.5. The Mediating Effect of Moral Disengagement on the Relationship between Machiavellianism and Interpersonal Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a positive relationship (r=.409; P>.01) between independent variable (machiavellianism) and mediator variable (dehumanization). Similarly, there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.167; p<.01) between independent variable (machiavellianism) and depended variable (inter personal destructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship between mediator variable (dehumanization) and depended variable (r=.212; p<.01). As understood from the correlation results the requirements of Baron and Kenny' (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 22.

Table 22. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H4a Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: Dehumanization		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: DWI		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: DWI	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Machiavellianism	.409	.000***				
Machiavellianism			.167	.000***		
Machiavellianism					.096	.005**
Dehumanization					.173	.000***
R^2	.166		.027		.051	
F	200.330		28.546		27.791	
ΔR^2					.024	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) DWI: Interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As presented in Table 22 Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were provided. According to the regression models, dehumanization was significantly and positively (β =.409; t=14.154; p<.001) predicted by machiavellianism. Similarly, interpersonal

destructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =.167; t=5.343; p<.001) predicted by Machiavellianism. Additionally, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the beta value of the Machiavellianism decreased (β =.096; t=2.840; p<.01) and was still statistically significant. Besides, the relationship between dehumanization and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors is also significant (β =.173; t=.5.129; p<.001), when controlling for Machiavellianism (in step 3). According to these regression results, it is easy to say that dehumanization –a subset of moral disengagement partially mediates the relationship between Machiavellianism and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As seen in Table 23, Sobel' (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =4.8119, p<.000). According to these results H4a was supported.

Table 23. Sobel Test Results of the H4a Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results					
Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution					
Sobel .0646	.0134	.0383	.0910	4.8119	.000***

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

7.7.6. The Mediating Effect of Moral Disengagement on the Relationship between Machiavellianism and Organizational Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a positive relationship (r=.409; P>.01) between independent variable (machiavellianism) and mediator variable (dehumanization). Similarly, there is a significant and positive relationship (r=-.156; p<.01) between independent variable (machiavellianism) and depended variable (organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship between mediator variable (dehumanization) and depended variable (r=.099; p<.01). As understood from the correlation results the requirements

of Baron and Kenny' (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 24.

Table 24. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H4b Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: Dehumanization		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: DWO		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: DWO	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Machiavellianism	.409	.000***				
Machiavellianism			.085	.007**		
Machiavellianism					.054	.118 n.s.
Dehumanization					.077	.027*
R^2	.166		.006		.010	
F	200.330		7.316		6.134	
ΔR^2					.004	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) DWO: Organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As presented in Table 24, Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were provided. According to the regression models, dehumanization was significantly and positively (β=.409; t=14.154; p<.001) predicted by Machiavellianism. Similarly, organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =.085; t=2.705; p<.01) predicted by Machiavellianism. Additionally, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the beta value of the Machiavellianism decreased (β =-.054; t=1.566; n.s.) and non-significant. Besides, the relationship between dehumanization and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors is also significant (β =.077; t=2.219; p<.05), when controlling for Machiavellianism (in step 3). According to these regression results, it is easy to say that dehumanization –a subset of moral disengagement fully mediates the relationship between Machiavellianism and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As seen in Table 25, Sobel's (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =2.1859, p<.05). According to these results H4b was supported.

Table 25. Sobel Test Results of the H4b Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results						
	Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
			Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution			
Sobel	.0289	.0132	.0030	.0548	2.1859	.028*

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

7.7.7. The Mediating Effect of Psychological Ownership on the Relationship between Distributive Justice and Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.480; P>.01) between independent variable (distributive justice) and mediator (psychological ownership) variable. Similarly, there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.199; p<.01) between independent variable (distributive justice) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship (r=.358; p<.01) between mediator variable (psychological ownership) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). As understood from the correlation results the requirements of Baron and Kenny' (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 26.

Table 26. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H5a Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: PSY		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: CDW-I		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: CDW-I	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Distributive Justice	.480	.000***				
Distributive Justice			.199	.000***		
Distributive Justice					.036	.291 n.s.
Psychological Ownership					.341	.000***
R^2	.229		.039		.128	
F	298.117		41.234		74.041	
ΔR^2					.050	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) PSY: Psychological ownership, CDW-I: Innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As presented in Table 26, Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were supported. According to the regression models, psychological ownership was significantly and positively (β =.480; t=17.266; p<.001) predicted by distributive justice. Likewise, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =.199; t=6.421; p<.001) predicted by distributive justice. On the other hand, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the relationship between distributive justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors was nonsignificant (β =.036; t=1.056; p>.05) compared to the Step 2 (β =.199; t=6.421,; p<.001), and the relationship between psychological ownership and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors was significant (β =.341; t=10.132; p<.001), when controlling for distributive justice. According to these regression results, it is easy to say that psychological ownership fully mediates the relationship between distributive justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behavior.

As seen in Table 27, Sobel's (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =8.7273, p<.000). According to these results H5a was supported.

Table 27. Sobel Test Results of the H5a Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results						
	Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution						
Sobel	.1203	.0138	.0933	.1473	8.7273	.000***

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

7.7.8. The Mediating Effect of Psychological Ownership on the Relationship between Procedural Justice and Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.365; P>.01) between independent variable (procedural justice) and mediator (psychological ownership) variable. Similarly, there is a significant and positive relationship

(r=.214; p<.01) between independent variable (procedural justice) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship (r=.358; p<.01) between mediator variable (psychological ownership) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). As understood from the correlation results the requirements of Baron and Kenny' (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 28.

Table 28. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H5b Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: PSY		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: CDW-I		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: CDW-I	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Procedural Justice	.365	.000***				
Procedural Justice			.214	.000***		
Procedural Justice					.096	.003**
Psychological Ownership					.323	.000***
R^2	.132		.045		.135	
F	153.551		47.776		78.654	
ΔR^2					.045	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) PSY: Psychological ownership, CDW-I: Innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As presented in Table 28, Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were provided. According to the regression models, psychological ownership was significantly and positively (β =.365; t=12.392; p<.001) predicted by procedural justice. Similarly, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =.214; t=6.912; p<.001) predicted by distributive justice. Additionally, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the beta value of the procedural justice decreased (β =.096; t=3.026; p<.01) and still statistically significant. Besides, the relationship between psychological ownership and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is significant (β =.323; t=10.226; p<.001), when controlling for procedural justice (in step 3). According to these regression results, it is easy to say that psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between procedural justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behavior.

As seen in Table 29, Sobel' (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =7.8720, p<.000). According to these results H5b was supported.

Table 29. Sobel Test Results of the H5b Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results						
	Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
			Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution			
Sobel	.0833	.0106	.0626	.1041	7.8720	.000***

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

7.7.9. The Mediating Effect of Psychological Ownership on the Relationship between Participative Decision Making and Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a significant and positive (r=.389; P>.01) relationship between independent variable (participative decision making) and mediator (psychological ownership) variable. Similarly, there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.308; p<.01) between independent variable (participative decision making) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship (r=.358; p<.01) between mediator variable (psychological ownership) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). As understood from the correlation results the requirements of Baron and Kenny' (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 30.

Table 30. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H6 Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: PSY		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: CDW-I		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: CDW-I	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Participative Decision Making	.389	.000***				
Participative Decision Making			.308	.000***		
Participative Decision Making					.199	.000***
Psychological Ownership					.281	.000***
R^2	.150		.094		.160	
F	177.931		104.506		96.234	
ΔR^2					.066	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) PSY: Psychological ownership, CDW-I: Innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As presented in Table 30, Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were provided. According to the regression models, psychological ownership was significantly and positively (β =.389; t=13.339; p<.001) predicted by participative decision making. Similarly, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =.308; t=10.223; p<.001) predicted by participative decision making. Additionally, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the beta value of the participative decision making decreased (β =.199; t=6.309; p<.001) and still statistically significant. Besides, the relationship between psychological ownership and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is also significant (β =.281; t=8.928; p<.001), when controlling for participative decision making (in step 3). According to these regression results, it is easy to say that psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between participative decision-making and innovative constructive deviant workplace behavior.

As seen in Table 31, Sobel's (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =7.4054, p<.000). According to these results H6 was supported.

Table 31. Sobel Test Results of the H6 Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results						
	Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
			Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution			
Sobel	.0846	.0114	.0622	.1070	7.4054	.000

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

7.7.10. The Mediating Effect of Psychological Ownership on the Relationship between Person-Organization Fit and Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

The correlation levels among variables are presented in Table 16. As seen in the correlation table there is a significant and positive (r=.570; P>.01) relationship between independent variable (person-organization fit) and mediator (psychological ownership) variable. Similarly, there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.228; p<.01) between independent variable (person-organization fit) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). Additionally, there is also a significant and positive relationship (r=.358; p<.01) between mediator variable (psychological ownership) and depended variable (innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors). As understood from the correlation results the requirements of Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step approach was met. The hierarchical regression results are presented in Table 32.

Table 32. Hierarchical Regression Results of the H7 Hypothesis

Regression Results for Simple Mediation						
Regression Models / **Independent & Mediator Variables**	**Model 1:** Depended Variable: PSY		**Model 2:** Depended Variable: CDW-I		**Model 3:** Depended Variable: CDW-I	
	β	p	β	p	β	p
Person-Organization Fit	.446	.000***				
Person-Organization Fit			.228	.000***		
Person-Organization Fit					.085	.010*
Psychological Ownership					.320	.000***
R^2	.198		.051		.132	
F	248.203		54.762		77.237	
ΔR^2					.030	

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001, (b) n.s.: nonsignificant, (c) PSY: Psychological ownership, CDW-I: Innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

As presented in Table 32, Baron and Kenny's (1986) all conditions, which are necessary to simple mediation analysis, were provided. According to the regression models, psychological ownership was significantly and positively (β =.446; t=15.754; p<.001) predicted by person-organization fit. Similarly, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors were significantly and positively (β =.228; t=7.400; p<.001) predicted by person-organization fit. Additionally, when the mediator variable was included in the model, in step 3, the beta value of the person-organization fit decreased (β =.085; t=2.586; p<.05) and was still statistically significant. Besides, the relationship between psychological ownership and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is significant (β =.320; t=9.725; p<.001), when controlling for person-organization fit (in step 3). According to these regression results, it is easy to say that psychological ownership partially mediates the relationship between person-organization fit and innovative constructive deviant workplace behavior.

As seen in Table 33, Sobel' (1982) test was used to test statistical significance of the indirect effect. The two-tailed significance test indicates that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Sobel z =8.2633, p<.000). According to these results H7 was supported.

Table 33. Sobel Test Results of the H7 Hypothesis

Sobel Test Results						
	Value	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	z	p
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution						
Sobel	.1043	.0126	.0796	.1291	8.2633	.000***

Notes: (a) n=1000. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 ***p<0.001

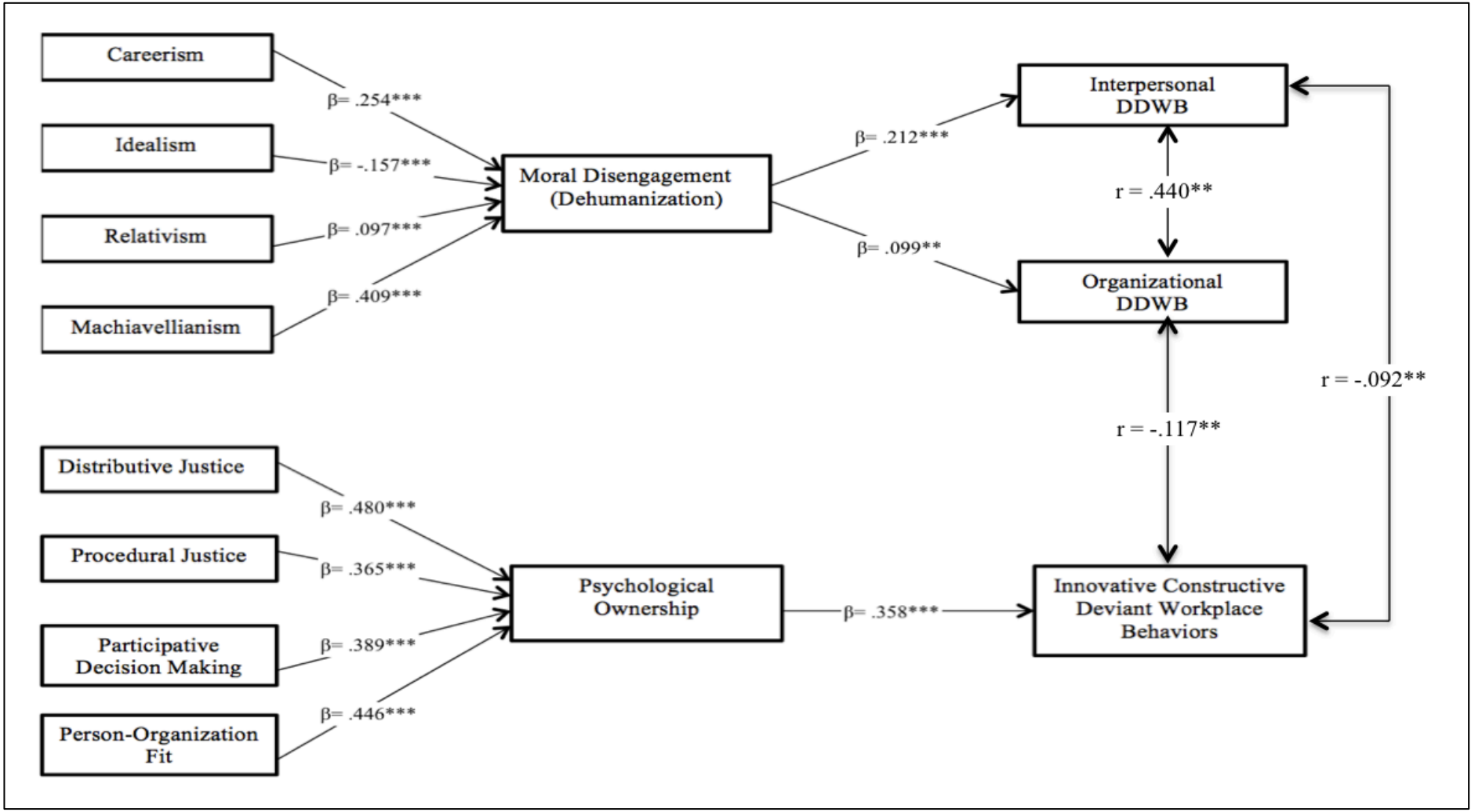


Figure 16. Results of Direct Effects

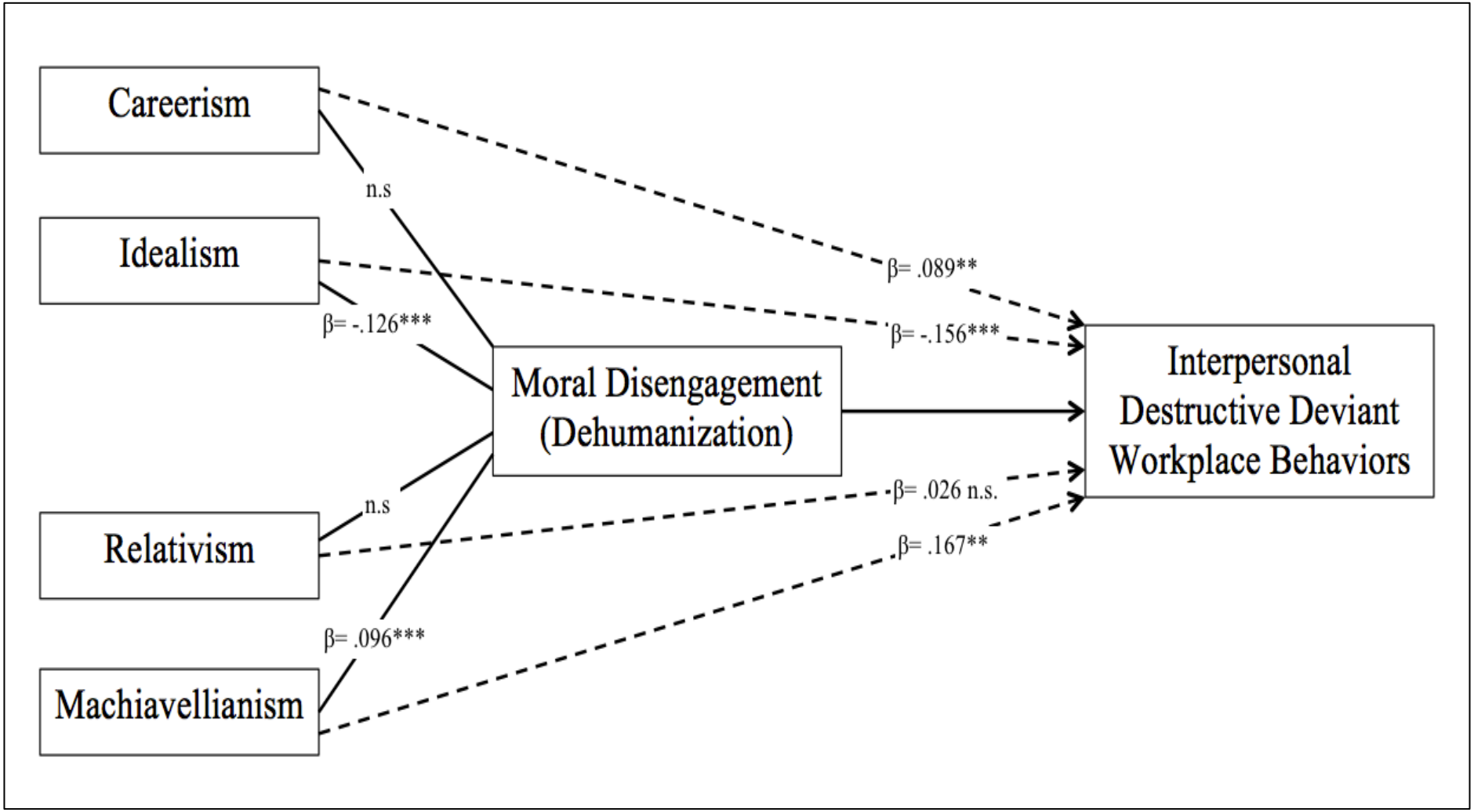


Figure 17. Comparison of Direct and Mediated Effects on Interpersonal Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

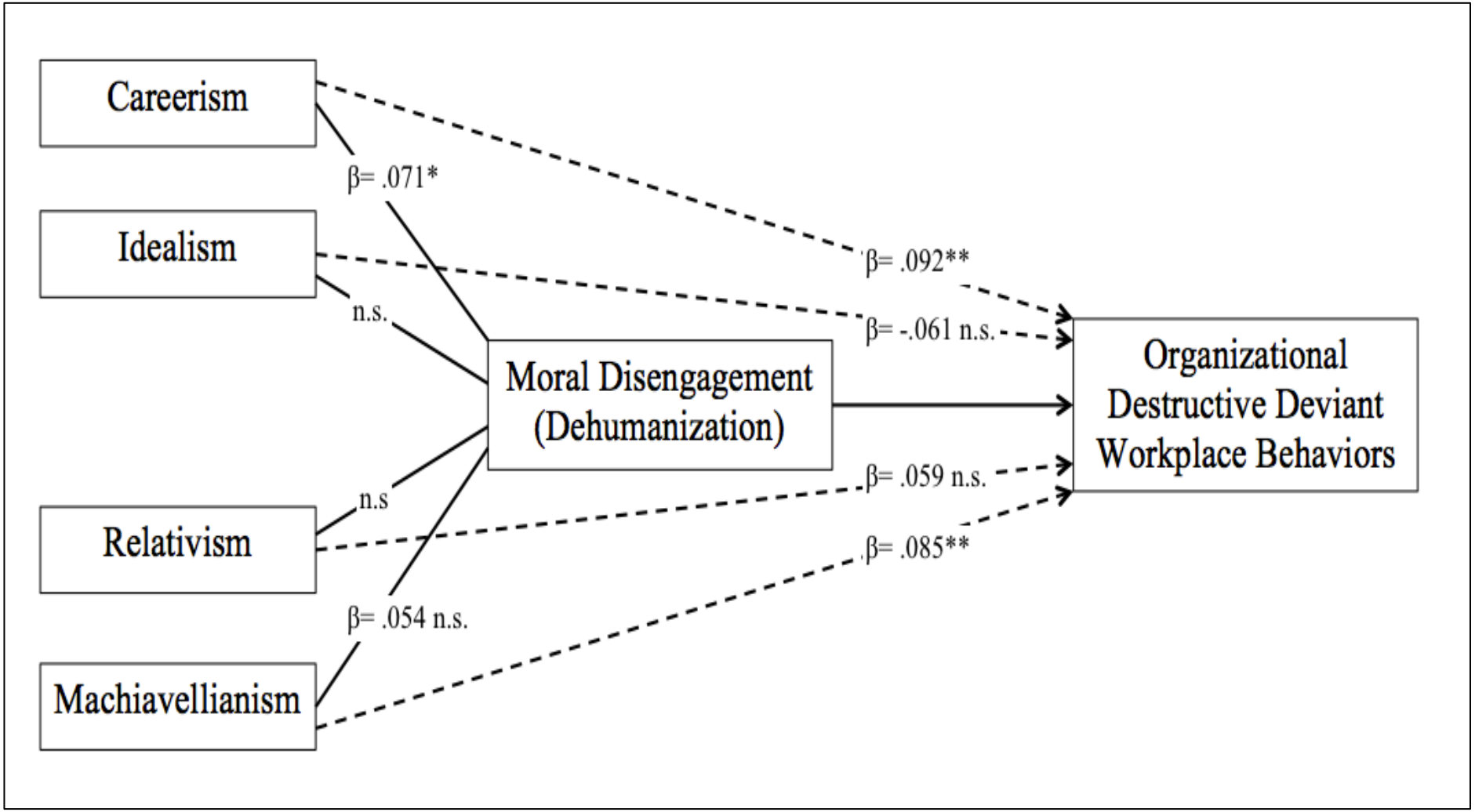


Figure 18. Comparison of Direct and Mediated Effects on Organizational Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

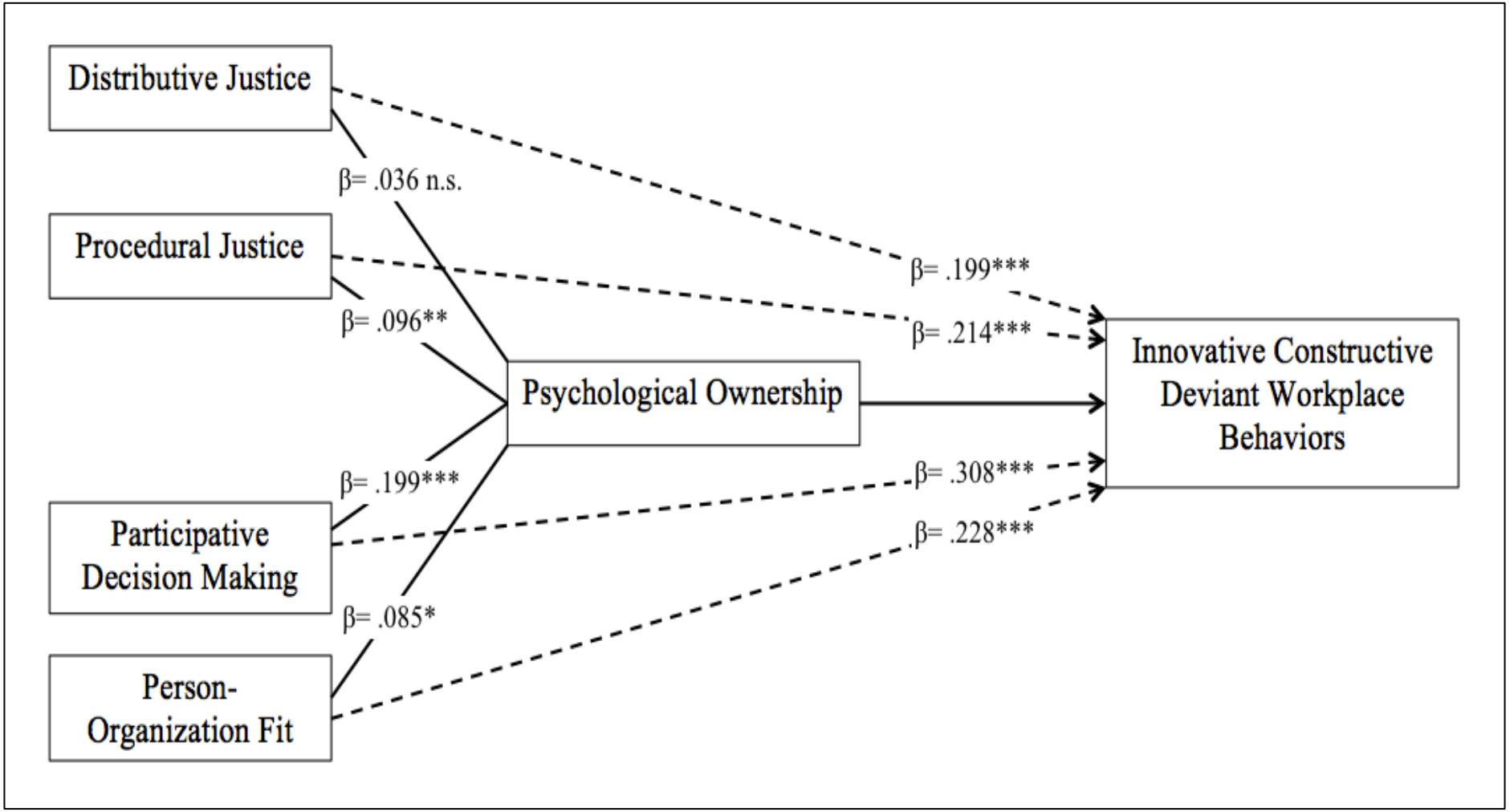


Figure 19. Comparison of Direct and Mediated Effects on Innovative Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

Table 34. The Results of Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Results
H1: There is a negative relationship between Innovative Constructive deviant workplace behaviors and destructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H2: Moral disengagement mediates the positive relationship between careerism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H3a: Moral disengagement mediates the positive relationship between relativism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors	***Unsupported***
H3b: Moral disengagement mediates the negative relationship between idealism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H4a: Moral disengagement mediates the positive relationship between machiavellianism and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H4b: Moral disengagement mediates the positive relationship between machiavellianism and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H5a: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between perceived distributive justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H5b: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between perceived procedural justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H6: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between participative decision making and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*
H7: Psychological ownership mediates the positive relationship between person-organization fit and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors	*Supported*

8. RESULTS

In this chapter, the interpretation of finding, managerial implications and practices are provided. Specifically, this chapter provides an overview of the findings. Then, implications of the study and practices are presented. Lastly, the limitations of this research as well as further research implications are provided.

8.1. Interpretation of Findings

In this study, two theoretical models were tested. Firstly, the mediator role of moral disengagement on the relationship between some employee orientations (i.e. careerism, idealism, relativism and machiavellianism) and destructive deviant workplace behaviors (interpersonal and organizational) was investigated. Secondly, the mediator role of psychological ownership on the relationship between some employee perceptions (i.e. perceived organizational justice, participative decision making and person-organization fit) and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors was investigated.

The developed two research models and hypothesized relations are based on Balu's (1964) social exchange theory, Ajzen and Fishbein' (1975) theory of reasoned action and Bandura and colleagues' (1986, 1996, 1999) social cognitive theory. According to these theories, there is an exchange between perceptions (input), attitudes (process), and behaviors (output). In other words, the shape of behaviors depends on the direction of perceptions and attitudes. For instance if employees perceive their organizations climate as positive, they probably exhibit positive behaviors. Supporting this notion theory of reasoned action also suggests that there are some attitudes behind the behaviors shaping it. According to these theories there is a direct relationship between perceptions and behaviors, however, this direct relationship may not be direct but conveyed some attitudes. In other words, according to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), if people evaluate some perceptions and behaviors as positive the level of intention to exhibit these positive behaviors probably will be high.

In addition to above-mentioned theoretical framework, in our first model we hypothesise that, in light of the social cognitive theory, some negative employee orientations may cause destructive deviant workplace behavior. Of course, past researchers have already studied some of these direct relations, however, in this study we hypothesized that moral disengagement as an attitude has a mediator role between these negative orientations and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Similarly, psychological ownership, as an attitude, may be a missing link between some positive perceptions and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In this chapter the interpretation of findings is presented under the two subheadings; employee orientations and employee perceptions.

8.1.1. Relations between Employee Orientations and Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

In order to test mediating effects Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step approach was followed. In this respect, to test mediating effects some direct and indirect relationships were investigated. Additionally, the two theoretical models were tested by structural equation modelling. Then, hierarchical regression analysis was run to test mediating effects.

The findings indicate that, except for the relativism, all developed hypotheses were supported. Accordingly, there is a positive effect of careerism on organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors. There is a positive effect of machiavellianism on interpersonal and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors. There is a negative effect of idealism on interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Additionally, the findings also show that dehumanization, as a sub-dimension of moral disengagement, has a mediator role in these direct relations.

The positive effect of careerism on destructive deviant workplace behaviors supports the Yıldız and Alpkan' (2014) proposition. Of course, past researchers have already investigated the link between careerism and some negative workplace behaviors such as alienation, turnover and absenteeism. However, just Feldman and Weitz (1991) stated that careerist employees may see deceptive behaviour as a must for their career growth, and just as Yıldız and Alpkan (2014) stated, given the

negative relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and careerism it is easy to say that there is a positive relationship between careerism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. As understood from these studies this finding is consistent with the past studies.

Additionally, considering the theory of reasoned action and social exchange theory there are some intentions or attitudes behind the behaviors. In other words, positive intentions or orientations motivate employees towards engaging positive behaviors or vice versa. Given the careerism' dishonourable nature and excessive admiration to reach career goals, acting deviantly can be seen as a part of careerists' lifestyle.

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) is also another theory, which states that in individual self-evaluating system there is a self-regulatory system, which controls or evaluates the rightness of the behaviors. This mechanism points the capacity of people about deciding to exhibit any behavior in the direction of some internal standards (Hystad et al., 2014). According to this theory, there is also self-condemnation mechanism, which enables us to feel shame or guilt because of our misbehaviours (Moore et al., 2012). According to this theory, if employees deactivate their self-regulatory mechanism they justify their unfavourable acts and accordingly their self-commination mechanism will be deactivated and they will not feel any disturbance about their misbehaviour. Given these explanations, careerists may deactivate their self-regulatory and self-condemnation mechanisms to reach their career goals with justifying their destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In accordance with the above-mentioned theoretical rationales, it can be said that careerist or employees who have careerist orientation have a potential of exhibiting destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Moreover, interestingly, in this study we found that careerism has a significant and positive impact on organizational destructive deviance. As it can be remembered from the Feldman and Weitz' (1991) study, careerists develop powerful social relationships with the co-workers to advance in their career road and they believe that without these relationships advance in organizations is difficult. Therefore, it is easy to say that harming interpersonal relations is an undesirable course of action for careerist. In other words, being good at the interpersonal relations or pretending to be good at interpersonal relations can

be seen as a necessary instrument for careerists. Of course, these relationships between careerists and their co-workers can be seen as if being in intimate relationships between careerist and their co-workers, however, in fact, careerists use this relationship as an illusion to reach the career goals. In view of this relationship, exhibiting interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors is contrary to their benefits. In this respect, exhibiting organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors instead of interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors fits in the logic of careerist orientation. Based on these arguments, careerist employees can be defined as “organizational destructive deviants”.

Another finding of this study is idealism, as a sub-dimension of ethical ideology, has a negative and significant effect on interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors. As aforementioned in the previous chapters, the common side of idealists, they consider universal ethical norms when making a decision (Forsyth, 1980, 1984, 1992). In other words, according to idealists it is important that the rightness of the action depends on avoiding harm to others and giving priority to wellbeing of others. Supporting this notion Singhapakdi et al. (1995) state that idealists take more social responsibility against their organizations than the low-level idealist and high level of relativists. On the contrary, relativism as a subset of ethical ideology gives priority to situational factors when it is come to ethical decision-making. In other words, the importance of engaging universal ethical rules depends on the situational factors for relativists. Of course, it was already mentioned that low-level relativists also follow the universal ethical rules, however, from their perspective engaging universal ethical rules is more important than the negative consequences of their acts. Right at this point, harming others is an important factor to determine the understanding of these two types of ethical ideology.

In view of the above arguments, in this study, we hypothesized that relativist may break significant organizational rules or harm the organization as a result of their situational based gains. On the other hand, since the powerful engagement to universal ethical norms and since they have not the potential of tolerating harmful behaviors we also hypothesized that idealists do not engage destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

The findings indicate that there is no significant relationship between relativism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. This finding is also consistent with the past researches (Henle et al., 2005; Hastings and Finegan, 2011). Of course, Henle et al. (2005) have already hypothesized that employees with high-level relativism are more likely to justify their misbehaviour. However, our and their results do not support this hypothesis. Of course, although statistical analyses support the quality of this dimension, and theoretical rationales are satisfactory, there may be a measurement error. In other words, the ethical ideology questionnaire consists of idealism and relativism dimensions. However when applying these two dimensions at the same time, respondents might be under the effect of social desirability bias. Accordingly, employees might avoid from being honest at answering the items to prevent themselves from any social or managerial pressures.

This finding can also be explained from a different viewpoint. Given the relativists situational based perspective to ethical issues, they may behave deviantly under some circumstances. For instance, if they perceive their organizational milieu as injustice, they may engage deviant behaviors to compensate their feeling of inequity. In this respect, this finding is not surprising. On the other hand, past researches also indicate that there is a negative relationship between idealism and workplace deviance (Henle et al., 2005; Hasting and Finegan, 2011). For instance, while Henle et al. (2005) found a negative and significant relationship between interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors and idealism, Hasting and Finegan (2011) also found a significant and negative relationship between idealism and the two types of destructive deviance; interpersonal and organizational. In this respect our findings are consistent with Henle et al.'(2005) results. As previously mentioned idealists consider the well-being of the others and give priority to honesty and ethical codes (Vitell et al., 1993). Therefore, our expectation towards idealists was supported. This negative relationship between idealism and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors also indicate that as expected idealist employees give more importance to wellbeing of others than organizational issues. In other words, this findings show that the more employees are idealist, the less they are prone to exhibit interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In addition to above mentioned explanations, another finding of this study is that as expected, there is a positive and significant relationship between machiavellianism and two types of destructive deviant workplace behaviors (interpersonal and organizational). As previously mentioned, past researches state that machiavellianist people have a propensity of rule breaking to achieve their goals (Galperin, 2012). Additionally past researches also indicate that people who have machiavellianist orientation lack the ethical consideration (Christie and Geis, 1970; Dahling et al., 2009; Gable and Dangello, 1994). For instance, Gunnthorsdottir et al. (2002) state that people who have high-level machiavellianist orientation are likely to take advantage of those who trust them. From this point of view, to obtain desired ends, harming interpersonal relations or organizations' significant norms can be seen an indivisible part of machiavellianism. In other words, justifying unethical behaviors can be seen a necessary instrument for machiavellianists. As Galperin (2012) said, the word "ends justify the means" represents the way of thinking of machiavellianism. In this respect our findings are consistent with the past studies in the literature (Dahling et al., 2009; Zagenczyk et al., 2014; Galperin, 2012).

As previously mentioned, Bandura and colleagues' (1986, 1996, 1999) social cognitive theory is one of the most widely used theories to explain the causal relationships between employee orientations and behaviors. Similarly, Ajzen and Fishbein's (1975) theory of reasoned action is one of the key theoretical approaches to understanding of the attitudes' role on the behaviors. In this respect, we hypothesised some mediator relations based on these theories.

The findings show that dehumanization, as one of the sub-dimensions of moral disengagement, has a mediator role between some employee orientations (i.e. careerism, idealism and machiavellianism) and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In this respect, these hypotheses are supported by theory of reasoned action and social cognitive theory. According to these theories behaviors are outcomes of various attitudes, perceptions, behavioural intentions, subjective norms and behavioural controls. In other words, these actors determine the shapes of behaviors. In this respect, our major hypotheses, which stress the mediator role of moral disengagement between employee orientations and destructive deviant workplace behaviors are consistent with the theoretical foundations. Additionally,

the logic, which stresses the mediating effect of moral disengagement on the relationship between some negative employee orientations and negative behaviors, is also consistent with the past researches (Deter et al., 2008; Hystad et al., 2014; Fida et al., 2014). Based on these explanations, it is easy to say that employees who have some orientations such as careerism and machiavellianism are more prone to exhibit destructive deviant workplace behaviors. However, this relationship is not only direct but also through dehumanization -as a sub-dimension of moral disengagement. Accordingly, dehumanization represents the justification or misconstrual of victims of the unethical behaviors. In light of these arguments, it is easy to say that careerist and machiavellianist employees ignore the potential harms of their behaviors when it comes to achieving their goals. The similarities of the logic of these two constructs are also supported by the high-level correlation between the two of them.

Specifically, dehumanization has a partial mediating effect on the relationship between careerism and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In view of the careerists' propensity of using social relations as an instrument to achieve their career goals with the non-performance based activities, it is not surprising avoiding from harming co-workers or social relations. In other words, harming interpersonal relations contradicts careerists' interests. However, given the manipulative nature of careerism and irresistible desire to career advancement of careerists, exhibiting organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors can be seen as an indivisible part of careerism. From this point of view, engaging organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors coincide with the expected logic of careerism's nature. Moreover, the findings also show that the attitude of moral disengagement (dehumanization) strengthens this direct relationship. In other words, this additive effect of moral disengagement is also supported by theory of reasoned action.

In addition to above arguments, moral disengagement (dehumanization) also has a mediator role between machiavellianism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors (interpersonal and organizational). This mediating effect of moral disengagement is consistent with our theoretical expectation. According to the social cognitive theory and theory of reasoned action we hypothesized that moral disengagement, as an attitude, should convey the machiavellianism' effect to

destructive deviance. The findings show that such mediating effect is partially in the relationship between machiavellianism and interpersonal destructive deviant workplace behaviors. On the other hand, moral disengagement also fully mediated the relationship between machiavellianism and organizational destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Given the machiavellianists' result oriented mind "the ends justify the means" harming interpersonal relations and organization may be seen as necessary to obtain desired results. Right at this point, it is easy to say that moral disengagement as an attitude has a great importance in terms of the understanding of the grey area between machiavellianism and destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In light of these arguments, our findings related to the machiavellianism's indirect effects on destructive deviant workplace behaviors are consistent with our theoretical expectations. In other words, the mediator role of moral disengagement that is one of our major hypotheses was supported by theory of reasoned action and social cognitive theory.

8.1.2. Relations between Employee Perceptions and Constructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors

As previously mentioned hierarchical regression analysis was run to test mediating effects. The findings indicate that all developed hypotheses related to the innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors were supported. Accordingly, there is a positive effect of perceived organizational justice (distributive and procedural), person-organization fit and participative decision making on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Additionally, psychological ownership as an attitude has a mediator role on these direct relationships. In other words, three mediator hypotheses stressing the mediator roles of psychological ownership between some positive employee perceptions (i.e. perceived organizational justice, person-organization fit and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors) and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors were supported.

The positive effect of perceived organizational justice on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is consistent with our propositions towards past studies (Yıldız et al., 2015a; Moorman, 1991; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Moorman et al., 1993; Ang et al., 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2007; Galperin, 2002;

Vadera et al., 2013; Çakar et al., 2004). In this respect, the findings support that perceiving organizational milieu as fair is related to the exhibiting innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. This finding also indicates that providing a fair atmosphere in the workplace may be a source of positive behaviors, especially innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Additionally, this finding is also supported by Blau's (1964) social exchange theory and Ajzen and Fishbein' (1975) theory of reasoned action. According to these theories, there is an exchange among employees' perceptions, attitudes and behaviors. In this respect, positive perceptions may lead to positive behaviors or vice versa.

The positive relationship between organizational justice (distributive and procedural) and psychological ownership is also consistent with the Sieger et al. (2011)'s study. This result indicates that employee perception of justice is related to feeling of possessiveness towards their organizations. According to this causal relationship, if employees perceive their organizational milieu as fair they develop some positive attitudes against their organization such as psychological ownership.

Past studies also suggest that psychological ownership is one of the predictors of constructive deviant workplace behaviors (Chung and Moon, 2011; Vandewalle et al., 1995). Supporting this notion, our findings are consistent with these studies. In this respect, this finding can be explained by social exchange theory and theory of reasoned action, according to these theories there are attitudinal and perceptual reasons behind the behaviors. Of course, in terms of social exchange explanation there are positive perceptions behind the positive behaviors. Supportively, theory of reasoned action also suggests that there are some attitudes before the exhibiting behaviors. In line with these practical and theoretical explanations, it is easy to say that our findings are consistent with the literature.

In addition to above-mentioned direct relations, as one of the mediator hypotheses, we hypothesized that psychological ownership as an attitude has a mediator role between employees' justice perception (procedural and distributive) and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. As aforementioned in previous chapters, past researchers have already used psychological ownership as a mediator between some positive perceptions and behaviors (Wagner et al., 2003; O'Driscoll et al, 2006; Mayhew et al., 2007; Sieger et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012;

Avey et al., 2012; Ghafoor et al., 2011). Based on these studies, since the fairness perception leads to positive attitudes and since the positive attitudes are the pre-step of the positive behaviors, we propose that the positive relationship between justice perception and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors should be mediated by psychological ownership.

The findings show that psychological ownership partially mediated the relationship between procedural justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Similarly, psychological ownership also fully mediated the relationship between distributive justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. From this perspective, the logic of our finding is consistent with the past studies. In other words, it can be said that perceiving organizational milieu as fair, causes the attitude of psychological ownership and it causes innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Especially, it is important to stress that the mediator role of psychological ownership on the relationship between distributive justice and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors has a more important role than the relationship between procedural justice and innovative constructive deviance. From this point of view, employees' perception of distributive justice has a vital importance in terms of developing the attitude of psychological ownership, in turn, innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In addition to above-mentioned explanations another finding of this study is the positive effect of participative decision-making (PDM) on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Of course, past researchers have already studied the positive effects of the employees' PDM activities on their behaviors (Porter et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2012; Bragg and Andrews, 1973; Black & Gregersen, 1997; Bulut and Alpkan, 2006; Jain and Jain, 2014; Yıldız et al., 2015a). According to the these studies we propose that in order to feel themselves as a part of their organization, employees should take part in decision making processes. Additionally, if employees take part in decision-making processes they may exhibit some positive or extra role behaviors.

In the literature, there are plenty of studies stressing the positive effects of PDM on employees' positive behaviors (Mayhew et al., 2007; Pierce et al., 2004; Avey et al., 2009; Sieger et al., 2013). In line with these studies, based on Blau's

social exchange theory, we hypothesized that another possible positive outcome of the participative decision-making may be innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. The findings show that our hypothesis was supported and this result is also consistent with the above mentioned studies. According to these findings, it can be inferred from this result that employees PDM activities is one of the most important sources of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In other words, if an organization gives chance to employees to participate in decision-making activities, employees motivate themselves to give more than they receive based on the satisfaction of feeling themselves as a part of their organization. From this aspect, breaking rules to contribute to the wellbeing of organization may be seen a result of PDM.

In addition to above explanations, the findings also show that there is a positive relationship between PDM and psychological ownership. This finding is also consistent with the past studies (Chi and Han, 2008). Similarly the positive effect of psychological ownership on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors is consistent with the past studies (Chung and Moon, 2011). As seen from these results it is easy to say that employees' feelings of themselves as a part of their organizations cause the appearance of positive attitudes, in turn, positive behaviors such as innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In light of the social exchange theory and theory of reasoned action, we hypothesised that psychological ownership as a positive attitude has a mediator role between PDM and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In other words, we suggest that since employees' participation in decision-making process leads to positive attitudes against the organization and since the positive attitudes are the trigger of the positive behaviors, psychological ownership should have a bridge role between PDM and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Supportively, the findings show that psychological ownership partially mediated this direct relationship. In this respect, our findings are supported by our robust theoretically rationales and past researches. From these explanations it is easy to say that giving importance to the employees, as a value of their organization is one of the most important factor to provide a basis for positive attitudes. As previously mentioned, these positive attitudes are the pre-step of the positive behaviors.

The findings also show that person-organization fit (POF) has a positive and significant impact on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. As previously mentioned, there are many studies investigating the effects of high level POF on positive workplace behaviors (e.g. Elçi et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2010; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Bretz and Judge, 1994; Suárez-Mendoza and Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2008). Consistent with these studies our results also support this notion. In other words, as expected, the quality of coherence between person and organization allow the trace of positive behaviors such as innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

The positive effect of POF on psychological ownership is also supported by social exchange theory and theory of reasoned action. This result is also consistent with the Cable and Judge's (1996) study. According to their study they state that POF is strongly associated with the attitudes. In this respect we propose that psychological ownership, as a positive attitude, should have a mediator role between POF and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In this respect, our findings indicate that psychological ownership partially mediated the relationship between POF and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

In light of the theory of reasoned action and social exchange theory, it is easy to say that good level of coherence between person and organization enables setting a ground for positive attitudes and behaviors. Accordingly, the principle of right person to right organization has a vital importance to fostering these behaviors and attitudes. If this rule is achieved, employees may see themselves as a part of their organization, and develop some positive attitudes i.e. psychological ownership, then they may exhibit innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

8.2. Managerial Implications

In addition to its theoretical explanations and implications, this study also offers some important managerial implications related to the managing deviant (destructive and constructive) workplace behaviors. Firstly, by means of this study some employees' orientations (i.e. idealism, careerism, machiavellianism) that related to the destructive deviant workplace behaviors were determined. From this point of view, taking in consideration of these orientations is imperative for

managers in order to avoid harmful effects of destructive deviant workplace behaviours. Additionally, in these relationships the role of moral disengagement as an influential attitude was determined. Hereby, managers should not be under the control of direct relation blindness. In other words, realising some important attitudes that convey the effect of the negative employee orientation to destructive deviant workplace behaviors should be foretasted and preventive measures should be taken before the exhibiting of harmful behaviours.

With the exception of idealism, other employee orientations (i.e. careerism, relativism and machiavellianism) should be kept down. In other words, because of the idealist employees give more importance to the universal ethical norms they have a decreasing effect on destructive deviant workplace behaviors. From this point of view, managers should provide an organizational milieu where idealist orientations are promotive. Similarly, in order to minimize the employees who have negative orientations, useful and effective personal selection methods should be used. Additionally, because the managing of these negative employee orientations are costly for organizations; managers should take preventive precautions in personal selecting activities. On the other hand, if these employees have already been employed, the propensities towards exhibiting destructive deviant workplace behaviors should be minimized or the span of authority of these employees should be limited. Also, another effective solution can be keeping a close watch on these employees. In this respect, HRM managers' effective personnel selection and appraisal activities may be one of the best precautions to manage or avoid from these behaviors.

On the other hand, there are also some implications related to the positive effect of some employee perceptions (i.e. perceived organizational justice, participative decision-making and person-organization fit) on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors through psychological ownership as a positive attitude. Firstly, as previously mentioned that perceived distributive and procedural justices are important predictors of the innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. More clearly, if employees perceive their workplace milieu as fair, they develop psychological ownership attitude towards their organization, then exhibit innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In this regard, managers should provide an

organizational milieu where the distribution of rewards and outcomes are fair. By this means, employees may look at their organization as equitable, and develop the feeling of possessiveness, in turn, positive behaviors. Similarly, as aforementioned, procedural justice refers to fairness of processes related to the resource allocation and resolving disputes. From this point of view, to manage such process, managers should establish fairness-focused processes to persuade their employees towards accepting the organization as fair. Accordingly, in order to constitute a trust-based organization, top managers should look this issue as a must. Additionally, to avoid any disputes with related to the distribution of outputs, managers should also make the principle of transparency dominant over the processes.

In addition to above explanations, employees' participation to decision-making process is also another important issue. As understood from the research results, employees' perception of participative decision making has a positive impact on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Given the employees feeling themselves as a part of their organization, this perception has a key role in the organizational setting. From this point of view, top managers should make decision-making bodies as far as decentralised. In other words, giving chance to the employees to involve in decision-making process is important for organization in terms of fostering innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. Also, providing a participative climate in the organization may flourish employees' creative potential and chance about exhibiting innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. In light of these explanations, managers should look participative decision making as a one of the most important sources of innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors.

The perception of person-organization fit (POF) also has a positive effect on innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. The coherence between employee and organization is a crucial factor for organizations. From this point of view, managers should look providing the compatibility between employee and organization as essential. HRM managers should use effective selecting methods and instruments to select the right person to the right organization. Accordingly, managers also should conduct situation assessment periodically and prevent or manage possible misfit problems between employee and organization. Additionally,

in personal selecting activities, organization's characteristics should clearly be manifested to draw the right persons to organization.

Finally, as understood from the research results, employees' positive perceptions cause positive attitudes and behaviors. Given this fact, managers provide a positive atmosphere in the organizations to effect employees' behaviors positively. It is also important to state that because of the attitudes are behind of the behaviors, to flourish positive attitudes, positive organizational climate and employee satisfaction focused activities in organization should be provided.

8.3. Limitations and Further Research Implications

Despite the strengths, this study is not without limitations. The cross sectional design of this study is the first one. As known, cross sectional studies are like an instant picture in time, which could be a part of the big picture. In this respect the results of this study that we found are not sufficient to comprehensively understand the nature of these behaviors. Right at this point, longitudinal research designs are accepted as a solution to this limitation. According to Jap and Anderson (2003; 2004) "longitudinal approach makes the temporal order between the independent and dependent variables explicit and enables us to rule out alternative causal orderings". Therefore, further researches should use longitudinal designs to uncover some underlying mechanisms and causal directions of the observed relations in the current study.

Another limitation of this study is that deviant workplace behaviors are measured with the self-reported measurement method. Of course, measuring deviant workplace behaviors with the self-reported method is common in social sciences (Fox et al., 2007). However, when it comes to decide between self-reported and other-reported method the question of "which is the best reliable method to measure deviant workplace behaviors" arises. Berry et al. (2012) state that although self reported and other-reported methods' results are similar, self-reported measurement method gives more reliable information about the deviant workplace behaviors than other-report methods. In this respect, gathering data from the respondents with the self-report measures may be seen a strength of this study. However, this is also a limitation of this study in terms of social desirability bias and common method

variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, we encourage further researches to measure deviant workplace behaviors both self-reported and other-reported measures at the same time to obtain more reliable results.

The third limitation concerns the survey method, which was used for gathering data. Although survey method is quite useful, easy, practical and common, we encourage further researches to measure workplace deviant workplace behaviors with the empirical studies to eliminate respondent related bias problems.

Another limitation concerns the nature of our sample, which consists of service sector employees from different areas of activity. Although we only included the respondents who work at non-managerial positions, the sample may not be a representative for a specific job. In other words, our sample has a nonhomogeneous structure. Therefore, further researches may study on a specific sample, which consists of members of the same job such as teachers, nurses, bankers and engineers.

In addition to above limitations, the sampling method employed by this study also constitutes another limitation of this study. Although a sample of 1000 service sector employees were chosen in Istanbul and their response rate is quiet high, this sample is not representative of the whole population of Turkish service sector employees. Therefore, in order to provide confidence in our findings, further research should use different sampling methods and procedures. Accordingly, replication studies with different samples, which reflect different demographic characteristics, are needed to check out reliability of our findings.

Finally, another limitation of this study is that our research model consists of only two attitudinal variable; moral disengagement and psychological ownership. However, given the complexity of the human behaviors, these two attitudinal variables do not represent the full picture of deviant workplace behaviors. From this point of view, further research should use other attitudinal variables, which convey the effects of independent variables to depended variables. Furthermore, to better understand the causal relationships between predictors and deviant workplace behaviors, further researches should use some personality traits or demographic characteristics as a moderator on these relationships. Similarly, in order to obtain more detailed information about the relationship among mediator, independent and

depended variables that were used in this study, we encourage further researches to test these relations with the complex models such as moderated mediation, two-way interaction, three-way interaction and mediated moderation analyses.

8.4. Conclusion

In this study, we investigated the effects of some employee orientations and perceptions on destructive deviant workplace behaviors and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. The research hypotheses that related to these variables were mostly supported.

The findings indicate that employees positive perceptions towards justice, person-organization fit and participative decision making flourish positive attitudes, then innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors. These findings are consistent with the theory of reasoned action and social exchange theory that provide a basis for our hypotheses. Similarly, the findings also show that some employee orientations (i.e. careerism, idealism and machiavellianism) are significant predictors of destructive deviant workplace behaviors. In other words, in our propositions we suggest that some employees, who have some negative orientations, are more prone to overlook their internal ethical standards and more likely to exhibit destructive deviant workplace behaviors. Just as we thought, most of these hypothesized relations were supported. Also, these findings are also consistent with the social cognitive theory and theory of reasoned action.

In line with above implications, the primary contribution of this dissertation is to close the gaps, which give answer to such research questions (a) what might be some less studied antecedents of innovative constructive and destructive deviant workplace behaviors?, (b) is moral disengagement a missing link between some employee orientations and destructive deviant workplace behaviors?, and (c) is psychological ownership a missing link between some employee perceptions and innovative constructive deviant workplace behaviors? This study also provides a theoretical model that empirically tested to constitute a starting point for further researches. We also believe that this study will be beneficial for HRM managers, practitioners and academicians.

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BORA YILDIZ

Phone: 0 (555) 721-34-25
dr.borayildiz@gmail.com
byildiz@gtu.edu.tr

EDUCATION

PhD **Gebze Technical University**, Business Administration,2015
Dissertation: "The Antecedents of Constructive and Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors"
Overall GPA: 4.0/4.0
Advisors: Prof. Dr. Bülent SEZEN,
Prof. Dr. Lütfihak ALPKAN

MA2 **Istanbul Medeniyet University**, Public Administration, (Continued)
Overall GPA: 4.0/4.0
Advisor: Prof. Dr. Hamza ATEŞ

MA1 **Beykent University**, Business Administration, 2010
Thesis: "Herzberg'in Çift Faktör Kuramı Açısından İlköğretim 1.Kademe Öğretmenlerinin Motivasyon Düzeylerinin Değerlendirilmesi"
Advisor: Asst. Prof. Ferda Şule KAYA
Overall GPA: 3.8/4.0

BA **Anadolu University**, Public Administration, 2007
Faculty of Economics
Overall GPA: 3.2/4.0

DATE OF BIRTH Sarıkamış, 1984

LANGUAGES **Turkish**: Native Language

English: Advanced

HONORS AND AWARDS **Honors Student**, Anadolu University 2007
For graduation

Honors Student, Anadolu University 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007
For each year

TÜBİTAK Yurtiçi 35 Yaş Altı Genç Araştırmacıların Bilimsel Etkinliklere Katılım Desteği, 2014

PUBLICATIONS

Journal Publications

1. **Yıldız, B** & Yıldız, H. (2015). İş Yaşamındaki Sanal Kaytarma Davranışlarının Hukuki Yönden İncelenmesi. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi,* 13(2), (*In press*)

2. Keklik, B., Kılıç, R., Yıldız, H. & **Yıldız, B.** (2015), Sanal Kaytarma Davranışlarının Örgütsel Öğrenme Kapasitesi Üzerindeki Etkisinin İncelenmesi, *Business & Economics Research Journal*, (*In press*).

3. **Yıldız, B**., Alpkan, L., Ateş, H. & Sezen, B. (2015*).* Determinants of Constructive Deviance: The Mediator Role of Psychological Ownership, *International Business Research*, 8(4), 107-121.

4. Kaya, F. Ş., **Yıldız, B**. & Yıldız, H. (2013*).* Herzberg'in Çift Faktör Kuramı Açısından İlköğretim I. Kademe Öğretmenlerinin Motivasyon Düzeylerinin Değerlendirilmesi, *Akademik Bakış Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi*. Sayı: 39, 1-18.

5. Ateş H., **Yıldız, B.** & Yıldız, H. (2012).Herzberg'in Çift faktör Kuramı Kamu Okullarında Çalışan Öğretmenlerin Motivasyon Algılarını Açıklayabilir Mi?: Ampirik Bir Araştırma, *Bilgi Ekonomisi ve Yönetimi Dergisi (The JKEM)*, 7(2), 147-162.

6. Yumuşak, S., Yıldız, H. & **Yıldız, B**. (2012). Öğrenen Örgüt Yaklaşımının İlköğretim Okulları Açısından Değerlendirilmesi, *Uludağ Üniversitesi İİBF Dergisi*. 31(1). 211-231.

7. Örücü, E., Kılıç, R., Yıldız, H. & **Yıldız, B.** (2012). Biçimsel Örgüt Yapısının Örgütsel İletişime Etkisi: Bir Kamu Hastanesi Örneği, *Akademik Bakış Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi* . Sayı: 32, 1-20.

Conference Papers

1. Yıldız, H., **Yıldız, B.**, Zehir, C. & Aykaç, M. (2015). The Antecedents Of Presenteeism And Sickness Absenteeism: A Research In Turkish Health Sector, 11th International Strategic Management Conference (ISMC), 23-25-July 2015, Vienna/AUSTRIA.

2. **Yıldız, B.**, Alpkan, L. Sezen, B. & Yıldız, H. (2015). A Proposed Conceptual Model Of Destructive Deviance: The Mediator Role Of Moral Disengagement, 11th International Strategic Management Conference (ISMC), 23-25-July 2015, Vienna/AUSTRIA.

3. **Yıldız, B.**, Erat, S., Alpkan, L. & Yıldız, H. (2015). Drivers Of Innovative Constructive Deviance: A Moderated Mediation Analysis, World Conference On Technology, Innovation And Entrepreneurship (WCTIE), 28-30-May 2015, Istanbul University, Istanbul/TURKEY.

4. **Yıldız, B.,** Alpkan, L. & Ateş, H. (2015). Some Determinants of Constructive Deviance: The Mediator Role of Psychological Ownership, *15th Eurasia Business and Economics Society (EBES) Conference*, 8-10 January 2015. ISCTE-IUL Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, Lisbon/ PORTUGAL.

5. **Yıldız, B.,** Yıldız, H., Serhat E. & Alpkan, L. (2015). Risk Alma Eğilimi ile Yapıcı Sapkın Davranışlar Arasındaki İlişkide Ağ Kurma Kabiliyetinin Mediator Etkisi. *23. Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi*, 14-16 Mayıs, Bodrum-Muğla/TURKEY.

6. Yıldız, H., **Yıldız, B.** & İyigün, N.Ö. (2015). "Çalışanların Sanal Kaytarma Davranışları Örgütsel Güven ile Açıklanabilir Mi?". *14. Ulusal İşletmecilik Kongresi*, 7 -9 Mayıs, Aksaray/TURKEY.

7. **Yıldız, B.** & Alpkan, L. (2014). A Theoretical Model on the Proposed Predictors of Destructive Deviant Workplace Behaviors and the Mediator Role of Alienation. *4th International Conference on Leadership, Technology, Innovation and Business Management (ICLTIM)*, 20-22 November 2014, Yıldız Technical University, Istanbul/TURKEY

8. Yıldız, H., **Yıldız, B.** & Ateş H.(2014). "Sanal Kaytarma Davranışlarının Sergilenmesinde Örgütsel Adalet Algısının Rolü Var Mıdır?", *12th International Conference on Knowledge, Economy and Management (ICKEM)*, 27-30 November 2014, Antalya/TURKEY.

9. Aygün T.**, Yıldız, B.** & Yıldız, H. (2014). Sağlık Çalışanlarında Yabancılaşma: Laboratuvar Çalışanları Örneği, *8. Sağlık ve Hastane İdaresi Kongresi*, Lefke Avrupa Üniversitesi, 10-12 Eylül, Girne/ KKTC.

10. İyigün, N. Ö**, Yıldız, B.** & Yıldız, H. (2014). Çalışanların Sanal Kaytarma Davranışları Psikolojik Sözleşme Algısıyla Açıklanabilir Mi?. *2. Ulusal Örgütsel Davranış Kongresi*, 6-8 Kasım, Kayseri/TURKEY.

11. **Yıldız, B** & Yıldız, H. (2014). İş Yaşamındaki Sanal Kaytarma Davranışlarının Hukuki Yönden İncelenmesi. *22. Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi*, 22-24 Mayıs, Konya/TURKEY.

12. Yıldız, H. & **Yıldız, B.** (2013). "İş Yaşamında Presenteeism - Sözde Varolma- Olgusu: Sağlık ve Verimlilik Açısından Önemi", *7. Ulusal Sağlık ve Hastane İdaresi Kongresi*, 27-29 Eylül, Konya/TURKEY.

13. Ateş H., **Yıldız, B.** & Yıldız, H. (2012).Herzberg'in Çift faktör Kuramı Kamu Okullarında Çalışan Öğretmenlerin Motivasyon Algılarını Açıklayabilir Mi?: Ampirik Bir Araştırma, *10th International Conference on Knowledge, Economy and Management (ICKEM)*, 7-9 November 2012. Istanbul/TURKEY

ATTENDED SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE AND WORKSHOPS

Seminar or Workshops

- 11thInternational Strategic Management Conference (ISMC), 23-25 July 2015, Vienna-AUSTURIA.
- World Conference on Technology, Innovation and Entrepreneurship (WCTIE), 28-30-May 2015, Istanbul University, Istanbul-TURKEY.
- 23.Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi, 14-16 Mayıs 2015, Muğla Sıtkı Koçman Üniversitesi, Bodrum/Muğla-TÜRKİYE.
- 14.Ulusal İşletmecilik Kongresi, 7-9 Mayıs 2015, Aksaray-TÜRKİYE.
- İşletmecilik Tarihi Paneli, 14 Ocak 2015, Yalova ve Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, İstanbul-TÜRKİYE.
- 15thEurasian Business and Economics Society (EBES) Conference, 8-10 January 2015, ISCTE-IUL Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, Lisbon-PORTUGAL.
- 12thInternational Conference on Knowledge, Economy and Management (ICKEM), 8-10 November 2012, Kemer/Antalya-TURKEY.
- 4thInternational Conference on Leadership, Technology, Innovation and Business Management (ICLTIM), 20-22 November 2014, Yıldız Technical University, Istanbul-TURKEY.

- 2.Ulusal Örgütsel Davranış Kongresi, 6-8 Kasım 2014, Melikşah Üniversitesi, Kayseri-TÜRKİYE.
- 8.Hastane ve Sağlık İdaresi Kongresi, 10-12 Eylül 2014, Lefke Avrupa Üniversitesi, Girne-KKTC.
- 22.Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi, 22-24 Mayıs 2014, Selçuk Üniversitesi, Konya-TÜRKİYE.
- Writing great papers in international journals: An introduction for researchers WILEY, 7 May 2014, Istanbul University/TURKEY.
- 7.Ulusal sağlık ve Hastane idaresi Kongresi, 27-29 Eylül 2013, Selçuk Üniversitesi, Konya-TÜRKİYE
- 10thInternational Conference on Knowledge, Economy and Management (ICKEM), 8-10 November 2012, Doğuş University, Istanbul-TURKEY.

COMPUTER SKILLS

IBM AMOS: Advanced

IBM SPSS: Advanced

Smart PLS: Advanced

Envivo: Beginner

Lisrel: Beginner

SAS: Beginner

Microsoft Office: Advanced

Windows & Mac OSX: Advanced

REFERENCES

Dr. Lütfihak ALPKAN, [Full Professor]
Department of Management
Istanbul Technical University
Faculty of Business
Phone: 0 (212) 291 13 00 (2050-180)
Email: alpkan@itu.edu.tr

Dr. Bülent SEZEN, [Full Professor]
Department of Production Management
Gebze Technical University
Faculty of Business
Phone: 0 (262) 605 14 16
Email: bsezen@gtu.edu.tr

APPENDICES

A. Questionnaire in English

GEBZE TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY	Survey No	
	Interviewer	
	Date	

DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS SURVEY

JANUARY-MARCH 2015

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire is a part of a research conducted at the Department of Business Administration of Gebze Technical University. It will take approximately 40 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. Please do not hesitate to ask for any clarifications on the questions.

The answer that you will provide in this questionnaire will be very important and useful to us. In order to ensure the efficiency of the study, it is crucial that you answer all of the questions. The information you provide will be used only for scientific purposes and your personal information will not be shared with the third parties.

Many thanks for your attention and participation.

Ph.D.(c) Bora YILDIZ
Gebze Technical University
Department of Business Administration
Phone: 0555 721 34 25
Email: dr.borayildiz@gmail.com
byildiz@gyte.edu.tr

QESTIONNAIRE

I. Advisor
Prof.Dr.Bülent SEZEN
Gebze Technical University

II. Advisor
Prof.Dr.Lütfihak ALPKAN
Istanbul Technical University

Researcher
Ph.D.(c) Bora YILDIZ
Gebze Technical University
dr.borayildiz@gmail.com /0 555 721 34 25

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please mark the following items with the cross	1	2	X	4	5	**according to the above scale.**

1. It is difficult to advance in organizations trough merit alone.	1	2	3	4	5
2. It is often necessary to use social relationships with superiors, co-workers, and friends to get ahead.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is important to cultivate the appearance of being successful; the appearance of being successful can be as instrumental in terms of advancement as competence.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is important to recognize that, in the long run, the individual's career goals will be inconsistent with the interests of the organization; therefore, ultimately, it is each person for himself/herself.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Loyalty to an employer is unlikely to be rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
6. A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Risk to another should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risks might be.	1	2	3	4	5
8. One should never psychologically or physically harm another person.	1	2	3	4	5
9. One should not perform an action which might in any way threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual.	1	2	3	4	5
10. If an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The dignity and welfare of people should be the most important concern in any society.	1	2	3	4	5
12. It is never necessary to sacrifice the welfare of others.	1	2	3	4	5
13. What is ethical varies from one situation and society to another.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Different types of moralities cannot be compared as to "rightness".	1	2	3	4	5
16. Questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Moral standards are simply personal rules which indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgements of others.	1	2	3	4	5
18. One should not take action only when sure it is morally right.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Most people are basically not good and kind.	1	2	3	4	5
20. It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Honesty is not the best policy in all cases.	1	2	3	4	5
22. All in all, it is not better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Most people who get ahead in the world not lead clean, moral lives.	1	2	3	4	5
24. The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught.	1	2	3	4	5
25. There's a sucker born every minute.	1	2	3	4	5
26. My work schedule is fair.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I think that my level of pay is fair.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I consider my work load to be quite fair.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.	1	2	3	4	5
32. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	1	2	3	4	5
33. To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information.	1	2	3	4	5
34. My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	1	2	3	4	5
35. In my organization all job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	1	2	3	4	5
36. In my organization employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.	1	2	3	4	5
37. The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values.	1	2	3	4	5
38 .My personal values match my organization's values and culture.	1	2	3	4	5
39. My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.	1	2	3	4	5
40. In this organization, I have high degree of influence in company decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
41. In this organization, I often participate in decisions regarding my job.	1	2	3	4	5
42. In this organization, I have high degree of influence in the decisions affecting me.	1	2	3	4	5
43.In this organization, I can participate in setting new company policies.	1	2	3	4	5
44.In this organization, my views have a real influence in company decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
45. A kid in a gang should not be blamed for the trouble the gang causes.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

46. A kid who only suggests breaking rules should not be blamed if other kids go ahead and do it.	1	2	3	4	5
47. If a group decides together to do something harmful it is unfair to blame any kid in the group for it.	1	2	3	4	5
48. It is unfair to blame a child who had only a small part in the harm caused by a group.	1	2	3	4	5
49. If kids are living under bad conditions they cannot be blamed for behaving aggressively.	1	2	3	4	5
50. If kids are not disciplined they should not be blamed for misbehaving.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Kids cannot be blamed for using bad words when all their friends do it.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Kids cannot be blamed for misbehaving if their friends pressured them to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Some people deserve to be treated like animals.	1	2	3	4	5
54. It is okay to treat badly somebody who behaved like a "worm."	1	2	3	4	5
55. Someone who is obnoxious does not deserve to be treated like a human being.	1	2	3	4	5
56. Some people have to be threated roughly, because they lack feelings that can be hurt.	1	2	3	4	5
57. It is easy for me to think about this organization as MINE.	1	2	3	4	5
58. I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
59. I sense that this is MY company.	1	2	3	4	5
60. This is MY organization.	1	2	3	4	5
61. I develope creative solutions to problems.	1	2	3	4	5
62. I search for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
63. I decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals.	1	2	3	4	5
64. I depart from the accepted tradition to solve problems.	1	2	3	4	5
65. I introduce a change to improve the performance of my group.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Never	**Once or Twice a Year**	**Once or Twice a Month**	**Once or Twice a Week**	**Every Day**

66. I make fun of someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
67. I say something hurtful to someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
68. I curse at someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
69. I play a mean prank on someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
70. I act rudely toward someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
71. I spend too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.	1	2	3	4	5
72. I take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
73. I come in late to work without permission.	1	2	3	4	5
74. I neglected to follow my boss's instructions.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION II: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender ? ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Age ? ☐ 18-31 ages ☐ 32-45 ages ☐ 46 and over

3. Marital Status ? ☐ Married ☐ Single

4. Level of Education? ☐ Hih School ☐ College ☐ Graduate ☐ Post-Graduate

5. Experience? ☐ 1-10 years ☐ 11-20 years ☐ 21 and over

6. Tenure? ☐ 1-5 years ☐ 11-15 yıl ☐ 21-25 years

☐ 6-10 years ☐ 16-20 years ☐ 26 and over

7. Institution? ☐ Public ☐ Private

8. Sector ? (.....)

B. Questionnaire in Turkish

GEBZE TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Anket No	
	Anketör	
	Tarih	

SAPKIN İŞYERİ DAVRANIŞLARI ARAŞTIRMASI

OCAK-MART 2015

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket formu Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi İşletme Yönetimi Anabilim Dalında yürütülen bir araştırmanın parçasıdır. Anketi doldurmak yaklaşık 40 dakikanızı alacaktır. Soruların anlaşılmaması durumunda lütfen soru sormakta tereddüt etmeyin.

Bu ankete vereceğiniz yanıtlar bizim için oldukça önemli ve değerlidir. Araştırmanın verimliliği açısından tüm soruların eksiksiz olarak doldurulması çok önemlidir. Vereceğiniz bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacak olup, kişisel bilgileriniz başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır.

İlginiz ve katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Doktora Öğrencisi Bora YILDIZ
Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi
İşletme Yönetimi Anabilim Dalı
Tel: 0555 721 34 25
E-posta: dr.borayildiz@gmail.com
byildiz@gyte.edu.tr

ANKET FORMU

I. Danışman
Prof.Dr.Bülent SEZEN
Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi

II. Danışman
Prof.Dr. Lütfihak ALPKAN
İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi

Araştırmacı
Doktora Öğrencisi Bora YILDIZ
Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi
dr.borayildiz@gmail.com /0 555 721 34 25

1	2	3	4	5
Hiç Katılmıyorum	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Katılıyorum**	**Tamamen Katılıyorum**

Aşağıdaki maddeleri yukarıda yer alan ölçeğe göre " X (1 | 2 | X | 4 | 5 **işareti koyarak işaretleyiniz.**					
1. Kurumlar içerisinde yalnızca hakkınla (liyakat) ile yükselmek zordur.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Yükselmek için genellikle üstler, çalışma arkadaşları ve arkadaşlar ile sosyal ilişkiler içerisinde olmak gereklidir.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Başarılıymış gibi görünmek terfi edebilmek açısından yetenekli olmaktan çok daha faydalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Şunu fark etmek önemlidir ki, herkes kendisi için vardır. Çünkü uzun dönemde bireyin kariyer amaçları kurumun çıkarları ile uyuşmayabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İşverene sadakat maalesef ödüllendirilmez.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Birey kasıtlı olarak yapmış olduğu eylemlerin başkasına küçük bir zarar dahi vermediğinden emin olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Riskin küçüklüğüne bakmaksızın başkası için risk olabilecek şeyler asla görmezden gelinmemelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Bir kimse başka bir kimseye fiziksel ya da psikolojik zarar vermemelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bir kimse başka bir kimsenin haysiyet ve huzurunu tehdit edecek eylemleri yapmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Eğer bir eylem masum bir kimseye zarar verecekse, bu eylem yapılmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
11. İnsanların haysiyet ve huzuru bir toplumun en önemli önceliği olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Başkalarının huzurunu kaçırmaya asla gerek yoktur	1	2	3	4	5
13. Etik olanın ne olduğu durumdan duruma ve toplumdan topluma değişir	1	2	3	4	5
14. Ahlaki standartlar bireysel olarak görülmelidir çünkü bir kişinin ahlaki olarak kabul ettiği şey başka bir kişi tarafından ahlaki olmayabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
15.Farklı türlerdeki etik ilkeler doğrulukları açısından birbirleriyle kıyaslanamazlar	1	2	3	4	5
16. Herkes için neyin etik olduğu sorusuna asla kesin cevap verilemez, çünkü neyin ahlaki olup olmadığı kişiye göre değişir.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Ahlaki ilkeler kısaca bir kişinin nasıl davranması gerektiğini gösteren kişisel kurallardır ve başkalarını yargılamada kullanılamazlar.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Bir eylemi yapmak için onun doğru olduğunu düşünmeye gerek yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Genel olarak çoğu insan iyi ve kibar değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Tüm insanların zalim olduğunu ve gerekli fırsatı yakaladıklarında bunu segileyeceklerini farz etmek en güvenli olandır.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Dürüstlük bir çok durumda en iyi prensip değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Önemli ve sahtekar olmak, mütevazi ve dürüst olmaktan daha iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5
23 .İşinde ilerleyen bir çok insan temiz ve ahlakli bir yaşama sahip değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Çoğu sabıkalı insan ile diğer insanlar arasındaki en büyük fark, sabıkalıların yakayı ele verecek kadar aptal olmasıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Her dakika bir enayi doğar.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Kurumdaki çalışma programım adildir.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Kurumumdaki ücret düzeyimin adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
28.Kurumumdaki iş yükümün oldukça adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Genel olarak bu kurumdaki aldığım ödüller adildir.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Bu kurumdaki iş sorumluluklarımın adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Yöneticim tarafından verilen kararlar tarafsızdır.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Yöneticim iş ile ilgili kararlar vermeden önce tüm çalışanların görüşlerinin dinlediğinden emin olur.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Yöneticim iş ile ilgili karar verebilmek için doğru ve tam bilgiyi toplar.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Yöneticim, çalışanlar tarafından talep edildiğinde alınan kararları açıklığa kavuşturur ve ek bilgiler verir.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Kurumumdaki tüm iş kararları bu kararlardan etkilenen çalışanlarla aynı şekilde uygulanır.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Yöneticim tarafından verilen kararlarda çalışanların karşı çıkma ya da itiraz etme hakkı vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Hayatta değer verdiğim şeyler kurumumun değer verdiği şeyler ile benzerlik gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
38 .Kişisel değerlerim kurumumun değer ve kültürüyle örtüşür.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Kurumumun değerler ve kültürü hayatta değer verdiğim şeyler ile iyi bir uyum sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Çalıştığım kurumdaki, kurum kararları üzerinde yüksek düzeyde etkiye sahibim.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Çalıştığım kurumdaki işimle ilgili kararların alınmasına dahil olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Çalıştığım kurumdaki beni etkileyen kararlar üzerinde yüksek düzeyde etkiye sahibim.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Hiç Katılmıyorum	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Katılıyorum**	**Tamamen Katılıyorum**

43. Çalıştığım kurumdaki yeni kurumsal politikaların oluşturulmasında görev alabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
44.Görüşlerimin çalıştığım kurumdaki kurumsal karalar üzerinde gerçek bir etkisi vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Bir çocuk mensubu olmuş olduğu grubun sebep olmuş olduğu bir problemden dolayı suçlanamaz.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Bir çocuk sadece kuralları ihlat etmeyi önerdiği ve diğer çocuklarda onu dinleyerek kuralları ihlat ettiği için suçlanmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Eğer bir grubun üyeleri birlikte zararlı bir şeyi yapmaya karar verirse, bundan dolayı grup üyesi bir çocuğu suçlamak adil değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Grubunun sebep olduğu zararda küçük bir role sahip olan çocuğu suçlamak adil değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Eğer çocuklar kötü koşullar altında yaşıyorlarsa, saldırgan davranışlarından dolayı sorumlu tutulamazlar.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Eğer çocuklar disiplin altına alınmazlar ise yaramaz davranışlarından ötürü suçlanamazlar.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Eğer zaten tüm arkadaşları küfür ediyorsa , bir çocuğu o da küfrediyor diye suçlayamayız.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Çocuklar arkadaşları onlara baskı yaptıkları için yaramazlık yapıyorsalar bu yüzden suçlanamazlar.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Bazı insanlar tıpkı hayvanlar gibi kötü davranılmayı hakkediyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
54. Tıpkı bir solucan gibi davranan birine kötü davranmak doğrudur.	1	2	3	4	5
55. Kötü biri normal bir insanın hak ettiği davranışları hak etmez.	1	2	3	4	5
56. Bazı insanlara kaba muamele yapılabilir, çünkü onlar bundan incinmezler.	1	2	3	4	5
57. Bir çalışan olarak bende bu kurumu benimmiş gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
58. Bu kurumu yüksek düzeyde sahipleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
59. Bu kurumun benim olduğunu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
60. Bu kurum benimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
61. İşimle ilgili problemlere yaratıcı çözümler getiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
62. İşimle ilgili günlük prosedürleri yerine getirmek için yenilikçi yollar ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
63. İş amaçlarını başarmak için alışılmışın dışında yollara baş vururum.	1	2	3	4	5
64. İşimle ilgili roblemleri çözmek için alışılmışın dışında yollara baş vururum.	1	2	3	4	5
65. Ekibimin performansını geliştirmek için değişimi başlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Hiç bir zaman	**Yılda bir veya iki kez**	**Ayda bir veya iki kez**	**Haftada bir veya iki kez**	**Her gün**

66. İşteki biriyle alay ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
67. İşteki birine kırıcı birşey söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
68. İşteki birine karşı huysuzluk yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
69. İşteki birine karşı kaba şakalar yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
70. İşte birine karşı kaba davranırım.	1	2	3	4	5
71. İşteki zamanın büyük bir kısmını çalışmak yerine hayal kurmakla ya da dalgınlıkla harcarım.	1	2	3	4	5
72. İş yerinde müsaade edilen sürelerin dışında ek ve uzun molalar veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
73. İzinsiz olarak işe geç gelirim.	1	2	3	4	5
74. Yöneticimin talimatlarına uymada ihmalkar davranırım.	1	2	3	4	5

BÖLÜM II: DEMORAFİK BİLGİLER

1. Cinsiyetiniz? ☐ Erkek ☐ Kadın

2. Yaşınız? ☐ 18-31 yaş ☐ 32-45 yaş ☐ 46 ve üzeri

3. Medeni durumunuz? ☐ Evli ☐ Bekar

4.Eğitim düzeyiniz? ☐ Lise ☐ Yüksek okul ☐ Lisans ☐ Lisansüstü

5. Meslekteki kaçıncı yılınız? ☐ 1-10 yıl ☐ 11-20 yıl ☐ 21 ve üzeri

6. Kaç yıldır bu işyerinde çalışıyorsunuz? ☐ 1-5 yıl ☐ 11-15 yıl ☐ 21-25 yıl

☐ 6-10 yıl ☐ 16-20 yıl ☐ 26 ve üzeri

7. Hangi kurumda çalışıyorsunuz? ☐ Kamu ☐ Özel

8. Hangi sektörde çalışıyorsunuz? (.....)