The Effect of Organizational Culture on Deviant Behaviors in the Workplace

Giovanni Di Stefano, Fabrizio Scrima & Emma Parry

Abstract

This study investigated the impact of organizational culture (OC) on deviant behaviors in the workplace (workplace deviant behaviors: WDB). We tested the hypothesis that different types of OC (according to the Competing Values Framework model) had an impact on WDB, in addition to the effect of Big Five personality traits. Survey research was undertaken with 954 employees of 30 enterprises in the public and private field, using a hierarchical model approach (HLM) to test the effects of four types of OC (Clan; Adhocracy; Market, Hierarchy) on WDB, over and above the effect of Five Personality traits. The HLM results partially supported our hypotheses, showing that the OC had a significant effect on WDB, with the adhocracy and clan cultures characterized by lower levels of WDB. Managerial implications about the importance of managing the OC are discussed.

Keywords: Organizational culture, Workplace deviant behaviors, Disruptive behaviors, Competing Values Framework, Personality traits.

The Effect of Organizational Culture on Deviant Behaviors in the Workplace

A complex phenomenon that characterizes life in organizations is the manifestation of behaviors that betray the fiduciary relationship between employee and organization. In the organizational literature, scholars and practitioners refer to these events as deviant behaviors in the workplace. Deviant behaviors in the workplace are generally defined as an employee's behaviors in the work context that harm an organization and its legitimate interests (Sackett, 2002). Workplace Deviant Behavior (WDB) may include a variety of forms, from minor to severe issues and acts such as fraud, problem-making, low performance, misuse of organization time, web surfing during office hours, theft, aggression, drug abuse, and various types of mobbing and harassment (Kidwell & Martin, 2005). Bennett and Robinson (2000) emphasized that WDB can be divided into two main categories according to its targets: behaviors that target other individuals (WDB-I), and behaviors targeting the organization (WDB-O). The first category, WDB-I, comprises deviant behaviors such as playing pranks on others, acting rudely, gossiping; the second category, WDB-O, comprises deviant behaviors such as stealing from the firm and sabotaging its materials/supplies, equipment or property.

Empirical studies in this area suggest that, broadly speaking, two groups of variables may cause WDB: first, individual level variables; and second, situational or organizational level explanations of WDB (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Alias, Mohd Rasdi, Ismail, & Abu Samah, 2013). Individual differences research has conceptualized undesirable work behaviors as a reflection of different personality traits (i.e., utilizing the Big Five factor model of personality: McCrae & Costa; 1997), suggesting that individuals that are emotionally stable, extraverted, accommodating, trusting, and responsible are likely to express lower levels of WDB

(Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Dalal, 2005; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 2003; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Salgado, 2002). Although the main effects of various personality factors on organizational outcomes are generally well supported by research, effect sizes for their role in predicting WDB are generally small, leaving much variance unexplained (Kish-Gephart, Harrison, & Treviño, 2010), suggesting that organizational-related variables could be relevant to enhance the understanding of workplace deviance (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006).

Compared to the individual level, less empirical research has directly addressed the relationship between organizational factors and WDB, pointing out the role of situational variables, such as organizational climate perceptions (Peterson, 2002; Spector, Coulter, Stockwell, & Matz, 2007), ethical climate (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Kanten & Er Ulker, 2013; Vardi & Weitz, 2004), injustice perceptions (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Henle, 2005; Liao & Rupp, 2005), and perceived organizational support (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2009). Among the contextual determinants of organizational behavior, scholars have also highlighted the importance of organizational culture (OC) in influencing WDB (e.g., Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; van Fleet & Griffin, 2006; Vardi & Weitz, 2004); but, although they claim that the influences of OC on the presence of deviant behaviors are clear (e.g., Boye & Jones, 1997; Kidwell & Martin, 2005; O'Boyle, Forsyth, & O'Boyle, 2011; van Fleet and Griffin, 2006), to date, there has been very little empirical research on this topic (Ehrhart & Raver, 2014). In fact, most empirical work seems to have ignored this macro-level, contextual predictor, focusing instead on more manageable antecedents such as organizational ethical climate or organizational justice.

For example, Boye and Jones (1997), in their review, reported an empirical study in which were investigated organizational values (that are a key concept of OC) in relation to employee theft, concluding that 10 values had in particular the potential to lower levels of stealing (e.g., caring and empathy, fair payments, interpersonal cooperation, honesty and ethics), but some of these factors may be more appropriately considered as organizational practices instead of values (Ehrhart & Raver, 2014). Also, Ramshida and Manikandan (2013) recently found a mediation effect of organizational commitment in the relationship between OC and WDB, but in their study they utilized a measure of OC generically described as an instrument "[…] designed to help and understand an organization's culture and identify the ways to deal with culture-based problems" (p. 64); moreover, the hypothesized relations between OC and WDB are not further detailed.

Also, when considering the role of OC in determining WDB, the literature takes into account *negative* OC factors (i.e., unethical values), or the *positive* ones (e.g., norms and values supportive of profitability, honesty, and commitment to the organization), implying the assumption that OC can be evaluated in terms of right and wrong, without considering any ambiguity (Alvesson, 2002). Thus, there would appear to be a need for research examining OC in relation to WDB, considering that OC is neither good nor bad, but simply may foster values and behaviors that support or impede certain organizational behaviors. Most researchers acknowledge that both individual and situational predictors are relevant to WDB; in fact, a number of studies have provided evidence in support of a "person x situation" model (Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Colbert et al., 2004; Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005; Spector, Fox, & Domagalski, 2006; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). However, due to limited studies on the effects of OC on WDB, the present study focused on the role that this variable may play beyond the effect of

personality traits. In doing this, it is hypothesized that organizational level (OC), when added to the individual level predictors (Big Five factors), contributes appreciably and significantly to the prediction of WDB. In general, research has found significant relationships between WDB and all five factors (Salgado, 2002). We therefore posit that OC could be considered as a direct and relevant predictor of WDB, in addition to personality traits, as a result of its function of providing shared mental assumptions that could help in adopting the proper behavior in the organizations (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). This study adopted a multi-level perspective: specifically, we analyzed how personality variables, at the individual level, and the organizational culture, at the organizational level, were related to workplace deviance, at the individual level (see figure 1). Since we are interested in analyzing the direct relationship OC-WDB, beyond the effect of personality traits, no interaction between the two levels is expected.

INSERT FIGURE 1

The organizational culture as an antecedent of WDB

An organization has a propensity to elicit or inhibit deviance through its culture. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) indicate that whether behavior is interpreted, tolerated or accepted depends on the organizational culture; as such, 'employees will commit deviant acts at work depending on the work environment they are in regardless of their individual characteristics' (Henle, 2005: p. 248). OC can be defined as the set of values, norms, assumptions, and beliefs that exist among organizational members, which influence employee attitudes, thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. According to Schein (2004), at the basis of OC are the embedded organizational values that eventually influence employee behaviors. So, the construct of OC is the extent to which

members share core organizational values (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2004; Trice & Beyer, 1993) that lead to possible outcomes within organizations. Hence, the values can be considered as the fundamental component of organizational culture; also, culture influences employees' behavior '[…] because individuals behave in ways that are consistent with their values, and organizational culture is a set of shared values. Therefore, the culture of an organization should create behavioral expectancies that direct the employees to behave in ways that are consistent with its culture.' (Gregory, Harris, Armenakis, & Shook, 2009: p. 674).

According to Wiener and Vardi (1990), culture can be defined as a system of shared values, which produces normative pressures on members of organizations, thus playing an important role in affecting motivation and behavior at work. As actual behavior, patterns of WDB are rooted in organizationally espoused values; by communicating expectations and by role modeling, managers transmit these values to employees, not only with regard to desirable and acceptable behavior, but also with regard to deviance (Vardi, 2001). From this point of view, the question of what could be the effect of OC on WDB can be reformulated in term of exposed values and assumptions that may directly or indirectly *trigger* or *control* the elicitation of deviance. We refer to the Marcus & Schuler's (2004) framework of motivation/control as fundamental classes of antecedents of deviant conduct, suggesting that cultural values either *control* WDB (that is, inhibit their expression) or *motivate* them (that is, can provoke WDB as a response). In other words, control values are aspects of a culture that prevent members of an organization from engaging in WDB; motivator values are aspects of a culture that activate individuals towards WDB.

A taxonomy of OC which focalizes on distinct culture types based on core values of the organization is the Competing Values Framework (CVF: Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cameron &

Quinn, 2011): this model designates four unique value orientations that are the dominant

activities that encourage value creation and represent a simplistic structure of organizational

culture values (e.g., collaborate, create, control, and compete) (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff, &

Thakor, 2014). The study of organizational effectiveness has revealed two orthogonal primary

dimensions used in the CVF: Flexibility and Discretion *vs.* Stability and Control, and Internal

focus and Integration (e.g. emphasis on people) *vs.* External focus and Differentiation (e.g.

emphasis on organization), respectively (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). These two dimensions reveal

a matrix with four quadrants, known in the CVF as *Hierarchy culture*, *Market culture*,

Adhocracy culture, and *Clan culture* (see figure 2), which designates four distinct culture types

based on the core values of the organization.

INSERT FIGURE 2

Cameron and Quinn (2011) propose that opposite dimensions along the diagonals of the

matrix represent opposing pairs of core values. In turn, these opposing quadrants represent

competing (and opposing) value orientations, as well as specific means-ends. Because OC

provides employees with normative information concerning behavioral styles as well as specific

behaviors that an organization values, we propose that WDB might be employees' responses

toward their adaptation to the organizational context, driven by its shared values. From a

theoretical point of view, the OC-WDB relationship can be framed within a social exchange

theory perspective (Blau, 1964), which posits that employees and their employer are involved in

forming an interdependent relationship, whereby one party's behavior influences the other.

Within this theory, it is believed that values, norms, and all other facets of OC are learned

through prior exchange experience shared by organizational members. Conversely, the

organizational values may influence how exchange relationships develop, as certain behaviors

will be recognized as more valuable than others will. Thus, certain exchange relationships will be

prioritized as their reciprocal behaviors will be viewed more positively and encouraged by the

cultural values (Cole, Schaninger, & Harris, 2002). These exchanges are guided by *norms* of

exchange that describe how one ought to behave in a particular situation (Cropanzano &

Mitchell, 2005). Since exchange norms provide standards of behavior between employees and

organizations, WDB can be considered as a result of a social exchange between employee and

her/his organization (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004). In particular, organizational values may

underpin the employee-organization relationship, providing a frame in which the relationship

employee-organization develops (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Each specific kind of value

guides exchange interactions between exchange partners and suggests beneficial inducements

received from one party generate the obligation to return beneficial behavior. In a similar vein,

Wiśniewska-Mikosik (2015) pointed out that the exchanges in organizations may be controlled

not only by market mechanisms, such as salary, or a bureaucratic mechanism, in the form of

provisions, but also by a cultural form of regulations, which includes values. Culture itself is

manifested in the nature of the exchange patterns that emerge between employees and in the

norms and values employees usually invoke to orient themselves to others and to the

organization (Jones, 1983). Moreover, Biron (2010) studied the values-behavior relationship in

the determination of WDB under theoretical lens of social exchange theory, suggesting that the

nature (or quality) of exchange relationships between employer and employees might influence

the expression of deviant behaviors. Finally, Richard, McMillan-Capehart, Bhuian, & Taylor

(2009), using the CVF, demonstrated how different kinds of OC values encourage specific

different type of social exchange (i.e., psychological contract), suggesting the critical role of OC in creating, developing and influencing distinctive types of exchange relationships (i.e., relational versus transactional psychological contract).

In particular, research that utilized social exchange theory as an explanatory framework for why people engage in WDB, has focused on the norm of reciprocity (Biron, 2010; Colbert et al., 2004; Gouldner, 1960; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell, 2010): negative reciprocity norms psychologically sanction WDB as a means of revenge, while positive reciprocity, too, can lead to WDB in terms of a favor to a friend (see O'Boyle, Forsyth, & O'Boyle, 2011). But, as Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) have pointed out, other exchange norms are viable as well. Among the others, one well-known and influential model was proposed by Meeker (1971): this author suggested six exchange principles simultaneously in an exchange, namely reciprocity, rationality, altruism, group gain, status consistency, and competition. In the first norm, *reciprocity*, rules may be negotiated among members to reach an agreement (reciprocity). Second, *rationality* involves applying logic to determine the outcomes of a decision and the worth of those outcomes. The third assumption, *altruism*, also called social responsibility, focuses on helping the other person. Fourth, the *group gain* assumption states that all rewards are combined and people take what they need. The fifth assumption, *status consistency*, also referred to as rank equilibration, distributes rewards based on someone's standing within the group. The sixth assumption is *competition*, or rivalry, which focuses on obtaining more rewards than the other person. Our argument is that OC relates to WDB via different norms of exchange; therefore, the present study proposes how different OC values, according to the CVF, endorse a specific kind of norm of exchange and this, in turn, promote or

impede WDB. Also, referring to the CVF model, we propose that specific cultural typologies

may have a potential influence in contributing to and eliciting WDB.

Hierarchy culture

The hierarchy culture is based on the values of control and stability. Research has found

that this cultural type is negatively related to organizational commitment, job involvement,

empowerment, job satisfaction (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001), trust, morale, equity of

rewards (Zammuto & Krakower, 1991) and positively related to conflict and resistance to change

(Goodman et al., 2001). This culture is typical of organizations with an internal focus on people

dimensions, and emphasis on control, which adopt centralized authority over organizational

processes, respect formal hierarchy, and adhere to rules; the predominant leadership style is

conservative and cautious. Since this culture values efficiency, reliability, predictability, and

standardization, maintained by strict adherence to the numerous rules, policies, and procedures,

the employees throughout the multiple hierarchical levels have almost no discretion. Following

Meeker's (1971) model, hierarchy may therefore be closer to the *rationality* rule, which refers to

rational actions performed by means of logic, and in part to the *status consistency* exchange rule,

which implies that behavior is motivated by the need to affirm or attain a particular rank

standing. As Tobin (2001) has argued, a greater degree of formalization (rules, procedures, and

guidelines of an organization) may provoke a greater degree of alienation from work, and hence

WDB. Also, when authority in organizations is centralized, members have little opportunity to

participate in decision-making (Aiken & Hage, 1966): this situation of power asymmetry may

cause the employees to engage in WDB as a means of resisting organizational authority and

powerlessness (Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007).

Therefore, we hypothesize:

H₁: Hierarchy culture type is positively related to WDB-I and WDB-O.

Market culture

The market culture emphasizes a highly competitive value orientation, not only placing great importance on success, but also defining the competitive struggle for personal achievement as a positive, rather than negative activity. Employees in these organizations are driven to be assertive and competitive, taking initiative and valuing material reward; the prevalent leadership style is directive and goal-oriented. High market cultures are negatively associated with the psychological climate dimensions of trust and equity (Zammuto & Krakower, 1991) and positively associated with conflict and scapegoating, as well as increased career development (Smart & John, 1996). The market culture, by definition, is characterized by dense competition between employees. In fact, employees often find themselves competing with each other to achieve career development, benefits and resources in general. According to Meeker's (1971) model, this culture is conceptually near to the norm of *competition*, since it is a rule whereby one attempts to harm others even at the cost of losing one's own earnings. We argue that a market culture, due to its feature of employees competing for the achievement of organizational aims, could influence the manifestation of WDB. Support for this view comes from Yukl (2002), who stated that unethical behaviors are more likely in organizations with high pressure for increased productivity and intense competition for rewards and advancement: so, a market culture can strongly encourage WDB. We therefore hypothesize:

H₂: Market culture type is positively related to WDB-I and WDB-O.

Adhocracy culture

Adhocracy culture focuses on flexibility and innovation in order to satisfy stakeholders' needs. Its focus is on stimulation, growth, and creativity; the prominent leadership style is

inventive and risk-taking. Adhocracy culture is positively related to organizational commitment, intention to stay, and information systems service quality (Hauser & Paul, 2006). Moreover, Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) found that employees within an adhocracy culture score significantly higher than those in a hierarchical culture on job satisfaction and promotions. Since in an adhocracy-type organization individual continues his/her endeavors as long as the invested efforts and realized benefits are in equilibrium or even beneficial, in order to push toward innovation and change (Ehls, 2014), adhocracy culture may motivate and sustain the social exchange rule of *reciprocity* (Meeker, 1971), since it refers to the mutual reinforcement by the parties. Jin and Drozdenko (2010) and Jin, Drozdenko, and Bassett (2007) examined the influence of organizational values on WDB, founding that organizations that support trust, individual creativity and empowerment report lesser levels of WDB. Hence, we expect that WDB may be less likely in adhocracy cultures. Based upon this argument, our hypothesis is:

> *H₃: Adhocracy culture type is negatively related to WDB-I and WDB-O.*

Clan Culture

The clan culture, since it places high value on employees and the organization's flexibility, represents a collaborative value orientation; the leadership style is mostly concerned and supportive. This type of organization emphasizes teamwork, employee involvement, empowerment, cohesion, participation; it is held together by loyalty and tradition. Research has shown that this type of culture was positively related to trust (Zammuto & Krakower, 1991), organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001). In this culture, more importance is given to teamwork and group rewards than individual contributions. Employees tend to engage in more prosocial and organizational citizenship behaviors. In accordance with Meeker (1971), this culture may be related to the

exchange norm of *group gain*, which states that individuals may choose exchange communally in that individuals contribute to a "common pot" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) when they can, and take contributions from a "common pot" when needed (all things are held in common). As individuals are expected to act for the interest of the groups, behaviors that are damaging to the collective are strongly discouraged while prosocial behaviors are rewarded (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004); hence, WDB may be less likely in clan cultures. We therefore hypothesize:

> *H$_4$: Clan culture type is negatively related to WDB-I and WDB-O.*

Method

The sample consisted of individuals from 30 organizations (15 public sector, 15 private sector) in Italy. All participants worked full time in a medium/large organization, and were willing to evaluate their perceived values regarding OC and behaviors in organization. We sent letters explaining the study and the requirements for inclusion to 1200 workers. Overall, 954 Italian working adults within thirty organizations were invited to take part in this research. They were 50.6% female. Their age ranged from 18 to 70 years (mean age was 46.30, *SD* = 12.44). The sample was composed of: line and staff workers (68.5%), middle-managers (13.5%), upper-managers (10.8%) and blue-collars (7.2%). The participants had been employed by their organizations for between 1 and 45 years (mean = 18.65, *SD* = 11.73). There were no systematic variations in the sample demographic and organizational variables of practical significance.

Procedure

A survey in paper format was individually administered in the workplace to the employees during regularly scheduled work time, as part of a larger survey questionnaire designed to investigate person-environmental fit variables in relation to work-related stress risk.

The response rate was 79.5%. To reduce common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), the survey was anonymous and had its item orders counterbalanced across participating organizations.

Measures

WDB. We utilized the Italian version (Giorgi & Mayer, 2005) of the Workplace Deviance Scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). This instrument measures two broad dimensions of WDB in the workplace. The first scale consists of seven items that assess WDB that is directly harmful to other individuals within the organization (WDB-I). An example is: "Played a mean prank on someone at work." The second scale consists of 12 items that assess WDB that is directly harmful to the organization (WDB-O). An example of an item is: "Taken property without company permission". All participants rated themselves on the 19 items on a 7-point Likert scale: from 1 = *never* to 7 = *daily*. Evidence presented by Bennett and Robinson (2000) showed that the two scales have acceptable internal reliabilities, and they also provided evidence from confirmatory analyses showing that a two-factor structure has acceptable fit. In this study, coefficients alpha for self-ratings were .78 and .80 for WDB-I and WDB-O, respectively.

Personality traits. The NEO-Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Hahn, & Comrey, 2001) is a 60-item measure of five common personality traits, with each of the five scales composed of 12 items. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of the personality trait, as follows:

Neuroticism: this scale measures anger, anxiety, vulnerability, and depression (e.g., "When I'm under a great deal of stress, sometimes I feel like I'm going to pieces."). In our study, the coefficient alpha was .78.

Extraversion: this scale includes items that assess warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, and activity level (e.g., "I am a cheerful, high-spirited person."). The coefficient alpha was .83.

Openness to experience: this scale includes items that assess openness to new experiences, imagination, ideas, and values (e.g., "I have a lot of intellectual curiosity."). The coefficient alpha was .72.

Agreeableness: this scale measures items reflective of trustworthiness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tenderness (e.g., "I would rather cooperate with others than compete with them."). The coefficient alpha was .77.

Conscientiousness: this scale assesses competence, order, dutifulness, self-discipline, and deliberation. Persons with high scores on this scale are considered to be perfectionist, driven, and hasty (e.g., "I strive for excellence in everything I do."). The coefficient alpha was .82.

Organizational culture. The Italian version (Di Stefano & Scrima, 2016) of the Organizational Cultural Assessment Inventory (OCAI) was used in the current study. The original instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991), based on the CVF model, is a six-item ipsative measure, the items being related to dominant characteristics; organizational leader; organizational "glue"; organizational climate; criteria of success; and management style. For each item, respondents are given four descriptions of organizations (each corresponding to one of the four competing values) and asked to distribute 100 points among them, according to how similar the description is to the respondent's organization. In the present study, we used the Likert-type questionnaire, consisting in 24 items

designed to measure the employees' perceptions of the organizational context, in order to

generate a standardized organizational profile consistent with the CVF. Each of the items is a

statement that respondents are asked to apply to their organization. The extent of their agreement

is measured on a five-point Likert scale, anchored on the bipolar 1 = *very strongly disagree* and 5

= *very strongly agree*. The items constitute four dimensions of six items each, with each group

related to one of the four competing models: clan (e.g., "The organization defines success on the

basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern

for people."), adhocracy (e.g., "The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and

creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued."),

market (e.g., "The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving

competitiveness, high demands, and achievement."), and hierarchy (e.g., "The organization

emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.").

In the present study, the alpha coefficients were .70 for clan, .72 for adhocracy, .76 for market,

and .75 for hierarchy.

Results

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix for the study

variables. As can be seen from this table, personality traits were significantly related to both

WDB-I mean scores (p < .001) and WDB-O (p < .001) mean scores with the exception of the

extraversion dimension. Significant relationships were also found between the two work

deviance scales and three of the four organizational cultures. Market culture was not significantly

related to the two constructs. Of the socio-demographic data, education level, organizational

tenure and type of contract were related to the two components of the work deviance scale (*p* <

.001), while organizational level was related only to WDB-I ($p < .001$) and personal tenure was related only to WDB-O ($p < .001$).

INSERT TABLE 1

In order to test the hypothesized effects (H_1, H_2, H_3, and H_4), random intercepts hierarchical linear models (HLM) analyses were used to estimate cross-level relationships between organizational-level dimensions of culture, and individual-level work deviance behavior (Hofmann, 1997; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The HLM analyses estimate the unique contributions of each of the primary dimensions of organizational culture to individual-level WDB-I and WDB-O. According to Chen, Liu and Portnoy (2012), Snape and Redman (2010), and Aarons and Sawitzky (2006), our model provides a two-levels analysis (individual and organizational level, respectively), and does not take into account the unit level. In fact, the group aggregation is essentially a theoretical matter and, if the cross-level influence can be theoretically justified, it does not cause interpretation bias (see also Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu, 2007); also, the use of the individual and organizational level of analysis is not infrequent in multilevel research (see Costa et al., 2013). HLM was performed using the same procedure already proposed by Chuang, Lee, and Shen (2014). Each HLM analysis was conducted in a hierarchical fashion using restricted maximum likelihood estimation for mixed effects regression models with SPSS software.

In order to justify the data aggregation, we calculated r_{wg}: this index allowed us to test the adequacy of the agreement within-group of our constructs in terms of organizations. The average values of r_{wg} from .72 to .84 were obtained for the four organizational cultures. In addition, we

calculated the intraclass correlation (ICC1): this was .17 for Hierarchy, .18 for Market, .21 for

Adhocracy, and .20 for Clan. Finally, the reliability of group mean (ICC2) was .62 for Hierarchy,

.64 for Market, .68 for Adhocracy, and .66 for Clan. These values were comparable to the

recommended value of .60 (Glick, 1985).

Table 2 presents the results of the HLM multilevel relationships between personality

traits, organizational culture and workplace deviant behavior. As regards WDB-I, neuroticism

and extraversion seem to have no effect on the manifestation of such behavior, in addition clan

culture (B = -.153, p < .001) and adhocracy culture (B = -.126, p < .001) seem to be able to

reduce the manifestation of WDB. As regards the WDB-O, all five-personality factors contribute

to the manifestation of WDB. However, also in this case the clan cultures (B = -.096, p < .013)

and adhocracy culture B = -.171, p < .001) seem to be able to reduce the manifestation of such

behavior.

INSERT TABLE 2

Discussion

The current study adds to knowledge on WDB through the finding that personality traits

are not the only characteristics influencing WDB. The present study also provides a basis for

future studies in investigating the effect of organizational variables (OC). Our primary

assumption was that the OC values, beyond employees' personality traits, had an effect on the

expression of WDB. Using a HLM analysis, OC appeared to influence WDB toward both

individuals and the organization. This result is in line with the findings of Hill and Jones (2001)

who noted that the sharing of certain values categories, norms, assumptions, and goals influence

the dynamics of relationships among employees, between employees and organization and, even, between organization and external stakeholders. As Pearson, Andersson, and Porath (2005) pointed out, because organizational norms and values are enacted through OC, it seems reasonable to assert that OC and WDB will be interrelated. Our work extends this concept and empirically verifies the effect of OC on the manifestation of the WDB.

We also made more detailed suppositions with regard to differential pattern of relationships between specific organizational cultural types and the manifestation of WDB, utilizing the CVF, suggesting that while hierarchical and market cultures could be positively related to WDB, adhocracy and clan cultures could lower the levels of organizational deviance; the findings of the present study partially supported our hypotheses. In particular, contrary to our expectations, hierarchical (H_1) and market (H_2) cultures were not associated with a strong manifestation of WDB. We suggest that this result could be explained by the *control* function (see Marcus & Schuler, 2004) that absolves the value of control embedded in this culture type. Hierarchy culture, highlighting order, formal rules and policies, and emphasizing procedures and structure, gives a sense of procedural justice to its members and instills a sense of security, certainty and clarity in roles (Vijayakumar & Padma, 2014). Since the lack of procedural justice, which reflects the perceived fairness of the organizational procedures, is strongly associated with WDB (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007), it is possible that when faced with a hierarchy culture, characterized by strong presence of accurate information of the processes by which decisions are made, employees may engage less in form of WDB. On the other hand, since they are production-oriented, market cultures focus on efficiency and goal achievement; the importance assigned to task fulfillment is the means by which the organization controls and directs employee behaviors, because organizational rewards are based on measurable outcomes (Gregory et al.,

2009; Singer et al., 2009). So, members of these organizations may be less likely to engage in

WDB (e.g., misuse of time and resources), as these behaviors will likely hurt performance and

productivity.

With regard to hypotheses 3 and 4, we argued that low levels of WDB could characterize

adhocracy and clan cultures. Our results confirm these hypotheses. Previous research has shown

that flexibility-oriented organizations, such as those with clan or adhocracy cultures, are

positively correlated with a climate of trust, a positive attitude toward the organization, and

equity of rewards (Zammuto & Krakower, 1991). Who works in a trusting context, characterized

by participation and commitment (e.g., clan culture), or in an environment which contributes to

responsibility, personal challenge, and individual growth (e.g., adhocracy culture) is likely to

express low levels of WDB. Of the two dimensions that characterize the organizational cultures

according to the CVF (see figure 2), it would seem therefore that the stability *versus* flexibility,

and specifically only the pole of flexibility characterizes the lower expression of WDB. In fact,

both cultures clan and adhocracy share values of flexibility, discretion, and dynamism. We may

argue that organizations that are changing, adaptable, versatile, and organic are less prone to

elicit WDB, whereas the dimension of internal *versus* external focus (e.g., emphasis toward

integration and unity *versus* differentiation and rivalry) may be less important in discriminating

these behaviors. Previous research has shown that flexibility-oriented organizations, such as

those with clan or adhocracy cultures, are positively correlated with a climate of trust, a positive

attitude toward the organization, and equity of rewards (Zammuto & Krakower, 1991).

Furthermore, San Park and Kim (2009) showed that employees feel job security and commitment

when they work in an organizational context which values participation, collaboration, and

assigns peculiar importance to the development of human resources, thus increasing intention to

stay. Adhocracy and clan cultures were positively and significantly related to the satisfaction of co-workers, which could explicate lower levels of WDB.

From a theoretical standpoint, the present study posits the relative contribution that OC, notably core values, may serve in complementing the social exchange view (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Meeker, 1971) in the explanation of employees' behaviors. Of course, empirical research is needed to directly investigate the relationships that might exist between OC and social exchange norms, providing an operationalization of social exchange constructs (i.e., McMillan & Albrecht, 2010).

An anonymous reviewer of an early version of this paper commented that the four culture types of CVF appear to be more complementary rather than competing, referring to a previous meta-analytic study conducted by Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki (2011); but Hartnell et al. included studies that used not only OCAI, but also other measures that they believed conceptually correspond to the dimensions of the CVF, "[…] thereby prospectively muddying the reported relationships on the basis of subjectively-inferred overlap with the OCAI factors." (Heritage, Pollock, & Roberts, 2014: p. 9). They also used three of the four culture types in their study, omitting hierarchy culture. Moreover, their study presented some methodological weaknesses in the analyses and in the sample of studies they examined (see Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff, & Thakor, 2014, chapter 9, for an extensive review to Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011).

Of course, further investigations are needed to discern the details of the different relationships between the various types of organizational culture and WDB.

Limitations and future research

There are some limitations to this study. WDB is a sensitive issue among respondents; using a survey self-report method for capturing employees' personal tendencies poses a risk to the study's internal validity due to common method bias. Despite existing evidence suggests that self-reports of WDB are valid measures, particularly when anonymity is guaranteed (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), it is important that future studies conduct replications of WDB from different sources, such as co-workers and supervisors (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009), or with the use of non-self-report measures (Stewart, Bing, Kristl Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009).

Secondly, the ability to generalize findings is limited. In the study of WDB, it is important to specify the targets to which the study is directed. As Hershcovis et al. (2007) pointed out, the predictors of WDB are dependent on the target (e.g., supervisor, co-worker, or organization); measures that combine targets may provide results that either understate or overstate the population effect.

Finally, as mentioned earlier, the present study aimed to provide a first attempt at considering the predictive effect of OC in explaining WDB. This has not previously been considered in the literature. In fact, most empirical work has ignored this macro-level, contextual predictor, focusing instead on more manageable antecedents such as organizational ethical climate, leadership style or organizational justice (see van Fleet & Griffin, 2006; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Vardi & Weitz, 2004)[1]. Research has failed to explain a substantial proportion of the variance in unethical organizational behavior using contextual variables alone (Kish-Gephart, Harrison, & Treviño, 2010). Not only does OC differ in its impact on WDB, individuals also differ in predisposition to commit deviant behavior, as the researches on the individual predictors of WDB have widely underlined (e.g., Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). The debate surrounding which type of predictor explains

more variance continues, and further studies need to deepen the relations between OC and WDB, adopting an interactionist perspective.

Practical implications

WDB his an important issue for organization because of their impact, since they weaken organizational citizenship behaviors, decrease productivity, and boost phenomena such as employee absenteeism and withdrawals (Brooks, 2012). These behaviors therefore need to be properly managed by the organizations and managers.

This study attempts to offer insight to managers by providing initial evidence about the effects of OC on WDB. The success of a values framework could lead us to think that a modern system of control of WDB should consider employees conditioned by a more or less favorable values environment. Managers play an important role to facilitate the creation of a work environment, which is conducive to face such disruptive behaviors, considering in dept the values employees hold and adapting to a specific OC.

More generally speaking, in order to promote cultural congruence between OC and the OC perceived by employees, organizations and managers have the responsibility to communicate the norms, values and objectives of the organization to employees so that they are known and understood. In particular, it is the responsibility of the management to ensure that employees are familiar with the organizational cultural value system, i.e. through projecting and monitoring accurately the process of organizational socialization for newcomers.

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Footnotes

[1] As an anonymous reviewer has pointed out, one may argue that certain circumstances (such as organizational injustice, or job insecurity) may weaken the direct relationship OC-WDB. In recognizing that this topic needs further investigation, it may noticed that, applying a social exchange framework, WDB may be viewed as an outcome of a certain exchange relationship between employees and the organization; in this vein, we argue that in OC through its values underpins the exchange rules by which are influenced the attitudes and the behavior of the employees. In the CVF, the four culture types encompass the stable patterns of *norms* and *rules* that organizations develop to cope with their environment, by focusing on either their internal or their external environment and by choosing either to pursue stability or to develop their adaptability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Our focus on OC values is consistent with social exchange reasoning; that is, we argue that the four cultural types of CVF influence social exchange dynamics previously, and the core values embrace employees' behavior that is explicated by social exchange principles. Also, it would be maintained that relatively little research to date has sought to directly investigate the relationships that might exist between OC and employee behavior. This is surprising since the literature has stressed that cultures have a direct influence in elicit (or impede) WDB (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; van Fleet & Griffin, 2006; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). In other words, the implicit assumption is that OC provides a frame for encouraging the kinds of employee behaviors which the organization has developed to face up its concerns of internal integration and external adaptation (Schein, 2004). This basic assumption, that OC drives employee behaviors, however, has received only limited direct empirical attention (Ehrhart & Raver, 2014).

Table 1

Descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations between variables.

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	Demographics																				
1	Age	46.32	12.33	-																	
2	Sex			-.152*	-																
3	Education			-.142*	.128*	-															
4	OT	18.50	11.60	.821*	-.172*	-.154*	-														
5	PT	22.22	1.91	.899*	-.191*	-.195*	.879*	-													
6	OS			-.273*	-.059	-.092*	-.049	-.107*	-												
7	OL			.181*	.016	.234*	.154*	.146*	-.184*	-											
8	TC			-.230*	.056	.034	-.241*	-.178*	-.019	-.059	-										
	Personality																				
9	N	1.75	.49	-.062	.231*	.059	-.041	-.074	.047	-.100*	.008	-									
10	E	2.72	.47	-.112	-.109*	-.092*	.091*	-.011	.052	-.071	-.032	-.237*	-								
11	O	2.49	.50	.144*	-.030	.037	.252*	.112*	.007	.043	-.089*	-.068	.318*	-							
12	A	2.43	.39	.047	.034	-.026	-.098*	.032	-.142*	-.052	.005	-.244*	.013	-.064	-						
13	C	3.16	.42	.187*	-.008	-.110*	.062	.113*	-.084*	.039	-.079	-.227*	.337*	.202*	.230*	-					
	OC																				
14	Clan	3.64	.71	-.003	.107*	-.092*	.080	.056	.171*	-.087*	-.002	-.046	.158*	.027	.074	.192*	-				
15	Adhocracy	3.01	.72	-.127*	.035	-.04	-.110*	-.058	.238*	-.001	.017	-.018	.055	-.072	.018	.129*	.444*	-			
16	Market	3.64	.78	.008	-.079	-.085*	.164*	.089*	.323*	-.028	-.116*	-.004	.219*	.239*	-.183*	.161*	.287*	.450*	-		
17	Hierarchy	4.07	.51	.111	.014	.013	.124*	.125*	-.127*	.063	.058	-.043	.179*	.108*	.011	.281*	.293*	.219*	.370*	-	
	WDB																				
18	WDB-I	2.20	.63	-.007	-.046	.089*	.139*	-.014	.041	.141*	-.090*	.117*	.036	.156*	-.315*	-.156*	-.266*	-.237*	.013	-.112*	-
19	WDB-O	1.824	.56	.042	-.022	.142*	.230*	.084	.007	.079	-.096*	.153*	.075	.255*	-.295*	-.263*	-.256*	-.308*	.006	-.096*	.663*

*Note: N = 954; * p < .001. OT = Organizational Tenure; PT = Personal Tenure; OS = Organizational Sector; OL = Organizational Level; TC = Type of Contract;

N = Neuroticism; E = Extraversion; O = Openness to experience; A = Agreeableness; C = Conscientiousness; OC = Organizational Culture; WDB = Workplace

Deviant Behavior; WDB-I = Workplace Deviant Behavior toward Individuals; WDB-O = Workplace Deviant Behavior toward Organization.
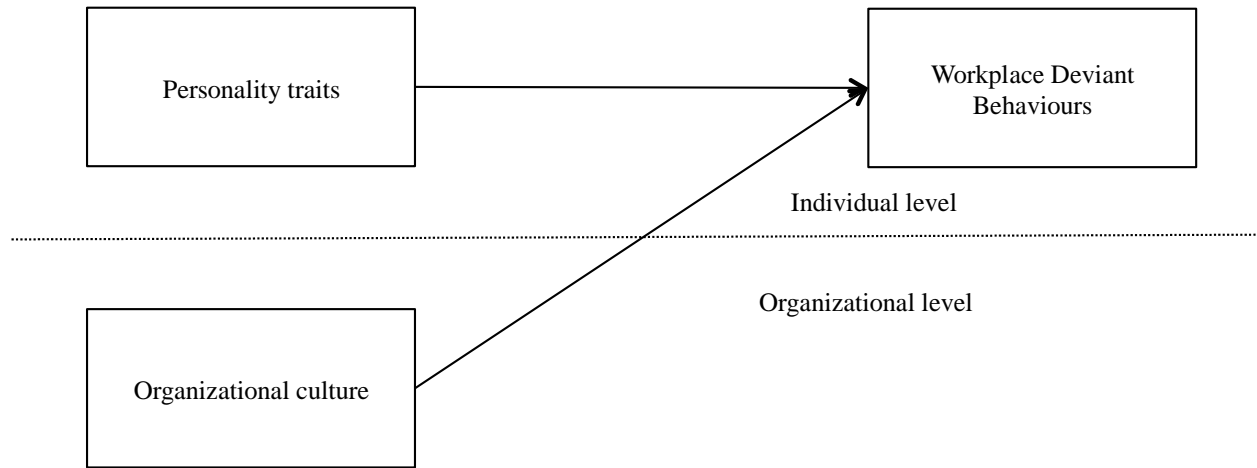
Table 2

Results from HLM analyses: the effect of organizational culture and personality traits on WDB-I and WDB-O.
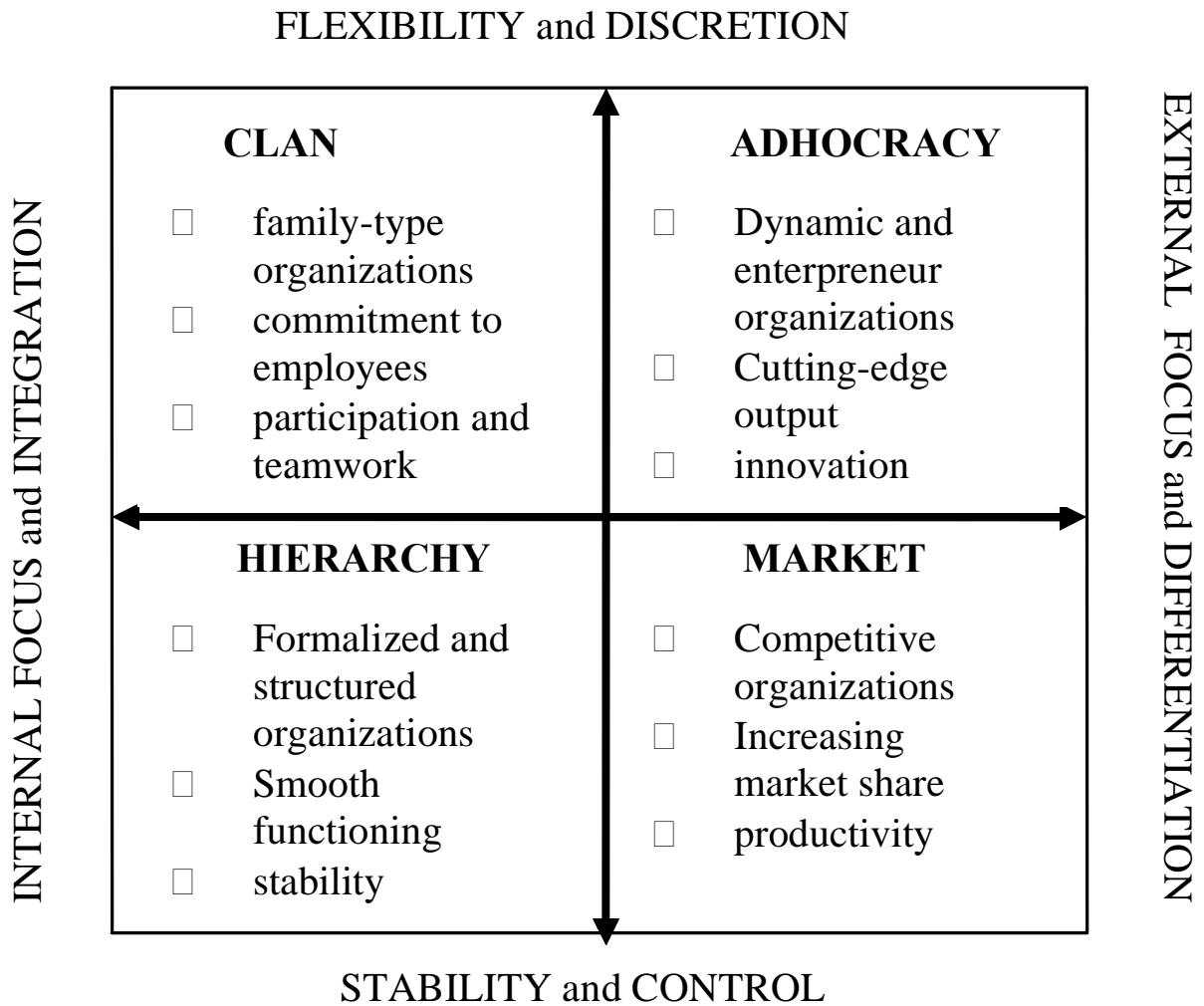
		WDB-I	WDB-O	WDB-I	WDB-O	WDB-I	WDB-O
Variable	Model	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
1 *Random effect only*							
Constant		2.201** (.420)	1.822** (.409)	3.127** (.234)	2.533** (.198)	3.810** (.253)	3.113** (.212)
2 *Individual Level variables*							
Neuroticism				.069 (.041)	.097* (.033)	.066 (.039)	.099* (.035)
Extroversion				.043 (.045)	.105* (.037)	.085 (.044)	.139** (.045)
Openness				.147** (.040)	.251** (.033)	.136** (.039)	.223** (.040)
Agreeability				-.363** (.049)	-.208** (.041)	-.374** (.049)	-.213** (.050)
Consciousness				-.204** (.049)	-.405** (.041)	-.121* (.049)	-.340** (.051)
3 *Organizational Level variables*							
Clan						-.153** (.030)	-.096* (.033)
Adhocracy						-.126** (.032)	-.171** (.034)
Market						.052 (.030)	.045 (.033)
Hierarchy						-.064 (.042)	-.025 (.045)
Residual variance		.361 (.016)	.276 (.012)	.322 (.015)	.224 (.010)	.283 (.018)	.180 (.014)

Note: N = 954 at the Individual level; N = 30 at the Organizational level. * = $p < .01$; ** = $p < .001$; WDB-I = Workplace Deviant Behavior toward Individuals; WDB-O = Workplace Deviant Behavior toward Organization. Parenthetical values indicate standard errors.

Figures

Figure 1. Hypothesized model.

FLEXIBILITY and DISCRETION

	CLAN	ADHOCRACY
	☐ family-type organizations ☐ commitment to employees ☐ participation and teamwork	☐ Dynamic and enterpreneur organizations ☐ Cutting-edge output ☐ innovation
	HIERARCHY	MARKET
	☐ Formalized and structured organizations ☐ Smooth functioning ☐ stability	☐ Competitive organizations ☐ Increasing market share ☐ productivity

INTERNAL FOCUS and INTEGRATION

EXTERNAL FOCUS and DIFFERENTIATION

STABILITY and CONTROL

Source: Adapted from Quinn and Cameron (2011).

Figure 2. The Competing Values Framework.