INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films

the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and

dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of

computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the

copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations

and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper

alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript

and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized

copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by

sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand comer and continuing

from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced

xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white

photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing

in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

Bell & Howell Information and Learning 300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA

800-521-0600

UMI[®]

		•

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA GRADUATE COLLEGE

ACCOUNTABILITY AS IT INFLUENCES ETHICAL BEHAVIOR

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Ву

Danielle Beu

Norman, Oklahoma

2000

UMI Number: 9994076



UMI Microform 9994076

Copyright 2001 by Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company.

All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company 300 North Zeeb Road P.O. Box 1346 Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

ACCOUNTABILITY AS IT INFLUENCES ETHICAL BEHAVIOR

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE MICHAEL F. PRICE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

BY

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, I thank God for seeing my through this process. I also appreciate the support and encouragement of Michael Buckley, my committee chairman. Without the constructive input of the rest of my committee, this dissertation would not have been possible – so thank you Dipankar Ghosh, Jorge Mendoza, Dan Ostas, and Nim Razook. In addition to my committee, I feel fortunate to have worked and studied with many great individuals, both faculty and students, at the University of Oklahoma. Finally, I thank my family for supporting me through this adventure and believing in me during the tough times.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
Acknowledge	ments	iv
List of Figure	s	vi
Abstract		vii
Chapter 1:	Statement of Problem and Dissertation Overview	1
Chapter 2:	Literature Review and Research Model	14
Chapter 3:	Construct Measures and Research Methodology	45
Chapter 4:	Statistical Results	72
Chapter 5:	Discussion and Conclusion.	97
References		112
Appendix A:	Test Instrument: Ethical Dilemma Questionnaire	130

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 1:	Two Stage Model of Ethical/Unethical Behavior (Zey-Ferrell & Ferrell, 1982)	17
Figure 2:	Contingency Model of Ethical Decision-Making in a Marketing Organization (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985)	18
Figure 3:	Marketing Ethics Model (Hunt & Vitell, 1986)	19
Figure 4:	Interactionist Model of Ethical Decision Making in Organizations (Trevino, 1986)	20
Figure 5:	Behavioral Model of Ethical/Unethical Decision Making (Bommer, Grato, Gravander & Tuttle, 1987)	21
Figure 6:	Model for Analyzing Ethical Decision Making in Marketing (Dubinsky & Loken, 1989)	22
Figure 7:	Ethical Decision-Making Model (Jones, 1991)	23
Figure 8:	Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability	29

ABSTRACT

ACCOUNTABILITY AS IT INFLUENCES ETHICAL BEHAVIOR

Ethics influence judgments used to make decisions that are legal or morally acceptable to the larger community (Jones, 1991). Accountability (being responsible to an audience with reward or sanction power) is a mechanism through which organizations can control the conduct of their members. This study expands the ethics literature by introducing the accountability construct to current ethical models, as can be seen in the Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability (Figure 8). By researching and understanding why individuals behave the way they do when confronted with ethical dilemmas, academicians can enhance business practice.

The Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability proposes that various forms of accountability will influence ethical intentions, with moral intensity moderating this relationship. The model also shows that cognitive moral development, personality and demographics influence ethical intentions. The results of the empirical tests show that accountability, competitiveness, general self-efficacy and college major did not influence ethical intentions. However, moral intensity, location (school/work), cognitive moral development, hostility and aggression, locus of control, Machiavellianism and gender did influence ethical intentions as hypothesized. Perhaps a better operationalization of accountability, including extraordinarily strong accountabilities within the organization or accountabilities outside of the organization may be required to alter individual's ethical intentions. The study does confirm that aspects of the moral issue itself (moral intensity), environment (school/work) and individual differences do influence ethical intentions.

Chapter 1

Statement of Problem

and

Dissertation Overview

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Unethical behavior occurs in all areas of society: business, government, religion, education, sports, etc. It is an all too common occurrence and many are concerned with the ethical conduct of employees and organizations (Baucus & Baucus, 1997). In academia, fraud has reached epidemic proportions (Desruisseaux, 1999). The intense desire to be successful has changed cheating in school from an anomaly into standard practice. At work, individuals cut corners on quality control, cover up incidents, abuse or lie about sick days, lie to and deceive customers, steal from employers, and put inappropriate pressures on others (Hefter, 1986; Jones, 1997; Werner, Jones & Steffy, 1989). Other unacceptable actions include cheating on expense accounts, discriminating against coworkers, paying or accepting kickbacks, fixing prices and other forms of fraud. These types of unethical behavior cost industry billions of dollars a year (Jones, 1997; Zemke, 1986) and damage the images of corporations (Mahar, 1992).

Ethical decision-making is a part of every person's life. In today's turbulent world these ethical issues exist in a complex environment, with conflicting stakeholders and unclear rules. Perhaps we can conclude that ethical norms are currently in a state of change. Much academic and popular press is spent on concern over the way individuals and organizations deal with ethical dilemmas. In the United States, organizations

actively pursue diversity (e.g. ethnicity, race, gender, age), making it difficult for individual employees to understand why those who are different from themselves behave in certain ways when confronted with an ethical dilemma. Organizations can no longer assume that there is homogeneity of values, ethics and rules of thumb for appropriate behavior within their workforce (Primeaux, 1992). This is because today's workforce is no longer homogenous, but instead varies in age, ethnic origin, gender, and socioeconomic level. Additionally, falling trade barriers and increased international trade has created opportunities for organizations to expand their operations internationally. This global economy has increased the complexity of dealing with ethical issues due to varying cultural perceptions of morality (Enderle, 1997). Many of these multinational businesses attempt the difficult task of trying to decide the best ethical practices for one organization on a worldwide basis.

Ethics and issues of "right" and "wrong" have been concerns of society for as long as societies have existed. The ethics of a society affect ethical judgments of individuals, which are decisions that are legal or morally acceptable to the larger community (Jones, 1991). Thus, societal ethics may be seen as a form of control over the behaviors of individual members (Bauman, 1993). Accountability (being responsible to an audience with reward or sanction power) is also a mechanism through which societies can control the conduct of their members. Both business ethics and accountability literatures are concerned with how individuals react to ethical dilemmas. They both have models to explain the processes involved in ethical behaviors. This study integrates these two management literatures by examining how accountability influences ethical behavior. By researching and understanding why people behave the way they do when faced with

ethical dilemmas, academicians can truly enhance business practice. If we can empirically examine the antecedents to ethical behavior, we can help businesses create a more ethical and successful business climate.

The following sections discuss the key issues of ethical behaviors and accountability, as well as outline the focus and structure of this dissertation.

1.2 ETHICAL BEHAVIORS

What is ethics and how do we study it? As with many organizational behavior concepts, the definition of ethics depends upon the researcher. It has been referred to as just or right standards of behavior between parties in a situation (Runes, 1964). It has also been defined as that which constitutes good and bad human conduct (Barry, 1979) and as what is good and evil, right and wrong and thus what we ought and ought not to do (Beauchamp & Bowie, 1983). Many have stated that ethics is the study of morality, where morality is moral judgments, standards and rules of conduct (DeGeorge, 1982; Tayor, 1975). Synthesizing 38 different definitions, Lewis (1985) defines business ethics as comprising the rules, standards, principles, or codes giving guidelines for morally right behavior and truthfulness in specific situations.

To be a society, a group must accept certain fundamental practices and principles. For example, there must be general agreement that life is worth living, that the lives of the members of society should be respected, and that people will respect existing differences to the extent that they do not interfere with each other (DeGeorge, 1999). Logically, it follows that individuals who believe it is their moral duty to kill others cannot make up a society. Thus, society and morality go together and this morality must

3

be a shared morality. In a pluralistic society, members are free to choose their own values and lifestyles, as long as they abide by basic moral norms. Pluralism presupposes a wide common background of moral practices. For example, murder of members of a society is prohibited, lying and deceiving others is considered immoral, and each individual is to respect the property of others. Without these commonly held norms and values, no society could function. Business, as a type of society, is possible only within a certain social context of institutions, agreements, understandings, and shared values.

If there are basic moral norms and rules, why do we even need ethical theories or models? The reason is because there are times when these basic moral norms are not sufficient, such as when moral rules conflict. Although there are basic moral norms, new situations arise in our dynamic business environment when complex ethical dilemmas are not clearly answered by basic moral rules. By explaining why actions are right or wrong and by providing a decision-making model for resolving ethical dilemmas, ethical theory can provide moral individuals with a way to think through the process.

In the business literature, ethics is generally studied using normative theories, focusing on how individuals ought to behave. These normative theories tend to be grouped into (1) consequential / utilitarian theories; (2) single-rule nonconsequential / deontological theories; and (3) multiple-rule nonconsequential theories (Tsalikis & Fritzche, 1989). Utilitarianism is an ethical theory, which holds that an action is right if it produces, or if it tends to produce, the greatest amount of good for the greatest number of people affected by the action (DeGeorge, 1999). Actions in and of themselves are neither good nor bad, but are judged on their consequences. In a strictly utilitarian sense, ethical behavior is an action or behavior from which total pleasure/utility exceeds total

pain/costs (Getz, 1990). Thus, utilitarianism strictly examines the fairness of the outcomes (Molm, 1991). The consequences experienced by all individuals affected by the exchange determines the ethicality of the behavior.

Alternatively, deontologists deny the utilitarian claim that the morality of an action depends on its consequences, and in fact maintain that the action's morality is completely independent of consequences. The deontological perspective views behavior as ethical or unethical by examining the rules and principles that guide behaviors and is based on a system of rights and duties (Buckley, Wiese and Harvey, 1998a). One's duty is to do what is morally right and to avoid what is morally wrong, regardless of the consequences. In the West, Judeo-Christian morality, and all the moral rules and values that it entails, largely defines conventional morality in society (DeGeorge, 1999). The Ten Commandments is an example of Judeo-Christian rules that command without concern for consequences, thus demonstrating deontological form. Kant's Categorical Imperative is another prime illustration of a deontological theory of ethics (DeGeorge, 1999; Tsalikis & Fritzsche, 1989). Kant believes that each of us can come up with moral law based on our own rationality, not on anything external to us. An action must pass a formal test of conformity to the moral law, thus it is called a formalist approach. Moral actions must be consistent, in that they cannot be self-contradictory nor can they contradict other moral actions. In the Kantian tradition, morality is derived from rationality and rationality is the same for everyone and thus, moral actions must be universal. Moral actions must respect rational beings as ends in themselves, and not as means. Finally, moral law and its truth are not dependent on experience, but are law and truth a priori. The form commands that all rational individuals, thinking rationally,

should accept the law regardless of whether they are agents or receivers of the actions. Individuals understand that they live in a community and must restrict their actions, just as they expect others to restrict theirs. Both the utilitarian and the deontological orientations help us to understand unethical behavior as behavior that has a harmful effect upon others and is "either illegal, or morally unacceptable to the larger community" (Jones, 1991, p. 367).

After defining ethical behavior, researchers and theorists attempt to understand why some individuals engage in unethical behavior while others do not. Many theories suggest that complete self-interest is at the heart of unethical behavior. Agency theorists suggest that when agents (employees) have more information than principals (employers) and their goals conflict, agents may behave in accordance with their own self-interest and lie to, or deceive, the principal (Holstrom, 1979). In fact, Becker (1976) believes that human agents are always pure egoists, whose behavior is designed to maximize their own utility. Reinforcement contingencies also influence managers' ethical behavior (Trevino, 1986). For example, individuals are more likely to pay bribes when rewarded for doing so (Hegarty & Sims, 1978). Additionally, social exchange theory and neoclassical economics simply state that individuals engage in unethical behavior if it is in their own best interest (Grover, 1993).

Business ethics, unlike classic economic points of view, proposes that human beings should be motivated by more than a complete reliance on self-interest (Pava, 1998). Rawls (1993) states that "rational agents approach being psychopathic when their interests are solely in benefits to themselves" (p. 51). Human beings live in societies where cooperation among equals is expected and required. If the economic point of view

is correct, then the ethic of complete self-interest would lead to societal dissolution. In 1918, Clarence Ayers discussed this issue, stating that "Ethics is wholly social, and there is no such thing as an individual, in the sense that it is absurd today to think of a 'moral agent' without at the same time thinking of him as a social product capable of producing certain changes in the social structure that surrounds him most intimately" (1918, p. 57). Thus, the economic theories of self-interest may neglect the impact of relationships, morality and values of the individual based in society.

Business ethics theorists have defined an ethical situation / dilemma as one where the consequences of an individual's decision affects the interests, welfare, or expectations of others (Rest, 1986). Unethical behavior is defined as behavior that has a harmful effect upon others and is "either illegal, or morally unacceptable to the larger community" (Jones, 1991, p. 367). Thus, ethical behavior is, by its nature, a social phenomenon, and needs to be evaluated in terms of the relationships of the actors. Using differential association theory, Zey-Ferrell and Ferrell (1982) suggested that individuals learn values, attitudes and norms not from society, but from other individuals who are members of disparate social groups. They assumed that those employees who have learned to be unethical through differential association in their role-sets (associate with individuals who engage in and accept unethical behavior) and who have greater access to opportunity for unethical behavior will be more likely to be involved in such behaviors. Dubinsky and Loken (1989) used the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) to suggest that if referent others think the individual should engage in ethical behavior and the individual is motivated to comply with the referent others, then the individual is more likely to engage in ethical behavior. By examining the entire set of actors and the

set of ties representing some relationship between the actors, Brass, Butterfield and Skaggs' (1998) social network perspective suggests that these social relationships mutually interact with characteristics of individuals, issues, and organizations in influencing unethical behavior. When a relationship between two individuals is strong, multiplex (e.g., friend and business associate), and symmetric in terms of power, the likelihood of unethical behavior toward each other is low. According to the social network perspective, surveillance by other members of an organization decreases the likelihood that the focal individual will engage in unethical behavior. Additionally, the possibility that mutual friends and acquaintances may find out about the focal individual's unethical behavior may act as a deterrent due to a concern over reputation. Finally, as cliques evolve with varying behaviors and attitudes, the possibility of unethical behavior between cliques increases. These theories all point to the importance of relationships in the ethical decision-making process.

1.3 ACCOUNTABILITY

The relationship aspect of the ethical theories suggests that accountability will have an effect on ethical behavior. Accountability refers to the perception of defending or justifying one's conduct to an audience that has reward or sanction authority, and where rewards or sanctions are perceived to be contingent upon audience evaluation of such conduct (Buckley, Wiese, Frink, Howard, Berkson, Ferris & Mobbs, in press; Tetlock, 1985, 1992). Schools and organizations form social systems that have shared expectations, including ethical systems. When individuals are involved in these social systems, they are held accountable for their actions due to the existence of a shared

system of expectations and the responsibility they have for those actions (Frink & Klimoski, 1998; Tetlock, 1992). Individuals are held accountable by laws, rules and expectations (Mitchell & Scott, 1990), the way their behavior or performance is evaluated (Mitchell, 1993), and by mechanisms of social control, including expectations communicated by salient others (Ferris & Judge, 1991).

Human behavior is a complex phenomenon, and as such, all individuals do not behave the same way when presented with identical accountability situations. Agency theory has been used to explain that individuals will maximize their own utility to the extent permitted by the constraints imposed on them, and thus, such constraints (accountabilities) are necessary (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). Organizational control theory states that individuals are subject to rewards and sanctions based on a comparison of their actual performance to established standards (Ferris, Mitchell, Canavan, Frink & Hopper, 1995), and thus, behavior results from control mechanisms, including accountability. Once again, these theories may neglect the social relationship aspect of human interaction at work.

Organizations are social systems, and as such they require reliable behavior on the part of their members (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Role systems theory parallels versions of accountability, which postulates a central role for interpersonal expectations, emphasizes the importance of the consequences of compliance, and links tasks and activities to individuals (Cummings & Anton, 1990; Ferris et al., 1995; Frink & Klimoski, 1998; Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994). An individual's expectations for another are strongly influenced by knowledge, skills, abilities and personality, as well as the history of the relationship with this individual and with the organization (Frink &

Klimoski, 1998). This complex web of interpersonal relationships may be the driving force behind ethical behavior, subject to the realities of work interdependence and organizational, as well as job norms. Workplace behavior takes place in a social context and involves mutual expectations, mutual influence processes, mutual understanding and predictable behavior (Frink & Klimoski, 1998). Thus, while most organizations have some formal code of ethics, there are other audiences that are possibly more salient to the individual. In fact, there are times when individuals, faced with an ethical dilemma, want to do the right thing based on their own values, but are overwhelmed by social forces to comply with the values of their boss or prevailing culture (Brief, Dukerich, & Doran, 1991). This would lead us to believe that by developing high quality relationships and increasing the understanding of normatively acceptable behavior, accountability would lead to more ethical behavior.

1.4 RESEARCH FOCUS

Ethical behavior by employees is important to all organizations' viability.

Perhaps one way to insure that employees behave appropriately is for the organization to require that the employees are held accountable for their actions. If employees realize that they will have to justify their conduct to organizational superiors with reward / sanction power and if they know exactly what the organization expects from them in terms of ethical behavior, then there should be more pro-social behavior on the part of these employees. Ethics, and the social norms that come from them, create shared expectations of how individuals in an organization should behave, creating a mechanism of social control. In an accountability situation, an employee is in a social context and

his/her behavior is observed and evaluated by an audience and compared to some standard or expectation (Frink and Klimoski, 1998). The employee believes that s/he may have to answer for, justify, or defend the behaviors and that any rewards or sanctions are contingent on the evaluation of the audience. Therefore, if the employee feels accountable to other members of the organization, accountability may also be a mechanism through which organizations can control the conduct of their employees. Thus, ethics and accountability fit well together as both are methods of social control and should be studied together. The joining of accountability and ethics research generates many interesting questions. How do individuals respond to questions of ethics when they must justify their decisions? How do individuals perceive that others will respond to these same questions under the same types of accountabilities? How do individuals respond to ethical dilemmas with varying degrees of salience? Are there individual differences that account for the way individuals respond to ethical questions?

Human behavior is derived from myriad forces including the individual, his/her personal relationships, the social structure in which s/he is embedded, and the organizational system of policies and practices. In order to study ethical behavior, we must focus on a small piece of the puzzle, while accounting for the whole. The primary purpose of this dissertation is to advance and test the ethical decision-making model in an attempt to aid managerial effectiveness of organizations. The study will accomplish this by determining the effects of accountability on ethical intent, while also testing and controlling for the effects of the intensity of the moral issue and individual difference factors. This study adds to the literature because it tests a more complete model than has been done in the past. By empirically studying how ethical intent is affected by

accountability for behavior and outcomes, the individual difference characteristics of the respondents and the salience of the ethical dilemma (moral intensity), we will have a better understanding of why people behave the way they do when faced with an ethical dilemma.

Both the business ethics literature and the accountability literature recognize self-interest as a strong motivating factor to explain why people behave unethically. Both literatures also recognize the importance of human interaction on behavior. The theoretical framework employed in this study will be role systems theory as proposed by Frink and Klimoski (1998) integrated with the social network perspective of Brass, Butterfield and Skaggs (1999). These theories were chosen because they both recognize that ethical behavior is influenced by characteristics of the individual, his/her social relationships, and the organizational system in which s/he is embedded. By taking all this into consideration, they help to explain ethical behaviors when individuals are accountable to more than one audience. Divergent expectancies of multiple stakeholders may result in behavior that is less predictable, and which, in the eyes of the organization, may be undesirable. The final contribution of this study will be to attempt to examine how individuals would respond to an ethical dilemma that has many stakeholders (e.g., society, employer, president of the company, direct supervisor, co-workers, family and self).

U.S. business is embedded in U.S. society and shares its ethical system. Ideally, the freedom of businesses to make a profit is limited by the values of fairness, equal opportunity, honesty and truthfulness (DeGeorge, 1999). U.S. business must be predicated on ethical business practices. If it were not, business would cease. It is only

against this background of ethical behavior that unethical behavior is possible and has the potential to be profitable. Lying successfully would be difficult if most were not honest and trusting. In fact, most individuals and organizations practice fair competition based on efficiency and value their reputations. As Hosmer (1994) states, "Ethics do pay". Business ethics research should help create conditions for ethical practice by employees and organizations. This task demands that normative theories and contextual reality intersect in a way that makes sense to organizations. A better understanding of why individuals behave as they do when presented with ethical dilemmas will allow organizations to be proactive in creating an ethical environment, which is critical to success.

1.5 ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter 2 provides a review of the relevant literature concerning ethical behavior and accountability. It gives the theoretical bases and models, which lead to a new ethical decision-making model. Chapter 3 contains the hypotheses developed from the model, as well as a discussion of the measurement tools and methodology. Statistical analyses of the research data are presented in chapter 4, along with an evaluation of the model. Chapter 5 is a detailed discussion of the results, research implications and future directions.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

and

Research Model

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Research for this study is based primarily on the business ethics literature. The model that is proposed and tested is drawn from this stream of management thought.

Because ethics is a multidisciplinary construct, the literature review also includes a general ethics discussion, which includes ideas from philosophy, management and the social sciences. The accountability literature is added to the business ethics framework to produce the research model.

In this chapter, I will discuss the various literature streams and their applicability in understanding how accountability will affect ethical decision-making. This is followed by an introduction to the research model. The chapter concludes by describing each of the variables in the proposed model and the research hypotheses.

2.2 ETHICAL BEHAVIORS

In 1961, Baumhart surveyed *Harvard Business Review* readers on ethical issues. This study was updated in 1977 by Brenner and Molander. During this time, respondents appeared to be more cynical concerning the ethical conduct of their peers. Reasons given for this perception of deteriorating ethics included a preoccupation with gain, lack of reinforcement of ethical behaviors, competition, and a sense that only results are

important to superiors. The need to understand why individuals behave as they do when confronted with ethical dilemmas has been evident in the management literature for decades. The following discussion examines the evolution of business ethics models and certain empirical findings.

Business Ethics

Disciplines such as anthropology, sociology and psychology tend to study ethics using descriptive measures (DeGeorge, 1982). The morality of societies and cultures is studied and described. This type of research does not judge, but instead compares different moral systems, beliefs, principles and values. Normative ethics arises from descriptive ethics, in that it attempts to explain and justify the morality of society. Most of the ethical theories are found in the normative ethics literature. As was discussed in chapter 1, utilitarian and deontological approaches are the two most common perspectives used to explain moral reasoning. In utilitarianism, an action is deemed moral or immoral by examining the consequences of the action. The deontological approach states that duty is the basic moral category, independent of the consequences of the action. In most cases, the utilitarian and the deontological approaches to the moral evaluation of actions will result in similar moral judgments (DeGeorge, 1999). This is because both approaches attempt to systematize and explain moral judgments. Additionally, they both start from the basic moral norms, which state that certain actions are morally right and others are morally wrong. In fact, Brady (1985) develops a model, which views both approaches as complementary, with utilitarianism looking to the future (simply seeking a solution that will give the best possible results according to what it

means to be human) and deontology looking to the past (examining the cultural heritage established by law, language and tradition and assessing the relevance and adequacy of the store of knowledge to the issue at hand). These general ethical theories provide useful information for analyzing everyday ethical dilemmas.

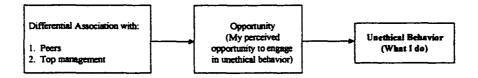
Special ethics uses general ethics to investigate the morality of specialized areas of human endeavor, such as business. Business ethics comprises the rules, standards, principles, or codes that give guidelines for morally right behavior and truthfulness in specific situations (Lewis, 1985). In other words, business ethics studies the morality of business. Again, the goal is to understand why individuals and corporations behave in certain ways when confronted with ethical dilemmas. Influences on ethical behavior at work include the individual's internal ethical principles, the organizational culture and the actual combination of moral ideals with work demands (Kahn, 1990). Employees solve ethical dilemmas based on their individual characteristics, the culture in which they are embedded, and the realities of the work situation.

Ethical Decision-making Models

Empirical testing of the ethical decision making process requires the articulation of models. The 1980's produced many such models. Zey-Ferrell and Ferrell (1982) used differential association theory to explain unethical behavior, stating that individuals learn values, attitudes and norms not from society, but from other individuals who are members of disparate social groups. They assume that those employees who have learned to be unethical through differential association in their role-sets and who have

greater access to opportunity for unethical behavior are more likely to be involved in such behaviors (see Figure 1).

Figure 1
Two-Stage Model of Ethical/Unethical Behavior



Zey-Ferreil & Ferreil, 1982

The researchers suggested that the greater the organizational distance between the focal person and the referent other, the less likely the focal person's ethical/unethical behavior would be influenced by the referent other. Additionally, the greater the relative amount of status and power of the referent, the greater the amount of pressure the referent can exert on the focal person to conform to the referent's role expectations. When a focal person perceives that peers are unethical in their behaviors, they are more likely to be unethical themselves (Zey-Ferrell, Weaver & Ferrell, 1979). Thus, this model suggests that peers and top management combined with opportunity lead to an employee's ethical/unethical behavior.

In 1985, Ferrell and Gresham published their contingency model of ethical decision making in a marketing organization (see Figure 2). This model provides for the

influence of the social and cultural environment, individual contingent factors (knowledge, values, attitudes and intentions), and organizational contingent factors (significant others and opportunity) on ethical/unethical behavior.

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS - knowledge - values - antitudes intentions SOCIAL **EVALUATION** INDIVIDUAL ETHICAL ISSUE OF BEHAVIOR CULTURAL BEHAVIOR DECISION **ENVIRONMENT** MAKING unethical DILEMMA OPPORTUNITY SIGNIFICANT OTHERS - professional codes - differential association - corporate policy - role set configuration rewards/punishments

Figure 2
Contingency Model of Ethical Decision Making in a Marketing Organization

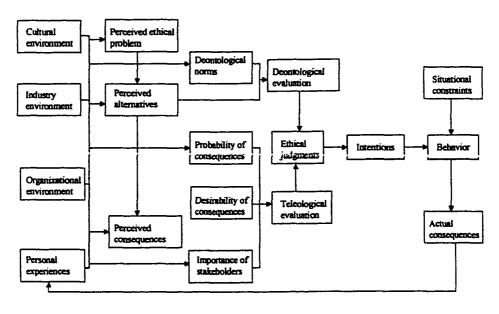
Ferreil & Gresham, 1985

This model produced criticism and a different model from Hunt and Vitell (1986).

Their marketing ethics model states that cultural, industrial and organizational environmental factors, combined with personal experiences affect perceptions of the existence of an ethical problem, alternatives and consequences (see Figure 3).

Perceptions plus norms and evaluations of consequences lead to ethical judgments, which lead to intentions and then to behavior.

Figure 3
Marketing Ethics Model



Hunt & Vitell, 1986

Trevino (1986) proposed the situation-individual interaction model, which was based primarily on Kohlberg's (1969) model of cognitive moral development (see Figure 4). She suggests that individuals react to ethical dilemmas with cognitions determined by their cognitive moral development. The stage of cognitive moral development determines how an individual thinks about ethical dilemmas. The emphasis is on the cognitive decision making process or the reasons an individual uses to justify a decision, rather than the decision itself. Individuals progress through the stages of cognitive moral development as they mature. The first two stages are concerned with concrete consequences and self interest. The next two stages demonstrate that maintaining the expectations of the individual's family, group, or nation is perceived as valuable in its own right. In the final two stages, moral behavior is determined by universal values and principles. In the Trevino (1986) model, the relationship between the cognitions stage and the actual ethical/unethical behavior is moderated by individual and situational

factors. Individual factors include ego strength, field dependence and locus of control. The situational factors include elements of the immediate job context, organizational culture and characteristics of the work itself. The immediate job context includes reinforcement contingencies and other pressures. This is consistent with reinforcement theory, which states that individual behavior is a result of its consequences. The situational factor of organizational culture includes the organization's normative structure, referent others, obedience to authority, and responsibility for consequences.

Individual Moderators - Ego Strength Field Dependence - Locus of Control Cognitions Ethical STAGE OF Ethical/ COGNITIVE Dilemma I Inethical MORAL **Behavior** DEVELOPMENT Situational Moderators IMMEDIATE JOB CONTEXT - Reinforcement - Other pressures ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE Normative structure Referent others - Obedience to authority - Responsibility for consequences CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WORK - Role taking - Resolution of moral conflict Trevino, 1986

Figure 4
Interactionist Model of Ethical Decision Making in Organizations

Research by Schwartz (1968) suggested that an awareness of the consequences of one's actions on others, and an ascription of responsibility to self are necessary conditions for the activation of the individual's moral norms and his/her influence on behavior. If organizations are interested in encouraging moral action they should promote individual responsibility for action consequences at all levels of the organization. Where this is not done, organizational considerations may outweigh moral ones in the individual's

determination of appropriate behavior (Turiel & Smetana, 1984). Thus, this model suggests that the individual's level of cognitive moral development is the primary determinant of ethical behavior, yet the decision making process is also influenced by individual and situational factors.

A behavioral model of ethical and unethical decision making was proposed by Bommer, Gratto, Gravander and Tuttle in 1987 (see Figure 5).

Government/legal Social environment Work environment environment - Religious values - Legislation - Corporate coals - Humanistic values Administrative agencies Stated policy - Cultural values - Judicial system Corporate culture - Societal values Professional environment Decision process Perception - Codes of conduct - Information acquisition Ethical behavior Information processing - Licensing requirements Decision - Professional meetings Cognitive process influence Unethical behavior - Perceived rewards - Perceived losses Individual attributes - Moral level Personal environment Personal goals - Peer group - Motivation mechanism - Family - Position/status - Self-concept Life experiences - Personality Demographics

Figure 5
Behavioral Model of Ethical/Unethical Decision Making

Bommer, Grato, Gravander & Tuttle, 1987

This normative model links the influencing factors of ethical/unethical behavior with the mediating structure of the individual's decision making process. The environmental influences include the work environment, professional environment, family/peer group environment, government/legal environment, and social environment. Additionally, a number of individual attributes are suggested to influence the decision process. Other factors affecting the decision process are the perceived consequences and risks and the value assigned to these consequences by the individual. Once again we see that the

individual as well as society/environment are suggested to affect the ethical decision making process.

Dubinsky and Loken (1989) proposed an ethical decision making model based on the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), which assumes that individuals are usually rational, use information that is available to them when deciding to engage in a given behavior and behave under volitional control. This model (see Figure 6) suggests that one's salient behavioral beliefs about the outcomes associated with performing the behavior and evaluations of those outcomes determine attitudes toward the behavior.

Behavioral Beliefs Likelihood that ethical/ unethical behavior leads to certain Attitude Toward Ethical/ outcomes Unethical Behavior Individual's evaluation of behavior Outcome Evaluation Goodness or badness of outcomes of ethical/ Intentions to unethical behavior Engage in Ethical Ethical/Unethical Unethical Behavior Behavior Subjective likelihood Relevant be Nonnative Beliefs that individual will of interest Likelihood that referents engage in behavior think individual should/ should not perform ethical/unethical Subjective Norm Toward behavior Ethical/Unethical **Behavior** Individual's belief that Motivation to Comply significant others think Motivation/willingness individual should/should to acquiesce to not perform behavior referents Dubinsky & Loken, 1989

Figure 6
Model for Analyzing Ethical Decision Making in Marketing

Also, the individual's normative beliefs about whether salient referents think the individual should perform the behavior and the individual's willingness to comply with the referents determines the individual's subjective norms toward the behavior.

Together, attitudes toward the behavior and subjective norms toward the behavior

influences intentions to engage in ethical/unethical behavior, which affects actual behavior.

Ferrell, Gresham and Fraedrich (1989) provide us with a synthesis of other models. Their proposed model suggests that the ethical decision making process begins with an awareness of ethical issues, followed by a cognitions stage using cognitive moral development. The cognitions stage leads to deontological and teleological judgments or moral evaluations. These evaluations of the ethical dilemma lead to ethical intentions, which lead to ethical or unethical behaviors or actions. In 1991, Jones also proposed a synthesized model that included ideas and constructs from eight previous models, as well as a new construct called moral intensity (see Figure 7).

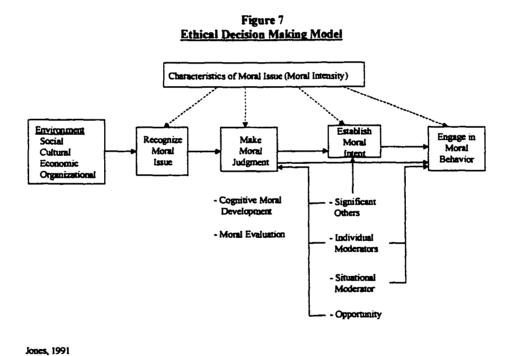


Figure 7 shows that the social, cultural, economic and organizational environments influence the recognition of a moral issue, one which has consequences for others and involves volition of the individual making the moral decision (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985;

Hunt & Vitell, 1986). This explicit (Hunt & Vitell, 1986; Rest, 1986) or implicit (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Trevino, 1986) recognition of the moral issue leads to making a moral judgment, dependent upon the individual's level of cognitive moral development (Rest, 1986; Trevino, 1986) or moral evaluations (Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Hunt & Vitell, 1986). Some researchers showed that once a moral judgment was made, it led to moral behavior through establishing moral intent (Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; Rest, 1986), while others showed the moral judgment leading directly to engaging in moral behavior (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Trevino, 1986). Moderators included significant others (Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985), individual difference characteristics (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Trevino, 1986), situational moderators (Trevino, 1986), as well as the individual's opportunity to engage in unethical behavior (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). Jones (1991) suggested that moral intensity (characteristics of the moral issue itself) is a moderator in this synthesized model.

Business ethics models and research have primarily included specific individual difference and situational factors, trying to establish if unethical behavior is caused by "bad apples or bad barrels" (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990). Individual difference characteristics that have been studied include cognitive moral development, personal moral philosophy, strength of religious beliefs, locus of control, Machiavellianism, gender, nationality, year in school, grade point average and employment. Some of the situational characteristics that have been studied include fraternity/sorority membership, existence of organizational honor codes, types of reward systems, enforced sanctions, top management behavior and ethics training. Trevino (1986) stated that situational variables include the organization's normative structure, referent others, obedience to authority.

responsibility for consequences, reinforcement contingencies, and other pressures. These situational factors place individuals in a social context, where they understand that behavior under their control will be compared to a normative standard, evaluated by referent others and rewarded or punished based on this evaluation. In other words, individuals are held accountable for their behaviors.

2.3 ACCOUNTABILITY

By comparing the situational factors described in the business ethics decision making models with the definition of accountability - the perception of defending or justifying one's conduct to an audience that has reward or sanction authority, and where rewards or sanctions are perceived to be contingent upon audience evaluation of such conduct (Buckley, et al., in press; Tetlock, 1985, 1992) - it would appear that accountability will have an effect on ethical behaviors. Dependent variables that have been positively influenced by accountability effects include performance (Yarnold, Muesser, and Lyons, 1988), satisfaction (Haccoun and Klimoski, 1975), conformity, (Breaugh and Klimoski, 1977), goals (Frink, 1994), and attentiveness (Frink, 1994; Mero and Motowidlo, 1995). However, empirical evidence has shown that accountability does not always lead to positive behaviors. Some of the dysfunctions of accountability include increased use of impression management tactics (Ferris, Dulebohn, Frink, George-Falvy, Mitchell, & Matthews, 1997), stereotyping (Gordon, Rozelle, & Baxter, 1988), focusing on irrelevant information (Tetlock & Boettger, 1989), inflating performance appraisals (Klimoski & Inks, 1990), and the misallocation of scarce resources (Adelberg & Batson,

1978). Because the goal of using accountability in organizations is to create a more positive environment, a framework needed to be created that explained why individuals in accountability situations behave as they do when confronted with ethical dilemmas.

Tetlock and his colleagues suggest a framework to describe the mechanisms used by individuals in various accountability situations to explain the variety of behaviors (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999; Tetlock, 1985; Tetlock, Skitka & Boettger, 1989). First, when audience views are known prior to forming one's own opinion, conformity becomes the likely coping strategy. Supposedly, the desire for social approval from known audiences shifts the decision makers' focus away from the potential effectiveness of outcomes to the justifiability of outcomes. The second accountability condition is when audience views are unknown prior to forming one's own opinion. Here, individuals often engage in preemptive self-criticism. They think in more self-critical, integratively complex ways in which they consider multiple perspectives on the issue and try to anticipate the objections that reasonable others might raise to positions that they might take. However, this is not the case when individuals think they can guess the views of their prospective audience. The third accountability condition concerns people who have irrevocably committed themselves to a decision, learning of the need to justify their actions only after the decision has already been made (postdecisional accountability). This motivates cognitive effort directed toward self-justification rather than self-criticism. This defensive bolstering causes people to focus mental energy on rationalizing past actions. This is particularly true if individuals are accountable for decision outcomes only (not processes) (Simonson & Staw, 1992). In sum, self-critical and effortful thinking is most likely to be activated when decision makers learn prior to forming any opinions that they

will be accountable to an audience whose views are unknown, whose interests are accuracy and processes rather than specific outcomes, who is reasonably well-informed and who has a legitimate reason for inquiring into the reasons behind the decision makers' judgments (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). In addition to knowledge about the audience (Breaugh, Klimoski and Shapiro, 1980; Haccoun and Klimoski, 1975), other factors that influence accountability effects have included gender, Type A personality (Yarnold, Muesser and Lyons, 1988), conscientiousness (McCrae and Costa, 1987), locus of control (Frink, 1994), and contextual variables of ambiguity (Fandt and Ferris, 1990).

2.4 ETHICAL DECISION-MAKING MODEL WITH ACCOUNTABILITY

From the brief literature review above, it is evident that researchers have offered a number of models of organizational ethical decision making and behavior (Bommer et al., 1987; Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Ferrell, Gresham & Fraedrich, 1989; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; Jones, 1991; Trevino, 1986; Zey-Ferrell & Ferrell, 1982). These models suggest a number of individual and organizational factors that may influence unethical behavior in organizations (Kahn, 1990). However, neither the undersocialized perspective of individuals acting in isolation nor the oversocialized view of individuals obedient to norms and culture is adequate to explain ethical behavior (Granovetter, 1992). As a result of this realization, theorists have combined the two approaches (Hunt & Vitell, 1986; Trevino, 1986). Jones (1991) suggested the issuecontingent model that shows the characteristics of the moral issue interacting with individual and organizational attributes in influencing ethical decision making. While

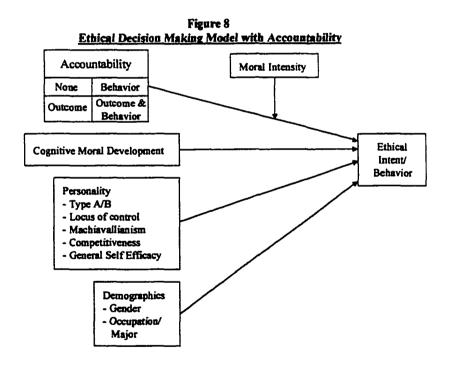
these models have been very beneficial in identifying a number of important elements explaining unethical behavior, they tend to minimize the relationships among individuals.

One of the primary goals of ethics research is to explain why individuals behave as they do when confronted with ethical dilemmas. Researchers must understand that there are those individuals who will behave ethically in most instances and there are certain instances where most people will behave ethically. From an organizational perspective, if the individual difference characteristics of ethical individuals are known, then organizations can attract and hire individuals with these traits. On the other hand, if organizations understand what attributes of the organization may influence ethical behavior, they can adjust their reward systems (Hegarty & Sims, 1978), or ethical codes of conduct (Cressey & Moore, 1983; Laczniak & Inderrieden, 1987; Mathews, 1987; McCabe & Trevino, 1993). However, because few individuals behave ethically all the time and few ethical dilemmas lend themselves to easily identifiable answers, many researchers suggest that ethical decision making involves a complex interaction between the individual, organization and the issue (Jones, 1991). The model presented here would also like to include relationships in the form of accountability (see Figure 8).

Relationships provide the constraints and opportunities that, in combination with characteristics of individuals, organizations and issues, may help explain ethical behavior in organizations (Brass, et al., 1998). Workplace behavior takes place in a social context and involves mutual expectations, mutual influence processes, mutual understanding and predictable behavior. Members of a social system are held accountable for their actions due to the existence of a shared system of expectations and the agency they have for those actions (Frink & Klimoski, 1998; Tetlock, 1992). In organizations, work groups

and the informal organization have the capacity for enforcing behavioral norms by both overt and covert social sanctions (Ferris, et al., 1995). Most organizations have some formal control mechanisms in place including disciplinary systems, performance evaluations, reward systems, performance monitoring, employee handbooks, etc.

However, there are other audiences that are possibly more salient to the individual. Employees are accountable to themselves for individual success, to their families for financial support, to their work group for departmental success, to the company for organizational success, to the stockholders, etc. Due to these multiple accountabilities with potentially conflicting goals, specific accountability in an ethical corporate environment may produce positive social pressure and promote greater ethical behavior.



Accountability is considered a universal social norm and it is seen as leading to internal pressure to comply (Ferris, et al., 1997; Tetlock, 1985, 1992). The individual is aware of the need to meet some acceptable standard and what will happen if s/he is or is

not successful. The notion of organizational accountability suggests that individuals assess the corporate and job standards, as well as how their audience evaluates behavior compared with these standards. Using this information, they form strategies for coping with the specific conditions as perceived and interpreted (Tetlock, 1992). As employees perceive less job ambiguity (i.e., greater certainty of processes and outcomes), and perhaps see their work processes and outcomes as being observable and verifiable, they feel more accountable (Ferris, et al., 1997). Therefore, it is important to understand that accountability for outcomes and accountability for behaviors should both affect the ethical decision making process.

Prior research showed that a number of individual and situational factors, as well as the issue itself influences the ethical decision making process. However, the relationship aspect has been minimized in much of the empirical work on business ethics. Accountability is one way to include the social context associated with the workplace. Much of the accountability research has focused on creating a more positive work environment, although some negative effects were reported. The framework suggested by Tetlock (1992) is very beneficial in explaining the variety of behaviors. However, individuals lead complicated lives and may be accountable to many different audiences. Additionally, individuals may act differently to an ethical dilemma depending on if they are accountable for behaviors (processes), outcomes, both or neither. This study attempts to address some of these issues.

The ethical decision making model with accountability that is proposed and tested in this study is illustrated in Figure 8. The model is consistent with previously discussed ethical decision making models and is principally an extension of Jones' (1991) issue

contingent model, showing that cognitive moral development, individual difference characteristics (personality and demographics) and moral intensity affect ethical intent and behavior. It then extends Jones' model by replacing significant others and situational variables with accountability. The four exogenous variables accountability, cognitive moral development, personality and demographics, are represented as antecedent variables. Moral intensity is a moderator and the endogenous variable, ethical intent/behavior, is represented as the outcome variable. The remainder of this chapter provides a discussion of this ethical decision making model and a detailed description of each of the model constructs.

2.5 MAJOR CONSTRUCTS WITH HYPOTHESES

Ethical behavior

The focal construct of the model to be tested, ethical intent/ethical behavior is drawn from the body of business ethics literature. Many business transactions have an ethical component, where a person's actions, when freely performed, may harm or benefit others (Velasquez & Rostankowski, 1985). Ethical behavior is behavior that has a beneficial effect upon others and is either legal, or morally acceptable to the larger community (Jones, 1991). Ethical intent/behavior is modeled as a latent, or unobservable, endogenous variable. Four antecedents and one moderator are identified in the model.

Accountability

Unethical behavior is a social phenomenon and is influenced by social relationships, individual difference characteristics, the moral issue and the organization (Brass, Butterfield & Skaggs, 1998; Frink & Klimoski, 1998). As social systems, organizations require reliable behavior from their employees (Katz & Kahn, 1978). One way to achieve this reliable behavior is through accountability. Individuals defending their actions to an audience with reward or sanction power are likely to conform to the desires of the audience (Tetlock, 1985, 1992). Two theories help us to understand the way individuals respond to ethical dilemmas when they are held accountable – social network and role theories.

A social network is a set of actors and the set of ties representing some relationship between the actors (Brass, et al., 1998). The norms and expectations for functionally differentiated sets of behaviors among employees are referred to as roles, which add structure to interpersonal relationships at work (Katz & Kahn, 1978). The role taking perspective assumes that the expectations of role senders (members of the organization with whom the individual is interdependent and must interact on a regular basis) serve as the stimulus for the focal individual's behavior (Frink & Klimoski, 1998). The individual's reactions to sent expectations in a particular role episode will have consequences for the individual (especially his/her self concept), the relationship of the individual with the sender, and the sender (perhaps his/her self concept). The focal individual's actions may affect a number of people.

Accountability is the perceived need to defend or justify behaviors to an audience with reward/sanction authority, where the rewards/sanctions are perceived to be

contingent upon the audience evaluation of such conduct. The possibility of being observed by other members of an organization is known as surveillance (Brass, et al., 1998). Most American adults engage in a certain level of moral reasoning, which includes being aware of, and trying to comply with, the roles and expectations of others (Kohlberg, 1969; Trevino, 1986). At this second level of cognitive moral development, interpersonal relationships and social approval are important aspects of the reasoning process used in ethical decision making. The possibility that mutual friends and acquaintances may learn of unethical behavior acts as a deterrent. Therefore, accountability in ethical organizations should decrease unethical behavior.

Unethical behavior is low in social relationships that are strong and multiplex. Strong relationships are those that are based on cooperation, trust, intimacy, empathy, reciprocity and emotional intensity (Granovetter, 1973). Multiplex is the degree to which two actors are linked by greater than one type of relationship (Burt, 1983). Strong and multiplex relationships may outweigh organizational norms (Brass, et al., 1998). Frink and Klimoski (1998) proposed that when individuals are faced with conflicting accountability requirements by two or more audiences, conformity will likely be in favor of the audience with whom the most positive relationship exists. They go on to suggest that when an individual faces an accounting relative to incompatible expectations of a peer group and an audience who is farther removed in space and time, the individual will conform to the expectations of the peers. Thus, when organization members faced with an ethical dilemma view unethical actions as something that must be done in order to help those who are close to them, they will be more likely to engage in that behavior if they are not held accountable. However, if the individual faces an accounting from an

audience whose expectations are different from his/her own, s/he will conform to the extent that the evaluator has more status or is more powerful (Brass, et al., 1998; Frink & Klimoski, 1998).

In accountability situations, the focal individual understands that his/her actions will be compared to some standard by the evaluator. However, if behavioral expectations are unclear or if priorities are vague, individuals may not feel accountable and may behave unethically (Baucus & Near, 1991; Grover, 1993). As individuals perceive less job/task ambiguity (i.e., greater certainty of processes and outcomes), and perhaps see their processes and outcomes as being observable and verifiable, they feel more accountable (Ferris, et al., 1997). Additionally, Lerner and Tetlock (1999) suggest that when audience views are known prior to forming one's own opinion, conformity becomes the likely coping mechanism. Therefore, developing high quality relationships and increasing employee understanding of what others expect from them in terms of ethical behavior should lead to internalization, compliance or conformity to expectations.

H₁: In an ethical culture, individuals specifically held accountable for results and behavior will engage in the least unethical behavior and those who are not held accountable at all will engage in the most unethical behavior (cheat or pay bribes).

Moral Intensity

Jones (1991) suggests that ethical decision making is issue contingent – characteristics of the moral issue itself (moral intensity) are important determinants of ethical decision making and behavior. The components of moral intensity are magnitude

of consequences, social consensus, probability of effect, temporal immediacy, proximity and concentration of effect. These components are all characteristics of the moral issue itself and they are expected to have interactive effects. Moral intensity is expected to increase if there is an increase in any one (or more) of its components. Magnitude of consequences of the moral issue is defined as the sum of the harms (or benefits) done to victims (or beneficiaries) of the moral act in question. Social consensus of the moral issue is defined as the degree of social agreement that a proposed act is evil (or good). Probability of effect of the moral act in question is a joint function of the probability that the act will actually take place and the act will actually cause the harm (or benefit) predicted. Temporal immediacy is the length of time between the present and the onset of consequences of the moral act (shorter length of time implies greater immediacy). Proximity is the feeling of nearness (social, cultural, psychological, physical) that the moral agent has for victims (beneficiaries) of the evil (beneficial) act in question. Concentration of effect of the moral act is an inverse function of the number of people affected by an act of given magnitude.

Researchers have demonstrated that perceived moral intensity influences ethical perceptions and intentions (Harrington, 1997; Morris & McDonald, 1995; Robin, D. P. & Forrest, P. J., 1996; Singer, 1996; Singer & Singer, 1997; Singhapakdi, Vitell, & Franke, 1999; Singhapakdi, Vitell, & Kraft, 1996). Moral intensity is increased if the consequences of the action create great harm or great benefit. It is also heightened if the focal individual is socially, culturally, psychologically or physically close to those affected by the action. Therefore, the focal person will evaluate the ethical issue based on how s/he can create the greatest benefit for those close to him/her, minimizing the

amount of harm done to those who are distant. If the focal individual perceives that the organization really needs his/her help in order to achieve a powerful organizational goal, then s/he will be more likely to evaluate the ethical issue in terms of the magnitude of consequences and the proximity of those affected by the decision. Moral intensity is used as a moderator in this study to examine how individuals respond to ethical dilemmas when there is strong vs. weak perceived potential harm and strong vs. weak perceived social pressure. In the scenarios used in this study, increased moral intensity is designed to elicit greater unethical behavior (cheating or paying bribes) because the objectively unethical act greatly benefits those close to the respondent and the harms are perceived to be minimal to those distant from the respondent.

H₂: Moral intensity will moderate the relationship between different accountability situations and ethical intent/behavior.

	Accountability	Moral intensity	Probability Of Unethical Behavior
1	None	High	High
2	None	Low	Low
3	Results only	High	High
4	Results only	Low	Low
5	Behavior only	High	Low
6	Behavior only	Low	Low
7	Results & behavior	High	Low
8	Results & behavior	Low	Low

Self versus Perception of Others and Work versus School

Buckley, Harvey and Beu (2000) proposed that respondents perceive others as being more unethical than they are. Steele (1988) suggested that it is essential that an individual's self-image be one that is moral, competent, good, stable, and capable of choice. Motivated reasoning (Bersoff, 1999) states that deviant behavior may be

explained as individuals subscribing to certain rationalizations that define such behavior as situationally appropriate. However, if someone else were to engage in the same deviant behavior, the individual would likely view the behavior as strictly unethical.

Additionally, it is believed that students will show a greater tendency to perceive that deviant behavior is more likely while a person is in school than at work.

H₃: Respondents will perceive that others engage in more unethical behavior than they do.

H₄: Respondents will perceive that unethical behavior is more likely at school than at work.

Cognitive Moral Development

Kohlberg's (1969) model of cognitive moral development has been used by a number of researchers to help explain ethical decision making (Ford & Richardson, 1994; Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1989; Rest, 1979; Trevino, 1986; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990). Kohlberg identifies three major levels in the moral development of an individual (pre-conventional, conventional or principled). Each level represents a wider and more adequate perception of the social system and an ability to think more abstractly. In the preconventional level, children learn what to do and what not to do, but they do not yet understand why because they do not have a developed sense of morality. In the conventional level, individuals understand what moral norms and rules are and the accepted morality is learned from others (family, school, peers, etc.). It is in this level that individuals conform to the laws of society and understand what it means to be a good citizen. In the principled level, individuals accept moral principles because they know

what it means to say the principles are right and they understand what makes them right. According to the empirical evidence, as individuals progress through the levels of moral development, they use more universal ethical principles, allowing them to behave in the most ethical fashion, doing what is best for everyone (Ford & Richardson, 1994; Kohlberg, 1969; Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1989; Rest, 1979; Trevino, 1986; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990).

H₅: Individuals with higher levels of moral development will behave ethically more often than those with lower levels of moral development.

Personality and Demographics

The ethical decision making model with accountability (see Figure 8) shows that ethical behavior is influenced not only by accountability, cognitive moral development and characteristics of the moral issue, but also by the individual difference characteristics included in personality and demographics. Among the individual difference characteristics that have been shown to have an effect on ethical decision making are Type A personality (Buckley, Wiese & Harvey, 1998a; Perry, Kane, Bernesser, & Spicker, 1990), locus of control (Hegarty & Sims, 1978; Trevino, 1986; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990), Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970; Hegarty & Sims, 1978, 1979; Hunt & Chonko, 1984), gender (Bowers, 1964; Buckley, Wiese & Harvey, 1998a; Chonko & Hunt, 1985; Ferrell & Skinner, 1988; Franke, Crown, & Spake, 1997; Jones & Gautschi, 1988; McCabe & Trevino, 1997; Ruegger & King, 1992; Singhapakdi, A., Vitell, S. J. & Franke, G. R., 1999; Whipple & Swords, 1992), academic major (Manley, 1999), and employment (Arlow & Ulrich, 1980; Stevens, 1984). Two other variables that

I believe may have an effect on ethical decision making are competitiveness (Ryckman & Hamel, 1992; Ryckman, Hammer, Kaczor, & Gold, 1996; Ryckman, Libby, ven den Borne, Gold & Lindner, 1997) and general self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Schwarzer, 1992).

Friedman and Rosenman (1974) described a Type A person as one "who is aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons" (p. 67). Johnson (1981) showed that individuals with high achievement motivation were more likely to cheat on college examinations. Perry, et al. (1990) found that college students scoring high in Type A behavior were more likely to engage in unethical behavior when (a) they were given the opportunity to do so and (b) their expectations could not be met by simply putting forth greater effort. Buckley, Wiese & Harvey (1998a) found that the aggression and hostility components of Type A personality were strong predictors of a propensity to engage in unethical behavior.

H_{6.1}: Individuals with Type A personalities will engage in more unethical behavior than individuals with Type B personalities.

Locus of control is the degree to which individuals believe that outcomes are contingent upon their personal characteristics or behavior (Rotter, 1966). Externals believe that reinforcements following an action are not entirely contingent upon their actions, but occur as a result of outside forces, such as luck. Internals perceive reinforcements as contingent upon their behavior or their own attributes (Miller & Minton, 1969), therefore they may take more responsibility for their actions and depend more on their own value structure. Research models and empirical work suggest that

those with an internal locus of control tend to behave more ethically than those with an external locus of control (Hegarty & Sims, 1978; Trevino, 1986; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990).

H_{6.2}: Individuals with internal locus of control will behave ethically more often than those with an external locus of control.

A highly Machiavellian individual believes that it is acceptable to use any means, including manipulation, persuasion and deceit, to achieve a desired end (Hunt & Chonko, 1984). Interpersonal relationships are viewed instrumentally or rationally. Success in getting others to behave a certain way is enhanced by perceiving them as objects to be manipulated rather than as individuals with whom one has empathy. High Machiavellians have a lack of concern with conventional morality (lying, cheating, etc.) because they have a utilitarian, rather than moral, view of their interactions with others. These individuals may not be totally lacking in morals, they may just operate under a set of ethical guidelines that are inconsistent with conventional morality (Christie & Geis, 1970). Empirical studies show that highly Machiavellian lie more plausibly, manipulate others more, and pay bribes more (in simulation) than low Machiavellian individuals (Christie & Geis, 1970; Hegarty & Sims, 1978, 1979).

H_{6.3}: Individuals who are high on the Machiavellianism scale will engage in more unethical behavior than those who score low on the scale.

Horney (1937) described hypercompetitiveness as an indiscriminant need to compete and win at any cost as a means of maintaining or enhancing feelings of self-

worth, with attendant orientations of manipulation, aggressiveness, exploitation, and derogation of others. Highly competitive individuals have learned a set of extreme individualistic values, such as achievement, hedonism, and power (Schwartz, 1992). They tend to have less concern for the welfare of others, instead they mistrust, dominate and exploit (Ryckman, et al., 1997). Highly competitive individuals want to be the best in all fields and may take whatever steps are necessary to achieve that goal, regardless of if the actions are ethical or unethical. Hegarty and Sims (1978, 1979) found that increased competitiveness tended to promote unethical behavior.

H_{6.4}: Individuals who are highly competitive will behave more unethically.

Perceived self-efficacy pertains to optimistic beliefs about being able to cope with a large variety of stressors and explicitly refers to one's competence to deal with challenging situations (Bandura, 1977; Schwarzer, 1992). Individuals with high perceived self efficacy have high self-esteem and are optimistic. Their strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and performance in a variety of settings, including quality decision making. Once they decide to take action, they invest a great deal of effort and persist. When setbacks occur, they recover quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. They believe they are able to control challenging environmental demands by means of taking adaptive action. General self-efficacy refers to a global confidence in one's coping ability across a wide range of situations.

Cognitive consistency theory (Aronson & Metee, 1968) suggests that ethical behavior is more consistent with a self-perception of high worth. Thus, the confidence in personal

competence exhibited by high self-efficacy individuals should allow them to believe they can succeed without using unethical means.

H_{6.5}: Individuals with greater general self-efficacy will engage in more ethical intentions.

Gender

Sex role stereotypes suggest that men and women have different characteristics and learning experiences. For example, according to stereotype, men tend to be more forceful, assertive, aggressive, persistent, and decisive, whereas women tend to be more passive, submissive, dependent, emotional and indecisive. Some research suggests that women tend to hold lower expectations and tend to have lower self-confidence than men (McCarty, 1986) and that they are less likely than men to engage in self-serving behavior (Maass & Volpato, 1989). A number of studies have shown that differences in moral behavior can be partially explained by gender (Bowers, 1964; Buckley, Wiese, Harvey, 1998a; Chonko & Hunt, 1985; Ferrell & Skinner, 1988; Franke, Crown, & Spake, 1997; Jones & Gautschi, 1988; McCabe & Trevino, 1997; Ruegger & King, 1992; Whipple & Swords, 1992). Sex role socialization is often used to explain this phenomenon. Females in our society are expected to be dependent, permissive, affectionate, nurturing, respectful, warm, conforming, and obedient, whereas males are expected to be aggressive and independent. Feminine characteristics include dependence on external authority and compliance with regulations, whereas masculine characteristics include independence of thought and action. Thus, women are more prone to obey the rules of society regardless of the situation, whereas men are more apt to examine the situation in terms of how their

actions will affect others and themselves, sometimes engaging in unethical behavior if the ends appear to justify the means. In other research, Tittle and Rowe (1973) and Leming (1980) found that females were more influenced by threat of sanction than were males. They attributed this to female role socialization, in that the women feared a reduction in status and damage to their reputation for engaging in dishonest behavior.

H_{7.1}: Females will behave more ethically than males.

Academic Major

Individuals may self select into an academic major based on their personality types. McLean and Jones (1992) found that business majors in general, and Marketing students in particular, scored higher on the Machiavellian scale. Additionally, Manley (1999) suggested that Accounting majors may abide by rules and standards because their industry demands it (Generally Accepted Accounting Principles). Their tendency toward Machiavellianism and less adherence to rules may make Marketing majors behave less ethically than Accounting majors.

H_{7.2}: Accounting majors will behave more ethically than Marketing majors.

2.5 SUMMARY

The model proposed in this study recognizes that individual difference characteristics and the moral issue itself affect the ethical decision making process.

However, the primary focus of this study is determining how accountability for behaviors and outcomes affects this process. By better understanding this process, organizations can use the information to create a more ethical and more profitable work environment.

The ethical decision making model with accountability described in this chapter identifies and describes antecedents to ethical intent/behavior. The theoretical basis for each construct was described and prior empirical findings were given. Additionally, the hypotheses that will form the basis for evaluating the model were stated. The construct measures and methodology proposed for testing the model are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 3

Construct Measures

and

Research Methodology

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 demonstrated that ethics is a complicated phenomenon because we are dealing with individuals' responses to issues of right and wrong in varying circumstances. Demographics, personalities and cognitive moral development affect how individuals perceive an ethical issue. Additionally, circumstances make the outcome of an ethical issue more or less important to these individuals. Therefore, if organizations can use accountability to influence their employees to behave in a more ethical fashion, regardless of individual difference characteristics or moral intensity, then this tool will help organizations be more successful.

This chapter provides the research questions and associated hypotheses identified in the previous chapter. Measures for each model construct are identified or developed, followed by a discussion. A research plan is described, which includes the research instrument used, a discussion of the sample population, the data collection and data analysis methods.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

R₁: Does accountability have an effect on ethical intent? Is there a difference in ethical intentions for those who are accountable for outcomes only versus

those accountable for behavior only versus those accountable for behavior and outcomes?

R₂: Which accountability situation (none, outcome only, behavior only, outcome and behavior) results in more ethical behaviors?

R₃: Does moral intensity influence the ethical intentions in general and under different accountability situations?

R₄: Does ethical intent of the respondent differ the respondent's perceptions of others' ethical intentions?

R₅: Does ethical intent differ between school and work?

R₆: Does the level of cognitive moral development have an effect on ethical intentions?

R₇: Do individual differences – personality and demographics - (Type A personality, locus of control, Machiavellianism, competitiveness, general self-efficacy, gender) have an effect on ethical intentions?

3.3 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses are drawn from the ethical decision-making model and discussed in detail in the previous chapter.

H₁: In an ethical culture, individuals specifically held accountable for outcomes and behavior will engage in the least unethical behavior and those who are not held accountable at all will engage in the most unethical behavior (cheat or pay bribes).

- H₂: Moral intensity will moderate the relationship between different accountability situations and ethical intent/behavior.
- H₃: Respondents will perceive that others engage in more unethical behavior than they do.
- H₄: Respondents will perceive that unethical behavior is more likely at school than at work.
- H₅: Individuals with higher levels of cognitive moral development will behave ethically more often than those with lower levels of cognitive moral development.
- H₆: Individual differences will affect an individual's ethical intentions and behavior.
 - H_{6.1}: Individuals with Type A personalities will engage in more unethical behavior than individuals with Type B personalities.
 - H_{6,2}: Individuals with internal loci of control will behave ethically more often than those with external loci of control.
 - H_{6,3}: Individuals who are high on the Machiavellianism scale will engage in more unethical behavior than those who score low on the scale.
 - H_{6.4}: Individuals who are highly competitive will behave more unethically.
 - H_{6.5}: Individuals with greater general self-efficacy will engage in more ethical intentions.
- H₇: Demographics will influence ethical behaviors.
 - H_{7.1}: Females will behave more ethically than males.

H_{7.2}: Accounting majors will behave more ethically than Marketing majors.

3.4 ETHICAL INTENT, ACCOUNTABILITY, AND MORAL INTENSITY Ethical Intent/Behavior

Ethical intent/behavior is modeled as an endogenous variable. In the ethical decision making model, accountability, cognitive moral development, and individual difference characteristics (personality and demographics) are hypothesized to influence ethical intent/behavior. Additionally, moral intensity is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between accountability and ethical intent/behavior. In Section D of the questionnaire, the endogenous, dependent variable (ethical intent/behavior) is captured using scenarios.

Ethical scenarios are frequently employed in research because they allow researchers to present concrete decision-making situations that approximate real-life situations (Alexander & Becker, 1978; Bass, Barnett, & Brown, 1999; Weber, 1992). According to Ferris, Dulebohn, Frink, George-Falvy, Mitchell, & Matthews (1997), the scenario research methodology is based on the interpersonal simulation technique discussed by Bem (1972), which describes a particular situation and asks the participants to respond as if actually in that situation. This methodology has been used effectively in prior research (Akaah, 1989; Brenner & Molander, 1977; Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Frederickson & Mitchell, 1984; Laczniak & Inderrieden, 1987; Liden, Ferris, & Dienesch, 1988; Reidenbach, Robin, & Dawson, 1991; Stead, Worrell, Spalding, & Stead, 1987), and validity checks on this methodology have demonstrated

convergence with experimental results testing the same hypotheses (Bem, 1965; Staw, 1975). Additionally, a number of empirical studies have confirmed the linkage between attitudes or judgments concerning an action and intentions to perform the action (Bass, Barnett & Brown, 1999).

The first scenario in Section D (see Exhibit 1) describes a businessman who is asked to pay a bribe to obtain a contract. For international managers, international business transactions can force them to face the conflict between their own firm's business ethics and the realities of the local business climate. Global managers often must navigate the gray area that arises when two cultures and two sets of ethics meet. When is different just different and when is it wrong?

In United States law, the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA, 1977), Omnibus Trade and Competitiveness Act (1988), and International Anti-Bribery and Fair Competition Act (1998) state that it is illegal to pay variance bribes (paid to secure suspension of legal norms) or outright purchase bribes (paid to secure favor with a foreign employee or official). Bribery to obtain, or retain, business is a serious threat to democratic values, such as good governance and rule of law. It also goes against basic principles of fair competition, undermines the legitimacy of institutions and strikes at society, moral order and justice, as well as at the comprehensive development of peoples (Salbu, 1999; Zagaris & Ohri, 1999). The hypernorm of efficiency is violated with bribery (Donalson & Dunfee, 1999). To the extent that market participants bribe, they interfere with the market mechanism's rational allocation of resources, and it therefore damages economic efficiency. Business decisions should be made on the basis of quality, performance, service, and price, not on what has been paid in bribes (Pitman &

Sanford, 1994). Most customers, regardless of location, are looking for the best products and services at the lowest prices, backed by a stable, dependable supplier.

The United States is not alone in its fight against corruption. Most countries have laws that make it illegal for their citizens to bribe local officials (Donalson & Dunfee, 1999). There appears to be universal disdain for bribery, which is why bribes must be paid in secret, regardless of geography. It has been reported that in numerous countries where bribery and corruption are widely practiced, it is not necessarily condoned and it can have disastrous effects on the involved parties if discovered (Salbu, 1999). There is a trend by international organizations such as the Pacific Basin Economic Council, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, and the Organization of American States, to embrace legislative solutions to bribery (Salbu, 1999). Thirty four nations have agreed to ratify the Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Officials in International Business Transactions, requiring signatories to enact extraterritorial proscriptions of bribery.

Although no one in the world condones bribery, it continues to exist. Some have expressed concerns that the FCPA is paternalistic, expensive, and subjects the U.S. to a competitive disadvantage in bidding international contracts (Salbu, 1999). They view bribery as just another competitive tactic, because if corporations refuse to pay a bribe it is the same as losing business to more unscrupulous companies. Normative ethical relativism claims that when any two cultures or any two people hold different moral views of an action, both can be right (DeGeorge, 1999). Thus, those who hold this belief may maintain that what each society means by the term moral is that the action is held to be right in that society, or approved by society. International managers who are

performing business where bribes are prevalent (although never outwardly condoned) may believe that it is standard business practice and a necessary evil.

Individuals who engage in bribery often justify it in utilitarian terms (DeGeorge, 1999). They believe their actions cause more good than harm – the person receiving the bribe is better off financially, the recipient of goods is getting a quality product, the company paying the bribe stays in business and its employees do not lose their jobs. However, when a person judges an action as immoral, s/he judges the act immoral for everyone in all societies. Moral judgments of actions are universal and should be applied to all persons. Therefore, if an organization is to judge the morality of bribery, it must ask a series of questions. Should all companies bribe? Should only those companies in financial difficulty be allowed to bribe - those who can't compete legitimately? The best way to evaluate if bribery is unethical is to examine the harm done to the system of doing business, to the notion of fair competition, to the equality of opportunity, to the other companies and their employees and the integrity of the bribe taker. If the person receiving the bribe gets caught s/he could lose his/her job or even go to jail. The organization s/he represents may not be getting the best product at the best price, which ultimately hurts consumers. The employees and business of the competing firms could be hurt by this illegal activity. The organization paying the bribe has to come up with that money in a way that will not be detected by the IRS (further illegal activity). The person responsible for paying the bribe could lose his/her job or go to jail. According to this analysis, bribery is clearly objectively wrong.

In judging actions to be moral or immoral, there is a distinction between what is subjectively right and objectively right. An action is subjectively right if a person

believes that the action is moral. An action is objectively right if it conforms to the moral law (DeGeorge, 1999). A person may be mistaken about the morality of bribery – he may believe it is moral to take a bribe, even though it is actually (objectively) immoral. This is why bribery in an international context was used in this scenario and is considered unethical. Clearly, the question of whether or not to pay a bribe can be a gray area for many individuals, and thus can be manipulated by accountability and moral intensity.

The second scenario deals with the likelihood that a student will cheat on a major class project by asking a friend for help when the professor specifically told the students it was an individual project. Once again, everyone would agree to the principle that this type of behavior violates rules dishonestly and is thus considered unethical. However, in a survey of high achievers by "Who's Who", eighty percent of students surveyed admitted to cheating (Ross, 1999). Students provide a number of reasons for cheating including: (1) top employers and graduate schools require high grades; (2) everybody else cheats, so I have to just to stay competitive; (3) there is not time to study and do all the homework; (4) I have a bad professor who does not care; (5) it is just too easy to cheat, etc. (Buckley, Wiese & Harvey, 1998b). Cheating is a behavior that falls in the gray area of ethics because students believe cheating is generally wrong, yet possibly acceptable for them in specific circumstances. Thus, cheating can also be manipulated by accountability and moral intensity.

Accountability

Organizations have many formal and informal mechanisms designed to result in adherence to ethical expectations. These mechanisms may include performance

evaluations, employee handbooks, codes of ethics, and informal communication channels. Employees tend to make ethical decisions based on the explicit knowledge of the values of those to whom they are accountable (Brief, Dukerich & Doran, 1991). If they do not know the values of those to whom they are accountable, they use their own values to decide the ethical dilemma. This is consistent with Mischel's (1977) and Ickes' (1982) research suggesting that strong situations (highly structured and unambiguously scripted) shift the cause of behavior from a dispositional locus to a situational one.

Therefore, it would seem that general statements of corporate values or codes of ethics may not be sufficient to elicit the intended effects of accountability. Accountability is a complex phenomenon that involves the presence of another, identifiability of individual to behavior, evaluation of the behavior by another and reason giving on the part of the individual (Lerner and Tetlock, 1999).

The accountability construct is conceptualized as an exogenous variable and is hypothesized to have a direct causal relationship with the endogenous variable, ethical intent/behavior. Section D (see Exhibit 1) manipulates accountability in an ethical dilemma to reflect a no accountability situation (questionnaire A), an accountability for outcomes only situation (questionnaire B), an accountability for behaviors only situation (questionnaire C) and an accountability for outcomes and behaviors situation (questionnaire D). This is the only section that differs among the four questionnaires.

Recall that accountability is the perception of defending one's behavior to an audience with reward/sanction power, where these rewards/sanctions are perceived to be contingent upon audience evaluation of such behavior. In business organizations, the President of the company has the authority to promote individuals within the company or

to fire them and everyone in the organization is aware of this authority. For a student that is involved in a fraternity, a committee that investigates poor grades is perceived to have sanctioning authority that it uses against poor students. In the first questionnaire, the scenarios are presented without any explicit accountabilities. In questionnaire B, accountability for outcomes only means that the businessman must report the outcomes of the contract negotiations to the President of his company and that the student must report his grades to his fraternity's "grade committee". In questionnaire C, accountability for behavior only shows that the businessman must report the details of the negotiation process with the President of the company and the student must report the steps he took to accomplish his final grade to the fraternity's "grade committee". In questionnaire D, the businessman understands that he will have to tell the President of the company every detail of the negotiation, as well as the outcomes and the student knows that he will have to report his final grade and how he accomplished that grade to the fraternity's "grade committee". Thus, in each of the accountability situations, the individual is specifically accountable to another, he is identified with the behavior/outcome that he is responsible for explaining, and the behavior/outcome is evaluated by the audience with reward/sanction power.

Moral Intensity

Moral issues that affect those close to us tend to concern us more than those affecting individuals with whom we have little contact (Jones, 1991). This is rather intuitive and has been observed over and over. Currently, Kenya is experiencing a severe food shortage that is affecting an estimated 3.3 million people. And while Americans

view this as a horrible event, I do not hear anyone talking about this in everyday conversation. Individuals behave differently at work as well. Most of us would never think about stealing from individual strangers, yet some employees pilfer office supplies or make personal long distance calls on company phones. Fritzsche and Becker (1983) in a survey of marketing managers found that respondents acted more ethically in response to dilemmas that posed serious consequences. Based on intuitive, observed and empirical evidence, the model hypothesizes that moral intensity moderates the relationship between accountability and ethical intent/behavior.

Moral intensity was manipulated in Section D (see Exhibit 1) by stating that the company or fraternity strongly depended on the individual for its success (strong moral intensity), or was only slightly dependent on the individual for its success (weak moral intensity). In the ethical scenarios employed in this study, the morally intense acts have the potential to greatly benefit or harm many people. The individual is socially and psychologically close to his/her organization or fraternity, yet distant from the government or the professor. Strong moral intensity is covered in questions 47-50 and weak moral intensity is covered in questions 51-54.

Exhibit 1

Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is making a major push to expand operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. They need this in order to obtain profitability. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.

How likely is it that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

1. (A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

2.(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that achieving this goal is questionable this semester—they may or not make this GPA. The fraternity recently had a meeting where the President urged everyone to do whatever they could to get good grades—within the bounds of the fraternity ethical code of conduct. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student—the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

3.(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

4.(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

Exhibit 1 (cont.)

Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is considering expanding its operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. The company is quite successful, but is always looking for ways to be better. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.

How likely is it that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this business?

5.(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this business?

6.(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that the fraternity will easily achieve the goal this semester. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

7.(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

8.(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely (D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

Exhibit 1 (cont.)

- A. Questionnaire A (above) represents the "No Accountability" condition.
- B. Questionnaire B represents the "Accountability for Outcomes" condition.

After the first and third scenarios, this short paragraph was added:

Additionally, before he left on his trip, Mark's boss told him that the President of the company was watching Mark's progress and was very anxious to hear about the results upon his return.

After the second and fourth scenarios, this short paragraph was added:

Additionally, Joe knows that if he makes below a "C" in any of his classes, he will have to go before the fraternity's "grade committee" and justify the low grade.

C. Questionnaire C represents the "Accountability for Behavior" condition.

After the first and third scenarios, this short paragraph was added:

After this discussion with the government official, Mark goes back to his hotel room and calls his boss. The conversation was short, but Mark's boss did tell him that when he got back the President would like to hear every detail of the negotiation process.

After the second and fourth scenarios, this short paragraph was added:

Because the mid-semester grade report showed that Joe had a "D" in the course, he will have to report to the "grade committee" exactly what steps he took to accomplish his final grade.

D. Questionnaire D represents the "Accountability for Outcomes and Behavior" condition.

After the first and third scenarios, this short paragraph was added:

After this discussion with the government official, Mark goes back to his hotel room and calls his boss. The conversation was short, but Mark's boss did tell him that when he got back the President would like to hear every detail of the negotiations, as well as the outcome.

After the second and fourth scenarios, this short paragraph was added:

Because the mid-semester grade report showed that Joe had a "D" in the course, he will have to report to the "grade committee" to present his final grade and explain exactly how he accomplished it.

3.5 COGNITIVE MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Even though the vast majority of individuals in a society believe and abide by basic moral norms, there may be many articulated reasons behind this belief (DeGeorge, 1999). Even if everyone agrees that actions which help society survive are ethical, in our dynamic environment, there will still be moral disagreements. These disagreements may stem from differences in moral principles, differences of fact or perception of facts, differences of circumstances, or differences in the weighing of relevant values. Individuals presented with an ethical dilemma will use many different cognitive processes to resolve it.

As individuals mature and develop, their cognitive processes of moral decision making also develop, becoming more complex and sophisticated (Kohlberg, 1969). This cognitive decision making process allows individuals to make judgments as to what is right and wrong behavior. In empirical studies, cheating was found to decrease as moral judgment level increased (Trevino, 1986). In a laboratory experiment, the decision to help and the act of helping a drugged student increased with moral judgment (Kohlberg & Candee, 1984). In a study to examine student responses to an ethical dilemma involving padding expense accounts, Stratton, Flynn, and Johnson (1981) found that students who would pad the expense account used rationales consistent with the first three stages of moral reasoning. Those who were against padding the account used arguments consistent with the final three stages of moral reasoning.

In the ethical decision making model with accountability, cognitive moral development is conceptualized as an exogenous variable and is hypothesized to have a positive causal relationship with ethical intent/behavior. Section E of the questionnaire

measures Kohlberg's (1969) stages of cognitive moral development, using Rest's (1979) Defining Issues Test (see Exhibit 2). This is an objective recognition test that is concerned with how people at different developmental stages choose different statements as representing the most important issue in the moral dilemma. Three stories were used: Heinz and the Drug, Escaped Prisoner and The Doctor's Dilemma. Each story has 12 issues, which are to be rated individually on a 5-point scale ranging from "great importance" to "no importance". Next the subject ranks the four most important issues. Major indices assess the relative importance a subject gives to principled moral considerations and provide an overall index of moral judgment development. A high score indicates that the respondent gives more importance to principled (stages 5 and 6) considerations – is higher in cognitive moral development. Exhibit 2 gives an example of the types of questions used in the Defining Issues Test.

Exhibit 2

Sample Question from the Defining Issues Test

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. Below there is a list of some of these questions. If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding which car to buy?

On the left hand side check one of the spaces by each statement of a consideration. (For instance, if you think that statement #1 is not important in making a decision about buying a car, check the space on the right.)

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B Great Mu		(D) Little	(E) No	
			х	1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives. (Note that in this sample, the person taking the questionnaire did not think this was important in making a decision.)
x				2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car? (Note that a check was put in the far left space to indicate the opinion that this is an important issue in making a decision about buying a car.)
	х			3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
			х	4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200. (Note that if you are unsure about what "cubic inch displacement" means, then mark it "no importance".)
x				5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car?
			x	6. Whether the front connibles were differential. (Note that if a statement sounds like gibberish or nonsense to you, mark it "no importance".)

From the list of questions above, select the most important one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question under "Most" below. Do likewise for your 2nd, 3rd, and 4th most important choices. (Note that the top choices in this case will come from the statements that were checked on the far left-hand side – statements #2 and #5 were thought to be very important. In deciding what is the most important, a person would re-read #2 and #5, and then pick one of them as the most important, then put the other one as 2nd most important, and so on.)

MOST	2 ND MOST IMPORTANT	3 RD MOST IMPORTANT	4 TH MOST IMPORTANT
<u>5</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>

3.6 PERSONALITY

In addition to accountability, moral intensity, and the basic moral rules and norms of society, we also need to be concerned with the individual. Moral actions come from moral persons, therefore moral character and virtue are also important in determining why individuals act as they do when confronted with ethical dilemmas. The model presented here posits a direct causal relationship between personality and ethical intent/behavior. A review of the business ethics literature reveals three personality variables that have a significant effect on ethical intent/behavior: Type A/B Personality, locus of control, and Machiavellianism. Two additional personality variables believed to affect ethical intent/behavior are tested: competitiveness and general self efficacy.

Type A / B Personality

Type A behavior is an exogenous variable hypothesized to have a positive causal relationship with ethical intent/behavior. Section B of the questionnaire tests for Type A personality (see Exhibit 3), which was operationalized by 4 indicators, measured by 14 items from a Self Assessment of Type A Personality (Hellreigel, Slocum, & Woodman, 1995). The components of Type A behavior analyzed were time urgency, aggression and hostility, polyphasic behavior (multitasking when it is not necessary), and goal directedness without proper planning. These items were anchored on a 4 point scale ranging from "almost always true" to "never true".

Exhibit 3 Type A Personality Scale

- 1. I do not like to wait for other people to complete their work before I can proceed with my own.
- 2. I hate to wait in most lines.
- 3. People tell me that I tend to get irritated too easily.
- 4. Whenever possible, I try to make activities competitive.
- 5. I have a tendency to rush work that needs to be done before knowing the procedure I will use to complete the job.
- 6. Even when I go on vacation, I usually take some work along.
- 7. When I make a mistake, it is usually due to the fact that I have rushed into the job before completely planning it through.
- 8. I feel guilty for taking time off from work.
- 9. People tell me I have a bad temper when it comes to competitive situations.
- 10. I tend to lose my temper when I am under a lot of pressure at work.
- 11. Whenever possible, I will attempt to complete two or more tasks at once.
- 12. I tend to race against the clock.
- 13. I have no patience for lateness.
- 14. I catch myself rushing when there is no need.

Locus of Control

Locus of control is an exogenous variable, with internal locus of control hypothesized to have a positive causal relationship with ethical intent/behavior. Section C of the questionnaire uses Rotter's (1966) forced choice Social Reaction Inventory as a measure of locus of control (see Exhibit 4). This scale is composed of 23 pairs of forced choice expectancy statements along with 6 filler items. The score is the total number of external choices and can range from a total of 0 to 23. A high score indicates greater external locus of control.

Exhibit 4 Social Reaction Inventory

- 1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
 - b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
- 2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
 - b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
- 3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
 - b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
- 4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
 - b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard s/he tries.

Exhibit 4 (cont.)

- 5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
 - b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
- 6. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
 - b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
- 7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
 - b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
- 8. a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
 - b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.
- 9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
 - b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
- 10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
 - b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
- 11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
 - b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
- 12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
 - b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
- 13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
 - b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
- 14. a. There are certain people who are just no good.
 - b. There is some good in everybody.
- 15. a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
 - b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
- 16. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
 - b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
- 17. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.
 - b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
- 18. a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
 - b. There really is no such thing as "luck".
- 19. a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
 - b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
- 20. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
 - b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
- 21. a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
 - b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
- 22. a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
 - b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

Exhibit 4 (cont.)

- 23. a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
 - b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
- 24. a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
 - b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
- 25. a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
 - b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
- 26. a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
 - b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people if they like you, they like you.
- 27. a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
 - b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
- 28. a. What happens to me is my own doing.
 - b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
- 29. a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
 - b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is an exogenous variable hypothesized to have a negative causal relationship with ethical intent/behavior (see Exhibit 5). The Machiavellian construct was assessed in Section F of the questionnaire, using the MACH IV Scale (Christie & Geis, 1970), which has 20 items designed to assess individual differences in Machiavellianism, a personality style that involves acting in expedient ways by lying and manipulating others to secure one's own ends. Using a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from "agree strongly" to "disagree strongly", respondents indicated their level of agreement with each of the 20 statements on the scale. Scores can range from 20 to 100, with lower scores indicating greater Machiavellianism orientation.

Exhibit 5 MACH IV Scale

- 1. Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.
- 2. The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.
- 3. One should take action only when sure it is morally right.
- 4. Most people are basically good and kind.
- 5. It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.
- 6. Honesty is the best policy in all cases.
- 7. There is no excuse for lying to someone else.
- 8. Generally speaking, people won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.
- 9. All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.
- 10. When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight.
- 11. Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean moral lives.
- 12. Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.
- 13. The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught.
- 14. Most people are brave.
- 15. It is wise to flatter important people.
- 16. It is possible to be good in all respects.
- 17. Barnum was wrong when he said that there's a sucker born every minute.
- 18. It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.
- 19. People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death.
- 20. Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.

Competitiveness

Competitiveness is an exogenous variable that is hypothesized to have a negative causal relationship with ethical intent/behavior (see Exhibit 6). Competitiveness was assessed in Section L of the questionnaire, using a scale constructed by Ryckman, Hammer, Kaczor & Gold (1996). This is a 15-item measure designed to assess individual differences in competitive attitudes. Respondents indicate their level of agreement with each item, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Scores on the item can range from 15 to 75, with higher scores representing greater competitiveness.

Exhibit 6 Competitiveness Scale

- 1. I enjoy competition because it gives me a chance to discover my abilities.
- 2. Competition does not increase my awareness and understanding of myself and others.
- 3. Competition can lead to the formation of friendship with others.
- 4. Competition is not a means of motivating me to bring out the best in myself.
- 5. I enjoy competition because it tends to bring out the best in me rather than as a means of feeling better than others.
- 6. I do not find competition to be a very valuable means of learning about myself and others.
- 7. I like competition because it teaches me a lot about myself.
- 8. I value competition because it helps me to be the best that I can be.
- 9. I find competition enjoyable because it lets me express my own potentials and abilities.
- 10. Competition does not help me develop my abilities more.
- 11. Without the challenge of competition, I might never discover that I had certain potentials and abilities.
- 12. I enjoy competition because it brings me and my competitors closer together as human beings.
- 13. I enjoy competition because it helps me to develop my own potentials more fully than if I engaged in these activities alone.
- 14. I enjoy competition because it brings me to a higher level of motivation to bring the best out of myself rather than as a means of doing better than others.
- 15. Through competition, I feel that I am contributing to the well-being of others.

General Self Efficacy

General self-efficacy is an exogenous variable hypothesized to have a positive causal relationship with ethical intent/behavior (see Exhibit 7). Section M of the questionnaire measures general perceived self-efficacy, using the English version of Schwarzer's (1992) scale. The Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale is a 10-item psychometric scale that is designed to assess optimistic self-beliefs to cope with a variety of difficult demands in life. This scale explicitly refers to personal agency, i.e., the belief that one's actions are responsible for successful outcomes. Respondents indicate their level of agreement with each item, using a 4 point Likert scale ranging from "not at all true" to "exactly true".

Exhibit 7 General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale

- 1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
- 2. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
- 3. It is difficult for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
- 4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
- 5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
- 6. I cannot solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
- 7. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
- 8. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
- 9. If I am in trouble, I cannot usually think of a solution.
- 10. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.

3.7 DEMOGRAPHICS

Section A of the questionnaire captures the demographics believed to influence ethical behavior – gender and academic major. Females are hypothesized to be more positively related to ethical intent/behavior than males. Marketing majors are hypothesized to be more negatively related to ethical intent/behavior than Accounting majors. Both variables were self reported by the respondents.

3.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following section describes the research methodology followed in evaluating the ethical decision-making model with accountability. First, the research instrument, The Ethical Dilemma Questionnaire, is presented and discussed. This is followed by a discussion of sample selection, data collection and data analysis methodologies.

Research Instrument

Measures for each of the constructs discussed previously are combined to form the Ethical Dilemma Questionnaire (EDQ) instrument. The order of the measures are (A)

Demographics, (B) Type A/B Personality, (C) locus of control, (D) ethical intent/behavior, accountability and moral intensity, (E) cognitive moral development, (F) Machiavellianism, (L) competitiveness, and (M) general self-efficacy. The EDQ instrument is presented in Appendix A.

Sample Selection and Data Collection

Subjects in this study will consist of business and industrial/organizational psychology students at a large southwestern university. These students were chosen because they are representative of the individuals who are entering the business arena and facing ethical dilemmas. The questionnaires will be administered during regular class periods with the researcher present. The classes that will participate are Principles of Management, Human Resource Management and Industrial Organizational Psychology. A week before the questionnaire is to be administered, the instructor will announce that there will be an extra credit, in-class assignment the following week. On the day of the administration, the students will be asked to participate by answering the questionnaire, which should take approximately an hour. Participants will be instructed of their rights, which include (1) participation is completely voluntary, (2) students do not have to answer any questions that make them uncomfortable, (3) their responses will remain completely anonymous, and (4) after the administration of the questionnaire the students will be debriefed. Students will be randomly assigned to the four accountability groups (no accountability, accountability for outcomes only, accountability for behaviors only and accountability for outcomes and behaviors). The data will be collected using optical scanning sheets with no individual identifiers and turned into the researcher.

Sample Size

A total of 241 questionnaires were distributed and completed during the designated class time. Ten of them were determined to be unusable due to missing data, resulting in a sample size of 231 respondents. A power analysis revealed that 176 subjects in the sample should be sufficient. Using Cohen's (1977) labels and numerical values to specify the relative size of the expected effects, the estimated effect size is "medium" (omega squared = .06). A power of .80 is chosen because many methodologists agree that this is reasonable and realistic in the behavioral sciences (Cohen, 1977; Hinkle & Oliver, 1983). Forty-four subjects are required for each of the 4 treatment groups, or 176 total subjects, if a significance of .05 is used. Thus, for the analysis planned in this study, a sample size of 231 is appropriate.

Data Analysis

The analysis will consist of analysis of variance, moderated and simple regression, and t-tests. Analysis of variance will first be used to determine if there is a difference in the accountability treatment means. If there is, then moderated regression will be used to determine if moral intensity moderates the relationship between accountability and ethical intent. If there is a difference in the accountability treatments, but moral intensity is not a moderator, then moral intensity will be dropped from the model. Simple regressions and t-tests will be performed on each of the individual difference variables to determine their relationships with ethical intent.

3.9 SUMMARY

This chapter reiterates the research problem, lists the research questions and hypotheses proposed in this dissertation. It also fully describes the development of the Ethical Dilemma Questionnaire instrument used to collect data to evaluate the model proposed in chapter 2. Sample selection, data collection and analysis were also discussed. In the following chapter, the results of the planned data analysis are presented and discussed in detail.

Chapter 4

Statistical Results

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 reports results of the statistical analysis used to evaluate the data collected using the Ethical Dilemma Questionnaire (EDQ). First, descriptive statistics on the subjects who participated in the study are provided. This is followed by an analysis of the scales used in the instrument. The chapter is concluded by an examination of the data to evaluate the hypothesized relationships between constructs.

4.2 SUBJECT PROFILE

This section examines the descriptive characteristics of the participants in the study. Each characteristic is introduced and the corresponding data is presented in tabular form. The number of respondents differs between categories due to missing data on some of the questionnaires.

Gender

The respondents represent a fairly even mix of men and women. As can be seen in Table 4.1, of the 231 subjects participating in the study, 133 (57.6%) are men and 98 (42.4%) are women. The gender distribution is fairly consistent across all accountability conditions.

The average respondent age is 22.4 years and the median age of the respondents is 21 years. The youngest subjects are 19 years old and the oldest is 48 years old. As shown in Table 4.2, the largest category is the 19 to 22 years age group, comprising 76.2% of the sample. The age distribution is fairly consistent across all accountability conditions

Major

College major is categorized as Accounting, Marketing, Management,
Management Information Systems (MIS), Finance and Other. The "Other" category
represents students who are not in the college of business and comprises just over a
quarter (25.5%) of the sample. The largest category in the college of business is MIS
(20.8%), followed closely by Marketing (18.6%) and Management (14.7%). Details of
this data are in Table 4.3. In each of the accountability conditions, each college major is
represented, but to varying degrees.

Table 4.1 Gender

Questionnaire	A	В	С	D	Total
Gender					
Males:					
Frequency	38	34	32	29	133
Percent	61.3%	64.2%	56.1%	49.2%	57.6%
Females:					
Frequency	24	19	25	30	98
Percent	38.7%	35.8%	43.9%	50.8%	42.4%

Table 4.2 Age Distribution

Questionnaire	A	В	С	D	Total
Age					
Under 23:					
Frequency	43	43	44	46	176
Percent	69.4%	81.1%	77.2%	78.0%	76.2%
23 - 25:					
Frequency	7	4	7	9	27
Percent	11.3%	7.5%	12.3%	15.3%	11.7%
26 - 29:					
Frequency	6	6	5	1	18
Percent	9.7%	11.3%	8.8%	1.7%	7.8%
30 - 39:					
Frequency	4	0	0	3	7
Percent	6.5%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	3.0%
40 or Older:					
Frequency	2	0] 1	0	3
Percent	3.2%	0.0%	1.8%	0.0%	1.7%

Table 4.3 College Major

Questionnaire	A	В	С	D	Total
Major					
Accounting:					
Frequency	5	6	4	7	22
Percent	8.1%	11.3%	7.0%	11.8%	9.5%
Marketing:					
Frequency	8	12	9	14	43
Percent	12.9%	22.6%	15.8%	23.7%	18.6%
Management:					
Frequency	11	9	7	7	34
Percent	17.7%	17.0%	12.3%	11.9%	14.7%
MIS:					
Frequency	18	7	11	12	48
Percent	29.0%	13.2%	19.3%	20.3%	20.8%
Finance:					
Frequency	8	2	6	9	25
Percent	12.9%	3.8%	10.5%	15.3%	10.8%
Other:					
Frequency	12	17	20	10	59
Percent	19.4%	32.1%	35.1%	16.9%	25.5%

4.3 SCALE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Each scale used in the EDQ was selected for use in the model on the basis of the theory outlined in chapter 3. These scales are assumed content valid on the basis of the scale items and criterion valid on the basis of prior research and application. Reliability of each measurement scale used in the EDQ is evaluated based on Cronbach's alpha and discussed. The results of these analyses are reported in Table 4.4. Following this data, a discussion of the evaluative criteria for reliability is provided. The measures for each individual scale are discussed in the following section.

Table 4.4
Reliability of Scales

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Ethical Intent/Behavior	.83
Moral Intensity	
High	.66
Low	.74
Cognitive Moral Development	.59
Type A Personality	.74
Time Urgency	.92
Aggression & Hostility	.88
Polyphasic Behavior	.82
Goal Directedness	.87
Locus of Control	.68
Machiavellianism	.71
Competitiveness	.93
General Self Efficacy	.77
Gender	Single Item Measure
College Major	Single Item Measure

Evaluative Criteria

Reliability is a measure of the internal consistency of a scale and depicts the degree to which scale items indicate the common latent variable (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). In internal consistency, a measurement scale is applied to subjects at one point in time and then subsets of items within the scale are correlated. The basic form of this method uses split-halves, in which item scores obtained from the administration of a scale are split in half and the resulting half scores are correlated (Peter, 1979). Because different results may be obtained depending on how the items are split in half, Cronbach's alpha determines the mean reliability coefficient for all possible ways of splitting a set of items in half. Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly accepted formula for assessing the reliability of a measurement scale with multi-point items. Alpha is influenced by both the number of items and the correlations between them. It is assumed that items on a scale will be positively correlated because they are measuring a common entity and thus, if alpha produces a high value, the test reliability is also high. Alphas for each scale are calculated and reported in Table 4.4. A commonly used threshold value for acceptable reliability is 0.70, although this is not an absolute standard, and values below 0.70 have been deemed acceptable (Robinson, Shaver, & Wrightsman, 1991).

4.4 INDIVIDUAL SCALE ANALYSIS

Each measurement scale is discussed in terms of its reliability. Based on the performance of the scale on this criteria, a determination is made concerning the appropriateness of the scale as a measure of the hypothesized construct.

Ethical Intent/Behavior and Moral Intensity

The scenarios used in this study were the original work of the author, so there is no prior research to provide any standard data. Cronbach's alpha for the ethics scale is .83, for high moral intensity is .66, and for low moral intensity is .74. Therefore, the measures appear to be reliable in determining ethical intent/behavior and low moral intensity. The reliability for high moral intensity is a little lower that .70, but is believed to be appropriate for continued analysis.

Cognitive Moral Development

Many tests of validity have been conducted on the Defining Issues Test (DIT) (Rest, 1979). Criterion group validity shows that group differences are statistically significant, accounting for nearly 50% of the variance in DIT scores in some studies. Because this is a developmental measure, it has been demonstrated to show change in the direction of higher stages for subjects that are retested, proving longitudinal validity. Convergent-divergent correlations show that the DIT is more highly correlated to variables that are theoretically similar than to variables that are theoretically dissimilar. The DIT produces unique information not accounted for by other variables, showing discriminant validity. Finally, Davison and Robbins (1978) used scaling techniques to determine that when the items are grouped according to their theoretical stages, the averages of these groups are ordered from 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, corresponding to the theoretical sequence of cognitive moral development stages.

Reliability for the overall index of the three story version of the Defining Issues

Test is reported to be .76 (Davison and Robbins, 1978) on a large heterogeneous sample.

For this sample, Cronbach's alpha for the three story version of the DIT is .59, which is
actually higher than Trevino and Youngblood's (1990) alpha of .49. Because the DIT
test items are factorially complex and not parallel to each other, the alpha should be
considered a lower bound to, rather than an estimate of, reliability (Davison & Robbins,
1978). In conclusion, although the computed alpha is low from a psychometric
perspective, the measure will remain because of the different interpretation of alpha and
the theoretical importance of cognitive moral development to this study.

Type A Personality

The complete Type A personality scale has a reliability of .74. Type A personality is composed of four subscales: an intense sense of time urgency, inappropriate aggression and hostility, polyphasic behavior at inappropriate times, and goal directedness without proper planning. Cronbach's alpha for the subscales are .92 for time urgency, .88 for aggression and hostility, .82 for polyphasic behavior and .87 for goal directedness. All of these demonstrate that this is a reliable scale overall and that each of the subscales is reliable.

Locus of Control

Rotter (1966) reported in two separate factor analyses of the locus of control scale that all items loaded significantly on the general factor, indicating good unidimensionality of the scale. Relationships with such test variables as adjustment to

culture, social desirability, or need for approval and intelligence are reported to be low and indicate good discriminant validity. Construct validity was shown by using multiple methods to measure locus of control. Prior research by Trevino and Youngblood (1990) reported reliability of .74. Cronbach's alpha for this study is .68. This is a slightly low reliability, but because it is very close to the suggested cutoff of .70 and because of its theoretical significance to the study, this variable will remain in the analysis.

Machiavellianism

Cronbach's alpha for the MACH IV scale is .71, which is similar to Hunt and Chonko's (1984) reported alpha of .76. This should be considered a reliable measure of a person's tendency to do whatever is necessary to obtain his/her desired ends.

Competitiveness

The Personal Development Competitive Attitude scale was shown in Ryckman, et al. (1996) to have discriminant validity. The PDCA scale demonstrated considerable construct validity, yielding significant links with a variety of individual difference variables in expected theoretical directions. Also, the authors provided evidence of satisfactory internal reliability, with an alpha of .90 for the PDCA scale. Cronbach's alpha is .93 in the present study, demonstrating excellent reliability.

General Self Efficacy

The General Perceived Self-Efficacy scale has proven convergent and divergent validity (Schwarzer, 1993). It correlates positively with self-esteem and optimism and

negatively with anxiety, depression and physical symptoms of stress. Research has shown that alphas range from .75 to .91. Cronbach's alpha for this study is .77, demonstrating acceptable reliability.

Summary

Sufficient reliabilities are demonstrated for seven of the eight scales proposed for use in this study. Psychometrically speaking, cognitive moral development should be dropped from the analysis. However, it is such a theoretically important variable that the Defining Issues Test scale will be kept for analysis in this study. The model will remain as it was outlined in chapter 2 and the analysis of the model is the subject of the remainder of this chapter.

4.5 EVALUATION OF THE ETHICS MODEL WITH ACCOUNTABILITY

Accountability and Ethical Intent

The accountability construct was measured in the four different questionnaires.

As a result of incomplete or unusable questionnaires, the number of completed, usable questionnaires is not equal for the four groups, creating unequal sample sizes. There is no reason to believe that the loss of respondents is due to the experimental treatments of accountability and thus, the random assignment of treatments to the subjects has not been affected. Because equal sample sizes guarantee that each treatment condition contributes equally to the analysis of study, reduces any problems associated with violations of the assumptions of the analysis and is most efficient from the standpoint of power, I decided

to make the samples equal (Keppel, 1991). This was accomplished by randomly discarding subjects until the same number of subjects was represented in each of the four treatment conditions. This allowed for 212 usable responses, which is still above the 176 respondents required according to the power analysis.

The means and standard deviations of the four accountability groups, as well as the results of the analysis of variance are given in Table 4.5. As can be seen, both the means and the standard deviations are quite consistent across all accountability conditions. Results of the analysis of variance show a high p-value and a nonsignificant omnibus F. Thus, I assert that there are no real differences among the treatment means and that the particular sample means I have observed show differences that are reasonably accounted for by experimental error. From this information, I must reject Hypothesis 1, which states that individuals held accountable for outcomes and behaviors will report the least unethical intentions and those who are not held accountable at all will report the most unethical intentions.

Table 4.5
Overall Accountability Means and Standard Deviations

Accountability	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
None	53	19.8	5.81
Outcomes only	53	20.3	5.44
Behavior only	53	21.2	6.32
Outcomes & Behaviors	53	20.7	6.62

Analysis of Variance for Accountability Conditions

Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	P-value
Between Groups	58.43	3.00	19.48	0.53	0.66
Within Groups	7658.57	208.00	36.82		
Total	7717.00	211.00			

Moral Intensity and Ethical Intent

Moral intensity was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between accountability and ethical intent (H₂). Therefore, I need to see if there is a change in accountability (simple effects) in the high and low moral intensity conditions. Results of this analysis can be seen in Tables 4.6 and 4.7. Again, there is no difference between the four accountability conditions for either high or low moral intensity. Because the outcomes of the different component experiments within the moral intensity sets are the same, interaction is absent. That is, the effects of the accountability treatments are duplicated for each level of the moral intensity variable and thus, moral intensity does not moderate the relationship between accountability and ethical intent. Therefore, I must also reject hypothesis 2. However, it is interesting to note that there are significant main effects of moral intensity, as can be seen in Table 4.8. Both the analysis of variance and t-test show that there are significant differences between the high and low moral intensity conditions. It is suggested by the data that individuals will behave more unethically when there is high moral intensity – when unethical behavior is perceived to benefit those close to them to a greater extent.

Table 4.6
Accountability Means and Standard Deviations In High Moral Intensity Condition

Accountability	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
None	53	9.09	2.77
Outcomes only	53	9.32	2.64
Behavior only	53	9.70	3.09
Outcomes & Behaviors	53	9.64	3.24

Analysis of Variance of Accountability in High Moral Intensity Condition

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value
Between Groups	12.77	3.00	4.26	0.49	0.69
Within Groups	1803.43	208.00	8.67		
Total	1816.20	211.00			

Table 4.7
Accountability Means and Standard Deviations In Low Moral Intensity Condition

Accountability	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
None	53	10.72	3.62
Outcomes only	53	10.96	3.25
Behavior only	53	11.55	3.64
Outcomes & Behaviors	53	11.02	3.83

Analysis of Variance of Accountability in Low Moral Intensity Condition

Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	P-value
Between Groups Within Groups	19.41 2680.79	3.00 20 8 .00	6.47 12.89	0.50	0.68
Total	2700.20	211.00			

Table 4.8
Means and Standard Deviations of Moral Intensity Conditions

Moral Intensity	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
High	212	9.44	2.93
Low	212	11.06	3.58

Analysis of Variance of Moral Intensity Conditions

Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	P-value
Between Groups Within Groups	279.09 4516.41	1.00 422.00	279.09 10.70	26.08	0.00
Total	4795.50	423.00			

t-test of High and Low Moral Intensity

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
High - Low	211	-1.62	-9.46	0.00

Self versus Perception of Others and Ethical Intent

Hypothesis 3 states that respondents will perceive that others engage in more unethical behavior than they do. The results of the analysis fail to reject this hypothesis, as can be seen in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9
Means and Standard Deviations of Ethical Intent for Others and Self

Ethical Intent for:	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Others	212	8.96	2.78
Self	212	11.54	3.90

t-test of Perception of Others and Self

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Others - Self	211	-2.58	-12.31	0.00

Work versus School and Ethical Intent

It was hypothesized that the respondents would believe that unethical intentions and behaviors were more likely in a school setting (cheating on a class project) than a work setting (paying a bribe). Hypothesis 4 cannot be rejected by the results of the analysis, as can be seen in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10
Means and Standard Deviations of Ethical Intent at Work and at School

Ethical Intent at:	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Work	212	12.05	4.09
School	212	8.45	3.21

t-test of Perception of Others and Self

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Work - School	211	3.60	12.56	0.00

Cognitive Moral Development and Ethical Intent

Hypothesis 5 states that individuals with higher levels of cognitive moral development will behave more ethically than those with lower levels of cognitive moral development. Because I am focusing on the individual, level of cognitive moral development is analyzed with the ethical intent of the respondent only (not the respondent's perception of others). The data are analyzed by simple regression (see Table 4.11). The correlation between cognitive moral development and ethical intent is .133 and is significant at the .04 alpha level. A t-test was also run to determine if there was a difference between ethical intent for those with higher and lower cognitive moral development. The results do show a significant difference (alpha = .01). Therefore, I fail to reject hypothesis 5.

Table 4.11
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent	11.53	3.97
Cognitive Moral Development	29.53	15.37
Ethical Intent at Hi CMD	12.22	4.14
Ethical Intent at Lo CMD	10.91	3.72

	r	F	Significance
Model	.133	4.169	.042

t-test of Ethical Intent at Higher and Lower CMD

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Hi CMD - Lo CMD	211	1.31	2.54	0.01

Type A Personality and Ethical Intent

The original hypothesis 6.1 states that those who exhibit more Type A behavior should tend toward more unethical behavior. The results of regression and t-tests caused me to reject this hypothesis (r = .02, F = .072, alpha = .789, t-statistic = .20, alpha = .84). The scale used to determine Type A personality has four subscales: time urgency, aggression and hostility, polyphasic behavior and goal directedness. These subscales were analyzed in relation to ethical intent of the respondents. Results showed that time urgency, polyphasic behavior and goal directedness were not significant predictors of ethical intentions. However, the hostility and aggression construct does appear to be a predictor of ethical intent (see Table 4.12). Compared with respondents low in hostility and aggression, individuals high in hostility and aggression are more likely to report unethical intentions. Hypothesis 6.1 should be rejected and updated to state that those individuals with a propensity toward higher hostility and aggression will report more unethical intentions than individuals who score lower in hostility and aggression.

Table 4.12
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent	11.53	3.97
Aggression and Hostility	9.03	3.35
Ethical Intent at Hi A&H	12.55	4.02
Ethical Intent at Lo A&H	10.55	3.56

	R	F	Significance
Model	.29	15.89	.000

t-test of Ethical Intent at Higher and Lower Hostility and Aggression

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Hi A&H – Lo	211	2.00	2.91	0.00
A&H				

Locus of Control and Ethical Intent

It was hypothesized that respondents with a greater tendency toward internal locus of control would behave more ethically than those with a tendency toward an external locus of control (H6.2). The regression analysis shows that locus of control and ethical intent do significantly correlate (see Table 4.13). It is suggested by the t-test that differences between ethical intent for internal locus of control individuals is significantly different from ethical intent for external locus of control individuals. Therefore, I fail to reject hypothesis 6.2. It is interesting to note that the sample mean of 9.85 in this study appears to be quite a bit higher (more external locus of control) than those found in other studies (8.46 in Bass, Barnett & Brown, 1999 and 8.48 in Trevino & Younblood, 1990).

Table 4.13
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent	11.53	3.97
Locus of Control	9.85	3.59
Ethical Intent w/Internal	12.17	4.11
Ethical Intent w/External	10.95	3.62

	r	F	Significance
Model	.15	4.88	.028

t-test of Ethical Intent with Internal and External Locus of Control

Pair		df Me	an Diff. t	-statistic	Significance
Internal - Ex	kternal 2	211	1.21	2.28	0.02

Machiavellianism and Ethical Intent

Results of the analysis show that Machiavellianism is the strongest predictor of unethical intent in this sample. A significant correlation between Machiavellianism and an intention to behave unethically is shown in Table 4.14. Also, the difference between the means of ethical intent for individuals high and low in Machiavellianism is significant. Thus, I fail to reject hypothesis 6.3.

Table 4.14
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent	11.53	3.97
Machiavellianism	66.06	8.66
Ethical Intent w/ Hi Mach	10.26	3.48
Ethical Intent w/ Lo Mach	12.68	4.06

	r	F	Significance
Model	.395	42.281	.000

t-test of Ethical Intent with High and Low Machiavellianism

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Hi Mach – Lo Mach	211	2.42	4.84	0.00

Competitiveness and Ethical Intent

Hypothesis 6.4 states that individuals who are more highly competitive will behave more unethically. However, the results of the analyses reject this hypothesis (see Table 4.15). The regression shows no covarying relationship between competitiveness and ethical intent and the t-test does not show a difference between ethical intent for individuals with high and low competitiveness. Therefore, I reject hypothesis 6.4.

Table 4.15
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent	11.53	3.97
Competitiveness	56.29	12.48
Ethical Intent w/Hi Comp	11.73	4.00
Ethical Intent w/Lo Comp	11.31	3.99

Model Summary

	r	F	Significance
Model	.10	2.30	.131

t-test of Ethical Intent with High and Low Competitiveness

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Hi Comp - Lo Comp	211	0.42	0.80	0.43

General Self Efficacy and Ethical Intent

It was hypothesized that respondents with greater general self efficacy would report more ethical intentions than those respondents with lower general self efficacy (hypothesis 6.5). However, this turned out not to be the case (see Table 4.16). The results of the analysis clearly show that there is no direct relationship between self efficacy and ethical intentions and no difference in the ethical intentions of those high and low in self efficacy.

Table 4.16
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent	11.53	3.97
General Self Efficacy	31.88	4.40
Ethical Intent w/ Hi Eff	11.56	3.98
Ethical Intent w/ Lo Eff	11.45	4.01

Model Summary

	ſ	F	Significance
Model	.05	0.54	.465

t-test of Ethical Intent with High and Low General Self Efficacy

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Hi Eff - Lo Eff	211	0.11	.213	0.83

Gender and Ethical Intent

The results of the analysis show that females in this study were significantly more likely to report ethical intentions than males (see Table 4.17). This fails to reject hypothesis 7.1.

Table 4.17 Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent for Males	10.89	4.16
Ethical Intent for Females	12.35	3.52

t-test of Ethical Intent for Males and Females

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Males - Females	211	1.46	2.88	0.00

College Major and Ethical Intent

Hypothesis 7.2 states that Accounting majors will behave more ethically than Marketing majors. The results of the analysis cause me to reject this hypothesis as shown in Table 4.18. However, the power was significantly reduced because there were only 22 Accounting majors and 43 Marketing majors in the sample. There does appear to be a difference and in the appropriate direction, but the alpha is not close to a significance level of .05. Therefore, hypothesis 7.2 is rejected.

Table 4.18
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ethical Intent for Accounting	12.27	3.89
Ethical Intent for Marketing	11.30	3.83

t-test of Ethical Intent for Accounting and Marketing Majors

Pair	df	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	Significance
Acct - Mkt	63	.97	.62	0.34

Familywise Error Rate

A problem resulting from the performance of a series of analytical comparisons is the fact that with more comparisons comes a greater risk of making type I errors when the null hypothesis is true (Keppel, 1991). In the above comparisons, each individual comparison was evaluated at α =.05. The probability of making a type I error is .05 for each of the separate comparisons. However, the type I familywise error rate considers the probability of making one or more type I errors in the entire set of comparisons. Based on the hypotheses of this study, the familywise error rate is .40. Obviously, this would be a difficult threshold to overcome for any researcher. This is why it is common to evaluate planned comparisons based on each individual comparison, not the familywise error rate. Planned comparisons are generated with specific hypotheses based in theory and thus support strong inferences. However, a more conservative approach is to use the Bonferroni test to correct for familywise error. I chose an acceptable familywise error rate of α =.10, which means that the per comparison error rate is α =.01. Of the hypotheses that I failed to reject earlier, only the influence of locus of control falls outside of this error rate and thus I may wish to suspend judgment on this individual difference characteristic.

4.6 FACTOR ANALYSIS

The individual difference characteristics that were examined in relation to reported ethical intentions were factor analyzed to determine if there are underlying constructs that may help explain unethical behavior. The correlation matrix of these variables is shown in Table 4.19. Exploratory factor analysis using promax rotation was performed. With 212 observations for 5 variables, I am in accordance with Nunnally's (1978) recommended ratio of subjects to items of 10 to 1. Only those factors with

eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted. The promax rotated maximum likelihood estimates of factor loadings are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.19
Correlation Matrix of Individual Difference Characteristics

	Host. & Agg.	LOC	Mach.	Comp.	Eff.
Host. & Agg.	1.000				
LOC	0.155	1.000			
Mach.	-0.247	-0.138	1.000		
Comp.	0.011	-0.102	-0.005	1.000	
Eff.	-0.082	-0.235	-0.067	0.307	1.000

Table 4.20
Rotated Maximum Likelihood Estimates of Factor Loadings (n=212, m=3 factors)

	F_1	F ₂
Hostility & Aggression	0.188	0.470
Locus of Control	-0.324	0.730
Machiavellianism	0.081	-0.457
Competitiveness	0.390	0.096
General Self Efficacy	0.770	-0.269

The first underlying factor is interpreted as Efficacy and the second appears to represent Angry Victims. Respondents appear to believe that others control what happens to them, so they must take whatever actions are necessary to achieve their end goals. The respondents who scored high in Machiavellianism and hostility and aggression, with an external locus of control were the ones most likely to report unethical intentions, thus this second factor may be instrumental in understanding why individuals engage in unethical acts.

4.7 VARIANCE ACCOUNTED FOR IN MODEL

To determine the importance of the relationships between ethical intent and the significant independent variables, I calculated the proportion of variance accounted for.

This communicates the proportional improvement in the understanding of differences in ethical intent that occurs when considering the relationship with the independent variables. The proportion of total variance in ethical intent that is systematic, or that is correlated with changes in the dependent variables was calculated as eta squared. This is shown in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21
Proportion of Variance Accounted For

Dependent	Eta
Variable	Squared
Cognitive Moral Development	.091
Hostility/Aggression	.152
Locus of Control	.088
Machiavellianism	.340
Gender	.033

Table 4.21 shows that Machiavellianism and hostility/aggression account for a large proportion of the variance in ethical intent. Cognitive moral development and locus of control each account for approximately nine percent of the variance and gender accounts for only three percent of the variance. Thus, Machiavellianism and hostility/aggression have a strong relationship with ethical intent and are important variables when studying this construct.

4.8 SUMMARY

The statistical results from the analysis of the measurement scales and the Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability were reported in this chapter. All measurement scales were evaluated for reliability on the basis of Cronbach's alpha.

Seven of the eight scales were found to be reliable. Cognitive moral development had a

low alpha, but was used anyway because of its theoretical significance. Based on this analysis the hypotheses were addressed.

An initial analysis of variance was run on the ethical intentions for the four accountability treatments. I found no significant differences between the no accountability, accountability for outcomes, accountability for behaviors and accountability for outcomes and behaviors treatment conditions. Due to the lack of a main effect, there could be no interaction effect with moral intensity. However, moral intensity did have a significant main effect on ethical intentions. Respondents believed that they were more ethical than others and they believed that individuals were more likely to engage in unethical acts at school than at work. Analysis revealed significant relationships between cognitive moral development, hostility and aggression (subscale of Type A personality), locus of control, Machiavellianism and gender with ethical intent. The hypothesized relationships between competitiveness, general self efficacy and college major were not statistically significant. A summary of the results is in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Summary of Results

H ₁ :	In an ethical culture, individuals specifically held accountable for outcomes and behavior will engage in the least unethical behavior and those who are not held accountable at all will engage in the most unethical behavior (cheat or pay bribes).	Reject
H ₂ :	Moral intensity will moderate the relationship between different accountability situations and ethical intent/behavior.	Reject
	High moral intensity (organization strongly needs help of individual) will lead to reporting of more unethical behavior.	Fail to Reject
H ₃ :	Respondents will perceive that others engage in more unethical behavior than they do.	Fail to Reject
H4:	Respondents will perceive that unethical behavior is more likely at school than at work.	Fail to Reject
H ₅ :	Individuals with higher levels of cognitive moral development will behave ethically more often than those with lower levels of cognitive moral development.	Fail to Reject
H _{6.1} :	Individuals with Type A personalities will engage in more unethical behavior than individuals with Type B personalities.	Reject
	Individuals with high levels of hostility and aggression will report more unethical intentions that those with low levels of hostility and aggression.	Fail to Reject
H ₆₂ :	Individuals with internal loci of control will behave ethically more often than those with external loci of control.	Fail to Reject
H _{6.3} :	Individuals who are high on the Machiavellianism scale will engage in more unethical behavior than those who score low on the scale.	Fail to Reject
H _{6.4} :	Individuals who are highly competitive will behave more unethically.	Reject
H _{6.5} :	Individuals with greater general self-efficacy will engage in more ethical intentions.	Reject
H _{7.1} :	Females will behave more ethically than males.	Fail to Reject
H _{7.2} :	Accounting majors will behave more ethically than Marketing majors.	Reject

What I find is that my operationalization of accountability to people within one's own organization does not appear to have a strong influence on ethical intentions. On the other hand, aspects of the moral issue itself (moral intensity), environment (school/work) and individual differences do influence ethical intentions. This suggests that a better operationalization of accountability, including extraordinarily strong accountabilities within the organization or accountabilities outside of the organization may be required to alter individual's ethical intentions. Further implications of these results, as well as limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on a discussion of the results from chapter 4. It begins with overall conclusions and is followed by implications. Limitations of the findings and potential criticisms of the study are given next. The chapter is concluded by identifying directions for future research.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Ethical Decision-making Model with Accountability

Six of the twelve hypothesized relationships proposed in the Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability cannot be rejected by the results of the analysis.

These hypotheses are H₃, H₄, H₅, H_{6.2}, H_{6.3}, and H_{7.1}. The results of the analysis for hypothesis 3 suggest that respondents do perceive others as being more unethical than they are. The results of the analysis for hypotheses 4 suggests that respondents perceive that everyone has greater ethical intentions in a work setting than at school. The results also indicate that characteristics of the individual influence ethical intentions. Individuals in this sample report greater ethical intentions if they are higher in cognitive moral development, have a more internal locus of control, have a lower level of Machiavellianism and are female.

Two of the hypotheses were rejected, but could be modified to provide meaningful contributions. Moral intensity was hypothesized to moderate the relationship

between accountability and ethical intent (H₂). Because there was no difference in the four accountability conditions, this hypothesis was rejected. However, moral intensity did have a direct effect on ethical intent. When the individuals were socially and psychologically close to the organization/fraternity and distant from the government or professor (high moral intensity), they were more likely to report unethical intentions. Hypothesis 6.1 suggests that individuals who score higher on an overall measure of Type A personality will behave less ethically than individuals who score lower on this scale. This hypothesis was rejected. However, in this sample, those who scored higher on the hostility and aggression subscale of Type A personality are more likely to report less ethical intentions than those who scored lower on this subscale. Therefore, the model and future research should reflect these modifications.

Four of the hypothesized relationships in the model were rejected completely. The individual difference characteristics that did not appear to have an effect on ethical intentions were competitiveness (H_{6.4}) and general self-efficacy (H_{6.5}). Additionally, the data suggest that there is no difference between the reported ethical intentions of Accounting and Marketing majors (H_{7.2}). However, this result may have been insignificant due to a lack of power. Finally, the primary hypothesis of this study – that individuals accountable for outcomes and behaviors would report more ethical intentions than those who were not accountable at all – was rejected.

Overall Conclusions

Based on the results of the analysis, the Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability was not supported. However, this study does give insights into ethical intentions. The results clearly show that characteristics of the moral issue (moral intensity), environment (school/work) and individual differences do influence ethical intentions. Therefore, it substantiates the claim that multiple factors lie behind ethical behavior.

This study responds to the need for empirical validation of relationship theories being used to explain accountability and ethical behaviors (Brass, Butterfield & Skaggs, 1999; Frink & Klimoski, 1998) and is only a first step in examining how accountability influences ethical behavior. The absence of any difference in ethical intentions between accountability conditions in this study points to further investigation into the relationship aspect of ethical decision-making. Also, this and future research in this area will help to clarify why individuals behave as they do when faced with ethical dilemmas and provide information to organizations on how to create more ethical, and therefore successful, organizations. Specific implications of the findings are discussed in the following section.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Multidimensional Aspect of Ethical Decision-making

Most of the models identified in chapter 2 show that ethical decision-making is influenced by many different factors. Consequently, one of the goals of this research was to examine ethical decision-making using a number of variables. The results showed that individuals' thought processes (cognitive moral development), personalities (locus of control, hostility and aggression, Machiavallianism), and gender influence how they respond to ethical dilemmas. I also saw that the salience of the moral issue (moral

intensity) influenced how individuals responded to ethical dilemmas. Finally, the environmental context (work/school) made a difference in ethical decision-making. These results suggest that future research must continue to use a multidimensional approach to studying ethical decision-making.

One dimension of ethical decision-making is individual difference characteristics. The findings here fail to reject the notion that individual differences are important in understanding ethical decision-making. Female respondents at the principled level of cognitive moral development, with low hostility and aggression, an internal locus of control, and low Machiavellianism were more likely to report ethical intentions. Sex role socialization is a common explanation for why women exhibit greater moral behavior. However, because sex roles tend to describe women using characteristics such as passive, dependent, conforming and obedient, it is the characteristics that will be useful to businesses that want to create a more ethical environment, not the gender. The significant findings here have potential implications for the selection and training of human resources. Organizations can test for cognitive moral development, hostility and aggression, locus of control, and Machiavellianism when selecting individuals for positions requiring ethical decision-making. A concern in using these characteristics in selection is that certain scores may label individuals as unethical, even when they have not exhibited any unethical behavior. This could be as controversial as excluding individuals based on integrity tests. Perhaps a better use for measuring these individual difference characteristics is in directing training resources. For organizations that are cultivating an ethical culture, training could be used to increase cognitive moral

development, decrease inappropriate hostility and aggression, assist employees in developing a more internal locus of control, and lower Machiavellianism.

Penn & Collier (1985) suggest that individuals, through development and exercise, can increase their capacity for principled or post-conventional reasoning. The capacity for principled moral reasoning can be developed using a focused, systematic and long-term educational effort. By understanding that cognitive developmentalists view morality in terms of recognizably distinct patterns of reasoning about justice, which develop in an invariant sequence from the concrete and egocentric to the abstract and universal, we can see how it is possible to "train" employees in higher levels of cognitive moral development. The research shows that the development of moral judgment requires and builds upon the development of logical and scientific reasoning. Individuals can develop the ability to think abstractly and hypothetically, which allows them to question their current sense of justice and morality and listen more closely to the many voices of society. Overall, theory and research suggest that human beings possess the rational capabilities necessary to achieve the goal of a more peaceable and just society. Organizations, including universities, need to use this knowledge to develop training programs that will enhance the ethical climate, thereby increasing the level of societal success.

Obviously, ethics education is difficult because individuals face ethical dilemmas with their own moral baggage. It is not that they are not immoral or amoral, but rather moral beings who can be helped to think through moral issues. Buckley, Wiese and Harvey (1998b) identified "Grade Instrumentality" as a reason that students cheat in school. Here the respondents were more interested in achieving the goal of good grades,

leading to staying in good standing in school, getting into a quality graduate school, or getting a good job, as opposed to the means to achieve the goal. Machiavellians tend to use a rational / utilitarian rather than an emotional view of their interactions with others (Christie & Geis, 1970). These individuals are resistant to social pressures and are cognitively oriented. Therefore, if trainers are aware of an individual's level of Machiavellianism, s/he can focus on the technical aspect of ethics in order to approach moral issues intelligently. The trainer needs to demonstrate to a high Machiavellian that high moral standards lead to higher success, thereby appealing to this person's end goals.

Trainers can also examine employees' locus of control. Buckley, Wiese and Harvey (1998b) identified "Attributing Blame" as a second factor which leads to cheating among students. These students believed that the world is an unfair place. With other students cheating and apathetic professors, they had to cheat just to keep up. These individuals feel that they do not have much control over their own lives – they have a more external locus of control. Trainers need to make these individuals feel a part of a community, involve them in promoting ethical behavior in the organization. Individuals can be taught that they do have control and that they can make a difference.

A second dimension of ethical decision-making that has managerial implications is moral intensity. This study shows that when there is strong potential harm to individuals that are psychologically close to the respondent and when there is perceived social pressure to do what is necessary to take care of these individuals, the respondent is more likely to report that s/he would engage in objectively unethical intentions to assist those close to him/her. In this situation, the agent believes that his/her actions are responsible for the successful outcome of the organization. The agency costs associated

with losing a large contract or failing to make the grade are difficult to overcome. Fritzsche and Becker (1984) suggested that most corporate managers typically rely on utilitarian reasoning for ethical decision-making. They concern themselves with the perceived consequences of their actions. According to Weber (1996), individuals are concerned with physical harm first, economic harm second and psychological harm third. Therefore, if the respondents perceived bribing a public official to obtain a vital contract as creating economic benefit to their organization, the potential psychological harm of breaking a rule may not have been as salient an issue in the decision-making process. Here, the magnitude of consequences, the sum of benefits for the unethical act would be greater than the sum of harms. The social consensus component of moral intensity also appears to influence the ethical decision-making process. Tetlock (1985, 1992) suggested that individuals are driven by a need to find approval and status, which may supercede organizational objectives (Frink & Ferris, 1998). Trevino (1986) suggested that most U.S. managers are in Kohlberg's (1969) conventional level of cognitive moral development, where individuals' understanding of moral norms and rules are learned from referent others. Therefore, if the respondents perceived that their referent others would support their decision to cheat for the betterment of the fraternity, or pay the bribe in order to help the organization survive, they would be more likely to report engaging in this unethical behavior.

Understanding the effects of moral intensity could influence the way corporate trainers address ethical decision-makers. Efforts to train managers toward ethical decision-making and behavior could include a focus on how managers frame an ethical decision, especially in terms of the perceived type of harm (physical, economic, or

psychological) and the magnitude of consequences. Obviously, in real life ethical dilemmas there are multiple variables that influence decision-makers. Ethical dilemmas are difficult to solve because they are not black and white issues – ethicality is not a categorical variable. It is difficult to determine what is "right" and what is "wrong" because there are many shades of gray. Therefore, we need to train decision-makers to be more aware of the negative consequences, social costs, and spillover effects of ethical decisions, so that their decisions are based on a more complete picture. Additionally, the significance of perceived social consensus implies that we can improve ethical decision-making in organizations by informing or reminding ethical decision-makers of the social consensus regarding ethical issues. This has to be more than a code of ethics and more than just words – the underlying culture of the organization, starting with its leadership, has to live by an internalized ethical code. If these objectives can be accomplished, then the agency costs may be reduced and more objectively ethical decisions may be made.

Accountability

Recall that accountability requires an individual to defend his/her actions to an audience with reward/sanction power, where the reward/sanction is perceived as dependent on the evaluations of the actions by the audience. The scenarios used in this study have the respondents being accountable to an audience within their own organizations, the audience views are implied by reference to codes of ethics, and sanctions are not specifically defined. Due to the lack of detail in these scenarios, it is believed that accountability was not properly operationalized in this study. It appears that the respondents did not pick up on the implications of an ethical environment and

sanctions for unethical behavior, which is why there is no difference in reported ethical intent between the four accountability treatment groups. Although scenarios have proven useful in prior research (Akaah, 1989; Bass, Barnett, & Brown, 1999; Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Laczniak & Inderrieden, 1987; Reidenbach, Robin, & Dawson, 1991; Stead, Worrell, Spalding, & Stead, 1987; Weber, 1992). Scenarios also are just pieces of paper which are supposed to represent real situations. Accountability is a complex construct and individuals may have a difficult time mentally placing themselves in an accountability situation when faced with an ethical dilemma written on a piece of paper.

I believe that the failure to properly operationalize accountability is why the results of the study caused me to reject the hypothesis that accountability influences ethical intentions. However, I continue to agree with the theoretical reasoning presented in chapter 2. Ethics not only concerns normative evaluations, but also deals with perceptions of how to act on a day-to-day basis. Generally, managerial success in organizations is determined by the manager's ability to achieve company goals (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). In the United States, the primary goal of most organizations continues to be based solely on profit. Therefore, actions that do not increase profits (including ethical decisions) may be perceived as actions which lead to failure and which will not be popular among other members of the organization. Accountability theory states that if actors think they know the views of their audience, a desire for social approval will cause them to conform to those views (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). Additionally, because most managers are in the conventional level of cognitive moral development (Trevino, 1986), interpersonal relationships and social approval are considered when they face an ethical dilemma. In the scenarios used in this study, the views of the President and the Grade

Committee were implied with codes of ethics. However, it would be reasonable for the respondents to believe that these audiences, being a part of the organization, would be more interested in the organization's success than in its members obeying a code of ethics.

Strong relationships are high in cooperation, trust, intimacy, empathy, reciprocity, and emotional intensity (Granovetter, 1973). Multiplexity refers to multiple relationship types between two individuals, such as friend and co-worker (Burt, 1983). An actor making an ethical decision would be less likely to harm a person with whom s/he had a strong and multiplex relationship, even at the expense of organizational norms (Brass, et al., 1998). If this actor were accountable to multiple audiences, s/he would most likely conform to the audience with whom s/he had the most positive relationship (Frink & Klimoski, 1998) — with a peer group over someone farther removed. Therefore, even though the President of a company and an oversight committee of a fraternity may have status, the stronger and multiplex relationships that the actors have with their peers may be more important, causing them to report engaging in an unethical decision to help those closest to them.

A source of variance in the ethical decision-making process is a difference in teleological evaluation. As was stated in the moral intensity section, Fritzsche and Becker (1984) suggested that most corporate managers typically rely on utilitarian reasoning for ethical decision-making. However, respondents may differ in how they perceive the probability and desirability of certain consequences. The scenarios used in this study did not provide a clear probability of being caught (lying to the President or Grade Committee is always an option), nor did it describe exact sanctions associated with

unethical behavior. In order to be effective, the sanctions of violating ethical codes must be greater than the potential rewards. In order for an individual to be held accountable for his/her decision, there must be a clear link from that individual to the decision. Also, an absence of sanctions provides an opportunity for unethical behavior without regard for consequences. Therefore, the implication that an employee may be fired for violating ethical standards may not have been as strong as a perceived potential reward of success derived from the profits the organization would receive due to the contract. Similarly, the implication that the member of the fraternity could be ejected for cheating may not have been as strong as the social rewards associated with helping the fraternity meet its grade goals.

5.4 LIMITATIONS

This study is limited in terms of generalizabilty. Subjects used in this study are all students from the southwest – 75% of whom are in the business college. As a result, the sample may not be representative of the United States population, or even business employees in the United States. However, most of these students will go on to work for organizations in various locations, and thus may be generalizable to employees in business related fields.

As in all ethics research, the problem of social desirability bias may have influenced the results. If respondents recognize that the questionnaire is trying to determine if they will act ethically or not, they may have a tendency to respond in a culturally appropriate and acceptable manner, instead of answering honestly. I tried to minimize this by emphasizing that the questionnaire was completely anonymous.

The data in this study was based on a self-reported questionnaire with ethical scenarios. Therefore, I cannot say that intentions based upon written scenarios is the same as behaviors based on actual situations. This relationship can be expected to vary considerably (Hunt & Vitell, 1986). As individuals are immersed in an actual situation, they will come to recognize a multitude of outcomes resulting from their decision and will base this decision on what they view as the most positive outcome. Also, actual ethical dilemmas have a number of situational constraints, which may limit the alternatives of the decision-maker. The self-report survey-based nature of this study limits our ability to predict actual ethical behavior. However, this methodology has been used effectively in prior research (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Frederickson & Mitchell, 1984; Liden, Ferris, & Dienesch, 1988), and validity checks on this methodology have demonstrated convergence with experimental results testing the same hypotheses (Bem, 1965; Staw, 1975).

5.5 SUMMARY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The theoretical reasoning behind the model proposed in this study was not damaged by the lack of significant results concerning accountability and ethical intentions. Future research should continue to look into the accountability – ethical intentions relationship, with the goal of creating the ideal accountability conditions to promote the greatest amount of ethical behavior. New research needs to vary the scenarios from weak to strong situations. The stronger situations would have very specific ethical expectations of the evaluative audience. They should also make it clear that there is no way to hide the fact that the actor is the one responsible for the unethical

act. The strong scenarios would also have very clear and salient rewards and sanctions, so that the decision-maker would know that the sanctions associated with unethical behavior are far greater than any reward. Another potential variable in the scenarios is the audience. In the scenarios used here, the audience and the actor were members of the same organization. It could make a difference if the audience was a government official in the bribery case or the professor or ethics board in the cheating case. There is the possibility that, regardless of stated ethical expectations, the actor may perceive any member of his/her own organization as having a greater desire for organizational success than ethical behavior. Cynicism and mistrust of our ethical environment tend to be high among students and this may translate into a belief that words about ethics are not as powerful as deeds that appear to increase success.

Future research in this area should also take into consideration the perceptions of the respondents. One area of interest concerns the perceived difference in ethical intentions at work and at school. Why do student respondents believe that individuals at school are more unethical than individuals at work? Do they believe that unethical behavior is more serious at work than at school? Are they more likely to be caught at work and do they perceive stronger ramifications? Do they believe that cheating at school is not really unethical because they are a consumer, but cheating at work is unethical because they are paid for the service? Finally, do they believe that they can cheat at school, but once they get to work they will no longer engage in unethical behavior? If so, again, what is it that makes the difference? Perhaps if I can understand what would cause these student respondents to cease unethical behavior once at work, we

can make their perceptions a reality and curb their actual unethical behavior once they enter the workforce.

Respondents' perceptions of the type of harm (physical, economic or psychological) produced by an unethical act and its magnitude would be beneficial to know. Additionally, which values are most important to the respondents? Is it more important to obey the fairness rules of society (don't cheat and don't bribe) or is it more important to not let co-workers, friends and family down by failing the class or not obtaining the contract? Where are the primary loyalties of the respondents? These primary loyalties and perceptions of the greater ethical act may prevent the actor from recognizing all of the consequences of the action. Those high in Machiavellianism, believing the ends justify the means, may not actually believe that cheating and bribery are unethical, because in the end they are helping those who are close to them. If this is the case, ethics training may be geared to demonstrating all of the consequences and individuals affected by decisions to ethical dilemmas. This research may lead to information that will allow us to train employees to view an ethical dilemma from many different frames of reference and to truly evaluate it in terms of the greatest good.

Once the new scenarios and perceptual questions are validated among a student population, additional study will be required. The updated Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability will demonstrate the importance of relationships and referent others in ethical decision-making, as well as moral intensity and individual difference characteristics. This model will need to be further validated by extending the sample to include business people across the country and in various industries. By testing the model with different samples, we will gain better insights as to how accountability, moral

intensity and individual differences influence ethical decision-making. With better understanding of the ethical decision-making process, organizations can use this information to create a more ethical culture, and ultimately, greater success.

Over the past few decades, corporate codes of ethics have proliferated. These codes have proved useful in informing employees about legal requirements of the firm, addressing specific concerns, such as bribery, and serving as guidelines for accepted practice within the organization. However, unethical acts continue to occur, as is evidenced by the recent recall of Firestone tires and the 103 deaths that forced it. Is everyone that makes an unethical decision an unethical person, or are there circumstances which contribute to their actions? It is this question that makes the Ethical Decision-Making Model with Accountability significant to the business community. The moral evaluation of individuals and of their actions in business transactions is one level of business ethics investigation. A corporation can only be as ethical as the people who own, manage, and work for it; but its structure, organization, and practices can be more or less conducive to ethical activity (DeGeorge, 1999). Research has already shown that ethics do pay (Hosmer, 1994). "Corporate excellence is not identical with corporate morality... But it is doubtful that corporate excellence is compatible with corporate immorality, or with a corporate culture that condones or encourages its employees to act either immorally or amorally in their roles for the firm" (De George, 1999, p. 213). By understanding the dynamics of how ethical decisions are made, researchers can assist organizations in creating a more ethical environment. Information gleaned from this research can lead to selection tools and training content that will enhance ethical decision-making in organizations, ultimately allowing them to be more successful.

References

- Adelberg, S. & Batson, C. D. (1978). Accountability and helping: When needs exceed resources. *Personality and Social Psychology*, 36(4): 343-350.
- Akaah, I. P. (1989). Differences in research ethics judgments between male and female marketing professionals. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 8: 375-381.
- Alexander, C. S. & Becker, H. J. (1978). The use of vignettes in survey research. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 42: 93-104.
- Arlow, P. & Ulrich, T. A. (1980). Business ethics, social responsibility and business students: An empirical comparison of Clark's study. *Akron Business and Economic Review*, 11(3): 17-23.
- Aronson, E. & Mettee, D. R. (1968). Dishonest behavior as a function of differential levels of induced self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 9: 121-127.
- Ayres, C. E. (1918). The nature of the relationship between ethics and economics.

 Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change.

 Psychological Review, 84: 191-215.
- Barry, V. (1979). Moral Issues in Business. New York: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Bass, K., Barnett, T., & Brown, G. (1999). Individual difference variables, ethical judgments, and ethical behavioral intentions. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 9(2): 183-205.

- Baucus, M. S. & Baucus, D. (1997). Paying the piper: An empirical examination of longer-term financial consequences of illegal corporate behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40: 129-151.
- Baucus, M. S. & Near, J. P. (1991). Can illegal corporate behavior be predicted? An event history analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(1): 9-36.
- Bauman, Z. (1993). Postmodern ethics. Oxford: Basil Blackwell Publishers.
- Baumhart, R. C. (1961). How ethical are businessmen? *Harvard Business Review*, 39(4): 6-8.
- Beauchamp, T. L. & Bowie, N. E. (1983). *Ethical Theory and Business*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Becker, G. (1976). The economic approach to human behavior. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Bem,, D. J. (1972). Self-perception theory. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, New York: Academic Press.
- Bersoff, D. M. (1999). Why good people sometimes do bad things: Motivated reasoning and unethical behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25(1): 28-.
- Bommer, M., Gratto, C., Gravander, J. & Tuttle, M. (1987). A behavioral mode of ethical and unethical decision making. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 6: 265-280.
- Bowers, W. J. (1964). Student dishonesty and its control in college. New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University.
- Brady, N. F. (1985). A Janus-headed model of ethical theory: Looking two ways at business/society issues. *Academy of Management Review*, 7: 568-576.

- Brass, D. J., Butterfield, K. D., & Skaggs, B. C. (1998). Relationships and unethical behavior: A social network perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(1): 14-33.
- Breaugh, J. & Klimoski, R. J. (1977). Choice of a group spokesman in bargaining:

 Member or non-member. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 19:

 325-336.
- Breaugh, J., Klimoski, R. J. & Shapiro, M. (1980). Third party characteristics and intergroup conflict resolution. *Psychological Reports*, 47: 447-451.
- Brenner, S. N. & Molander, E. A. (1977). Is the ethics of business changing? Harvard Business Review, 55(1): 57-71.
- Brief, A. P., Dukerich, J. M., & Doran, L. I. (1991). Resolving ethical dilemmas in management: Experimental investigations of values, accountability, and choice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 21(5), 380-396.
- Buckley, M. R., Wiese, D. S., Frink, D. D., Howard, J. L., Berkson, H., Ferris, G. R. & Mobbs, T. (in press). Ethical issues in human resources systems. In M. P. Miceli and J. Near (Eds.), *Human Resource Management Review*.
- Buckley, M. R., Harvey, M. G. & Beu, D. S. (2000). The role of pluralistic ignorance in the perception of unethical behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 23(4): 35-365.
- Buckley, M.R., Wiese, D.S. & Harvey, M.G. (1998a). An investigation into the dimensions of unethical behavior. *Journal of Education for Business*, 73(5): 284-290.
- Buckley, M.R., Wiese, D. S. & Harvey, M. G. (1998b). Identifying factors which may influence unethical behavior. *Teaching Business Ethics*, 2: 71-84.

- Burt, R. S. (1983). Distinguishing relational contents. In R. S. Burt & M. J. Minor (Eds.), *Applied Network Analysis* (pp. 35-74), Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Chonko, L. B. & Hunt, S. D. (1985). Ethics and marketing management: An empirical examination. *Journal of Business Research*, 13: 339-359.
- Christie, R. & Geis, F. L. (1970). Studies in Machiavellianism. New York: Academic Press.
- Cohen, J. (1977). Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences. New York:

 Academic Press.
- Cressey, D. R. & Moore, C. A. (1983). Managerial values and codes of ethics. *California Management Review*, 25(4): 53-77.
- Cummings, L. L. & Anton, R. J. (1990). The logical and appreciative dimensions of accountability. In S. Sivastva, D. Cooperrider and Associates (Eds.), *Appreciative management and leadership* (pp. 257-286). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Davison, M. L. & Robbins, S. (1978). The reliability and validity of objective indices of moral development. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, 2(3): 391-401.
- DeGeorge, R. R. (1982). Business Ethics. New York: Macmillan Publishing.
- DeGeorge, R. T. (1999). Business Ethics. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Desruisseaux, P. (1999). Cheating is reaching epidemic proportions worldwide, researchers say. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 45(34): A45.
- Donalson, T. & Dunfee, T. W. (1999). When ethics travel: The promise and peril of global business ethics. *California Management Review*, 41(4): 45-63.
- Dubinsky, A. J. & Loken, B. (1989). Analyzing ethical decision making in marketing.

 Journal of Business Research, 19: 83-107.

- Enderle, G. (1997). A worldwide survey of business ethics in the 1990s. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 16: 1475-1483.
- Fandt, P. M. & Ferris, G. R. (1990). The management of information and impressions:

 When employees behave opportunistically. *Organizational Behavior and Human*Decision Processes, 45: 140-158.
- Ferrell, O. C. & Gresham, L. G. (1985). A contingency framework for understanding ethical decision making in marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 49: 87-96.
- Ferrell, O. C., Gresham, L. G. & Fraedrich, J. (1989). A synthesis of ethical decision models for marketing. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 9: 55-64.
- Ferrell, O. C. & Skinner, S. J. (1988). Ethical behavior and bureaucratic structure in marketing research organizations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25: 103-109.
- Ferris, G. R., Dulebohn, J. H., Frink, D. D., George-Falvy, J., Mitchell, T. R. & Matthews, L. M. (1997). Job and organizational characteristics, accountability, and employee influence. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 9(2): 162-175.
- Ferris, G. R., & Judge, T. A. (1991). Personnel/human resource management: A political influence perspective. *Journal of Management*, 17: 447-488.
- Ferris, G. R., Mitchell, T. R., Canavan, P. J., Frink, D. D. & Hopper, H. (1995).

 Accountability in human resources systems. In G.R. Ferris, S.D. Rosen, and D.T.

 Barnum (Eds.), *Handbook of human resource management* (pp. 175-196). Oxford:

 Blackwell Publishers.
- Fishbein, M & Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

- Ford, R. C. & Richardson, W. D. (1994). Ethical decision making: A review of the empirical literature. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 13: 205-221.
- Franke, G. R., Crown, D. F. & Spake, D. F. (1997). Gender differences in ethical perceptions of business practices. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82: 920-934.
- Frederickson, J. & Mitchell, T. R. (1984). Strategic decision processes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27: 399-423.
- Friedman, M. & Rosenman, R. H. (1974). Type "A" Behavior and Your Heart. New York: Knopf.
- Frink, D. D. (1994). Accountability in human resource systems: The impression management and performance-directed functions of goal setting in the performance evaluation process. Unpublished dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
- Frink, D. D. & Ferris, G. R. (1998). Accountability, impression management, and goal setting in the performance evaluation process. *Human Relations*, 51(10): 1259-1283.
- Frink, D. D. & Klimoski, R. J. (1998). Toward a theory of accountability in organizations and human resource management. Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 16, 1-51.
- Fritzsche, D. J. & Becker, H. (1983). Ethical behavior of marketing managers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1: 291-299.
- Getz, K. (1990). International codes of conduct: An analysis of ethical reasoning.

 Journal of Business Ethics, 9, 567-577.

- Gordon, R. A., Rozelle, R. M. & Baxter, J. C. (1988). The effect of applicant age, job level, and accountability on the evaluation of job applicants. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 41: 20-33.
- Granovetter, M. (1973). The strength of weak ties. American Journal of Sociology, 78: 1360-1380.
- & R. G. Eccles (Eds.), *Networks and Organizations: Structure, Form, and Action* (pp. 25-56). Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Grover, S. L. (1993). Why professionals lie: The impact of professional role conflict on reporting accuracy. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processing*, 55: 251-272.
- Haccoun, R. R. & Klimoski, R. J. (1975). Negotiator status and accountability source: A study of negotiator behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 11: 342-359.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E. Tatham, R. L. & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Harrington, S. J. (1997). A test of a person-issue contingent model of ethical decision making in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 16: 363-375.
- Hefter, R. (1986). The crippling crime. Security World, 23: 36-38.
- Hegarty, W. H. & Sims, H. P. (1978). Some determinants of unethical decision behavior:

 An experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63(4): 451-457.

- Hegarty, W. H. & Sims, H. P. (1979). Organizational philosophy, policies, and objectives related to unethical decision behavior: A laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64(3): 331-338.
- Hellriegel, D., Slocum, J. W., & Woodman, R. W. (1995). Organizational Behavior, Minneapolis/St, Paul: West Publishing.
- Hinkle, D. E., & Oliver, J. D. (1983). How large should the sample be? A question with no simple answer? Or... Educational and Psychological Measurement, 43: 1051-1060.
- Holstrom, B. (1979). Moral hazard and observability. *Bell Journal of Economics*, 10: 74-91.
- Horney, K. (1937). The Neurotic Personality of Our Time. New York: Norton.
- Hosmer, L. T. (1994). Strategic planning as if ethics mattered. Strategic Management Journal, 15: 17-34.
- Hunt, S. D. & Chonko, L. B. (1984). Marketing and Machiavellianism. Journal of Marketing, 48: 30-42.
- Hunt, S. D. & Vitell, S. (1986). A general theory of marketing ethics. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 6(1); 5-16.
- Ickes, W. (1982). A basic paradigm for the study of personality, roles and social behavior. In W. Ickes & E. S. Knowles (Eds.), *Personality, Roles and Social Behavior* (pp. 305-341). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Jensen, M. C. & Meckling, W. H. (1976). Theory of the firm: Managerial behavior, agency costs and ownership structure. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 3: 305-360.

- Johnson, P. B. (1981). Achievement motivation and success: Does the end justify the means? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40: 374-375.
- Jones, D. (1997). Doing the wrong thing: 48% of workers admit to unethical or illegal acts. USA Today, Apr 4-6.
- Jones, T. M. & Gautschi, F. H. (1988). Will the ethics of business change? A survey of future executives. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 7: 231-248.
- Jones, T. M. (1991). Ethical decision making by individuals in organizations: An issue-contingent model. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(2): 366-395.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Toward an agenda for business ethics research. Academy of Management Review, 15(2): 311-328.
- Katz, D. & Kahn, R. L. (1978). The social psychology of organizations (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley.
- Keppel, G. (1991). Design and Analysis: A Researcher's Handbook. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Klimoski, R. & Inks, L. (1990). Accountability forces in performance appraisal.

 Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 45: 194-208.
- Kohlberg, L. (1969). Stage and sequence: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In S. A. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research* (pp. 347-480). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Kohlberg, L. & Candee, D. (1984). The relationship of moral judgment to moral action.
 In W. M. Kurtines & J.L. Gerwitz (Eds.), Morality, Moral Behavior and Moral
 Development (pp. 52-73). New York: Wiley.

- Laczniak, G. R. & Inderrieden, E. J. (1987). The influence of stated organizational concern upon ethical decision making. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 6: 297-307.
- Leming, J. S. (1980). Cheating behavior, subject variables, and components of the internal-external scale under high and low risk conditions. *Journal of Educational Research*, 74: 83-87.
- Lerner, J. S. & Tetlock, P. E. (1999). Accounting for the effects of accountability.

 Psychological Bulletin, 125(2): 255-275.
- Lewis, P. V. (1985). Defining 'business ethics': Like nailing jello to a wall. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 4(5): 377-383.
- Liden, R. C., Ferris, G. R. & Dienesch, R. M. (1988). The influence of causal feedback on subordinate reactions and behavior. *Group and Organizational Studies*, 13:348-373.
- Maass, A. & Volpato, C. (1989). Gender differences in self-serving attributions about sexual experiences. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 19: 517-542.
- Mahar, M. (1992). Unwelcome legacy: There's still a big unpaid tab for the S and L bailout. *Barron's*, 72(48): 16.
- Manley, G. (1999). Self-enhancement bias in propensity to engage in unethical behavior.

 Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK.
- Mathews, M. C. (1987). Codes of ethics: Organizational behavior and misbehavior. In
 W. F. Frederick (Ed.), Research in Corporate Social Performance and Policy, (vol. 9, pp. 107-130), Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- McCabe, D. L. & Trevino, L. K. (1993). Academic dishonesty: Honor codes and other contextual influences. *Journal of Higher Education*, 64: 522-538.

- McCabe, D. L. & Trevino, L. K. (1997). Individual and contextual influences on academic dishonesty: A multi-campus investigation. *Research in Higher Education*, 38: 379-396.
- McCarty, P. A. (1986). Effects of feedback on the self-confidence of men and women.

 Academy of Management Journal, 29: 840-847.
- McCrae, R. R. & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52: 81-90.
- McLean, P. A. & Jones, D. B. (1992). Machiavellianism and business education.

 Psychological Reports, 71(10): 57-58.
- Mero, N. & Motowidlo, S. (1995). Effects of rater accountability on accuracy and favorability of performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80: 517-524.
- Miller, A. G. & Minton, H. L. (1969). Machiavellianism, internal-external control, and the violation of experimental instructions. *The Psychological Record*, 19: 369-380.
- Mischel, W. (1977). The interaction of person and situation. In D. Magnusson & N. S. Endler (Eds.), *Personality at the Crossroads: Current Issues in Interactional Psychology* (pp. 333-352). Hillside, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Mitchell, T. R. (1993). Leadership, values and accountability. In M. M. Chemers & R. Ayman (Eds.), Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions (pp. 109-136). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Mitchell, T. R. & Scott, W. G. (1990). America's problems and needed reforms:

 Confronting the ethic of personal advantage. Academy of Management Executive, 4:

 23-35.

- Molm, L. D. (1991). Affect and social exchange: Satisfaction in power-dependence relations. *American Sociological Review*, 56(4): 475-493.
- Morris, S A. & McDonald, R. A. (1995). The role of moral intensity in moral judgments: an empirical investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 14: 715-726.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). Psychometric Theory. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Pava, M. L. (1998). Religious business ethics and political liberalism: An integrative approach. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17(15): 1633-1652.
- Penn, W. Y. & Collier, B. D. (1985). Current research in moral development as a decision support system. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 4: 131-136.
- Perry, A. R., Kane, K. M., Bernesser, K. J. & Spicker, P. T. (1990). Type "A" behavior, competitive achievement-striving and cheating among college students.

 Psychological Reports, 66: 459-465.
- Peter, J. P. (1979). Reliability: A review of psychometric basics and recent marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16: 6-17.
- Pitman, G. A. & Sanford, J. P. (1994). The Foreign Corrupt Practices Act revisited:

 Attempting to regulate "ethical bribes" in global business. *International Journal of Purchasing and Materials Management*, 30(3) 15-24.
- Power, F. C., Higgins, A. & Kohlberg, L. (1989). Lawrence Kohlberg's Approach to Moral Education. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Primeaux, P. (1992). Experiential ethics: A blueprint for personal and corporate ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11: 779-788.
- Rawls, J. (1993). *Political liberalism*. New York: Columbia University Press. Reidenbach, Robin, & Dawson, (1991).

- Rest, J. R. (1979). Revised manual for the defining issues test: An objective test of moral judgment development. Minneapolis: Minnesota Moral Research Projects.
- Rest, J. R. (1986). Moral Development: Advances in Research and Theory. New York: Praeger.
- Robin, D. P. & Forrest, P. J. (1996). The perceived importance of an ethical issue as an influence on ethical decision making of ad managers. *Journal of Business Research*, 35: 17-28.
- Robinson, J. P., Shaver, P. R. & Wrightsman, L. S. (1991). Criteria for scale selection and evaluation. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver and L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.),

 Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes, San Diego: Academic Press.
- Ross, B. (1999). For some, dishonesty is the only policy. *The Daily Oklahoman*, May 19: 5.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcements. *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied*, 80(1): (Whole No. 609) 1-28.
- Ruegger, D. & King, E. W. (1992). A study of the effect of age and gender upon student business ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11: 179-186.
- Runes, D. D. (1964). Dictionary of Philosophy. Patterson: Littlefields, Adams and Co.
- Ryckman, R. M. & Hamel, J. (1992). Female adolescents' motives related to involvement in organized team sports. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 23: 147-160.

- Ryckman, R. M., Hammer, M., Kaczor, L. M. & Gold, J. A. (1996). Construction of a personal development competitive attitude scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 66(2): 374-385.
- Ryckman, R. M., Libby, C. R., van den Borne, B., Gold, J. A. & Lindner, M. A. (1997).
 Values of hypercompetitive and personal development competitive individuals.
 Journal of Personality Assessment, 69(2): 271-283.
- Salbu, S. R. (1999). Battling global corruption in the new millennium. Law and Policy in International Business, 31(1): 47-78.
- Schlenker, B. R., Britt, T. W., Pennington, J., Murphy, R., & Doherty, K. (1994). The triangle model of responsibility. *Psychological Review*, 101, 632-653.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1968). Words, deeds, and the perception of consequences and responsibility in action situations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 10: 232-242.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), Advances in Experimental Social Psychology (Vol. 25, pp. 1-65). New York: Academic.
- Schwarzer, R. (Ed.) (1992). Self-efficacy: Thought control of action. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.
- Schwarzer, R. (1993). Measurement of perceived self-efficacy. *Psychometric Scales for Cross-Cultural Research*. Berlin, Germany: Freie Universitat Berlin.
- Simonson, I. & Staw, B. M. (1992). Deescalation strategies: A comparison of techniques for reducing commitment to losing courses of action. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77: 419-426.

- Singer, M. S. (1996). The role of moral intensity and fairness perception in judgments of ethicality: A comparison of managerial professionals and the general public. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 15: 459-474.
- Singer, M. S. & Singer, A. E. (1997). Observer judgments about moral agents' ethical decisions: The role of scope of justice and moral intensity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 16: 473-484.
- Singhapakdi, A., Vitell, S. J. & Franke, G. R. (1999). Antecedents, consequences, and mediating effects of perceived moral intensity and personal moral philosophies.

 **Academy of Marketing Science Journal, 27(1): 19-36.
- Singhapakdi, A., Vitell, S. J. & Kraft, K. L. (1996). Moral intensity and ethical decision making of marketing professionals. *Journal of Business Research*, 36: 245-255.
- Staw, B. M. (1975). Attribution of the "causes" of performance: A general alternative interpretation of cross-sectional research on organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13: 133-138.
- Stead, W. E., Worrell, D. L., Spalding, J. G. & Stead, J. G. (1987). Unethical decisions: Socially learned behaviors. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 2: 105-115.
- Steele, C. M. (1988). The psychology of self-affirmation: Sustaining the integrity of the self. In Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 21, pp. 261-302). New York: Academic Press.
- Stratton, W. E., Flynn, W. R. & Johnson, G. A. (1981). Moral development and decision-making: A study of student ethics. *Journal of Enterprise Management*, 3: 35-41.

- Stevens, G. E. (1984). Business ethics and social responsibility: The response of present and future managers. *Akron Business and Economic Review*, Fall: 6-11.
- Taylor, P. W. (1975). Principles of Ethics: An Introduction. Encino, CA: Dickerson Publishing.
- Tetlock, P. E. (1985). Accountability: The neglected social context of judgment and choice. In L.L. Cummings and B.M Staw (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior (Vol. 7, pp. 297-332). Greenwich, CT:JAI Press.
- Tetlock, P. E. (1992). The impact of accountability on judgment and choice: Toward a social contingency model. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 331-377). New York: Academic Press.
- Tetlock, P. E. & Boettger, R. (1989). Accountability: A social magnifier of the dilution effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(3): 388-398.
- Tetlock, P. E., Skitka, L. & Boettger, R. (1989). Social and cognitive strategies for coping with accountability: Conformity, complexity, and bolstering. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(4): 632-340.
- Tittle, C. R. & Rowe, A. R. (1973). Moral appeal, sanction threat, and deviance: An experimental test. *Social Problems*, 20: 488-498.
- Trevino, L. K. (1986). Ethical decision making in organizations: A person-situation interactionist model. *Academy of Management Review*, 11(3): 601-617.
- Trevino, L. K. & Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision making behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(4): 378-385.

- Tsalikis, J. & Fritsche, D. J. (1989). Business ethics: A literature review with a focus on marketing ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 8: 695-743.
- Turiel, E. & Smetana, J. G. (1984). Social knowledge and action: The coordination of domains. In W. M. Kurtines & J. L. Gerwitz (Eds.), Morality, moral behavior, and moral development (pp. 261-280. New York: Wiley.
- Velasquez, M. G. & Rostankowski, C. (1985). *Ethics: Theory and Practice*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Weber, J. (1992). Scenarios in business ethics research: Review, critical assessment, and recommendations. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 2(2): 137-160.
- Weber, J. (1996). Influences upon managerial moral decision making: Nature of the harm and magnitude of consequences. *Human Relations*, 49(1): 1-20.
- Werner, S. H., Jones, J. W., & Steffy, B. D. (1989). The relations between intelligence, honesty, and theft admissions. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 49: 921-927.
- Whipple, T. W. & Swords, D. F. (1992). Business ethics judgments: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11: 671-678.
- Yarnold, P. R., Mueser, K. T. & Lyons, J. S. (1988). Type A behavior, accountability, and work rate in small groups. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 22: 353-360.
- Zagaris, B. & Ohri, S. L., (1999). The emergence of an international enforcement regime on transnational corruption in the Americas. Law and Policy in International Business, 30: 53-93.
- Zemke, R. (1986). Employee theft: How to cut your losses. Training, 23(5): 74-78.

Zey-Ferrell, M. & Ferrell, O. C. (1982). Role-set configuration and opportunity as predictors of unethical behavior in organizations. *Human Relations*, 35(7): 587-604.
Zey-Ferrell, M., Weaver, K. M., & Ferrell, O. C. (1979). Predicting unethical behavior among marketing practitioners. *Human Relations*, 32(7): 557-569.

APPENDIX A

TEST INSTRUMENT:

ETHICAL DILEMMA QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire A – Unless otherwise specified, please answer the following questions on the optical scanning sheet provided. If you write the response on this sheet, please skip that question number on the optical scanning sheet.

A.	Demographics. Please answer the following questions.							
	ı.	Gender	a)	Male	b)	Female		
2. Occupation/Major (Please write this in)								
	3.	Age (Please wr	ite this in)				
В.	A B C	ermine whether Almost always Usually true Seldom true Never true.		ement is:				
5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	I do not like to wait for other people to complete their work before I can proceed with my own. I hate to wait in most lines. People tell me that I tend to get irritated too easily. Whenever possible, I try to make activities competitive. I have a tendency to rush into work that needs to be done before knowing the procedure I will use to complete the job. Even when I go on vacation, I usually take some work along. When I make a mistake, it is usually due to the fact that I have rushed into the job before completely planning it through. I feel guilty for taking time off from work. People tell me I have a bad temper when it comes to competitive situations. I tend to lose my temper when I am under a lot of pressure at work. Whenever possible, I will attempt to complete two or more tasks at once. I tend to race against the clock. I have no patience for lateness. I catch myself rushing when there is no need.							
C.	diffistation you obv	erent people. Externed of each pacerned. Be sure a should choose or iously there are asse answer these answer for every ther one. In such	ach item of air (and of to select or the one no right of choice. h cases, bo Also, try	consists of only one) the one you wou wou wrong refully but in some it e sure to to respon	f a pair which you actually like to answers answers anstance select that to each to ea	which certain important events in our society affect of alternatives lettered a or b. Please select one ou more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are ally believe to be more true rather than the one you think to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: It spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find a you may discover that you believe both statements or the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as the item independently when making your choice; do not		
18.	_					rir parents punish them too much. adays is that their parents are too easy with them.		
19.	_					le's lives are partly due to bad luck. mistakes they make.		

20	a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
	b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
21. <u> </u>	a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world. b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no mater how hard s/he tries.
22. <u> </u>	 a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense. b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
23	a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
24. <u> </u>	a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
25. <u> </u>	a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality. b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.
26	 a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
27. <u> </u>	 a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test. b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
28	a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
29	 a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
30. <u> </u>	 a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
31	a. There are certain people who are just no good. b. There is some good in everybody.
32. <u> </u>	a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck. b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
33	 a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
34	 a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control. b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

35.	a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
	b. There really is no such thing as "luck".
36.	a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes. b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
37.	a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you. b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
38.	a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones. b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
39.	a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption. b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
40.	a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give. b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
41.	a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do. b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
42.	a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me. b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
43.	a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly. b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people if they like you, they like you.
44.	a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school. b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
45.	a. What happens to me is my own doing. b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
46.	a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do. b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.
D.	Please read the following scenario and answer the questions that follow based on what you believe.
	Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is making a major push to expand operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. They need this in order to obtain profitability. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.
	How likely is I that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?
47	(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

48. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that achieving this goal is questionable this semester—they may or not make this GPA. The fraternity recently had a meeting where the President urged everyone to do whatever they could to get good grades—within the bounds of the fraternity ethical code of conduct. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student—the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

49. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

50. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is considering expanding its operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. The company is quite successful, but is always looking for ways to be better. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.

How likely is I that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

51. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

52. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that the fraternity will easily achieve the goal this semester. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

- 53. (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

- 54 (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely
- E. This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people often have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories. We will begin with an example THIS IS JUST AN EXAMPLE AND IS NOT TO BE ANSWERED BY THE RESPONDENT.

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. Below there is a list of some of these questions. If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding which car to buy?

On the left had side check one of the spaces by each statement of a consideration. (For instance, if you think that statement #1 is not important in making a decision about buying a car, check the space on the right.)

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

Great	Much	Some	Little	None	
				х	1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives. (Note that in this sample, the person taking the questionnaire did not think this was important in making a decision.)
x					2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car? (Note that a check was put in the far left space to indicate the opinion that this is an important issue in making a decision about buying a car.)
		X			3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
				х	4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200. (Note that if you are unsure about what "cubic inch displacement" means, then mark it "no importance".)
X					5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car?
				Х	6. Whether the front connibles were differential. (Note that if a statement sounds like gibberish or nonsense to you, mark it "no importance".)

From the list of questions above, select the most important one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for your 2nd, 3rd, and 4th most important choices. (Note that the top choices in this case will come from the statements that were checked on the far left-hand side – statements #2 and #5 were thought to be very important. In deciding what is the most important, a person would re-read #2 and #5, and then pick one of them as the most important, then put the other one as 2nd most important, and so on.)

MOST 2^{ND} MOST IMPORTANT 3^{RD} MOST IMPORTANT 4^{TH} MOST IMPORTANT $\underline{5}$ $\underline{2}$ $\underline{3}$ $\underline{1}$

HEINZ AND THE DRUG

In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging 10 times what the drug cost to make. He paid \$200 for the radium and charged \$2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about \$1,000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to think about breaking into the man's store and steal the drug for his wife.

55. Should Heinz steal ti	he drug?	
(A) Should steal it	(B) Can't decide	(C) Should not steal it

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

Oreat	MIUCH	Some	Little	HOHE	
					56. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld.
					57. Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much
					for his wife that he'd steal?
					58. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going
1					to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?
					59. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has
!					considerable influence with professional wrestlers.
					60. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely
					to help someone else.
					61. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be
					respected.
					62. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than
					the termination of dying, socially and individually.
					63. What values are going to be the basis for governing how
					people act towards each other.
					64. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide
					behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow.
					65. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the
					most basic claim of any member of society.
					66. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so
					greedy and cruel.
		·			67. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total
					good for the whole society or not.

68.	. From the list of questions above, select the four most important (Please write this in):							
	_ Most important _	2 nd most important	3 rd most important	4 th most important				

ESCAPED PRISONER

A man had been sentenced to prison for 10 years. After one year, however, he escaped from prison, moved to a new area of the country and took on the name of Thompson. For 8 years he worked hard, and gradually saved enough money to buy his own business. He was fair to his customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his own profits to charity. Then one day, Mrs. Jones, an old

neighbor, recognized him as the man who had escaped from prison 8 years before, and whom the police had been looking for.

- 69. Should Mrs. Jones report Mr. Thompson to the police and have him sent back to prison?
- (A) Should report him
- (B) Can't decide
- (C) Should not report him

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

i				70. Hasn't Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long
				time to prove he isn't a bad person?
				71. Every time someone escapes punishment for a crime,
1				doesn't that just encourage more crime?
				72. Wouldn't we be better off without prisons and the
			l	oppression of our legal system?
				73. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society?
				74. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly
			[expect?
Ī			T	75. What benefits would prisons be apart from society,
]		l	especially for a charitable man?
				76. How could anyone be so cruel and heartless as to send Mr.
				Thompson to prison?
				77. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to serve out
				their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off?
				78. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson?
				79. Wouldn't it be a citizen's duty to report an escaped
<u></u> j			l	criminal, regardless of the circumstances?
				80. How would the will of the people and the public good best
				be served?
				81. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or
				protect anybody?

82.	From the list of question	ons above, select the four	most important (Please	write this in):
	_ Most important	2 nd most important	3 rd most important	4 th most importan

THE DOCTOR'S DILEMMA

A lady was dying of cancer which could not be cured and she had only about six months to live. She was in terrible pain, but she was so weak that a good dose of pain-killer like morphine would make her die sooner. She was delirious and almost crazy with pain, and in her calm periods, she would ask the doctor to give her enough morphine to kill her. She said she couldn't stand the pain and that she was going to die in a few months anyway.

- 83. What should the doctor do?
- (A) He should give the lady an overdose that will make her die
 - (B) Can't decide

(C) Should not give the overdose

IMPORTANCE:

			84. Whether the woman's family is in favor of giving her the overdose or not.
			85. Is the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if giving her an overdose would be the same as killing her?
			86. Whether people would be much better off without society regimenting their lives and even their deaths.
T			87. Whether the doctor could make it appear like an accident.
			88. Does the state have the right to force continued existence on those who don't want to live.
		_	89. What is the value of death prior to society's perspective on personal values.
			90. Whether the doctor has sympathy for the woman's suffering or cares more about what society might think.
			91. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of cooperation?
		_	92. Whether only God should decide when a person's life should end.
			93. What values the doctor has set for himself in his own personal code of behavior.
			94. Can society afford to let everybody end their lives when they want to?
			95. Can society allow suicides or mercy killing and still protect the lives of individuals who want to live?

	96. From the list of questions above, select the four most important (Please write this in):
	Most important 3 rd most important 4 th most important
F.	Read each statement carefully, then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree based on the following scale:
	A) Agree strongly
	B) Agree somewhat
	C) Neither agree nor disagree
	D) Disagree somewhat
	E) Disagree strongly
97.	Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.
98.	The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.
99.	One should take actin only when sure it is morally right.
100	
101	
	are given a chance.
102	
103	
104	
105	
106	. When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for
	wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight.
107	

108.	Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.
109.	The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are
	stupid enough to get caught.
110.	Most people are brave.
111.	It is wise to flatter important people.
112.	It is possible to be good in all respects.
113.	Barnum was wrong when he said that there's a sucker born every minute.
114.	It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.
115.	People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to
	death.
116.	Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.
	Cheating in school occurs for a number of reasons. Evaluate the following motivations to cheat in
S	school based on the following scale:
	A) Contributes very little to cheating
	B) Contributes little to cheating
	C) Contributes an average amount to cheating
	D) Contributes a great amount to cheating
	E) Contributes a very great amount to cheating
117.	The University requires a minimum GPA to stay in school.
118.	Top employers give more consideration to people with higher GPAs.
119.	Top Graduate Schools give greater consideration to people with higher GPAs.
120.	Parents pressure their children to raise grades.
121.	Peer pressure makes people cheat.
122.	Assistance from friends is easily available.
123.	Students did not have the time to study properly.
124.	Students did not take the time to study properly.
125.	Professors assign too much work for students to do.
126.	Students enjoy taking the risk and getting away with cheating.
127.	Because everyone else cheats, "honest" students have to cheat to stay ahead of the curve.
128.	Students do not identify with the University and therefore feel no responsibility toward it or
	its code of conduct.
129.	Professors do not care about teaching, so students do not care about learning.
130.	It is easy to cheat.
131.	Certain students just got in the habit of cheating in high school and continue it in college.
132.	People are just dishonest.
н. т	To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
	A) I agree very little
	B) lagree little
	C) I agree an average amount
	D) I agree a great amount
	E) I agree a very great amount
133	
134	Professors expect the average student to engage in unethical behavior.
135	The average business person is expected to engage in unethical behavior.
136.	I am (will be) expected to engage in unethical behavior in business.
137.	
138.	I behave in an unethical manner because there is an expectation for me to behave in that
_	nanner

139 The media creates the expectation that people will engage in uneutical behavior.
140. The media creates the expectation that people will engage in ethical behavior.
141. When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the situation I was in.
142. When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the type of person I am.
143. When I have behaved unethically, it was because others expected me to, so I might as well.
I. Answer the following questions based on this scale:
A) A very little amount
B) A little amount
C) An average amount
D) A great amount
E) A very great amount
144 To what extent have you cheated in your career?
145. To what extent has the average student cheated in his/her career?
146 To what extent does the average business person engage in unethical behavior at work?
J. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
A) I agree very little
B) I agree little
C) I agree an average amount
D) I agree a great amount
E) I agree a very great amount
147 I describe myself as honest and ethical.
148 I describe myself as dishonest and unethical.
K. Answer (A) for "Yes, I agree with the following statement" and (B) for "No, I do not agree".
149.Overall, I consider myself an honest and ethical person.
150.My actions demonstrate to others that I am an honest and ethical person.
151.My friends would describe me as an honest and ethical person.
152.From my perspective, most people are honest and ethical.
153. From my perspective, my friends are honest and ethical.
154. From my perspective, most people are dishonest and unethical.
155. From my perspective, my friends are not honest and ethical.

- L. In order that we may gain an understanding of the respondents how you feel, think, react, and so on please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your emotions and behavior. Please fill in your response to each item. Indicate whether you:
 - A. Strongly agree
 - B. Slightly agree
 - C. Neither agree nor disagree
 - D. Slightly agree
 - E. Strongly agree
- 156. I enjoy competition because it gives me a chance to discover my abilities.
- 157. Competition does not increase my awareness and understanding of myself and others.
- 158. Competition can lead to the formation of friendship with others.
- 159. Competition is not a means of motivating me to bring out the best in myself.
- 160. I enjoy competition because it tends to bring out the best in me rather than as a means of feeling better than others.
- 161. I do not find competition to be a very valuable means of learning about myself and others.
- 162. I like competition because it teaches me a lot about myself.
- 163. I value competition because it helps me to be the best that I can be.
- 164. I find competition enjoyable because it lets me express my own potentials and abilities.
- 165. Competition does not help me develop my abilities more.
- 166. Without the challenge of competition, I might never discover that I had certain potentials and abilities.
- I enjoy competition because it brings me and my competitors closer together as human beings.
- 168. I enjoy competition because it helps me to develop my own potentials more fully than if I engaged in these activities alone.
- 169. I enjoy competition because it brings me to a higher level of motivation to bring the best out of myself rather than as a means of doing better than others.
- 170. Through competition, I feel that I am contributing to the well-being of others.
- M. Please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your behavior. Please fill in your response to the following items. Indicate whether the statement is:
 - A. Not at all true about you
 - B. Hardly true about you
 - C. Moderately true about you
 - D. Exactly true about you.
- 171.I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
- 172. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
- 173. It is difficult for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
- 174.I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
- 175. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
- 176.I cannot solve most problems, even if I invest the necessary effort.
- 177.I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
- 178. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
- 179.If I am in trouble, I cannot usually think of a solution.
- 180.I can usually handle whatever comes my way.

Questionnaire B – Unless otherwise specified, please answer the following questions on the optical scanning sheet provided. If you write the response on this sheet, please skip that question number on the optical scanning sheet.

A.	Den	nographics. Ple	ase answe	r the fol	lowing	questions.
	ı.	Gender	a)	Male	b)	Female
	2.	Occupation/Ma	jor (Pleas	e write ti	nis in)_	
	3.	Age (Please wri	ite this in))		-
B.	A B C	ermine whether Almost always Usually true Seldom true Never true.		ment is:		
5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	I ha Peo Wh I ha com Eve Wh plan I fee Peo I ten Wh I ten I ha	te to wait in most ple tell me that I enever possible, we a tendency to a tendency to a tendency to make I go on when I go on when I make a mist ming it through lel guilty for taking let tell me I have do to lose my tendence tell me tendence tell me tendence tell me I have do to lose my tendence tell me tendence tell me I have do to lose my tendence tell me I have	st lines. I tend to g I try to may rush into exacation, leake, it is a second to the second tender where I will attend the clock or lateness.	et irritate ake active work the work the usually described by the work that it is not to be a second to be second to be a second to be a second to be a second to be a seco	ed too e ities co at need take so lue to th ork. en it co ader a lo omplete	empetitive. Is to be done before knowing the procedure I will use to some work along. The fact that I have rushed into the job before completely somes to competitive situations. The fact that I have rushed into the job before completely somes to competitive situations. The fact that I have rushed into the job before completely somes to competitive situations. The fact that I have rushed into the job before completely somes to competitive situations. The fact that I have rushed into the job before completely some that I have rushed into the job before completely some that I have rushed into the job before completely some to competitive situations.
C.	diffistation you obv	erent people. Ea ement of each pa cerned. Be sure should choose of iously there are a ase answer these answer for every ther one. In such	ach item chair (and or to select to the one in oright or items car choice. In cases, be Also, try	onsists only one) the one y you wou refully but in some it esure to respon	f a pair which you actu ld like answer at do no instance select that to ea	which certain important events in our society affect of alternatives lettered a or b. Please select one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are tally believe to be more true rather than the one you think to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: s. It spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find the syou may discover that you believe both statements or the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as such item independently when making your choice; do not
18.						eir parents punish them too much. radays is that their parents are too easy with them.
19.						ole's lives are partly due to bad luck. e mistakes they make.

20	a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in
	politicsb. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
21 _	a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no mater how hard s/he tries.
22 _	a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense. b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
23 _	a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
24 _	a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
25	a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality. b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.
26 _	 a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
27 _	 a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
28	a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
29	 a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
30	 a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
31	a. There are certain people who are just no good. b. There is some good in everybody.
32. <u> </u>	a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck. b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
33	a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
	b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
34	a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.
	b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

35.	a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
	b. There really is no such thing as "luck".
36.	a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes. b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
37.	a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you. b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
38.	a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones. b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
39.	a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption. b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
40.	a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give. b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
41.	a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do. b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
42.	a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me. b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
43.	a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly. b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people if they like you, they like you.
44.	a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school. b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
45.	a. What happens to me is my own doing. b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
46.	a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do. b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.
D.	Please read the following scenario and answer the questions that follow based on what you believe.
	Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is making a major push to expand operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. They need this in order to obtain profitability. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.
	Additionally, before he left on his trip, Mark's boss told him that the President of the company was watching Mark's progress and was very anxious to hear about the results upon his return.
	How likely is I that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?
47	(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

48. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that achieving this goal is questionable this semester – they may or not make this GPA. The fraternity recently had a meeting where the President urged everyone to do whatever they could to get good grades – within the bounds of the fraternity ethical code of conduct. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

Additionally, Joe knows that if he makes below a "C" in any of his classes, he will have to go before the fraternity's "grade committee" and justify the low grade.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

49. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

50. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is considering expanding its operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. The company is quite successful, but is always looking for ways to be better. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.

Additionally, before he left on his trip, Mark's boss told him that the President of the company was watching Mark's progress and was very anxious to hear about the results upon his return.

How likely is I that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

51. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

52. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that the fraternity will easily achieve the goal this semester. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the

instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

Additionally, Joe knows that if he makes below a "C" in any of his classes, he will have to go before the fraternity's "grade committee" and justify the low grade.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

- 53. (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

- 54 (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely
- E. This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people often have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories. We will begin with an example THIS IS JUST AN EXAMPLE AND IS NOT TO BE ANSWERED BY THE RESPONDENT.

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. Below there is a list of some of these questions. If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding which car to buy?

On the left had side check one of the spaces by each statement of a consideration. (For instance, if you think that statement #1 is not important in making a decision about buying a car, check the space on the right.)

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

		х	1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives. (Note that in this sample, the person taking the questionnaire did not think this was important in making a decision.)
X			2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car? (Note that a check was put in the far left space to indicate the opinion that this is an important issue in making a decision about buying a car.)
	X		3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
		х	4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200. (Note that if you are unsure about what "cubic inch displacement" means, then mark it "no importance".)
X			5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car?
		Х	6. Whether the front connibles were differential. (Note that if a statement sounds like gibberish or nonsense to you, mark it "no importance".)

From the list of questions above, select the most important one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for your 2nd, 3rd, and 4th most important choices. (Note that the top choices in this case will come from the statements that were

checked on the far left-hand side – statements #2 and #5 were thought to be very important. In deciding what is the most important, a person would re-read #2 and #5, and then pick one of them as the most important, then put the other one as 2nd most important, and so on.)

MOST 2^{ND} MOST IMPORTANT 3^{RD} MOST IMPORTANT 4^{TH} MOST IMPORTANT $\underline{5}$ $\underline{2}$ $\underline{3}$ $\underline{1}$

HEINZ AND THE DRUG

In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging 10 times what the drug cost to make. He paid \$200 for the radium and charged \$2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about \$1,000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to think about breaking into the man's store and steal the drug for his wife.

e e	OL	1.1	**-!	-41	A8	J
22.	200a	ıa	Heinz	Steal	шe	arue.

(A) Should steal it

(B) Can't decide

(C) Should not steal it

IMPORTANCE:

			56. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld.
	 		57. Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much
			for his wife that he'd steal?
			58. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going
		!	to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?
			59. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has
			considerable influence with professional wrestlers.
			60. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely
			to help someone else.
			61. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be
			respected.
			62. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than
			the termination of dying, socially and individually.
			63. What values are going to be the basis for governing how
			people act towards each other.
			64. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide
1			behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow.
			65. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the
	L		most basic claim of any member of society.
			66. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so
			greedy and cruel.
			67. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total
			good for the whole society or not.

68.	From the list of q	uestions above, select the to	our most important (Pleas	e write this in):
	_ Most important	2 nd most important _	3 rd most important	4 th most importan

ESCAPED PRISONER

A man had been sentenced to prison for 10 years. After one year, however, he escaped from prison, moved to a new area of the country and took on the name of Thompson. For 8 years he worked hard, and gradually saved enough money to buy his own business. He was fair to his customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his own profits to charity. Then one day, Mrs. Jones, an old neighbor, recognized him as the man who had escaped from prison 8 years before, and whom the police had been looking for.

- 69. Should Mrs. Jones report Mr. Thompson to the police and have him sent back to prison?
- (A) Should report him
- (B) Can't decide
- (C) Should not report him

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

				70. Hasn't Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long
				time to prove he isn't a bad person?
				71. Every time someone escapes punishment for a crime,
				doesn't that just encourage more crime?
				72. Wouldn't we be better off without prisons and the
				oppression of our legal system?
				73. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society?
				74. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly
				expect?
		,		75. What benefits would prisons be apart from society,
				especially for a charitable man?
				76. How could anyone be so cruel and heartless as to send Mr.
	j			Thompson to prison?
ĺ		_		77. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to serve out
			. 1	their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off?
				78. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson?
				79. Wouldn't it be a citizen's duty to report an escaped
				criminal, regardless of the circumstances?
				80. How would the will of the people and the public good best
]			be served?
	Ì			81. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or
				protect anybody?

82.	From the list of questions above	;, select the four	most important (Please write this in):

THE DOCTOR'S DILEMMA

A lady was dying of cancer which could not be cured and she had only about six months to live. She was in terrible pain, but she was so weak that a good dose of pain-killer like morphine would make her die sooner. She was delirious and almost crazy with pain, and in her calm periods, she would ask the doctor to give her enough morphine to kill her. She said she couldn't stand the pain and that she was going to die in a few months anyway.

02	What	chas	14 4	- 4		402
Хí	What	Snor	וות דו	ካድ ብረ	YTAT.	ብር /

- (A) He should give the lady an overdose that will make her die (B) Can't decide (C) Should not give the overdose

IMPORTANCE:

Great	MUCD	50me	Little	None	
					84. Whether the woman's family is in favor of giving her the
			l		overdose or not.
					85. Is the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if
		j			giving her an overdose would be the same as killing her?
					86. Whether people would be much better off without society
					regimenting their lives and even their deaths.
					87. Whether the doctor could make it appear like an accident.
					88. Does the state have the right to force continued existence on
1 1				1	those who don't want to live.
					89. What is the value of death prior to society's perspective on
					personal values.
					90. Whether the doctor has sympathy for the woman's suffering
					or cares more about what society might think.
					91. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of
					cooperation?
					92. Whether only God should decide when a person's life should
					end.
					93. What values the doctor has set for himself in his own
					personal code of behavior.
					94. Can society afford to let everybody end their lives when they
					want to?
					95. Can society allow suicides or mercy killing and still protect
					the lives of individuals who want to live?

	96. From the list of questions above, select the four most important (Please write this in):
	Most important 2 nd most important 3 rd most important 4 th most important
F.	Read each statement carefully, then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree based on the following scale: A) Agree strongly B) Agree somewhat C) Neither agree nor disagree D) Disagree somewhat E) Disagree strongly
97.	Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.
98. 99.	The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear. One should take actin only when sure it is morally right.
77. 100	
101	
101	are given a chance.
102	G
102	
103	There is no excuse for typing to someone else.

104.	Generally speaking, people won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.
105.	All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.
106.	When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for
	wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight.
107.	Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean moral lives.
108.	Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.
109.	The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are
	stupid enough to get caught.
110.	Most people are brave.
111.	It is wise to flatter important people.
112.	It is possible to be good in all respects.
113.	Barnum was wrong when he said that there's a sucker born every minute.
114.	It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.
115.	People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to
115.	death.
116.	Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.
110.	whost men lorger more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.
G Ch	neating in school occurs for a number of reasons. Evaluate the following motivations to cheat in
	hool based on the following scale:
301	A) Contributes very little to cheating
	B) Contributes little to cheating
	C) Contributes an average amount to cheating
	D) Contributes a great amount to cheating
	E) Contributes a very great amount to cheating
	E) Could tout to a very great amount to cheating
117.	The University requires a minimum GPA to stay in school.
118.	Top employers give more consideration to people with higher GPAs.
119.	Top Graduate Schools give greater consideration to people with higher GPAs.
120.	Parents pressure their children to raise grades.
121.	Peer pressure makes people cheat.
122.	Assistance from friends is easily available.
123.	Students did not have the time to study properly.
124.	Students did not take the time to study properly.
125.	Professors assign too much work for students to do.
126.	Students enjoy taking the risk and getting away with cheating.
	Decrease everyone also shoots. "herest" students have to chest to stay shoot of the surre
127.	Because everyone else cheats, "honest" students have to cheat to stay ahead of the curve.
128.	Students do not identify with the University and therefore feel no responsibility toward it or its code of conduct.
120	
129.	Professors do not care about teaching, so students do not care about learning.
130.	It is easy to cheat.
131.	Certain students just got in the habit of cheating in high school and continue it in college.
132.	People are just dishonest.
II T-	what autom do was a suith the fallowing attended
n. 10	what extent do you agree with the following statements?
	A) I agree very little
	B) I agree little
	C) I agree an average amount
	D) I agree a great amount
	E) I agree a very great amount
122	Desferous support (ad) made as as as a set in the best in the best in
133	Professors expect(ed) me to engage in unethical behavior.
134	Professors expect the average student to engage in unethical behavior.
135	The average business person is expected to engage in unethical behavior.
136	I am (will be) expected to engage in unethical behavior in business.
137.	People are unethical by nature.

138. I behave in an unethical manner because there is an expectation for me to behave in that
manner.
139 The media creates the expectation that people will engage in unethical behavior.
140. The media creates the expectation that people will engage in ethical behavior.
141. When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the situation I was in.
When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the type of person I am.
143. When I have behaved unethically, it was because others expected me to, so I might as well.
I. Answer the following questions based on this scale:
A) A very little amount
B) A little amount
C) An average amount
D) A great amount
E) A very great amount
144 To what extent have you cheated in your career?
145 To what extent has the average student cheated in his/her career?
146. To what extent does the average business person engage in unethical behavior at work?
J. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
A) I agree very little
B) I agree little
C) I agree an average amount
D) I agree a great amount
E) I agree a very great amount
147 I describe myself as honest and ethical.
148 I describe myself as dishonest and unethical.
K. Answer (A) for "Yes, I agree with the following statement" and (B) for "No, I do not agree".
140 0 11 1 16 1 1 1
149.Overall, I consider myself an honest and ethical person.
150.My actions demonstrate to others that I am an honest and ethical person.
151.My friends would describe me as an honest and ethical person.
152. From my perspective, most people are honest and ethical.
153. From my perspective, my friends are honest and ethical.
154. From my perspective, most people are dishonest and unethical.
155. From my perspective, my friends are not honest and ethical.

- L. In order that we may gain an understanding of the respondents how you feel, think, react, and so on please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your emotions and behavior. Please fill in your response to each item. Indicate whether you:
 - A. Strongly agree
 - B. Slightly agree
 - C. Neither agree nor disagree
 - D. Slightly agree
 - E. Strongly agree
- 156. I enjoy competition because it gives me a chance to discover my abilities.
- 157. Competition does not increase my awareness and understanding of myself and others.
- 158. Competition can lead to the formation of friendship with others.
- 159. Competition is not a means of motivating me to bring out the best in myself.
- 160. I enjoy competition because it tends to bring out the best in me rather than as a means of feeling better than others.
- 161. I do not find competition to be a very valuable means of learning about myself and others.
- 162. I like competition because it teaches me a lot about myself.
- 163. I value competition because it helps me to be the best that I can be.
- 164. I find competition enjoyable because it lets me express my own potentials and abilities.
- 165. Competition does not help me develop my abilities more.
- 166. Without the challenge of competition, I might never discover that I had certain potentials and abilities.
- 167. I enjoy competition because it brings me and my competitors closer together as human beings.
- 168. I enjoy competition because it helps me to develop my own potentials more fully than if I engaged in these activities alone.
- 169. I enjoy competition because it brings me to a higher level of motivation to bring the best out of myself rather than as a means of doing better than others.
- 170. Through competition, I feel that I am contributing to the well-being of others.
- M. Please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your behavior. Please fill in your response to the following items. Indicate whether the statement is:
 - A. Not at all true about you
 - B. Hardly true about you
 - C. Moderately true about you
 - D. Exactly true about you.
- 171.I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
- 172. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
- 173.It is difficult for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
- 174.I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
- 175. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
- 176.I cannot solve most problems, even if I invest the necessary effort.
- 177.I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
- 178. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
- 179. If I am in trouble, I cannot usually think of a solution.
- 180.I can usually handle whatever comes my way.

Questionnaire C – Unless otherwise specified, please answer the following questions on the optical scanning sheet provided. If you write the response on this sheet, please skip that question number on the optical scanning sheet.

A. Demographics. Please answer the following questions.						uestions.
	ſ.	Gender	a)	Male	b)	Female
	2.	Occupation/	Major (Pleas	e write tl	his in)	
	3.	Age (Please	write this in)		
В.	A B C	ermine wheth Almost alway Usually true Seldom true Never true.		ement is:		
5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15.	I ha Peo Whi I ha com Eve Whi plar I fee Peo I ter Whi I ter I ha	te to wait in national ple tell me that the enever possible to a tendency uplete the job. In when I go of the make a maning it through guilty for the ple tell me I had to lose my	nost lines. at I tend to g le, I try to m to rush into n vacation, nistake, it is gh. king time of ave a bad te temper whe le, I will atte inst the cloce e for latenes	get irritate active work the I usually constitution with the I usually confer when I am unempt to conk.	ed too ea vities con at needs take son due to the work. hen it con nder a loo omplete	
C.	diffestate conceptual your obvious an a neit your	erent people. ement of each cerned. Be su should choos iously there ar ase answer the answer for eve her one. In so	Each item of pair (and o pair to select e or the one re no right of the case items catery choice. Luch cases, but Also, try	consists of the one y you wou wrong refully but In some it esure to to respon	of a pair of which you actually like to answers. It do not instances select the do to each	which certain important events in our society affect of alternatives lettered a or b. Please select one ou more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are ally believe to be more true rather than the one you think to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find a you may discover that you believe both statements or the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as the item independently when making your choice; do not
18.						ir parents punish them too much. days is that their parents are too easy with them.
19.						e's lives are partly due to bad luck. mistakes they make.

20	a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
_	b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
21 _	a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world. b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no mater how hard s/he tries.
22 -	a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense. b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
23 _	a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities
24 _	a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
25 _	a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality. b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.
26 _	 a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
27 _	 a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
28 _	a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
29 _	a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
30	 a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
31 _	a. There are certain people who are just no good. b. There is some good in everybody.
32. <u> </u>	a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck. b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
33 _	 a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
34	 a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control. b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

35.	a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental
	happenings. b. There really is no such thing as "luck".
36.	
	b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
37 .	a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
	b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
20	To the large and the half there there have no one belonged by the good and
<i>3</i> 8.	a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones. b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
	of the misterial are the result of lack of ability, ignormately immediate of the allow-
39 .	
	b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
40.	a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
	b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
41.	a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
	b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
42.	
	b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
43.	a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
٦٥.	b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people if they like you, they like you.
44.	a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
	b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
45.	a. What happens to me is my own doing.
	b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
46.	a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
70.	b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a
	local level.
D	Discounted the Cilianian and an array the secretary that Cilian based on what was helicar
υ .	Please read the following scenario and answer the questions that follow based on what you believe.
	Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is making a major push
	to expand operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. They need this in
	order to obtain profitability. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to
	the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these
	"appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's
	requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his
	company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.
	After this discussion with the government official, Mark goes back to his hotel room and calls his boss.
	The conversation was short, but Mark's boss did tell him that when he got back the President would
	like to hear every detail of the negotiation process.
	How likely is I that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?
	And the state that we display in brains and two in order to community and an entitle themself.
47.	(A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

48. (A) Very likely (B) Likely (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that achieving this goal is questionable this semester – they may or not make this GPA. The fraternity recently had a meeting where the President urged everyone to do whatever they could to get good grades – within the bounds of the fraternity ethical code of conduct. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the

Because the mid-semester grade report showed that Joe had a "D" in the course, he will have to report to the "grade committee" exactly what steps he took to accomplish his final grade.

project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

49. (A) Very likely (B) Likely (

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

50. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is considering expanding its operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. The company is quite successful, but is always looking for ways to be better. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.

After this discussion with the government official, Mark goes back to his hotel room and calls his boss. The conversation was short, but Mark's boss did tell him that when he got back the President would like to hear every detail of the negotiation process.

How likely is I that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

51. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

52. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that the fraternity will easily achieve the goal this semester. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this

was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

Because the mid-semester grade report showed that Joe had a "D" in the course, he will have to report to the "grade committee" exactly what steps he took to accomplish his final grade.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

- 53. (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

- 54 (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely
- E. This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people often have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories. We will begin with an example THIS IS JUST AN EXAMPLE AND IS NOT TO BE ANSWERED BY THE RESPONDENT.

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. Below there is a list of some of these questions. If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding which car to buy?

On the left had side check one of the spaces by each statement of a consideration. (For instance, if you think that statement #1 is not important in making a decision about buying a car, check the space on the right.)

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

OI CUIT	IVIGOII	COLLIC	Little	110110	
			:	x	1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives. (Note that in this sample, the person taking the questionnaire did not think this was important in making a decision.)
X					2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car? (Note that a check was put in the far left space to indicate the opinion that this is an important issue in making a decision about buying a car.)
		X			3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
				x	 Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200. (Note that if you are unsure about what "cubic inch displacement" means, then mark it "no importance".)
X					5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car?
				Х	 Whether the front connibles were differential. (Note that if a statement sounds like gibberish or nonsense to you, mark it "no importance".)

From the list of questions above, select the most important one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for your 2nd, 3rd, and 4th most

important choices. (Note that the top choices in this case will come from the statements that were checked on the far left-hand side – statements #2 and #5 were thought to be very important. In deciding what is the most important, a person would re-read #2 and #5, and then pick one of them as the most important, then put the other one as 2nd most important, and so on.)

MOST 2^{ND} MOST IMPORTANT 3^{RD} MOST IMPORTANT 4^{TH} MOST IMPORTANT $\underline{5}$ $\underline{2}$ $\underline{3}$ $\underline{1}$

HEINZ AND THE DRUG

In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging 10 times what the drug cost to make. He paid \$200 for the radium and charged \$2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about \$1,000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to think about breaking into the man's store and steal the drug for his wife.

55. S	Should	Heinz	steal	the	drug?
-------	--------	-------	-------	-----	-------

(A) Should steal it

(B) Can't decide

(C) Should not steal it

IMPORTANCE:

IVILICALI	Joine	w	. 10.10	
				56. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld.
				57. Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much
			1	for his wife that he'd steal?
				58. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going
				to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?
				59. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has
			- 1	considerable influence with professional wrestlers.
				60. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely
			-	to help someone else.
				61. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be
			- 1	respected.
				62. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than
				the termination of dying, socially and individually.
				63. What values are going to be the basis for governing how
			.	people act towards each other.
				64. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide
				behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow.
				65. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the
				most basic claim of any member of society.
	-			66. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so
				greedy and cruel.
				67. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total
				good for the whole society or not.

6 8 .	From the list of qu	uestions above, select the f	four most important (Pleas	e write this in):
	_ Most important	2 nd most important	3 rd most important	4 th most important

ESCAPED PRISONER

A man had been sentenced to prison for 10 years. After one year, however, he escaped from prison, moved to a new area of the country and took on the name of Thompson. For 8 years he worked hard, and gradually saved enough money to buy his own business. He was fair to his customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his own profits to charity. Then one day, Mrs. Jones, an old neighbor, recognized him as the man who had escaped from prison 8 years before, and whom the police had been looking for.

- 69. Should Mrs. Jones report Mr. Thompson to the police and have him sent back to prison?
- (A) Should report him
- (B) Can't decide
- (C) Should not report him

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

good enough for such a long
on?
s punishment for a crime,
crime?
ithout prisons and the
aid his debt to society?
at Mr. Thompson should fairly
s be apart from society,
el and heartless as to send Mr.
risoners who had to serve out
pson was let off?
nd of Mr. Thompson?
uty to report an escaped
mstances?
eople and the public good best
ny good for Mr. Thompson or
· - · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

82.	2. From the list of questions above, select the four most important (Please write this in):						
	_ Most important	_2 ^{ad} most important _	3 rd most important	4 th most important			

THE DOCTOR'S DILEMMA

A lady was dying of cancer which could not be cured and she had only about six months to live. She was in terrible pain, but she was so weak that a good dose of pain-killer like morphine would make her die sooner. She was delirious and almost crazy with pain, and in her calm periods, she would ask the doctor to give her enough morphine to kill her. She said she couldn't stand the pain and that she was going to die in a few months anyway.

63	W/hat	chou	ld the	doctor	402
8.S.	wnai	SHOU	ıa me	COCIO	00!

- (A) He should give the lady an overdose that will make her die (B) Can't decide (C) Should not give the overdose

IMPORTANCE:

CIEST MICH	ii Some Little	HAORE
		84. Whether the woman's family is in favor of giving her the
		overdose or not.
		85. Is the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if
<u>ii</u>	<u>iii</u>	giving her an overdose would be the same as killing her?
		86. Whether people would be much better off without society
		regimenting their lives and even their deaths.
		87. Whether the doctor could make it appear like an accident.
		88. Does the state have the right to force continued existence on
	1 1	those who don't want to live.
		89. What is the value of death prior to society's perspective on
		personal values.
		90. Whether the doctor has sympathy for the woman's suffering
LL		or cares more about what society might think.
		91. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of
		cooperation?
		92. Whether only God should decide when a person's life should
		end.
		93. What values the doctor has set for himself in his own
L		personal code of behavior.
		94. Can society afford to let everybody end their lives when they
		want to?
		95. Can society allow suicides or mercy killing and still protect
		the lives of individuals who want to live?

	96. From the list of questions above, select the four most important (Please write this in):
	Most important 2 nd most important 3 rd most important 4 th most important
F.	Read each statement carefully, then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree based on the following scale: A) Agree strongly B) Agree somewhat C) Neither agree nor disagree D) Disagree somewhat E) Disagree strongly
97.	Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.
98.	The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.
99.	
100	
101	
	are given a chance.
102	
103	There is no excuse for lying to someone else.

104.	Generally speaking, people won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.
105.	All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.
106.	When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for
	wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight.
107.	Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean moral lives.
108.	Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.
109.	The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are
	stupid enough to get caught.
110.	Most people are brave.
111.	It is wise to flatter important people.
112.	It is possible to be good in all respects.
113.	Barnum was wrong when he said that there's a sucker born every minute.
114.	It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.
115.	People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to
115.	death.
116	
116.	Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.
G CF	heating in school occurs for a number of reasons. Evaluate the following motivations to cheat in
	hool based on the following scale:
30	A) Contributes very little to cheating
	B) Contributes little to cheating
	C) Contributes an average amount to cheating
	D) Contributes a great amount to cheating
	E) Contributes a very great amount to cheating
	E) Conditiones a very great amount to cheating
117.	The University requires a minimum GPA to stay in school.
118.	Top employers give more consideration to people with higher GPAs.
119.	Top Graduate Schools give greater consideration to people with higher GPAs.
120.	Parents pressure their children to raise grades.
121.	Peer pressure makes people cheat.
121.	Assistance from friends is easily available.
123.	Students did not have the time to study properly.
124.	Students did not take the time to study properly.
125.	Professors assign too much work for students to do.
126.	Students enjoy taking the risk and getting away with cheating.
127.	Because everyone else cheats, "honest" students have to cheat to stay ahead of the curve.
128.	Students do not identify with the University and therefore feel no responsibility toward it or
	its code of conduct.
129.	Professors do not care about teaching, so students do not care about learning.
130.	It is easy to cheat.
131.	Certain students just got in the habit of cheating in high school and continue it in college.
132.	People are just dishonest.
H. To	o what extent do you agree with the following statements?
	A) I agree very little
	B) I agree little
	C) I agree an average amount
	D) I agree a great amount
	E) I agree a very great amount
133	Professors expect(ed) me to engage in unethical behavior.
134	Professors expect the average student to engage in unethical behavior.
135	
136	I am (will be) expected to engage in unethical behavior in business.
137.	People are unethical by nature.

138 I behave in an unethical manner because there is an expectation for me to behave in that
manner.
139. The media creates the expectation that people will engage in unethical behavior.
140 The media creates the expectation that people will engage in ethical behavior.
141 When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the situation I was in.
142 When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the type of person I am.
143. When I have behaved unethically, it was because others expected me to, so I might as well.
I. Answer the following questions based on this scale:
A) A very little amount
B) A little amount
C) An average amount
D) A great amount
E) A very great amount
144. To what extent have you cheated in your career?
145 To what extent has the average student cheated in his/her career?
146. To what extent does the average business person engage in unethical behavior at work?
J. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
A) I agree very little
B) I agree little
C) I agree an average amount
D) I agree a great amount
E) I agree a very great amount
L) I agree a very great amount
147 I describe myself as honest and ethical.
148. I describe myself as dishonest and unethical.
K. Answer (A) for "Yes, I agree with the following statement" and (B) for "No, I do not agree".
149. Overall, I consider myself an honest and ethical person.
150. My actions demonstrate to others that I am an honest and ethical person.
151. My friends would describe me as an honest and ethical person.
152. From my perspective, most people are honest and ethical.
153. From my perspective, most people are nonest and ethical.
154. From my perspective, most people are dishonest and unethical.
155. From my perspective, my friends are not honest and ethical.
tant tam mil hardrage, of mil menten ma mar moneou ente acrease.

- L. In order that we may gain an understanding of the respondents how you feel, think, react, and so on please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your emotions and behavior. Please fill in your response to each item. Indicate whether you:
 - A. Strongly agree
 - B. Slightly agree
 - C. Neither agree nor disagree
 - D. Slightly agree
 - E. Strongly agree
- 156. I enjoy competition because it gives me a chance to discover my abilities.
- 157. Competition does not increase my awareness and understanding of myself and others.
- 158. Competition can lead to the formation of friendship with others.
- 159. Competition is not a means of motivating me to bring out the best in myself.
- 160. I enjoy competition because it tends to bring out the best in me rather than as a means of feeling better than others.
- 161. I do not find competition to be a very valuable means of learning about myself and others.
- 162. I like competition because it teaches me a lot about myself.
- 163. I value competition because it helps me to be the best that I can be.
- 164. I find competition enjoyable because it lets me express my own potentials and abilities.
- 165. Competition does not help me develop my abilities more.
- 166. Without the challenge of competition, I might never discover that I had certain potentials and abilities
- 167. I enjoy competition because it brings me and my competitors closer together as human beings.
- 168. I enjoy competition because it helps me to develop my own potentials more fully than if I engaged in these activities alone.
- 169. I enjoy competition because it brings me to a higher level of motivation to bring the best out of myself rather than as a means of doing better than others.
- 170. Through competition, I feel that I am contributing to the well-being of others.
- M. Please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your behavior. Please fill in your response to the following items. Indicate whether the statement is:
 - A. Not at all true about you
 - B. Hardly true about you
 - C. Moderately true about you
 - D. Exactly true about you.
- 171.I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
- 172. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
- 173.It is difficult for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
- 174.I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
- 175. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
- 176.I cannot solve most problems, even if I invest the necessary effort.
- 177. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
- 178. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
- 179. If I am in trouble, I cannot usually think of a solution.
- 180.I can usually handle whatever comes my way.

Questionnaire D – Unless otherwise specified, please answer the following questions on the optical scanning sheet provided. If you write the response on this sheet, please skip that question number on the optical scanning sheet.

A.	Demographics. Please answer the following questions.								
	I.	Gender	a)	Male	b)	Female			
	2.	Occupation/M	fajor (Pleas	e write th	nis in)				
	3.	Age (Please v	vrite this in)	·				
B.	A B C	ermine whethe Almost alway Usually true Seldom true Never true.		ment is:					
5. 6. 7.	I hate to wait in most lines. People tell me that I tend to get irritated too easily. Whenever possible, I try to make activities competitive. I have a tendency to rush into work that needs to be done before knowing the procedure I will use to complete the job.								
10.11.12.	Even when I go on vacation, I usually take some work along. When I make a mistake, it is usually due to the fact that I have rushed into the job before completely planning it through. I feel guilty for taking time off from work. People tell me I have a bad temper when it comes to competitive situations.								
14. 15. 16.	 13. I tend to lose my temper when I am under a lot of pressure at work. 14. Whenever possible, I will attempt to complete two or more tasks at once. 15. I tend to race against the clock. 16. I have no patience for lateness. 17. I catch myself rushing when there is no need. 								
C.	C. This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered a or b. Please select one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than the one you thin you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: obviously there are no right or wrong answers.								
	Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to fin an answer for every choice. In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far a you are concerned. Also, try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choice.								
18.	_					r parents punish them too much. days is that their parents are too easy with them.			
19.						e's lives are partly due to bad luck. mistakes they make.			

20	a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
	b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
21. <u> </u>	a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world. b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no mater how hard s/he tries.
22. <u> </u>	 a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense. b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
23. <u> </u>	a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
24	a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
25	a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality. b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.
26 	 a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
27. <u> </u>	 a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test. b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
28	a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
29 _	 a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
30	 a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
31	a. There are certain people who are just no good b. There is some good in everybody.
32	a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
^{33.}	 a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
34	a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.
	b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

35.	 · ·		e extent to which their lives are controlled by	y accidental				
	happening	s. ly is no such thin	a ac "luck"					
	o. There rear	ly is no such thin	g as luck.					
36.			ng to admit mistakes.					
	b. It is usual	ly best to cover up	one's mistakes.					
37.	a It is hard t	o know whether o	or not a person really likes you.					
J / .			depends upon how nice a person you are.					
38.			gs that happen to us are balanced by the goo					
	O. IVIOSE IIIISI	ortunes are the re	sult of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or	an uncc.				
39.	a. With enou	gh effort we can	wipe out political corruption.					
	b. It is diffica	ilt for people to h	ave much control over the things politicians	do in office.				
40.	a Sometime	e I oon't underste	nd how teachers arrive at the grades they giv	10				
₩.			between how hard I study and the grades I i					
				3				
41.			le to decide for themselves what they should	do.				
	b. A good lea	ider makes it clea	r to everybody what their jobs are.					
42.	a. Many time	s I feel that I hav	e little influence over the things that happen	to me.				
			lieve that chance or luck plays an important					
42	a Danala ana	lamala bassassa d	and doubt the fact and the					
43 .			ney don't try to be friendly. ing too hard to please people if they like you	they like you				
	o. There s in	k indea ase in a y	ing too mild to picase people it aloy like you	, ulcy like you.				
44.			on athletics in high school.					
	b. Team spor	ts are an excellen	t way to build character.					
45.	a. What haps	ens to me is my	own doing.					
			t have enough control over the direction my	life is taking.				
	N.G. (1. C.)			. •				
46.			lerstand why politicians behave the way they re responsible for bad government on a natio					
	local level.		ic responsible for bad government on a nativ	onai as well as on a				
D.	Please read the folk	owing scenario an	d answer the questions that follow based on	what you believe.				
	Mark Smith is an er	nnlovee at a maio	r automobile manufacturer. His company is	making a major nush				
			intries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. 1					
	order to obtain proj	<i>fitabilit</i> y. Mark i	s very close to completing negotiations with	Country X's				
			y a fee to an individual to make sure the paper					
			thion. He has also been made aware that sor					
		'appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his						
	company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.							
	A A Alia dia			d N- ki- k				
			ment official, Mark goes back to his hotel rook's boss did tell him that when he got back t					
			ations, as well as the outcome.	1				
	·		•					
	How likely is I that	Mark will engage	in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this	crucial business?				
47.	(A) Very likely	(B) Likely	(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely	(E) Very unlikely				

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

48. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that achieving this goal is questionable this semester – they may or not make this GPA. The fraternity recently had a meeting where the President urged everyone to do whatever they could to get good grades – within the bounds of the fraternity ethical code of conduct. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

Because the mid-semester grade report showed that Joe had a "D" in the course, he will have to report to the "grade committee" to present his final grade and explain exactly how he accomplished it.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

49. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

50. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Mark Smith is an employee at a major automobile manufacturer. His company is considering expanding its operations into foreign countries with skilled, but inexpensive labor. The company is quite successful, but is always looking for ways to be better. Mark is very close to completing negotiations with Country X's government, but has been asked to pay a fee to an individual to make sure the paperwork is taken to the appropriate people in a timely fashion. He has also been made aware that some of these "appropriate" people may also request some money to look favorably on Mark's organization's requests for permission to do business in their country. Mark is aware that bribery goes against his company's code of ethics and that it is illegal under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.

After this discussion with the government official, Mark goes back to his hotel room and calls his boss. The conversation was short, but Mark's boss did tell him that when he got back the President would like to hear every detail of the negotiations, as well as the outcome.

How likely is I that Mark will engage in paying the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

51. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

If you were in Mark's position, how likely is it that you would pay the "fees" in order to obtain this crucial business?

52. (A) Very likely

(B) Likely

(C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely

(E) Very unlikely

Joe Adams belongs to a fraternity that is the center of his social life. He has a great deal of loyalty to the fraternity due to its role in bringing him out of his shell. In order to keep its charter, the fraternity has to maintain an overall GPA of 2.5. Joe knows that the fraternity will easily achieve the goal this semester. Joe is aware that he is currently making a "D" in his Systems class and that the big final project could potentially bring that grade up to a "B". The instructor specifically told the class that this

was an individual project and that no one was allowed to work on it except for the student – the instructor and the course material should be the only resources needed to complete the project. However, Joe is uncertain as to his ability to do well on the project on his own and he is close friends with someone who recently made an "A" in this same class.

Because the mid-semester grade report showed that Joe had a "D" in the course, he will have to report to the "grade committee" to present his final grade and explain exactly how he accomplished it.

How likely is it that Joe will ask his close friend for help?

- 53. (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely

If you were in Joe's position, how likely is it that you would ask your close friend for help?

- 54 (A) Very likely
- (B) Likely
- (C) Not likely nor unlikely(D) Unlikely
- (E) Very unlikely
- E. This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people often have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. We would like you to tell us what you think about several problem stories. We will begin with an example THIS IS JUST AN EXAMPLE AND IS NOT TO BE ANSWERED BY THE RESPONDENT.

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. Below there is a list of some of these questions. If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding which car to buy?

On the left had side check one of the spaces by each statement of a consideration. (For instance, if you think that statement #1 is not important in making a decision about buying a car, check the space on the right.)

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

Citat	IVICILI	SOLIC	Littic	110110	
				х	1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives. (Note that in this sample, the person taking the questionnaire did not think this was important in making a decision.)
x					2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car? (Note that a check was put in the far left space to indicate the opinion that this is an important issue in making a decision about buying a car.)
		X			3. Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color.
				х	4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200. (Note that if you are unsure about what "cubic inch displacement" means, then mark it "no importance".)
X					5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car?
				Х	6. Whether the front connibles were differential. (Note that if a statement sounds like gibberish or nonsense to you, mark it "no importance".)

From the list of questions above, select the most important one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for your 2nd, 3rd, and 4th most

important choices. (Note that the top choices in this case will come from the statements that were checked on the far left-hand side – statements #2 and #5 were thought to be very important. In deciding what is the most important, a person would re-read #2 and #5, and then pick one of them as the most important, then put the other one as 2nd most important, and so on.)

MOST 2^{ND} MOST IMPORTANT 3^{RD} MOST IMPORTANT 4^{TH} MOST IMPORTANT $\underline{5}$ $\underline{2}$ $\underline{3}$ $\underline{1}$

HEINZ AND THE DRUG

In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging 10 times what the drug cost to make. He paid \$200 for the radium and charged \$2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about \$1,000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to think about breaking into the man's store and steal the drug for his wife.

55. Should Heinz steal th	e dena?

(A) Should steal it

(B) Can't decide

(C) Should not steal it

IMPORTANCE:

56. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld.
57. Isn't it only natural for a loving husband to care so much
for his wife that he'd steal?
58. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going
to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?
59. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has
considerable influence with professional wrestlers.
60. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely
to help someone else.
61. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be
respected.
62. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than
the termination of dying, socially and individually.
63. What values are going to be the basis for governing how
people act towards each other.
64. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide
behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow.
65. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the
most basic claim of any member of society.
66. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so
greedy and cruel.
67. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total
good for the whole society or not.
good for the whole society or not.

68.	From the list of q	uestions above, select the i	four most important (Pleas	e write this in):
	_Most important	2 nd most important	3 rd most important	4 th most importan

ESCAPED PRISONER

A man had been sentenced to prison for 10 years. After one year, however, he escaped from prison, moved to a new area of the country and took on the name of Thompson. For 8 years he worked hard, and gradually saved enough money to buy his own business. He was fair to his customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his own profits to charity. Then one day, Mrs. Jones, an old neighbor, recognized him as the man who had escaped from prison 8 years before, and whom the police had been looking for.

- 69. Should Mrs. Jones report Mr. Thompson to the police and have him sent back to prison?
- (A) Should report him
- (B) Can't decide
- (C) Should not report him

IMPORTANCE:

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E) Great Much Some Little None

	*******	OOM	Little	110110	
					70. Hasn't Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long
					time to prove he isn't a bad person?
					71. Every time someone escapes punishment for a crime,
					doesn't that just encourage more crime?
					72. Wouldn't we be better off without prisons and the
					oppression of our legal system?
					73. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society?
					74. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly
					expect?
					75. What benefits would prisons be apart from society,
l					especially for a charitable man?
					76. How could anyone be so cruel and heartless as to send Mr.
				ļ	Thompson to prison?
					77. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to serve out
					their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off?
					78. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson?
					79. Wouldn't it be a citizen's duty to report an escaped
LL					criminal, regardless of the circumstances?
					80. How would the will of the people and the public good best
					be served?
					81. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or
				_	protect anybody?

82.	From the list of questions above, select the four most important (Please write this in):						
	Most important	2 nd most important	3 rd most important	4 th most important			

THE DOCTOR'S DILEMMA

A lady was dying of cancer which could not be cured and she had only about six months to live. She was in terrible pain, but she was so weak that a good dose of pain-killer like morphine would make her die sooner. She was delirious and almost crazy with pain, and in her calm periods, she would ask the doctor to give her enough morphine to kill her. She said she couldn't stand the pain and that she was going to die in a few months anyway.

ደገ	What	shoul	id the	doctor	do?

- (A) He should give the lady an overdose that will make her die (B) Can't decide (C) Should not give the overdose

IMPORTANCE:

Great	Mucn	Some	Little	None	
					84. Whether the woman's family is in favor of giving her the overdose or not.
					85. Is the doctor obligated by the same laws as everybody else if giving her an overdose would be the same as killing her?
					86. Whether people would be much better off without society regimenting their lives and even their deaths.
					87. Whether the doctor could make it appear like an accident.
					88. Does the state have the right to force continued existence on those who don't want to live.
					89. What is the value of death prior to society's perspective on personal values.
					90. Whether the doctor has sympathy for the woman's suffering or cares more about what society might think.
					91. Is helping to end another's life ever a responsible act of cooperation?
					92. Whether only God should decide when a person's life should end.
					93. What values the doctor has set for himself in his own personal code of behavior.
	_				94. Can society afford to let everybody end their lives when they want to?
					95. Can society allow suicides or mercy killing and still protect the lives of individuals who want to live?

	96.	Fro	om the list of questions above, select the four most important (Please write this in):
		_ M	ost important2 nd most important3 nd most important4 th most important
F.			ich statement carefully, then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree based on the agree scale:
		A)	Agree strongly
		B)	Agree somewhat
		C)	Neither agree nor disagree
		D)	Disagree somewhat
		E)	Disagree strongly
97.			Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.
98.			The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.
99.			One should take actin only when sure it is morally right.
100).		Most people are basically good and kind.
101			It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they
			given a chance.
102	<u>.</u>		Honesty is the best policy in all cases.

103.	
104.	
105.	
106.	When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for
	wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight.
107.	Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean moral lives.
108.	Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.
109.	
	stupid enough to get caught.
110.	
111.	
112.	
113.	
114.	
115.	
	death.
116.	
	Cheating in school occurs for a number of reasons. Evaluate the following motivations to cheat in
	school based on the following scale:
	A) Contributes very little to cheating
	B) Contributes little to cheating
	C) Contributes an average amount to cheating
	D) Contributes a great amount to cheating
	E) Contributes a very great amount to cheating
117.	
118.	
119.	
120.	
121.	Peer pressure makes people cheat.
122.	Assistance from friends is easily available.
123.	Students did not have the time to study properly.
124.	Students did not take the time to study properly.
125.	
126.	
127.	
128.	
	its code of conduct.
129.	
130.	
131.	
132.	People are just dishonest.
H.	To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
	A) I agree very little
	B) I agree little
	C) I agree an average amount
	D) I agree a great amount
	E) I agree a very great amount
133.	
134.	
135.	
136.	
137.	People are unethical by nature.

138 I behave in an unethical manner because there is an expectation for me to behave in that
manner.
The media creates the expectation that people will engage in unethical behavior. The media creates the expectation that people will engage in ethical behavior.
140. The media creates the expectation that people will engage in ethical behavior.
141. When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the situation I was in. 142. When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the type of person I am.
142. When I have behaved unethically, it was because of the type of person I am.
143. When I have behaved unethically, it was because others expected me to, so I might as well.
I. Answer the following questions based on this scale:
A) A very little amount
B) A little amount
C) An average amount
D) A great amount
E) A very great amount
144 To what extent have you cheated in your career?
To what extent has the average student cheated in his/her career?
146. To what extent does the average business person engage in unethical behavior at work?
J. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
A) I agree very little
B) I agree little
C) I agree an average amount
D) I agree a great amount
E) I agree a very great amount
147 I describe associate housest and othical
147 I describe myself as honest and ethical.
148. I describe myself as dishonest and unethical.
K. Answer (A) for "Yes, I agree with the following statement" and (B) for "No, I do not agree".
149.Overall, I consider myself an honest and ethical person.
150.My actions demonstrate to others that I am an honest and ethical person.
151.My friends would describe me as an honest and ethical person.
152. From my perspective, most people are honest and ethical.
153. From my perspective, my friends are honest and ethical.
154. From my perspective, most people are dishonest and unethical.
155. From my perspective, my friends are not honest and ethical.

- L. In order that we may gain an understanding of the respondents how you feel, think, react, and so on please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your emotions and behavior. Please fill in your response to each item. Indicate whether you:
 - A. Strongly agree
 - B. Slightly agree
 - C. Neither agree nor disagree
 - D. Slightly agree
 - E. Strongly agree
- 156. I enjoy competition because it gives me a chance to discover my abilities.
- 157. Competition does not increase my awareness and understanding of myself and others.
- 158. Competition can lead to the formation of friendship with others.
- 159. Competition is not a means of motivating me to bring out the best in myself.
- 160. I enjoy competition because it tends to bring out the best in me rather than as a means of feeling better than others.
- 161. I do not find competition to be a very valuable means of learning about myself and others.
- 162. I like competition because it teaches me a lot about myself.
- 163. I value competition because it helps me to be the best that I can be.
- 164. I find competition enjoyable because it lets me express my own potentials and abilities.
- 165. Competition does not help me develop my abilities more.
- 166. Without the challenge of competition, I might never discover that I had certain potentials and abilities.
- 167. I enjoy competition because it brings me and my competitors closer together as human beings.
- 168. I enjoy competition because it helps me to develop my own potentials more fully than if I engaged in these activities alone.
- 169. I enjoy competition because it brings me to a higher level of motivation to bring the best out of myself rather than as a means of doing better than others.
- 170. Through competition, I feel that I am contributing to the well-being of others.
- M. Please indicate your responses to the following statements about how you feel about yourself and aspects of your behavior. Please fill in your response to the following items. Indicate whether the statement is:
 - A. Not at all true about you
 - B. Hardly true about you
 - C. Moderately true about you
 - D. Exactly true about you.
- 171.I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
- 172. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
- 173. It is difficult for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
- 174.I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
- 175. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
- 176.I cannot solve most problems, even if I invest the necessary effort.
- 177.I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
- 178. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
- 179.If I am in trouble, I cannot usually think of a solution.
- 180.I can usually handle whatever comes my way.