LEADING TO INTEGRITY

Empirical Research into the Effects of Leadership on Ethics and Integrity

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LEADING TO INTEGRITY
Empirical Research into the Effects of Leadership on Ethics and Integrity

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door

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Preface and Acknowledgments

"Life is what happens to you while you're busy making other plans."
John Lennon

Being in France on holidays, I have the time to look back on the past months and years. Feeling relieved and satisfied with the finished book and looking forward to the actual defense of my PhD, I realize that a part of me never believed that this moment would come. Yet it has, and I owe its arrival to many people.

Without doubt my colleagues at the VU University within the research group Integrity of Governance have contributed greatly to this success. So first and above all, I would like to thank Leo Huberts, my supervisor and chair of the VU integrity group, whose trust in me as a person and patience during this special project – especially, his granting of the freedom to do things my own way – were crucial in many respects. I am sure that he knows how much this all means to me.

From the earliest beginnings in 2003, Emile Kolthoff has accompanied me, and we have shared much more than the research alone. I would like to thank him especially for his friendship over the last couple of years.

Gjalt de Graaf also merits a special place; he is a great roommate, colleague, and travel partner, who dragged me through this whole process by discussing new ideas and making plans for a future that is now about to begin.

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Writing my book in proper English was not easy, but it certainly would have been an impossible task without the efforts of Julia Angelica. Dr. J. edited all chapters and saved me from ‘parroting’, ‘chocolate boxing my tables’, and other ‘sure signs of amateurism’. I also would like to thank Marian van Zon who took care of some final pieces.

Where professional lives and private lives meet lie my paranimfen Claudia Krops and Terry Lamboo. I know that Claudia, my best friend since we studied and graduated together in Nijmegen in 1995, is as happy as I am that the work has finally been completed, and I am glad that we can soon celebrate that together. Terry was my ‘first’ colleague at the VU and through time, we developed a loyal friendship in which we can share successes and setbacks. It was a special event to be her paranimf in 2005 and, although it took a bit longer than I thought, I am happy that she will be mine.

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Karin
Cizely/Arnhem, August 2008

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1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction[1]

Because integrity is of crucial importance for both public and private organizations (Huberts, Kaptein & Lasthuizen, 2007), when serious doubt exists about the integrity of a politician or civil servant, it has paralyzing consequences for the individual as well as for his or her organization (Cooper, 2001; Heidenheimer & Johnston, 2002). For example, when integrity is at stake in public organizations, it decreases trust in government and may even lead, as in the case of Italy in the nineties, to the implosion of a country's political system (Bull & Newel, 2003; Della Porta & Mény, 1997). Likewise, in for-profit organizations, integrity is an important precondition for smooth organizational functioning (Kaptein, 2007; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002; LeClair, Ferrel & Fraedrich, 1998) because it strengthens stakeholder confidence (Shaw, 1997), reduces external regulation (Hill, 1990) and conflict (Schwartz & Gibb, 1999), and enhances cooperation with stakeholders (Shaw, 1997). In contrast, integrity violations like fraud and corruption can lead to enormous financial losses, decreases in stakeholder commitment, and even organizational bankruptcy (Cohan, 2002).

As a result, to improve or safeguard organizational integrity, the boards of many for-profit, not-for-profit, and government organizations have developed various policies ranging from codes of conduct and whistle-blower procedures to job rotation and applicant screening procedures (Transparency International, 2001; Weaver, Treviño & Cochran, 1999). Among these instruments, leadership is probably most often cited as the most important, with many scholars and practitioners arguing that it is a key influence on employee ethics and integrity (Ciulla, 1998; Treviño, Hartman & Brown, 2000; Treviño & Nelson, 1999).

Nevertheless, little empirical data exists on the extent to which different leadership approaches help discourage different types of integrity violations, so both leadership and integrity violations remain almost by definition unspecified or monodimensional. Such lack of specificity raises the question of whether this assumption is even valid or whether the prevention of corruption and fraud, for example, might not demand a different leadership approach than the prevention of employee discrimination against citizens and customers. Therefore, in examining how organizational leadership helps contribute to organizational integrity, this study makes a distinction between different leadership styles and different types of integrity violations. In addition, by focusing on the world that employees experience within the organization, it takes into account the broader ethical organizational context. That is, it investigates how employees perceive their leaders, what they think of their leaders' behavior in terms of integrity, and how they experience their work environment and its ethical quality. It also asks how often employees perceive integrity violations like corruption, fraud, conflicts of interest, or indecent treatment of colleagues, what norms they associate with these perceptions, and what evaluations they make on these behaviors.

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[1] Parts of this book have been or will be published in journals, book contributions, and so forth. These publications, some in Dutch, include the following, which are listed in the list of references: Huberts et al., 2007; Huberts, Lasthuizen & Peeters, 2006; Kaptein, Huberts, Avelino & Lasthuizen, 2005; Lamboo, Lasthuizen & Huberts, 2008; Lasthuizen, Huberts & Kaptein, 2002.

These questions are in line with the purpose of this book: to examine exactly how organizational leadership helps contribute to organizational integrity. Specifically, the analysis seeks to understand the relationship between leadership and integrity violations within organizations and identify the type(s) of leadership that help(s) protect the integrity of an organization and its employees. Because the answers to these questions lie deep in the organization – in the responses of its employees about their own experiences and perceptions – this book, rather than being normative and prescriptive, is empirical and descriptive. Overall, it aims to be a fundamental step toward theories that offer specific solutions for specific integrity problems.

1.2 Problem definition

One central research question guides this study on what type of leadership helps protect organizational and employee integrity:

> *How and to what extent does leadership influence the integrity of an organization and its employees?*

The individual components of this central research question are 'leadership,' 'organizational integrity,' and the 'how' and 'to what extent' of leadership's effects on integrity. Thus, the research incorporates several organizational and ethical leadership styles and assesses organizational integrity in terms of the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations as measured by the frequency of ten types of integrity violations observed by the respondents. At the same time, it assesses how and how much leadership affects integrity by taking into account its direct and indirect effects, which requires incorporation into the research design of the ethical culture of the work environment as a mediating variable. Most particularly, it assesses the indirect effects of leadership on the observed frequency of integrity violations by exploring employees' moral acceptability judgment on such violations. All these elements are further clarified and operationalized below.

Answering the central research question requires detailed discussion of a number of theoretical and empirical questions. Specifically, on the basis of prevailing theory and the empirical literature, the discussion will answer the following questions:

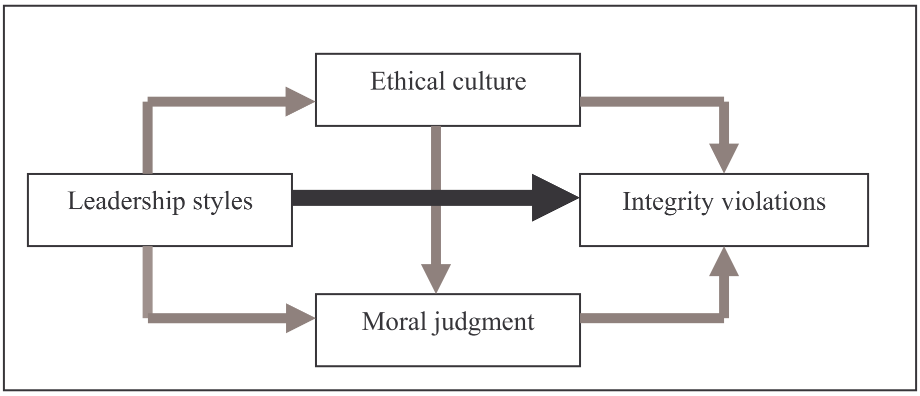
1. What is included in the concepts of integrity, integrity violations, and moral judgment; and what is understood by the concepts of (ethical) leadership and the ethical culture within organizations?
2. What do theories and theoretical approaches presuppose about the relationships between (ethical) leadership, the ethical culture, employees' moral judgment, and integrity violations; and what has been established empirically?

The assumptions about these relationships will then be empirically tested in a study of police officers in one police region in the Netherlands. The research will be framed by the following questions:

3. Which (ethical) leadership styles do the respondents attribute to their direct supervisor(s), and how do they perceive the ethical culture of their work environment? What is the observed frequency of the different types of integrity violations, and how are these integrity violations judged morally by the police officers in the selected organization?
4. What is the relationship between (ethical) leadership styles, ethical culture dimensions, and moral acceptability judgments on different types of integrity violations and the actual observed frequency of these types of integrity violations?
5. How and under what conditions does (ethical) leadership influence the observed frequency of integrity violations in terms of direct effects and indirect effects (through the ethical culture and employees' moral acceptability judgments)?

The proposed conceptual model for this research is graphed in figure 1. The relations between the different concepts form the basic hypotheses to be tested.

Figure 1.1 Conceptual model



1.3 Integrity and integrity violations

For the purposes of this study, integrity is defined as the quality of acting in accordance with relevant socially accepted moral values, norms, and rules (Huberts, 1998). The moral nature of these values and norms is judged in terms of right, just, or good conduct. Whereas values are principles that should have a certain weight in a choice of action (what is good to do or bad to refrain from doing), norms dictate which behavior is morally correct in a given situation.

Organizational integrity, which is the focus of this book, refers to the integrity of the individuals working in and on behalf of the organization, both internally and externally (Klockars, 1997; Solomon, 1999). Thus, integrity can be defined as the quality of employee behavior in accordance with the values, norms, rules, and obligations of the organization and its environment. Its opposite, integrity violation, can thus be defined as violation of these moral values, norms, rules, and obligations. Thus, any discussion of such issues involves not only different notions of integrity and integrity violations but also of ethics and moral judgements, notions that will be discussed at length in chapter two.

To reach its goals, this study employs the broad typology developed by Huberts, Pijl and Steen (1999), which consists of ten types of integrity violations: corruption, fraud and theft, conflict of (private and public) interests through gifts, jobs and activities, improper use of authority, abuse and manipulation of information, discrimination and sexual harassment, waste and abuse of organizational resources, and private time misconduct. Specifically, it empirically measures the observed frequency of these different types of integrity violations within a Dutch police organization using a standardized survey, which also seeks to identify the values and norms underlying employees' moral judgments; that is, their decisions about what is morally right in a given situation (Treviño & Weaver, 2003:160). This latter is measured by asking employees to judge the acceptability of the ten different types of integrity violations.

1.4 Leadership and ethical leadership

The difficulty of defining leadership is emphasized by Bass's (1990:11) claim that there are almost as many ways to define leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define it. Nevertheless, Bryman (1992) offers a definition that is appropriate for this study – leadership is a process of social influence whereby a leader *steers* members of a group toward a goal. Here, this goal is the integrity of the organization and its employees. To conceptualize leadership in terms of those styles that seem important for this influence process, insights were borrowed from various scientific disciplines. For example, a lively debate is ongoing in organizational science about leadership, its effects, and the type of leadership most likely to maximize employee performance. Likewise, organizational studies propose the concepts of 'new leadership' (den Hartog, 1997), for which the literature offers such terms as 'transformational,' 'transforming,' 'charismatic,' 'inspirational,' 'visionary,' and 'value-based' leadership. One highly influential perspective on this new leadership is the full range of leadership model of Bass and associates (e.g., Bass, 1990, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2000), which places three organizational leadership styles – transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire – on an active-passive continuum. For transactional leadership, the emphasis is on exchange, reward, and control; that is, transactional leaders clarify both performance criteria and what followers will receive in return for compliance. Transformational leadership, however, goes beyond this cost-benefit exchange by motivating and inspiring followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass & Avolio, 2000; den Hartog, 1997; den Hartog, van Muijen and Koopman, 1996). In contrast to these two active forms of leadership, laissez-faire leadership is extremely passive. For the Netherlands, den Hartog and colleagues (1997; cf. den Hartog, van Muijen & Koopman, 1994) explore and test these leadership styles and develop Dutch scales respectively labeled inspirational leadership (*inspirerend leiderschap*), rational-objective leadership (*zakelijk leiderschap*), and passive leadership (*passief leiderschap*). In this study, these Dutch scales are used to operationalize the new leadership styles (which are detailed in chapter six).

Numerous studies (e.g., Bass, 1990; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubrananiam, 1996) exploring the effects of these leadership styles conclude that the transformational leadership style should be preferable to the transactional leadership style. However, because these leadership studies in the organizational sciences are interested primarily in the effectiveness of leadership for organizational goals, output, and performance; it remains largely unclear how this concept of new leadership relates to (un)ethical employee conduct. Thus, exploring the effects of different leadership types on both effectiveness and ethics would be of considerable scientific and pragmatic value. Most particularly, in their search for outstanding accomplishments, many organizations have implemented and invested in this new type of leadership without knowing the consequences for organizational integrity.

Another valuable source for the study are the theories on ethics in business and public administration, theories that are somewhat in agreement about which leadership characteristics and behavior are important determinants of employee behavior in general and organizational integrity in particular. Within this framework, the concept of ethical leadership has been defined by Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (2005:120) as follows: ethical leadership entails

> the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and promotion of such conduct among followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making processes.

In their earlier work, these scholars visualize ethical leadership in a model consisting of two pillars: the moral person and the moral manager (Treviño et al., 2000:131). Accordingly, they suggest that an ethical leader must be more than simply a moral person; (s)he should also be a moral manager. As the Ethics Resource Center Fellows Program puts it, "[m]aking ethical decisions and being an ethical person is simply not enough" (2001:10). Rather, followers must also *perceive* their leaders to be ethical, which is achieved, according to Treviño et al. (2000), by role modeling through visible action, rewards, and discipline, and by communicating ethics and values. Nevertheless, because many studies in this field are normative, empirical testing of these assumptions about ethical leadership and its effects has been minimal. Thus, this present study extends the work of Brown, Treviño, and associates to empirically explore the effects of ethical leadership on ethical culture, the observed frequency of different integrity violations, and employees' moral acceptability judgment within the organizational context.

1.5 Ethical organizational context: ethical culture

Whereas the direct influence of leaders on followers is of central importance to this study, the (ethical) organizational context in which both operate must also be considered because, assumedly, leadership is far more able to influence the work environment than it is able to affect both individual values and employee moral development (Treviño, Butterfield & McCabe, 1998: 447). This ethical context, often referred to as the ethical climate, is usually defined as those aspects that determine what constitutes ethical behavior (Victor & Cullen, 1988). Its corollary is the ethical culture – those aspects that stimulate ethical behavior (Kaptein, 2008; Treviño & Weaver, 2003). The relationship between this ethical climate and/or culture and (un)ethical employee behavior has been demonstrated in several studies (e.g., Ford & Richardson, 1994; Martin & Cullen, 2006; Treviño & Weaver, 2003).

Because the aim of this study is to research how and under what conditions leadership stimulates organizational integrity, the research focus is on the intermediate variable of 'ethical culture,' which enables examination of not only the direct effects of leadership on integrity violations but also the indirect effects through ethical culture.[2] This latter can be seen as representing a slice of the overall organizational culture, combining formal and informal elements that work together to guide employee thought and action in the ethical domain (Treviño & Weaver, 2003:221). Thus, ethical culture is here defined and operationalized in line with the corporate ethical virtues model of Kaptein (1998, 2008), six of whose original seven qualities are incorporated into the research design.[3] The degree to which an organization achieves these qualities reflects its ethical content.

Briefly, these six dimensions of ethical culture are *clarity* (the degree to which organizational expectations toward moral employee conduct are accurate, concrete, and complete); *achievability* (the degree to which responsibilities can be carried out so that organizational ethical standards and expectations can actually be met in practice); *transparency* (the degree to which employee conduct and its consequences can be observed); *discussability* (the degree to which meeting responsibilities is open for discussion); *sanctionability* (the degree to which negative or positive sanctions can be applied in connection with (un)ethical conduct); and *supportability* (the degree to which employees experience support from coworkers for the proper use of organizational assets and the way they treat each other; Kaptein, 1998: 73–75).

Nevertheless, other factors besides the ethical organizational culture may play an important role, including external factors like the political and social environment and individual characteristics or circumstances. As Fijnaut and Huberts (2002:8) point out,

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[2] The ethical culture, as described and measured by Treviño et al. (1998) and Kaptein (1998, 2008), also includes leadership aspects. However, to enable fuller exploration of the influences of leadership on integrity violations, this present analysis addresses leadership and ethical culture as two distinct phenomena [see chapter three for a more detailed discussion].

[3] The seventh dimension, consistency or congruency, is omitted from the study because it represents the degree to which (senior) management and supervisors set a good example in terms of ethics.

> [r]esearch shows that a conglomerate of social, economic, political, organizational and individual causal factors is important to explain cases of public corruption.

It is not, however, within the scope of this study to address all possible factors of influence. Rather, the starting point is the employees' direct work environment and the ways in which organizations can deploy leadership to improve the ethical culture, further employees' moral judgment, and discourage integrity violations.

1.6 Research population: the Dutch police force

Not surprisingly, integrity in the police has attracted much attention from policymakers and researchers because the police, being charged with maintaining the law, are one of the most important social institutions for protecting the integrity of governance, business, and the community (Fijnaut & Huberts, 2002; Mischkowitz, Bruhn, Desch, Hübner & Beese, 2000). Thus, when the police force is itself corrupt, the consequences are extremely detrimental, making it apparent why integrity is a necessary condition for police force credibility and legitimacy (Huberts, 1998; Kaptein & van Reenen, 2001; Newburn, 1999; Punch, 1985).

For several years, as shown by an evaluation of the Dutch police's integrity policies (Adviescommissie Politie en Integriteit, 2001; cf. van den Heuvel & Lamboo, 2001), integrity has played an important role in every Dutch police force. Specifically, this evaluation shows the presence of a multitude of policy instruments emphasizing culture and cultural change (awareness, leadership, openness to discussion, code of conduct, mentorship, training) and structural and organizational demands (instructions, ombudsman/trusted representative, bureaus of internal affairs, circulation of personnel, job mobility, division of roles, and selective screening). Because most such policy instruments aim to discourage integrity violations in the wider sense (Lamboo, 2005), the integrity policies of the Dutch police forces can be characterized as general and designed to enhance integrity within the organization. They also lie in the forefront of Dutch public administration.

It is this central role of integrity in the police organization and the attention already paid to the issue that makes the Dutch police force an ideal research population for this study. Therefore, the fieldwork is conducted on one of the Netherlands's regional police forces, whose characteristics are presented in more detail in chapter five.

1.7 Structure and outline of the book

The first part of this book sketches the theoretical background. First, chapter two outlines the concepts of ethics and integrity, moral judgment and integrity violations, after which chapter three explores the leadership theories from different disciplines and discusses the importance of ethical culture. Chapter four then gives an overview of the findings from the few empirical studies conducted in this field to produce the central research hypotheses.

The second part of the book provides a detailed description of the research design and methodology. Specifically, chapter five details the research context, the research population, the primary measurement instrument (standardized survey), the response rates, and additional methods and techniques. It also gives an extensive discussion of the study limitations in terms of validity and reliability. Chapter six then looks in depth at the development and structure of the survey questionnaire, including item generation, data reduction, and scale construction.

Finally, the third part presents the empirical results and the resulting conclusions. First, chapter seven, which gives the overall results, describes the types of leadership styles identified in the selected organization, how the ethical culture can be characterized, if and how often different types of integrity violations were perceived in the direct work environment, and how employees morally judged these integrity violations. This chapter concludes by sketching a picture of the organization against the broader background of public and private organizations in general. Likewise, chapter eight begins with a description of the relationship between leadership, ethical culture, moral acceptability judgment, and integrity violations in terms of direct correlations, based on which it estimates models for understanding this relationship and evaluates the hypotheses. Chapter nine then gives an overview of the main study findings and the conclusions drawn with regard to the central research question. The book closes with a discussion of the results and conclusions from the perspective of their scientific and social relevance.

2. Integrity and Integrity Violations

2.1 Introduction

This chapter, which reviews the pertinent literature on integrity and related concepts,[4] begins by clarifying the concept of integrity and the definition used in this study (section 2.2). Section 2.3, which addresses the ethical foundations, then briefly discusses the related concepts of morality and ethics and values and norms, as well as various approaches to moral analysis. Next, section 2.4 explains the concept of moral judgment within the framework of ethical decision making, after which section 2.5 elaborates different manifestations of unethical behavior both in general and specifically as they relate to the police. These latter are then combined in a typology of ten different types of integrity violations to be used as the conceptual framework for the empirical research.

2.2 Integrity

Integrity is a difficult concept whose content is much debated (e.g., Huberts, 2007; Montefiore & Vines, 1999). In the dominant perspective within the literature on ethics and integrity (cf. Huberts, 2005), integrity is a wholeness or completeness, a consistency and coherence of principles and values in line with the Latin *integras*, meaning intact, whole, harmony. Nevertheless, many authors have elaborated on this viewpoint. For example, Musschenga (2002:5) defines three dimensions of wholeness: consistency, the harmony in expressions and behaviors at different points in time; coherence, the harmony between expressions and behaviors in different contexts, places, and roles; and correspondence, the harmony between expressions, behaviors, feelings and thoughts, which partly mirrors Simons (1999:90) notion of behavioral integrity as a congruence between words (what one says) and actions (what one does). For some authors, integrity is more or less the same as professional wholeness or responsibility (van Luijk, 1993, 2004), which Karssing (2001: 3) summarizes as doing what one is expected to do as a professional and standing up for such actions. However, because "integrity involves more than simply doing what one says" (Brenkert, 2004:4), these interpretations lack the moral filter through which "what one says and does must also pass." Other authors have related integrity explicitly to morals, to

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[4] Parts of this chapter have been previously published by the author and colleagues; in particular, Huberts, Kaptein & Lasthuizen, 2007; Huberts, Lasthuizen & Peeters, 2006; Lasthuizen, Huberts & Kaptein, 2002.

'good' and 'wrong' behavior, as in Musschenga's (2002:9-12) distinction between integrity; the values of the actor; and moral integrity, the values, norms, and rules expected and accepted by society.

What then are the relevant values, norms, and rules for the integrity of public officials? In codes of conduct, integrity often takes the form of a basic value meaning incorruptibility or righteousness: the official should not be guided by self-interest or group or party interest but should serve the interest of the organization or the society. In other words; a public official behaves with integrity when (s)he is not corrupt. Other viewpoints, however, consider integrity more as an umbrella concept that combines sets of the values relevant for the functionary judged (e.g., Anechiarico & Jacobs, 1996; Dobel, 1999; Fijnaut & Huberts, 2002; Huberts & van den Heuvel, 1999; Klockars, Ivkovic & Haberfeld, 2004; Montefiore & Vines, 1999; Uhr, 1999). One interesting perspective is the legal or constitutional one summarized by Rohr in his *Ethics for Bureaucrats* (1989: 4–5):

> To the extent that formal, legal, or institutional controls over the bureaucrat's behavior are either non-existent or ineffective, bureaucrats have an ethical obligation to respond to the values of the people in whose name they govern. The values in question are not popular whims of the moment, but rather constitutional or regime values.

The constitutional interpretation of relevant norms and values is attractive because it specifies the type of values and norms that matter in judging the integrity of a public official. Based on Rohr's statement, a public official behaves with integrity when (s)he acts in accordance with the law and other existing formal, legal, or constitutional frameworks. The problem here, however, is that these frameworks themselves are not always a very clear guiding principle in the actual decision-making and implementation processes of government. Moreover, the law is sometimes in conflict with the moral values and norms of the population. Thus, a broader interpretation is needed of compliance with moral values and norms.

Within the definition of integrity used in this study, 'the quality of acting in accordance with relevant moral values, norms and rules in society' (e.g., Fijnaut & Huberts, 2002; Uhr, 1999), the *relevant* values and norms and rules depend on the context in which the actor is operating and which stakeholders are relevant in this context. Thus, this chapter concludes (section 2.5) with a typology of integrity violations that represent the relevant moral values and norms for the research population under study, the police organization and its employees.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that whereas integrity in general concerns individuals, it can also be a characteristic or quality of organizations (Musschenga, 2002; Wirtz, 2000). Hence, this book focuses on organizational integrity, the integrity of the individuals working in and on behalf of an organization, both internally and externally (Klockars, 1997; Solomon, 1999). Thus, integrity can be defined as employee and organizational behavior that accords with the values and norms, rules, and obligations of the organization and society.

2.3 Ethical foundations

The concepts of morality (the nature of good, good behavior, and the good person) and ethics, the study and analysis of morality and good (right) versus wrong (Close & Meier, 1995; Cooper, 2006; Kleinig, 1996; Lawton, 1998; Pollock, 1998) are closely related to the notion of integrity. Thus, although morality and ethics (and moral and ethical) are different notions in theory, in most studies, as here, they are used synonymously and interchangeably. As regards the first, moral values are principles that carry a certain weight in an individual's choice of action (what is good to do or bad to refrain from), while moral norms indicate morally correct behavior in certain situations. Likewise, ethics provide a collection of moral values and norms that function as standards or yardsticks for assessing individuals' integrity or conduct (Benjamin, 1990; Lawton, 1998; Pollock, 1998).

Three competing approaches to moral analysis are distinguishable in the related literature: teleology, deontology, and virtue ethics (cf. Baron, Pettit & Slote, 1997; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002). The teleological or consequentialist perspective places the consequences of an action at the centre of ethical analysis:[5] an action's moral content is determined by its real and expected consequences. Thus, an action is taken to achieve a certain end, and it is good if its consequences are desirable but bad if they are not. In deontological or duty-based ethical theories, the action itself is the object of moral evaluation.[6] Rather than being dependent on its consequences, an action is morally good if it honors a given obligation. Thus, it is the action's correspondence with certain principles that primarily determines whether it is morally right or wrong. Finally, virtue ethics view the intention behind the action as most important:[7] not the action or its consequences, but the qualities or characteristics (abilities, intentions, and motives) of the persons involved. It is these qualities that determine how an individual will act in morally problematic situations and that can therefore be evaluated in moral terms.

In sum, these three main approaches to moral analysis emphasize either the consequences of an action, the action itself, or the intentions of the actor.

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[5] For an overview and discussion, see Scheffler, 1997.

[6] For an overview and discussion, see Baron et al., 1997.

[7] For an overview and discussion, see Crisp & Slote, 1997; MacIntyre, 1981.

However, as Bass and Steidlmeier (1999:182) point out, in practical moral judgments, all three considerations play a role:

> While meta-ethical discourse is concerned with a critical analysis of the foundations of moral judgments – the worldview and ontological rationale that confers legitimacy upon a set of normative criteria and values – practical ethical discourse is primarily focused upon two issues: analysis of the moral agent and analysis of types of moral action.

Thus, a moral agent is evaluated as praiseworthy or blameworthy in light of three primary considerations: the developmental level of conscience (i.e., the stages of values development), the degree of freedom (i.e., the responsibility mitigated by factors such as compulsion or coercion), and the probity of intention (i.e., the agent's goal and anticipated outcomes). A moral act, however, is evaluated as a type of behavior apart from the agent, one judged to be right or wrong in light of three principal components: the end sought (i.e., the nobility of purpose of the action and whether it is aligned with moral values), the means deployed (i.e., whether the end justifies the means), and the consequences (i.e., whether the benefits and burdens of an action are fairly distributed among those affected). Although practical judgments of the morality of either the agent or the act focus initially on the ethical content – the values and norms guiding the moral agent and underlying the moral action – Bass and Steidlmeier (1999:183) argue that the broader environment should also be taken into account (cf. de Graaf, 2003, 2005).

In this present study, the action focused upon is the behavior of police officers and whether it violates the relevant moral norms and values. Nevertheless, this behavior is expected to be influenced by the moral opinion and judgment of the agent, which serves as an internal psychological guideline or condition for actual moral behavior (Treviño, 1986:609). In other words, "[h]ow people think is related to what they do" (Treviño, 1992b:446; cf. Blasi, 1980). It is for this reason that the study incorporates moral judgment.

2.4 Moral judgment

Insights into individual moral judgments are provided by ethical decision-making theory, which generally assumes that ethical decision making involves four sequential subprocesses (cf., Butterfield, Treviño & Weaver, 2000; Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Treviño & Weaver, 2003):

1. *Moral sensitivity or awareness*: the recognition of the moral nature of a situation;
2. *Moral judgment*: the decision of what is morally right in a situation;
3. *Moral motivation or intent*: the decision to commit to moral rather than any other type of actions; and
4. *Moral character*: the demonstration and persistence to follow through on the intention to behave morally.

Nevertheless, because most research within this field concentrates on moral awareness and moral judgment, studies on moral intent and moral character remain scarce (Treviño & Weaver, 2003:160). Therefore, given this present study's primary interest in the role of moral judgment in relation to (im)moral action, the analysis concentrates on the concept of moral 'judgment,' which Rest, Thoma, Narvaez and Bebeau (1997:5) describe as

> a psychological construct that characterizes the process by which people determine [that] one course of action in a particular situation is morally right and another course of action is wrong.

Such moral awareness is positively associated with moral judgment and thought to be an important first stage in the ethical decision-making process (Treviño & Weaver, 2003:164). Both are seen as relevant for individual decision making, together with other individual, organizational, and contextual influences (Butterfield et al., 2000; Treviño, 1986; Treviño & Youngblood, 1990).

It is also assumed that an individual's level of cognitive moral development strongly influences moral judgment (Treviño, 1986, 1992b). Indeed, the cognitive moral development theory developed by Kohlberg (1969) focuses not on the ethical decision itself but on how individuals decide what is right. Moreover, although both praised (e.g., Miller & Bersoff, 1992; Miller, Bersoff & Harwood, 1990) and criticized (e.g., Braun & Baribeau, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Kurtines & Grief, 1974), Kohlberg's work, and that of his students (e.g., Rest et al., 1999) remains a leading and widely applied theory in the field of moral development.

Whereas Kohlberg's initial claim is that children develop moral reasoning along different stages, later research also focuses on the moral development of adults (Rest, 1986; Rest et al., 1999; Rest & Narvaez, 1994). The basic model used to assess such development consists of six stages that can be understood in terms of three broad levels: preconventional (the lowest level), conventional, and principled (the highest level). Preconventional individuals are primarily concerned with their own interests, what is good is what is good for them. Thus, they seek to avoid punishment by the 'authorities,' the significant others that set the rules. Thus, preconventional individuals weigh the interests of others against their own benefits in a sort of 'tit for tat' strategy (Axelrod, 1984). Conventional individuals conform to the expectations of the significant others that form their group: what is good is what is in accordance with the group norm or rule. Finally, principled individuals are guided by the principles of justice and (human) rights and make decisions on the basis of self-chosen ethical principles (Treviño, 1986: 605); that is, their own intrinsic moral compass (Denkers, in van Beers, 2001).

Moral development research among adults and within different professions (e.g., Rest, 1986; Rest et al., 1999; Rest & Narvaez, 1994) suggests that the large majority of adults reason at the conventional level of cognitive moral development. In other words, most employees can be typified as conventional individuals who look outside themselves for guidance to rules and laws and to the expectations of significant others in their (direct) environments (Treviño & Brown, 2005; Treviño & Weaver, 2003). Accordingly, it is plausible to believe that organizations can raise moral awareness and moral judgment; for example, by offering ethics education and training programs. In addition, because leaders, and especially immediate supervisors, play an authority role (and are therefore likely to be significant others for employees), they should be a key source of moral guidance. By acting as such, they offer further opportunities for the organization to influence employees' moral awareness and moral judgment, which are also greatly affected by the organization's ethical culture (Treviño, 1992b; Treviño & Weaver, 2003). All these issues are dealt with further in the chapter three discussions on the importance of leadership and the ethical organizational context.

2.5 Integrity violations

To improve or safeguard organizational integrity, the boards of many for-profit, not-for-profit, and governmental organizations have developed various policies whose bottom line is to minimize the extent of unethical behavior within the organization. As Treviño, Weaver, Gibson and Toffler (1999:132–133) point out, "effective ethics/compliance management should be associated with less unethical and illegal behavior." Therefore, this present study focuses on unethical employee behavior as manifested by the observed frequency within the organization of integrity violations.

In most organizations, organizational moral values and norms are in line with societal moral values and norms, and consist of basic moral standards as well as other traditional community standards, including those prescribed by formal and informal organizational policies, rules, and procedures (Feldman, 1984). Thus, integrity violations – as violations of the relevant moral values and norms and the laws and rules resulting from them

– often clearly indicate that organizational rules and norms have been broken.

Nevertheless, pinpointing exactly what is meant by integrity violations requires a broader look at different scientific perspectives whose researchers use such diverse terms as organizational, workplace, professional, or employee deviance (Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998); noncompliant behavior (Puffer, 1987); antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998); organizational misbehavior (Vardi & Weitz, 2004; Vardi & Wiener, 1996); and dysfunctional workplace behavior (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly & Collins, 1998). To complicate matters, this latter is often lumped under the same heading as unethical behavior even though the study of deviant workplace behavior, which concentrates on the violation of organizational norms, is conceptually distinct from the study of (un)ethical workplace behavior, which focuses on (im)moral behavior (Lewis, 1991; Raelin, 1994; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Treviño & Brown, 2005). Thus, from the organization's perspective, a particular employee behavior may be deviant but not unethical and vice versa. Nevertheless, despite such terminological variations, developing an appropriate typology of relevant integrity violations for the study necessitates examination of diverse literature; most particularly, that from the organizational sciences, theories of ethics in business and public administration, and police research.

In the organizational behavior (OB) literature, relatively little attention has been paid to *un*wanted employee behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Vardi & Weitz, 2004; Vardi & Wiener, 1996), although Vardi and Weitz (2004:4) begin their comprehensive overview of misbehavior in organizations by stating that, "although such forms of misconduct appear to be rampant and universal, systematic OB research of these phenomena is lacking." The few (empirical) studies that do examine deviant workplace behaviors either concentrate mostly on one particular type, such as theft (Greenberg, 1990, 1997; Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983), aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1997), lying (Grover, 1997), or sexual harassment (Gutek, 1985), or include a wide range of misconduct with no systematic categorization or analysis (Peterson, 2002a; Treviño et al., 1999).

One exception is the empirical work of Robinson and Bennett (1995; Bennett and Robinson, 2000) who, in their 1995 study, develop a typology of deviant workplace behaviors using multidimensional scaling techniques. Their results suggest that deviant workplace behaviors vary along two dimensions – minor versus serious (severity of deviance) and interpersonal versus organizational (target of deviance) – which produce four distinct categories into which employee deviance can fall (Robinson & Bennett, 1995:565). The first is *production deviance*, behaviors that violate the formally prescribed norms delineating the minimal quality and the quantity of work to be accomplished; for instance, by intentionally working slowly. The second is *property deviance,* those instances in which employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the work organization without authorization; for example, by stealing from the company (cf. Hollinger & Clark, 1982:333; Mangione & Quinn, 1974). The third is *political deviance*, which refers to engagement in social interaction that puts other individuals at a personal or political disadvantage; for example, gossiping about coworkers; and the fourth is *personal aggression*, which is behaving in an aggressive or hostile manner toward other individuals; for instance, being verbally abusive.

In a subsequent study, Bennett and Robinson (2000:349–350) seek to validate these categories of employee deviance as different behavioral families; that is, as clusters of deviant behaviors having similar characteristics and similar antecedents, which may be functional substitutes in that they serve the same goals. After extensive validation tests, they produce two final scales: the *interpersonal* and the *organization* deviance scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000: 360), which they argue are different clusters or families representing two qualitatively different forms of deviance. Both families contain serious as well as minor forms, which can be seen as a quantitative distinction rather than one reflecting different types (or families) of deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000: 350). Nevertheless, the authors recognize that the study is limited by the inclusion in the scale of only the *more common* (rather than all) forms of employee deviance across organizational contexts and occupations and the elimination of items with low variance and low interitem correlations. Whereas the purpose of this latter was to ensure reliability, it did lead to the exclusion of many interesting forms of employee deviance because they were either more serious or less common.

Raelin (1994) also attempts to empirically categorize some 30 deviant behaviors but restricts his study to professionals faced with organizational conflict arising from their dual role as both professional and employee of management. Thus, the adaptive/deviant behavior can be scaled according to the seriousness or harm vis-à-vis four career elements: management, job, self, and career. Nevertheless, whereas this study did include some unethical behaviors, it still failed to capture the moral dimension as such.

In another interesting study, Kaptein and Wempe (2002), although not primarily interested in unethical conduct per se, conceptualize three fundamental (ethical) dilemmas, which arise not only at a conceptual level but also in various forms at different organizational levels. They characterize these as follows: (i) the *dirty hands dilemma*, when the interests and expectations of stakeholders conflict with organizational interests; (ii) the *many hands dilemma*, when the interests of internal organizational functions (employees, managers, units, departments) conflict with each other; and (iii) the *entangled hands dilemma,* when the private interests of organizational representatives conflict with organizational interests (Kaptein & Wempe, 2002:166–174). These dilemmas can result in many forms of unethical conduct, including the manipulation of information to external parties (the dirty hands dilemma), internal favoritism (the many hands dilemma), or the waste and abuse of organizational resources (the entangled hands dilemma). All three fundamental dilemmas, like Bennett and Robinson's (2000) interpersonal and organizational deviance, can also be traced back to studies on police misconduct.

In police research, to which police misconduct has always been central (e.g., Sherman, 1974; Skolnick, 1966), more attempts have been made to systematically describe the various forms and types of misconduct (e.g., Lamboo, 2005; Lamboo, Huberts, van der Steeg & Nieuwendijk, 2002; Newburn, 1999). Indeed, some authors have tried to develop all-embracing typologies (Barker, 1978; Barker & Wells, 1982; Pollock, 1998; Punch, 1985, 2000; Roebuck & Barker, 1973).

Of these, one important earlier study by Roebuck and Barker (1973) proposes five dimensions along which corruption, as well as other types of police misconduct, can be analyzed and understood:

1. The act of misconduct and the actors involved;
2. The type of norm violated;
3. The support from the peer group;
4. The degree to which the deviant practices are organized or structural; and
5. The police departments' reactions to the misconduct (whether and how the misconduct is punished).

In later work, Barker and Wells (1982:10) identify ten more specific patterns of police corruption: (i) corruption of authority, (ii) kickbacks, (iii) opportunistic thefts, (iv) shakedowns, (v) protection of illegal activities, (vi) traffic fix; (vii) misdemeanor fix, (viii) felony fix, (ix) direct criminal activities, and (x) internal payoffs.

More recent work by Punch (2000:302) distinguishes three broad categories of police deviance: *corruption*, *misconduct*, and *police crime*. Within these classifications (akin to the 'families' in Bennett & Robinson, 2000), deviancy can begin with minor offences and end with major offences. Punch further breaks the three clusters down into nine more specific types that are more or less similar to the ten types of Barker and Wells (1982).

Nevertheless, these studies, being mainly concerned with police corruption and police crime, largely ignore police deviance other than corruption, although Barker (1978) labels such misbehavior 'occupational deviance' and identifies five such violations of police rules: police perjury, police brutality, sex on duty, drinking on duty, and sleeping on duty. Punch (1985) also differentiates between, for instance, work avoidance and manipulation and employee deviance against the organization, while Lamboo et al. (2002) extends the work of Roebuck and Barker to derive four umbrella dimensions for analysis:

1. *Normative systems: formal versus informal, external versus internal.*
   The normative systems (cf. Barker, 1978; Roebuck & Barker, 1973) are (i) external normative systems such as (sub)national law, rules, and regulation; (ii) internal normative systems such as the (disciplinary) rules and regulations of the police force, including codes of conduct; (ii) internal informal police standards and working rules; (iv) police ethics; and (v) normative systems that includes legal rules with a more universal character, such as the Declaration of Human Rights (e.g. Lynch, 1999; Wright, 2000).
2. *Domain of the behavior: functional, internal, and private.*
   This dimension addresses whether norms are violated while the police employee is performing police tasks and duties (functional), whether it is internal behavior related to the performance as a member within the organization, or whether the norm is violated through private time behavior.
3. *The interest that the behavior serves: (formal) organizational versus private interest.*
   Integrity violations can be part of activities in the interest of the organization when organizational goals and ends are achieved or striven for through unlawful or deviant conduct (Haarr, 1997: 788; cf. Punch, 1985; Skolnick, 1966). Such deviation is also called ‘noble cause corruption’ (Crank & Caldero, 1999). Most particularly, the formal police interest is damaged when prevailed over by private interests like direct financial profit, other forms of direct material profit, receiving services, or psychological profit (cf. Lamboo, Lasthuizen & Huberts, 2008; Mollen Commission, 1994; Punch, 1985).
4. *Victims harmed by the behavior: citizens, colleagues, the organization, and society.*
   Police deviance can take place at the expense of several victims; citizens (whether as witnesses or suspects and arrestees), other organizational members, or the organization as an entity and more abstract victim when its interest is at stake and public trust is deteriorating (Pollock, 1998).

As illustrated, the above studies identify a variety of dimensions and manifestations of (police) misconduct and unethical behavior that are useful to the study of integrity violations. Therefore, to narrow its focus, this present study applies the broad typology of ten integrity violation categories developed by Huberts, Pijl and Steen (1999), which was originally formulated through an analysis of the literature on (police) integrity and corruption and later adapted on the basis of empirical research on internal police force investigations. As a result, the integrity violations in this typology include more than corruption, which is only one type of offence against the moral norms and values that involve private interests (see e.g., Pope, 2000). In addition, the analysis incorporates not only unethical conduct related to the performance of duties by police and authorities or directed at the organization and its members, but also misconduct during private time. These types of integrity violations are thought to be relatively universal and are thus useful for describing unethical behavior in almost all (public) organizational contexts. Nevertheless, they can take different concrete manifestations in different times and places. The resulting types of integrity violations are outlined in table 2.1 and discussed in more detail in the following text.

Corruption: bribing. Corruption, while frequently at the heart of any discussion on unethical behavior and (police) misconduct (Barker & Carter, 1994; Bull & Newell, 2003; Caiden, 1991; Caiden, Dwivedi & Jabbra, 2001; Crank & Caldero, 1999; Heidenheimer & Johnston, 2002; Menzel & Carson, 1999; Preston, Sampford & Connors, 2002), is sometimes broadly interpreted as a synonym for all violations of moral norms and values. In the more specific or narrow interpretation necessary to this study, however, corruption centers on the behavior of police officers, or those associated with them, who improperly and unlawfully enrich themselves by misusing the public power with which they are entrusted. Thus, in the typology used here, corruption is limited to the abuse of (police) powers for private gain, or more precisely, to a form of unethical conduct that involves *bribery*. This delimitation presupposes that a functionary is acting in the interest of a third actor because of advantages promised or given. In other words, even though the bribes may have been offered to the individual, they may also have been asked for by the functionary. Thus, here, corruption is a specific type of violation against moral norms and values (e.g., Huberts et al., 1999; Huberts & van den Heuvel, 1999; Klockars, 1997); for example, asking, offering, or accepting bribes (money or favors) to do or neglect something while on duty.

Table 2.1 Typology of integrity violations

1. **Corruption: bribing**
   Misuse of (public) power for private gain: asking, offering, accepting bribes.
2. **Corruption: favoritism (nepotism, cronyism, patronage)**
   Misuse of authority or position to favor family (nepotism), friends (cronyism), or party (patronage).
3. **Fraud and theft of resources**
   Improper private gain acquired from the organization or from colleagues and citizens, with no involvement of an external actor.
4. **Conflict of (private and public) interest through gifts**
   The interference (or potential interference) of personal interest with the public/organizational interest because of gifts, services, assets, or promises taken.
5. **Conflict of (private and public) interest through sideline activities**
   The interference (or potential interference) of personal interest with the public/organizational interest because of the jobs or activities practiced outside the organization.
6. **Improper use of authority**
   The use of illegal/improper means or methods to achieve organizational goals (sometimes for ‘noble causes’).
7. **Misuse and manipulation of information**
   The intended or unintended abuse of (access to) information, such as cheating, violation of secrecy rules, breaching confidentiality of information, or concealing information.
8. **Indecent treatment of colleagues or citizens and customers**
   Unacceptable treatment that includes not only discrimination (based on gender, race, or sexual orientation), intimidation, and sexual harassment but also improper behavior like bullying, nagging, and gossiping.
9. **Waste and abuse of organizational resources**
   Failure to comply with organizational standards and/or improper performance or incorrect/ dysfunctional internal behavior.
10. **Misconduct in private time**
    Conduct during private time that harms people’s trust in the (public) organization.

Sources: Huberts et al., 1999; cf. Huberts, 2007

Corruption: favoritism (nepotism, cronyism, patronage). The advantages promised or given to the corrupt functionary can also take the form of indirect personal gains, as when family or close friends (nepotism), friends or peers (cronyism), or a party or one’s own organization (patronage) are favored. Although this category of corruption may seem less serious than bribery, it must still be recognized as an integrity violation because it may well be widespread within the organizations. Specific examples of such violations addressed here are the favoring of friends or family outside the organization, consulting confidential (police) files for former colleagues, and favoritism by superiors.

Fraud and the theft of resources. When employees not acting in the interests of a third party acquire improper private gain from the organization, from colleagues, or from citizens (also in the role of suspects or arrestees), they are committing fraud or stealing (cf. opportunistic thefts: Barker & Wells, 1982; Punch, 1985). In this study, fraud and theft are operationalized as the use of organizational resources and working hours for private purposes and theft of organizational properties.

Conflict of (private and public) interest through gifts. When personal interest interferes with public interest because of gifts, services, assets, or promises taken, there is a conflict of interest through gifts. Gifts can also be questionable when there is no clear or immediate return or when the personal interest *might* interfere with the public interest (cf. Lamboo et al., 2008). This category also entails the 'informal rewards', (Punch, 1985) perceived as normal within organizations, such as perks, discounts, services, and presents.

Conflict of (private and public) interest through sideline activities. When functionaries have other interests because of sideline activities (AKA, 'moonlighting'), there is (or may be) an entanglement of interests (i.e., the entangled hands dilemma of Kaptein & Wempe, 2002). This violation is typified here by work as a security guard in private time or as a security consultant in one's owns neighborhood.

Improper use of authority. This category, which involves integrity violations included in activities in the interest of the organization and designed to achieve formal organizational goals, is especially important within the police force, which has far-reaching powers and authority to uphold the law and maintain social order. As Haarr (1997:788) points out,

> [o]ften, because the demands made on police are ambiguous and conflicting (...,) officers are expected to negotiate and at times violate internal rules and regulations in order to manage the police job and perform specific police duties. When organizational goals and ends are achieved through unlawful or deviant conduct, such behavior may receive structural support and come to be defined within the organization as normative, non deviant, and acceptable practice.

This violation, also called 'noble cause corruption' (Crank & Caldero, 1999), is framed by Punch (1985) as 'deviance for the organization' and concerns bending rules and regulations and violating policies, procedures, and the law to get the job done, achieve quotas, and promote organizational ends and effectiveness. Other examples within the police force are disproportionate violence against citizens or suspects, administering 'street justice' to those perceived as unworthy, illegal methods of investigation, and/or fabricating evidence (e.g., planting evidence or perjury).

Misuse and manipulation of information. The abuse (of access to) information covers a variety of behaviors including public officials' lying, cheating, manipulating, or concealing information; or breaching confidentiality by, for example, disclosing information to criminals or stretching the truth about the facts of a case.

Indecent treatment of colleagues or citizens and customers. The indecent treatment of others includes not only discrimination (based on gender, race, or sexual orientation), intimidation, and sexual harassment, but also improper behavior such as bullying, nagging, and gossiping. The victims might be colleagues or citizens and customers of the organization.

Waste and abuse of organizational resources. The waste and abuse of organizational resources includes failure to comply with organizational standards, as well as improper performance and incorrect or dysfunctional internal behavior. Three of the five noncorruption forms of police deviance identified by Barker (1978) – sex, drinking, and/or sleeping on duty – also belong in this category. Thus, such violations are exemplified here by falsely calling in sick and careless use of organizational properties (for instance, police equipment).

Misconduct during private time. The typology also addresses misconduct in private time: not only private crime and offences but also (the double standard of) conduct that is not necessarily blameworthy if performed by others but violates the higher normative expectations for civil servants and especially police officers (Neyroud & Beckley, 2001:89). Accordingly, this category covers a difficult grey area. It is therefore operationalized within the police force studied here in terms of excessive use of alcohol in private time, the use of soft and party drugs in private time, and contact with criminals in private time.

This broad typology of integrity violations is then used to research the moral acceptability judgment and observed frequency of a variety of integrity violations within the police organization, and to analyze the impact of leadership on the different types of integrity violations. A broad spectrum is needed, not only because current empirical research continues to offer only a limited view of the various forms of unethical conduct within organizations, but also because the research focus seems to be shifting toward the concept of integrity, which requires a broader view of unethical conduct than simply the corruption of public officials.

3. Leadership and Ethical Culture

3.1 Introduction

Many scholars, as well as practitioners, argue that leadership is a key variable influencing employee ethics and integrity. A second important factor is the ethical context represented by the organization's ethical climate and ethical culture, not least because this context supposedly mediates and enforces a leader's direct influence on employees. The nature and influence of these two factors is discussed at length in this chapter. Specifically, section 3.2 begins by defining leadership, after which section 3.3 briefly answers the question of how leaders can influence employees' moral reasoning and ethical behavior. Section 3.4 then introduces the organizational leadership concept of 'new leadership' and evaluates its merits for this study. Next, section 3.5 focuses on ethical leadership theories, which explicitly relate leadership to organizational integrity, particularly employees' moral judgment and ethical behaviors. Section 3.6 then connects leadership to the ethical organizational context, and section 3.7 provides definitions of ethical climate and ethical culture and discusses the different theoretical elements that constitute these separate conceptual constructs. Finally, section 3.8 briefly describes some relevant notions of leadership and aspects of (ethical) culture within the police organization.

3.2 Defining leadership

As pointed out in chapter one, although most definitions of leadership emphasize the three main elements of 'group,' 'influence,' and 'goal' (Bryman, 1992), the concept is so difficult to pinpoint that its numerous definitions (Bass, 1990) vary dependent on the investigational focus (see e.g., Yammarino & Bass, 1991). Therefore, because a complete exploration of the different notions and definitions of leadership is beyond the scope of this book, this discussion offers a more leader-centered definition and refers the reader to the excellent overviews by Bass (1990), Rost (1991), and den Hartog (1997).

At its most fundamental, leadership can simply be described as some type of relation between leader and follower. As McCall (2002:133) notes,

> "leader" is an *achievement* term that denotes some degree of success in eliciting collective behavior from others in pursuit of a goal to be achieved and "leading" is taken to require some level of buy-in by followers to the leader's goals and methods, strategies and tactics. [emphasis added]

In contrast, Bryman (1992) paints leadership as a *process* of social influence whereby a leader steers members of a group toward a goal. Alternatively, leadership can be viewed as a *property*, “the set of characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to employ such influence successfully” (Moorhead & Griffin, 1989:322; see also, Jago, 1982). It should be noted, however, that according to this latter leadership goes beyond the formal role: for the leader to be influential, followers must *perceive* the individual as a leader, meaning that leadership is in the eye of the beholder (den Hartog, 1997; Treviño, Hartman & Brown, 2000).

This study adopts the definition offered by Bryman (1992), in which the goal is organizational and employee integrity. Nevertheless, to conceptualize leadership in those leadership styles that seem important for steering employees toward (more) integrity, it draws upon insights from a number of scientific disciplines. In doing so, it prefers the terms ‘leadership’ and ‘leaders’ over the oft-used synonyms of ‘management’ and ‘managers’ because of recognized inherent differences (e.g., Ciulla, 1998; Kotter, 2001; Zaleznik, 1977).

3.3 The role of leadership

Several theories explain why and how leaders are important to the moral judgment and ethical behavior of their followers. In terms of *why*, Kohlberg’s (1969) cognitive moral development theory, discussed in the previous chapter, suggests that leaders, especially immediate supervisors, can be a key source of moral guidance for employees who look outside themselves to rules, laws, and authority figures.

In contrast, social learning theory and social exchange theory explain more about *how* leaders can influence their followers’ integrity (e.g., Treviño & Brown, 2005). Specifically, the former (Bandura, 1977, 1986) points out that leaders can transmit values, attitudes, and behaviors by way of modeling and identification processes, thereby leading by example and serving as role models for their employees (Bass, 1985; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Ciulla, 1999; Dickson, Smith, Grojean & Ehrhart, 2001; Ford & Richardson, 1994; Fulmer, 2004; Gini, 2004; House, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Lewis, 1991; Price, 2003; Treviño & Brown, 2005; Zhu, May & Avolio, 2004). This perspective assumes that employees are likely to imitate their supervisors and will learn what to do, as well as what not to do, by observing their leaders’ behavior. However, even though a good example may encourage employees to join in, they might also copy a bad example (Kaptein, 2002; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002; Soutar, McNeil & Molster, 1994). As an extension, reinforcement theory suggests that individual behavior is a result of its consequences and thus the (ethical) behavior of employees can be influenced by leaders through specific rewards and punishments (Treviño, 1986:614;

Treviño, 1992a; Trevino & Ball, 1992). That is, employees become role models for other employees whose behavior leaders either reward or punish (cf. Treviño & Brown, 2005).

Social exchange theory, on the other hand, argues that followers' ethical behavior is influenced by the quality of the interpersonal treatment that employees receive from leaders (Treviño & Brown, 2005). Thus, social exchange relationships go beyond contractually specified obligations to entail future obligations enforced by norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). In such relationships, trust in leaders (Kramer, 1996, 1999) and perceived fairness (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams, 1999) are especially important. When employees trust their leaders, they are more willing to engage in voluntary behaviors that benefit the organization (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000), and when employees believe that they receive fair treatment from their leaders, it raises their work satisfaction and loyalty to their supervisor, group, and/or organization, resulting in fewer harmful behaviors.

3.4 Organizational leadership theories

Because of the lively ongoing debate on leadership, its effects, and the preferred leadership styles for maximal employee performance, recent leadership research has been paying much attention to the new leadership approach, which is seen as a novel trend rather than a remedy or alternative approach (Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1992, den Hartog, 1997). As theories within this leadership approach attempt to explain why certain leaders achieve outstanding organizational accomplishments (Bass, 1985; House & Podsakoff, 1994), the related literature variously describes such leadership as 'transformational,' 'transforming,' 'charismatic,' 'inspirational,' 'visionary,' and 'value based' (e.g., den Hartog, 1997:9).

Additionally, the highly influential full range of leadership model (e.g., Bass, 1985, 1990, 1994, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2000) – which places the active transformational and transactional leadership styles on a continuum with the passive laissez-faire style – emphasizes that because transactional leaders clarify performance criteria and the returns for compliance, transactional leadership involves exchange, reward, and control. In contrast, the more active transformational leadership, which motivates and inspires followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 2000; den Hartog, 1997; den Hartog, van Muijen & Koopman, 1996), is defined primarily in terms of the effect that leaders have on their followers and the behavior to achieve it (Yukl, 1999:286). However, although numerous studies (e.g., Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994a; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubrananiam, 1996) on the effects of these leadership styles conclude that the transformational leadership style is preferable to the transactional style, “[t]he best of leadership is both transformational and transactional” with transformational leadership augmenting rather than replacing the effectiveness of transactional leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999:191).

In general, transformational leadership is conceived of as a high-quality leader–follower relationship characterized by social rather than transactional exchanges that are governed by contract and do not necessarily depend on trust between the parties (Treviño & Brown, 2005). Specifically, transformational leadership emphasizes vision, value transformation, and symbolic behavior and is a multidimensional construct with the following dimensions: charisma/idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Bass & Reggio, 2006). The first influence (charisma/idealized) involves followers’ perception of the leader as projecting self-confidence, articulating (common) goals, and arousing followers’ emotions. Inspirational motivation denotes the leader’s efforts to provide for the followers’ empowerment and self-actualization, while intellectual stimulation refers to the leader’s support and encouragement of followers’ ideas and suggestions for new ways of handling problems. Finally, individualized consideration refers to the leader’s attention to followers’ developmental interests and needs (e.g., Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; cf. Tejeda, 2001).

Central to the conceptualization of transformational leadership is the influence that leaders exert on their followers to transcend their own self-interests and incorporate the interests of the organization and society into their goals (Bass 1985, 1998). That is, transformational leaders have the power to make their followers ‘buy into’ their leadership, thereby producing extraordinary levels of follower motivation, admiration, commitment, respect, trust, dedication, loyalty, organizational citizenship behaviors, satisfaction, and performance (den Hartog, 1997; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990).

As previously pointed out, leadership studies in organizational sciences are primarily interested in the effectiveness of leadership in terms of organizational goals, output, and performance. However, although it remains largely unclear how the new leadership concept relates empirically to (un)ethical employee conduct, discussions on the moral character of transformational leadership date back to Bass’s (1985) early work and Burns’s (1978:20) argument that because “leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality,” transformational leadership *is* moral leadership. Nevertheless, according to Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), because the components of transformational leadership are themselves neutral, the behavior of transformational leaders can be either morally appropriate (moral) or morally inappropriate (immoral), producing either *authentic* transformational leadership or *pseudo* transformational leadership, respectively. Authentic transformational leaders are genuinely (i.e., inwardly and outwardly) concerned about the greater good and have a central core of moral values:

> Leaders are authentically transformational when they increase awareness of what is right, good, important, and beautiful, when they help to elevate followers' needs for achievement and self-actualization, when they foster in followers higher moral maturity, and when they move followers to go beyond their self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society (Bass, 1998:171).

It has also been suggested that transformational leadership relates positively to the moral reasoning levels that Kohlberg claims are indicative of a person's moral development (Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher & Milner, 2002). Transformational leaders are also posited to elevate their followers' moral character, raise awareness about the consequences of decisions and actions, and motivate followers by appealing to higher ideals and moral values (Bass 1985, 1998; Burns, 1978). Most explicitly associated with ethics and morality is the charismatic/idealized influence (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005) of leaders who have high moral standards; articulate and convey common values, purpose, and vision; and demonstrate morally appropriate behavior (Avolio, 1999; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994b; Bass & Reggio, 2006). Not surprisingly, this component also includes followers' identification with and emulation of leaders (Avolio, 1999:43). Thus, like ethical leadership, transformational leadership is (partly) grounded in the leader's function as (ethical) role model. Nevertheless, idealized influence/charisma should not be seen as the only moral dimension of transformational leadership: each dimension has (explicit or implicit) moral aspects (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Moreover, the dimensions partially overlap, are highly interrelated, and are mutually reinforcing (Carless, 1998; Yukl, 1999). Hence, each dimension either directly or indirectly contributes to the moral nature of transformational leadership.

In addition, some scholars emphasize that the positive influence of transformational leadership on followers' ethical behavior is not self-evident. For example, Giampetro, Brown, Browne and Kubasek (1998) suggest that transformational leaders are most successful when they have a very strong vision and demonstrate absolutist behavior. However, even though such leadership may be effective, it lacks reflection and consideration and is consequently unlikely to produce ethical behavior within organizations, a dark side of charismatic leadership that is noted elsewhere (e.g., Yukl, 2002: 251–252). Moreover, although Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) make a distinction between authentic and pseudo transformational leadership, even when leaders are authentically transformational, they can, as Price (2003:74–75) remarks, still “fail ethically” when they

> mistakenly believe that their behavior is ultimately justified because the importance of the good that can be achieved for the group, organization or society for which they feel responsible outweighs the moral costs of deviating from [generally applicable moral] requirements.

Such a moral character may also be attributed to transactional leadership, even though its connection to ethics is assumed to be less strong. According to Hollander (1995), transactional leadership is moral when the truth is upheld, promises are kept, negotiations are fair, and choices are free. The issues of fairness and justice (see section 3.3), especially, seem to play an important role in connecting the cost-benefit exchange of transactional leadership to ethics. However, Kanungo and Mendonca (1996:73) suggest that the moral implication of transactional leadership is that the resulting compliance by followers “often leads to self-denial and the loss of self-worth.” It is therefore unethical and cannot be considered an ethical process of social influence.

To explore the relationships between the new leadership styles and organizational integrity, this present study operationalizes the Dutch scales of ‘inspirational leadership,’ ‘rational-objective leadership,’ and passive leadership (detailed in chapter six) developed by den Hartog (1997; cf. den Hartog, van Muijen & Koopman, 1994) in their exploration of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style in the Netherlands. However, it should also be noted that new leadership theories do not currently deal specifically with organizational integrity. Such investigation is particularly relevant because, despite its importance, ethics is “a severely underresearched area of empirical research on managerial and leadership behavior” (Bass, 1990:905). Moreover, as the moral assessment of leadership needs ethical criteria that are independent of the definition of “leadership” (McCall, 2002:133), the next section explores the existing theories on ethical leadership.

3.5 Ethical leadership theories

To investigate the meanings of ethical leadership, Ciulla (2004) proposes that the ethics of leadership be examined along five intertwined dimensions: (i) the ethics of a leader as a person, (ii) the ethics of the leader/follower relationship, (iii) the ethics of the process of leadership, (iv) the ethics of what a leader does or does not do, and (v) the ethics of leadership in the larger context of the community. To this end, the constitutive ethical leadership framework developed by Brown, Treviño, and associates (e.g., Brown et al., 2005; Brown & Treviño, 2006a; Treviño & Brown, 2005, 2007), is particularly useful because it pays attention to all these dimensions. In addition, these authors have conducted several empirical studies on ethical leadership and its effects on organizational integrity (e.g. Treviño, 1986; Treviño, Hartman & Brown, 2000; Treviño & Nelson, 1999; Treviño & Weaver, 2003; Treviño, Weaver, Gibson & Toffler, 1999). One way that leadership is defined in such research is as

> the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and promotion of such conduct among followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making processes. (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison 2005:120)

The first part of this definition suggests that ethical leaders are perceived by their followers as credible role models for how to behave; however, "normative appropriate conduct" might in reality be context dependent (Brown et al., 2005:120). The second part implies that ethical leaders not only talk frequently about ethics and promote ethical behavior but also provide their followers with a voice. Finally, the term "reinforcement" implies that ethical leaders set ethical standards, reward ethical conduct, and discipline unethical conduct; while the phrase "decision-making processes" suggests ethical leaders that consider the ethical consequences of their decisions and make principled and fair choices that are visible for others (Brown et al., 2005:120-121). This conceptualization echoes the earlier work by Treviño et al. (2000:131), which visualizes ethical leadership in a two-pillar model built around the moral person and the moral manager (see table 3.1).

The first pillar in this model characterizes the personal *traits* of moral persons as integrity, honesty, and trustworthiness; their *behavior* as doing the right thing, being concerned for people, being open, and having personal morality; and ethical *decision making* as holding to values, making objective/fair decisions, having concern for society, and following ethical decision rules (cf. Greenleaf, 1977; van Wart, 2006). However, building a reputation as an ethical leader requires more than merely being a moral person (cf. Aronson, 2001:245; ERC, 2001:10). Followers must *perceive* their leaders to be ethical, meaning that an ethical leader should also be a moral manager, which Treviño et al.'s second pillar characterizes as one who role models through visible action, rewards, and discipline, and communicates about ethics and values.

Table 3.1 Two pillars of ethical leadership

Moral person	**Moral manager**
Traits:	
Integrity Honesty Trustworthiness	Role modeling through visible action
Behaviors:	
Doing the right thing Being concerned for people Being open Having personal morality	Rewards and discipline
Decision making:	
Holding to values Being objective/fair Being concerned for society Following ethical decision rules	Communicating about ethics and values

Source: Treviño, Hartman, and Brown (2000:131)

Treviño et al. (2000:133) also point out that moral persons can be thought of as the ethical part of the term 'ethical leadership.' That is, their employees might not always be aware that a leader is a strong ethical person, so that simply being an ethical person does not necessarily tell employees what they should do. The moral manager, however, does and is thus the leader in 'ethical leadership.' Hence, as is clear from both the definition and the model, ethical leadership includes transformational and transactional leadership elements. That is, its rewards and discipline dimension are more consistent with transactional leadership (Brown et al., 2005; cf. Treviño and Brown, 2005), while its two other moral manager dimensions overlap with transformational leadership, particularly individualized consideration, charisma/idealized influence, and inspirational motivation (Brown et al., 2005; cf. Treviño et al., 2003; van Wart, 2006). However, even though ethical leaders are likely to use both transformational and transactional leadership approaches to influence their followers to engage in ethical conduct and refrain from unethical conduct, ethical leadership is not subsumed by these constructs (Brown et al., 2005:130).

Like Treviño, Brown, and associates, most scholars in the field agree that role modeling is crucial leadership behavior both in general and specifically for safeguarding organizational integrity (Boye & Jones, 1997; Carlson & Perrewe, 1995; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Ford & Richardson, 1994; Hegarty & Sims, 1978; Holden, 2000; Johnson, 2005; Kaptein, 2002; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 1992; Mendonca, 2001;

Pelletier & Bligh, 2006; Petrick & Quinn, 1997; Sims & Brinkmann, 2002; Stead, Worrell & Stead, 1990; Storr, 2004). Many also see leadership traits like integrity, honesty, and trustworthiness as prerequisites for setting a good example (Carlson & Perrewe, 1995; Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Josephson, 2006; Jurkiewicz, 2006; Kaptein, 2002; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 1992; Storr, 2004). Also important are rewards and discipline as they relate to the expectation that employees are more likely to do what is rewarded and avoid doing what is punished (Boye & Jones, 1997; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Kaptein, 2002; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002; Paine, 1994; Storr, 2004; Sims & Brinkmann, 2002). In addition, leaders should speak about what is right and what is wrong, what is permitted and what is forbidden (Punch, 1996; Storr, 2004). It seems self-evident that communication about the true meaning of integrity in the organization is essential. Openness to talk about and discuss integrity stimulates employees to comply and helps to instill values that promote a commitment to ethical conduct (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Kaptein, 1998, 2002; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002; Paine, 1994). Ethical leadership is also thought to be positively associated with the followers' willingness to report problems and deliver bad news to the leader, because an ethical leader is concerned for people, and makes fair decisions (Brown et al., 2005:123).

If ethical leadership is embodied by leaders that display ethical conduct and promote the ethics and integrity of followers, then conversely, unethical leadership can be thought of as referring to leaders that display unethical conduct and discourage employee ethics and integrity. For example, van Wart (2006:39) suggests that the most common symptom of unethical leadership styles is that leaders "use their positions for their personal benefit or for a special group at the expense of others". Likewise, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) talk about unethical or pseudo transformational leaders as being often abusive and inconsiderate (see section 3.4), while Tepper (2000:178), in his research on abusive leadership, focuses on the "sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors" on the part of supervisors. Craig and Gustafson (1998) develop a measurement instrument that taps the perceived unethical behaviors of leaders, and somewhat later, Brown and Treviño (2006a) pay some attention to Machiavellianism and ethical leadership. Nevertheless, more in-depth research on unethical leadership remains to be done because as Brown and Treviño (2006a:610) remark, "being low on ethical leadership is not equivalent to being high on unethical leadership and vice versa." In other words, the fact that a leader may not visibly be an ethical leader does not imply that (s)he is necessarily an unethical leader. Therefore, because this distinction between ethical and unethical leadership may be important, this current study incorporates both dimensions.

3.6 Leadership and ethical organizational context

The ethical organizational context is of interest to this study because it supposedly mediates and enforces the leader's direct influence on employees. This context is assumed to comprise two distinct multidimensional constructs: *ethical climate*, usually defined as those aspects that determine what constitutes ethical behavior (Victor & Cullen, 1988), and *ethical culture*, conceived as those aspects that stimulate ethical behavior (Kaptein, 2008; Treviño & Weaver, 2003). Both these constructs refer (in somewhat different ways) to the aspects of an organization's ethical context that are thought to influence moral judgment and ethical behavior and are likely to be related to each other. Indeed, Treviño, Butterfield and McCabe (1998:447) conclude, based on their own and other's findings, that leadership is far more able to influence the work environment than it is able to influence employees' individual values and moral development. For instance, Wimbush and Shepard (1994) show that supervisors are capable of influencing the ethical climate, while other scholars identify a relationship between ethical climate and/or culture and moral reasoning and/or (un)ethical employee behavior (Ford & Richardson, 1994; Kaptein & Wempe, 2002; Maesschalck, 2004; Martin & Cullen, 2006; Peterson, 2002a, 2002b; Treviño et al., 1998, 1999; Treviño & Weaver, 2003; VanSandt, Shepard & Zappe, 2006; Wimbush & Shepard, 1994; Wimbush, Shepard & Markham, 1997).

Obviously, as previously pointed out, other organizational factors besides the ethical organizational context might also be important. For example, external factors like the politico-social environment and/or individual characteristics or circumstances probably play a role. Indeed, Fijnaut and Huberts (2002:8) point to research evidence that "a conglomerate of social, economic, political, organizational and individual causal factors" are important to explaining public corruption. However, because it is beyond the scope of this study to address all possible factors of influence, this analysis incorporates ethical culture as an intermediate variable (explained in more detail below) related to the question of how organizations can deploy (ethical) leadership to improve the ethical culture, further employees' moral judgment, and discourage integrity violations.

3.7 Defining ethical climate and ethical culture

The organizational climate has been defined as the shared perceptions of organizational policies, practices, and procedures, both formal and informal (Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Vardi, 2001). One of the many types of work climates proposed (Schneider & Rentsch, 1988) is the *ethical climate* (Victor & Cullen, 1988:101), "the prevailing perceptions of typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content" and "those aspects of work climate that determine what constitutes ethical behavior at work."

Based on Kohlberg's theory of moral development (see chapter two), Victor and Cullen (1987, 1988) develop a well-known theoretical typology of nine possible ethical climate types, which are typified along two dimensions of moral reasoning: the locus of analysis and ethical criteria or standards (see table 3.2). These latter reflect the three major classes of ethical theory – egoism, utilitarianism, and deontology (e.g. Fritzsche & Becker, 1984) – and may be distinguished in terms of maximizing the individual's own self-interests (egoism), maximizing the interests of as many people as possible (benevolence), and adherence to universal standards and beliefs (principle). The locus of analysis refers to the source of moral reasoning from which individuals receive their cues on what is considered ethically appropriate. This source might be the employee's self-determined ethical beliefs (individual), the organization's standards and policies (local), or bodies external to the individual and organization, such as a professional association (cosmopolitan; Victor & Cullen 1988:104–106).

Table 3.2 Theoretical ethical climate types

	Locus of analysis		
Ethical criterion	*Individual*	*Local*	*Cosmopolitan*
Egoism	Self-interest	Company profit	Efficiency
Benevolence	Friendship	Team interest	Social responsibility
Principle	Personal morality	Company rules and procedure	Laws and professional codes

Source: Victor & Cullen (1988:104)

According to empirical research, all nine ethical climate types actually occur in organizations (Agarwal & Malloy, 1999; Cullen, Victor & Bronson, 1993), but Victor and Cullen (1988) conclude, based on their own empirical research, that five types of ethical climate – law and code, caring, instrumentalism, independence, and rules – are most likely, some of which combine more than one theoretical type. Their study also finds that different groups of employees perceive distinct types of ethical climates within the organization dependent on their position, tenure, and workgroup membership. In addition, Wimbush and Shepard (1994:642) point out that different climates (rather than one) might exist within organizational subunits, which they explain with symbolic interactionist theory:

> In this context, a supervisor establishes through verbal and nonverbal interactions with each subordinate, and subordinates with one another, what is acceptable and unacceptable behavior. Therefore, each supervisor gives meaning to the policies and practices of the organization by enforcing policies, establishing unit-specific policies and practices, and by his or her own deportment (Wimbush & Shepard, 1994:642-643).

Victor and Cullen (1987) assess climate type using their Ethical Climate Questionnaire (ECQ) which is, according to Fritzsche (2000), the most widely investigated instrument for examining the ethical climate within organizations. However, both this tool and the typology are limited by their descriptive nature. For example, the former asks employees to observe the ethical climate rather than to evaluate the current situation (Kaptein, 1998:57; Victor & Cullen, 1988:103). Likewise, because there is no ranking of or preference for certain types of the ethical climate (other than that the instrumental climate is preferred less than other climate types), the ethical climate typology provides little specific guidance on preferred behavior and gives no direction for organizational development (Kaptein, 1998:57; Treviño & Weaver, 2003:233).

In contrast, the *ethical culture* represents a subset of the overall organizational culture, combining formal and informal systems of behavioral control that work together to guide employee thought (moral reasoning) and action (ethical behavior; Treviño & Weaver, 2003:221). The formal cultural systems include factors like policies, leadership, and reward and discipline systems, while the informal cultural systems refer to such factors as coworker attitudes and behavior and ethical norms. These systems have the potential to influence ethics and integrity to the degree that they are actually supportive. Thus, ethical organizational culture helps to establish what is considered ethical or unethical in an organization and is thought to provide direction for daily employee behavior (Treviño & Weaver, 2003:235).

The normative criteria for the ethical culture of organizations are developed in Kaptein’s (1998:58; cf. 2008) corporate ethical virtues model, which includes seven ethical virtues or qualities of organizational culture. The degree to which an organization achieves these qualities reflects the organization’s ethical content, which is seen as a moral evaluation of the organization itself. This model includes not only the ethical climate or cultural factors but also elements of the organizational structure that are assumed to influence the moral awareness and ethical conduct of employees. These seven ethical qualities are summarized in table 3.3.

Although Treviño et al. (1998) were the first to develop a measurement instrument for ethical culture (14 items loaded on one overall factor), Kaptein's (2008) recent validation of his more comprehensive model resulted in a 58-item subset of the questionnaire named the Integrity Thermometer. Findings based on this questionnaire are reported in several empirical studies in business ethics for both the Netherlands and other countries (e.g. Kaptein, 1998, 2001, 2003, 2008; Kaptein & Avelino, 2005; Kaptein & van Dalen, 2000; Kaptein, Huberts, Avelino & Lasthuizen, 2005).

Table 3.3 The ethical qualities of organizations

Clarity	The degree to which organizational expectations of employee moral conduct are accurate, concrete, and complete: How clear is the organization about how employees should handle organizational assets and treat each other as colleagues?
Consistency[8]	The degree to which organizational expectations of employee moral conduct are coherent, univocal, unambiguous, and compatible: Does management, as an important referent group for employees, exhibit the desired organizational values and norms?
Sanctionability	The degree to which negative or positive sanctions can be applied in connection with (un)ethical conduct: Is unacceptable behavior punished and desired behavior rewarded?
Achievability	The degree to which responsibilities can be carried out, so that organizational expectations actually can be met in practice: Are responsibilities and expectations achievable in terms of sufficient authority, time and means, knowledge and skills and information on the part of employees?
Supportability	The degree to which employees experience support from coworkers for the proper use of organizational assets and the way they treat each other: Does the organization stimulate recognition by and among employees of the moral organizational expectations?
Transparency	The degree to which employee conduct and the consequences of their actions can be observed: Does management know when an employee has behaved unacceptably and vice versa (vertical visibility) and do employees know when one of their own has behaved unacceptably (horizontal visibility)?
Discussability	The degree to which meeting responsibilities is open for discussion: Can (ethical) dilemmas, (integrity) problems, and criticism be talked about?

Source: Kaptein, 1998:73–75; 2001:15

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[8] In a forthcoming article, Kaptein (2008) subdivides this dimension further into the congruency of supervisors and the congruency of management.

Given this study's aim of identifying how and under what conditions leadership *stimulates* organizational integrity, a focus on ethical culture, defined and operationalized in line with Kapstein's corporate ethical virtues model (1998, 2008) seems the most appropriate framework. Nevertheless, it should be noted that Kaptein's construct of ethical culture was originally operationalized with a focus on the perceived *direct* work environment (employee and coworkers) rather than the perceived ethical culture of the organization as a whole. This focus means that ethical culture is considered to be a characteristic of a unit (e.g., department or team). In addition, ethical culture in this study constitutes an intermediate variable that enables research not only on the direct effects of leadership on integrity violations but also its indirect effects through ethical culture.[9] First, however, to give the reader a more detailed picture of the research population, this chapter concludes with a short reflection on police leadership and police culture.

3.8 Leadership and ethical culture within the police

The extant literature provides specific descriptions of (ethical) leadership characteristics and its behavioral elements and stressed their relevance for the police. For example, Heffernan (2002:138) argues that although exemplary leadership matters for every organization, it is particularly important in police bureaucracy. First, police officers, who maintain the rule of law, should also adhere to it because a leadership that violates clear mandates or interprets legal rules too much in its own interest undermines subordinates' commitment to the rule of law. Second, exemplary leadership establishes the context in which police officers accept the dangers and risks of policing. Third, in their interaction with the public, leaders should set the example that police officers not only enforce the law but are also (friendly) public servants. In other words, police leaders should inspire their subordinates to be law abiding, courageous, and courteous. It is therefore highly likely that this empirical study of police leadership will identify role-modeling behavior (cf. Boin, van der Torre & 't Hart, 2003). Moreover, the pleas for modern police leadership heard recently from the changing Dutch police organization have been rife with transformational leadership terms like 'charismatic', 'inspirational', and 'visionary' (Poelert, 2003:7) and transactional leadership terms like ‘output-steering’, ‘accountability’, and ‘businesslike leadership’ (Mellink, 2003:21; Zaal & Sinning, 2003:25-27; cf. Kolthoff, 2007). This prevalence suggests that not only ethical leadership but also the organizational leadership styles will be in evidence in the police organization.

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[9] Ethical culture, as described by Treviño et al. (1998) and Kaptein (1998; 2008), also includes leadership aspects. Here, however, to enable fuller exploration of leadership's influence on integrity violations, leadership and ethical culture are conceived of as two distinct phenomena and concepts, Therefore, Kaptein's ethical quality 'consistency', which refers to the role-modeling behavior of supervisors and management, is excluded from the model. The resulting measurement procedure is detailed in chapter six.

Within the field of police research, there is also an existing body of knowledge on police culture (cf. Crank, 1998). Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind that researchers warn of a code of silence, also called the ‘blue wall of silence’ (Crank & Caldero, 1999; Punch, 1985; Punch, Tieleman & van den Berg, 1999; Skolnick, 2002; Vrij, Winkel, Koppelaar & Euwema, 1989). As a result, police officers may be more reluctant than employees elsewhere to report wrongdoing by fellow officers because of their high dependence on each other in work that is sometimes ‘a matter of life and death’. This reluctance might lead to a social desirability bias in the response patterns related to integrity violations, making it more likely that openness – as part of the ethical organizational culture dimensions transparency, supportability, and discussability – might be underrepresented. Other researchers point out that the average police officer is distrustful or skeptical of supervisors who try to ‘interfere’ with officers’ discretionary powers on the beat (Lipsky, 1980; Reiner, 1997; Reus-Ianni, 1984). This supposed conflict between street police officers, those in management positions, and those responsible for policy may influence employee perceptions of supervisors. These issues are explored at length in the chapter five discussions of the survey method’s validity and reliability.

4. The Effects of Leadership: Empirical Studies

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the empirical evidence for the direct or indirect effects of leadership on unethical employee behavior and integrity violations in the workplace and derives hypotheses about the relevant concepts. Unfortunately, as Robinson and Greenberg (1998) note, little valid research has been done on the relationship between organizational factors and workplace deviance, and even less on integrity violations specifically. Nevertheless, the chapter summarizes what little empirical work exists, beginning with research on the relationship between moral judgment and (un)ethical behavior (section 4.2). It then investigates the research findings on the effects of organizational leadership, including descriptions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (section 4.3) and ethical leadership (section 4.4), and on the empirical relationship between an ethical organizational context (i.e., ethical climate and ethical culture) and (un)ethical behavior (section 4.5). Section 4.6 presents some concluding remarks.

4.2 The relationship between moral judgment and ethical behavior

The Kohlberg (1969) model outlined in chapter two posits a relationship between moral judgment and (un)ethical conduct based on the individual drive for consistency between thought and action. However, although its existence is confirmed in several empirical studies (e.g., Ford & Richardson, 1994; Loe, Ferrel & Mansfield, 2000), this proposed relationship appears only moderately strong and (un)ethical conduct is not fully explained by moral reasoning (Blasi, 1980). Nevertheless, Maesschalck (2004:356) confirms that ethical decision making (consisting of ethical dilemmas and moral reasoning) does underlie the choice of particular types of unethical behavior. Likewise, other studies show that individuals at the principled level of moral development are less likely to engage in negative behaviors like cheating and stealing and make more ethical decisions, whereas individuals at lower levels of moral development are more likely to engage in unethical behaviors and need more guidance in making ethical decisions (e.g., Greenberg, 2002; Treviño, 1992b; Treviño & Youngblood, 1990). These findings imply that higher levels of moral reasoning have a positive effect on employees' ethical behavior, limiting the incidence and prevalence (measured here by observed frequency) of integrity violations in the work environment. This assumption leads to the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1*: When employees evaluate integrity violations as morally unacceptable, this type of moral judgment (i.e. moral acceptability judgment) limits the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.[10]

4.3 Effects of organizational leadership

Transformational leadership, as Yukl (1999: 286) points out, is defined primarily in terms of the effect that leaders have on followers and the behavior to achieve it. In addition, the numerous studies exploring the effects of these leadership styles conclude that the transformational leadership style is preferable to the transactional leadership style (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). However, these studies focus on leader effectiveness to the complete exclusion of leadership's ethical dimension (e.g., Bass, 1990; Brown & Treviño, 2002; Yukl, 2002). For example, *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership* (Bass, 1990) mentions no empirical studies on the new leadership (i.e., transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership styles) in relation to ethical issues. As Bass (1990:146) states, "there has been a marked paucity of empirical research on managers' attitudes toward corruption and the ethics of their behavior."

Likewise, Vardi and Weitz (2004), whose *Misbehavior in Organizations* gives a detailed overview of previous empirical studies on the manifestations and antecedents of organizational misbehavior (OMB), find not one single study that explicitly explores the effects of organizational leadership and (different manifestations of) OMB. Indeed, these authors (2004:41) complain that even studies that do pay attention to leadership and ethics, "[overlook] the fact that leaders may also encourage negative attitudes and behaviors" (cf. Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997:ix). They therefore conduct four surveys (one among employees of the national Israeli utility company) to explore the role of leadership style in OMB as measured by 11 items. They find that the two leadership style types they adapt from Fleishman (1953), labeled 'initiating structure' and 'consideration,' correlate with OMB and limit its occurrence (Vardi & Weitz, 2004:171–178). Thus, given that the consideration style is part of transformational leadership, their results suggest that transformational leadership has a positive, i.e. limiting, impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

A recent field study by Brown and Treviño (2006b) on the relationship between the charismatic/idealized dimension of transformational leadership (cf. Bass & Avolio, 2000; see chapter three) and interpersonal and organizational deviance in work groups (cf. Bennett & Robinson, 2000; see chapter two) also recognizes the lack of empirical research: "(…) this study is most important because, to our knowledge, it is the first to demonstrate a relationship between socialized charismatic leadership and reduced deviance in work groups" (Brown & Treviño, 2006b:959). They also find empirical support for the hypothesis that a negative relationship exists between these variables, suggesting that, overall, transformational leadership has a positive impact on organizational integrity and can indeed influence integrity violations in the workplace. However, it should be noted that, based on the earlier work by Bennett and Robinson (2000), interpersonal deviance only includes the behavior described as 'indecent treatment of colleagues' and organizational deviance refers only to 'fraud and theft' and 'waste and abuse' in the typology of integrity violations of this study.

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[10] For the sake of readability, this discussion omits the corresponding null hypotheses.

Overall, despite normative arguments for leadership's importance for ethics (Burns, 1978; Ciulla, 1998; Kanungo & Medonca, 1996), little empirical work has been done that explicitly relates organizational leadership to the (un)ethical behavior of followers. Moreover, with the exception of Vardi and Weitz (2004) and Brown and Treviño (2006b), almost no extant studies explore the effects of *different* organizational leadership styles on *different* types of integrity violations. However, the invaluable insights provided by these authors are sufficient basis for the following hypothesis on transformational leadership's positive effect on ethical employee behavior:

> *Hypothesis 2a*: Transformational leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

Also of interest is the study by Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002), which assesses the statistical relationship between perceived leader integrity and transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. These authors use the Perceived Leadership Integrity Scale (PLIS) of Craig and Gustafson (1998), discussed in more detail below, and the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x for short) originally developed by Bass (1985). Although their study does not examine the relationship between leadership styles and integrity violations at work, it does provide insights into the moral character of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Specifically, Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002:88) find that perceived leader integrity is most positively correlated with transformational leadership: "those leaders who demonstrate strong patterns of transformational leadership in their behavior are also perceived to possess the most integrity." They also find no support for a relationship between charismatic leadership (as part of transformational leadership, see chapter three) and unethical and immoral leadership behavior. Rather, their findings suggest that the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership – which, in line with theory, they describe as agreement between leader and follower “on what needs to be done and for what reward” (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002:78) – has the greatest impact on high perceptions of leader integrity. In contrast, the other dimensions of transactional leadership (e.g., active and passive management-by-exception, which relates to leader reactions to errors, mistakes, and problems) are negatively correlated with perceived leader integrity, while laissez-faire leadership is associated with the lowest perceptions of integrity (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002:88–91).

Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher and Milner (2002) also find that a leader’s cognitive moral development is positively related to transformational leadership but unrelated to transactional leadership, which suggests that transformational leaders are higher in moral reasoning. Although their study does not provide evidence that transformational leaders also transmit their higher moral reasoning to their followers (Treviño & Brown, 2005:78), it does support the plausibility of differences in the effects of these leadership styles on moral judgment.

Nevertheless, because explicit empirical investigation on the relationship between transactional and/or laissez-faire leadership and integrity violations is lacking, the work of Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002) is the only available theoretical basis for hypothesizing that transactional leadership has weaker effects than transformational leadership and that laissez-faire leadership has a negative impact (i.e., leads to more integrity violations) on organizational integrity:

> *Hypothesis 2b*: Transactional leadership has a smaller limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations than transformational leadership.

> *Hypothesis 2c*: Laissez-faire leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

In addition, on the basis of Turner et al. (2002), two additional hypotheses are formulated on the relation between organizational leadership and moral judgment:

> *Hypothesis 3a*: Transformational leadership has a positive impact on employees’ moral acceptability judgment.

> *Hypothesis 3b*: Transactional leadership has no impact on employees’ moral acceptability judgment.

However, because no empirical results seemingly exist on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and moral judgment, no hypotheses could be formulated for this style.

4.4 Effects of ethical leadership

Because very little empirical research is available in the literature that has ethical leadership as its point of departure, this section first reviews the most important empirical results from Treviño, Brown, and associates and then complements these with other empirical findings on the various aspects of ethical leadership.

To fully investigate the effects of ethical leadership, Brown, Treviño, and others (Brown & Treviño, 2002; Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005) draw on their qualitative work (e.g., Treviño, Brown & Hartman, 2003) to define a comprehensive ethical leadership construct (see chapter three) and develop the Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS) to measure perceptions of this construct. Although the empirical research on the effects of ethical leadership as they define and measure it is still limited, their validation study indicates that ethical leadership is associated with followers' job satisfaction and dedication, as well as their willingness to report problems to management (Brown et al., 2005:129).

Some other empirical work, including previous studies by Brown and Treviño, examines the effects on unethical behavior of aspects of the ethical leadership construct, including ethical decision-making processes, role modeling, rewards and discipline, and communication about ethics and values. For instance, Treviño, Weaver, Gibson and Toffler (1999) survey employees in six large American companies to assess 'what works and what hurts' in ethics and compliance management. They also measure employee perceptions of executive and supervisory ethical leadership. One primary conclusion of this study (Treviño et al., 1999:142) is that leadership is a key ethical culture factor:

> [W]here employees perceived that supervisors and executives regularly pay attention to ethics, take ethics seriously, and care about ethics and values as much as the bottom line, all of the outcomes were significantly more positive.

These outcomes included increased moral awareness and reduced unethical conduct, a finding that echoes Posner and Schmidt's (1984) conclusion that supervisory behavior is the primary influence on individual ethical behavior and that employees look to their supervisors for ethical guidance when confronted with ethical dilemmas (cf. Ford & Richardson, 1994; Loe et al., 2000). Treviño and Weaver (2003:252) also use a survey to test the impact of an organization's ethical environment, including the ethical leadership behaviors of reward and discipline, role modeling, decision-making processes, and personal morality, on unethical behavior like theft and lying. Overall, in line with Treviño et al. (1999), the ethical environment appears to significantly influence observed unethical behavior. Likewise, the findings of Hunter's (1999) survey among police officers suggest that strict and fair discipline and exemplary moral behavior by supervisors constitute a successful strategy to curb police misconduct. Experimental studies by Hegarty and Sims (1978, 1979) also indicate that rewarding unethical behavior produces more unethical behaviors, while punishing unethical behavior clearly contributes to more ethical behaviors. These findings confirm that this aspect of ethical leadership, which is part of the moral manager, has a positive impact (cf. Loe, Ferrel and Mansfield, 2000), although Treviño and Youngblood (1990:383) also point to a reluctance by employees to be rewarded for ethical behavior that is expected as part of their daily work (cf. Kaptein, 1998:177). Greenberg (1990) also shows that, as suggested in Lasthuizen, Huberts and Kaptein (2005:93) and Treviño and Weaver (2003:279), fair treatment reduces counterproductive behavior.

Another survey by Huberts, Kaptein and Lasthuizen (2007), conducted among Dutch police officers, examines the relationship between the three ethical leadership aspects of role modeling, strictness, and openness (analogous to Treviño et al.'s moral manager) and the ten types of integrity violations discussed in chapter two. Although they find that these three aspects do influence employee behavior, the impact of the variables on the different types of integrity violations varies. Role modeling seems especially significant in limiting unethical conduct in the context of interpersonal relationships, but strictness is also important and appears particularly effective in controlling fraud, corruption, and the abuse of resources. The impact of openness, however, is less evident. The above findings together produce the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 4a:* Ethical leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

> *Hypothesis 5a*: Ethical leadership has a positive impact on employees' moral acceptability judgment.

Some research in the field of unethical leadership is also worth mentioning. For example, Ashfort's (1994) research on petty tyranny in organizations concludes (among other things) that tyrannical behavior tends to undermine subordinate performance. According to Pagon, Duffy, Ganster and Lobnikar (1998), such supervisory undermining is the strongest single predictor of police deviance. Craig and Gustafson (1998) also develop a comprehensive Perceived Leadership Integrity Scale (PLIS). However, as the 31 items used for this scale are negatively worded and suggest a lack of morals or ethics on the part of the leader, it would probably be more accurate to speak of it as a perceived unethical leadership scale. As Craig and Gustafson (1998:130) note, "most of the items generated for the PLIS describe leader behaviors which are clearly *unethical*, rather than positive or desirable". As a result, they fail to capture the more positive segment of the ethical leadership continuum[11] and because their study goal was validation of the PLIS scale, they have done no further research into the effects of PLIS on unethical subordinate behavior. A negative relation is reported, however, between the PLIS and job satisfaction (Davis & Rothstein, 2006).

Indeed, some research finds that unfair treatment, especially by a supervisor, can result in retaliation, including sabotage (Ambrose, Seabright & Schminke, 2002; Greenberg, 1990; cf. Giacalone, Riordan & Rosenfeld, 1997), and Tepper, Duffy and Shaw (2001) show that abusive supervision increases counterproductive behavior. These findings are supported by analyses of both the case of John Gutfreund at Salomon Brothers and the Enron case (Sims & Brinkmann, 2002, 2003). These cases also stress the importance of the moral manager in relation to (un)ethical conduct by clearly illustrating that the respective organizations fell short in providing clear communication about ethics and values, role modeling, and rewards and discipline. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are derived on the negative impact of unethical leadership on organizational integrity:

> *Hypothesis 4b*: Unethical leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.
>
> *Hypothesis 5b*: Unethical leadership has a negative impact on employees' moral acceptability judgment.

4.5 The role of ethical organizational context

Because of the paucity of the research, assumptions about the effects of ethical culture on moral judgment and integrity violations must necessarily be based on empirical studies in a broader ethical organizational context, including those on ethical climate. For example, Treviño and Weaver (2003:247) show that, although ethical culture and ethical climate are distinct concepts, they are strongly related, suggesting "that the relationships between climate and culture dimensions are more important than the differences between them." However, before establishing the effects of the ethical organizational context; an overview of the empirical research on its relationship with leadership is in order.

First, Martin and Cullen (2006:179) briefly discuss the antecedents of ethical *climate*, noting that "the literature investigating the determinants of ethical climate is both fragmented and under-researched." Nevertheless, the work by Schminke, Ambrose and Neubaum (2005) is interesting because it shows that a leader's moral development significantly influences perceptions of the organization's ethical climate, implying that leaders play a major role in establishing this climate. In addition, Erakovich, Bruce and Wyman (2002:28) find not only that structural or task-oriented leadership gives stronger support to principled ethical climates than does relational or supportive leadership, but that supportive leadership is in turn related to ethical climates characterized by individual interest.

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[11] Because the PLIS scale does seem appropriate for measuring unethical leadership, it is used for that purpose in this study.

Although conceptual research suggests a straightforward main effect relationship between (ethical) leadership and the (ethical) *culture*, little empirical research has explicitly explored this relationship (cf. Menzel & Carson, 1999), partly because authors like Treviño and colleagues (cf. Treviño et al., 1999; Treviño & Weaver, 2003) and Kaptein and Wempe (2002) consider leadership part of the organizational culture itself (see chapter three). However, their work does suggest a strong connection between ethical leadership and ethical culture, which implies the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 6*: (Ethical) leadership is strongly related to ethical culture.

Since the introduction of Victor and Cullen's (1987, 1988) ethical climate framework, much empirical research has shown a relationship between ethical *climate* and various outcomes (cf. Carr, Schmidt, Ford & DeShon, 2003). These outcomes include unethical behavior and moral judgment, although according to Martin and Cullen (2006:190), "the undesirable outcomes of ethical climate perceptions ... remain understudied." Moreover, the ethical climate may be predictive of both ethical behavior and unethical behavior because "ethical climates identify the normative systems that guide organizational decision making and the systematic responses to ethical dilemmas" (Victor & Cullen, 1988:123; cf. Wimbush & Shepard, 1994:640). One consequence of ethical climate, examined in Martin and Cullen's meta-analysis of the effects of ethical climate (2006:181–182), is dysfunctional or unethical behavior like lying, stealing, falsifying reports, and accepting gifts and favors. Indeed, several empirical studies show a relationship between an ethical climate and (un)ethical employee behavior (Deshpande, 1996; Ford & Richardson, 1994; Maesschalck, 2004; Peterson, 2002a, 2002b; Treviño & Weaver, 2003; Vardi, 2001; Vardi & Weitz, 2004; Wimbush, Shepard & Markham, 1997). Most particularly, some studies suggest that a (perceived) instrumental climate and the lack of a (perceived) principled climate increase unethical behavior, while a climate characterized by (perceived) caring and laws and rules discourages unethical employee behavior (Peterson, 2002a, 2002b; Vardi, 2001; Wimbush et al., 1997). However, Peterson (2002a, 2002b) and Wimbush et al. (1997) also clearly demonstrate that most ethical climate dimensions, while significantly related to an aggregate measure of unethical behavior, are not associated with all (separate) behaviors, which suggests that the causes for unethical behavior might depend on its specific type. These findings are supported by the above-mentioned meta-analysis (Martin & Cullen, 2006:185), which finds negative correlations between unethical behavior and caring, law and codes, rules, and a perceived independent climate but positive correlations between unethical behavior and a perceived instrumental climate. Admittedly, these correlations range between -.10 and 0.22, which is considered a small effect size. Nevertheless, the analysis suggests that organizational commitment, and to a lesser degree job satisfaction, intermediates the relation between ethical climate perceptions and unethical behavior (Martin & Cullen, 2006:187).

As regards the relationship between ethical *culture* and (un)ethical employee behavior, the empirical work by Treviño and colleagues (Treviño, Butterfield & McCabe, 1998; Treviño et al., 1999; Treviño & Weaver, 2003) is most valuable. Specifically, they examine the influence of ethical culture (including leadership; see section 4.4) on unethical conduct and moral awareness and show that "as a set, the ethical culture factors emerg[e] as the most important influential factors" (Treviño et al., 1999:144; cf. Treviño and Weaver, 2003:225). Moreover, one study by Treviño and Weaver (2003) includes perceptions of both ethical culture and ethical climate. Here, the authors propose that ethical culture should be more strongly associated with (un)ethical conduct than ethical climate because its dimensions are aimed more specifically at influencing behavior. However, the empirical results indicate that only in organizations with an ethical code do ethical culture dimensions prove to be more strongly associated with observed unethical behavior: in noncode organizations, the ethical climate (labeled 'self-interest') is more important. These findings suggest the following general hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 7*: Ethical culture has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

The ethical *climate* has also been researched empirically in relation to moral reasoning. For instance, Maesschalck (2004:355) shows that ethical climate has a significant impact on ethical decision making, while VanSandt, Shepard and Zappe (2006:425) conclude that "ethical work climate is a primary predictor of members' degree of moral awareness." Likewise, organizations whose ethical climates are perceived to emphasize benevolence or principled ethical criteria are associated with higher levels of moral awareness than are organizations with egoistic ethical climate types. For example, Barnett and Vaicys (2000:359) show that perceptions of a caring and principled climate moderate the relationship between moral judgment and ethical behavioral intentions, although not always as expected.

Specifically, in climates perceived as principled, respondents are less likely to admit they would engage in unethical behavior, whereas climates perceived as caring have a small effect in the opposite direction. One other review of the empirical literature on ethical decision making (Ford & Richardson, 1994: 217) concludes that

> the more ethical the climate and the culture of an organization is, the more ethical an individual's ethical beliefs and decision behavior will be. The strength of this influence may be moderated by the structure and design of some organizations.

This assumption is supported by Treviño and colleagues' (Treviño, 1986; Treviño et al., 1999; Treviño and Weaver, 2003) findings of significant correlations between ethical *culture* and moral awareness,[12] which form the basis for the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 8*: Ethical culture has a positive impact on employee's moral acceptability judgment.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the empirical research on the relationship between types of (ethical) leadership, the ethical organizational context (i.e., ethical climate and ethical culture), moral judgment, and (un)ethical behavior/integrity violations in order to derive hypotheses that form the basis for the empirical research. Although overall, the research sometimes fails to provide sufficiently precise statements on the several dimensions of (ethical) leadership, the ethical culture dimensions, the moral acceptability judgments, and the incidence and prevalence of the ten types of integrity violations, the important studies cited do provide an overall picture of the relations between the variables that play a central role in this investigation. Therefore, the more specific relationships are distinguished and dealt with in the empirical part of this study.

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[12] As discussed in chapter two, moral awareness is thought to be an important first stage in the ethical decision-making process underlying moral judgment.

5. Research Outline

5.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design, beginning with an overview of the basic research elements (section 5.2). Section 5.3 then justifies the decision to collect data for a regional police force of the Netherlands, and briefly discusses the larger research context of Dutch public government, of which the police force is a part. Subsequently, sections 5.4 describes the research population (the police force selected). Section 5.5 and 5.6 detail the standardized survey used as the primary measurement tool, as well as the supplemental in-depth interviews and document analysis, after which section 5.7 discusses their validity and reliability and explains how the limitations and potential risks were dealt with.

5.2 Research outline

This research had a threefold purpose: to address the research problem of leadership and integrity, to supply data for the research by Kolthoff into NPM and integrity,[13] and to gather input for the integrity development program of the selected organization. Only the work relevant to the first is presented here.

As explained in the Introduction, the central research question is as follows:

> *How and to what extent does leadership influence the integrity of an organization and its employees?*

The main elements – leadership, organizational integrity, and how and under what conditions leadership affects integrity – have been clarified in the previous theoretical chapters by answering the following detailed questions:

1. What is included in the (theoretical) concept of integrity, and how does integrity relate to integrity violations (behavior) and moral judgment (evaluations of the acceptability of integrity violations)? (Chapter two)

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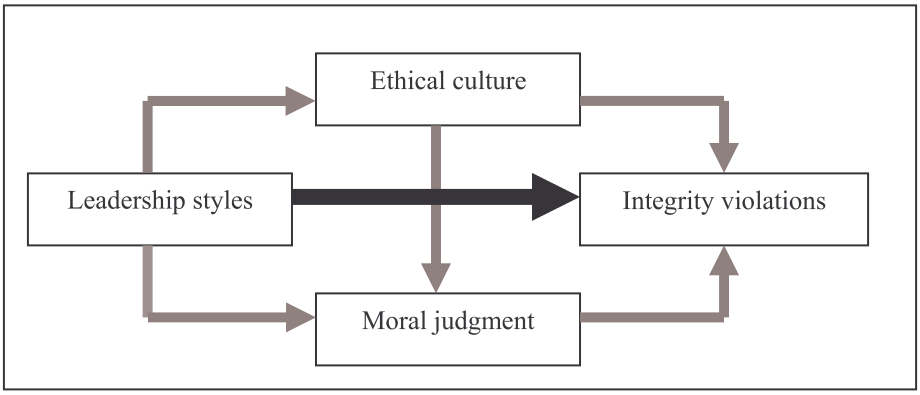
[13] Kolthoff, E. (2007). *Ethics and New Public Management: Empirical Research into the Effects of Businesslike Government on Ethics and Integrity*. BJu Legal Publishers.

2. What is included in the (theoretical) concept of leadership, what styles of leadership can be distinguished, and what is understood by 'ethical leadership'? (Chapter three)
3. What is included in the (theoretical) concept of an ethical culture within organizations, and what elements can be distinguished for it? (Chapter three)
4. According to the literature, what are the relationships between leadership (styles), ethical culture, moral judgment and integrity violations? What is presupposed in theories and theoretical approaches, and what is established based on empirical research? (Chapter four)

The conceptual model for this research (see Fig. 5.1) shows the relations between the different concepts and forms the basis for the hypotheses to be tested.

Figure 5.1 Conceptual model



The chapter two discussion of the concepts of integrity, moral judgment, and integrity violations proposed the use of Huberts, Pijl and Steen's (1999) typology of ten types of integrity violations: corruption, fraud and theft, conflict of (private and public) interests through gifts, jobs and activities, improper use of authorities, abuse and manipulation of information, discrimination and sexual harassment, waste and abuse of organizational resources, and private time misconduct. Therefore, the observed frequency of these types of integrity violations is incorporated into the study design as the main dependent variable (integrity violation), while moral judgment refers to employee evaluations of the acceptability of these violations (i.e. moral acceptability judgment).

Likewise, chapter three, which dealt with leadership and ethical culture, introduced Bass and associates' full range of leadership model (e.g., Bass, 1990), which consists of three leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez faire. This model of *organizational leadership* was identified as the most appropriate for this study. The work of Brown, Treviño, and associates (e.g., Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005) was taken as the starting point for *ethical leadership*, although the empirical research design also incorporates unethical leadership (Graig & Gustafson, 1998). Finally, ethical culture was defined and conceptualized in line with the corporate ethical virtues model of Kaptein (1998, 2008), and comprises six ethical dimensions: clarity, achievability, transparency, discussability, sanctionability, and supportability. Chapter four then detailed the following hypotheses formulated on the basis of the previous empirical research:

Hypothesis 1: When employees evaluate integrity violations as morally unacceptable, this type of moral judgment (i.e. moral acceptability judgment) limits the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.
Hypothesis 2a: Transformational leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.
Hypothesis 2b: Transactional leadership has a smaller limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations than does transformational leadership.
Hypothesis 2c: Laissez-faire leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.
Hypothesis 3a: Transformational leadership has a positive impact on employees' moral acceptability judgment.
Hypothesis 3b: Transactional leadership has no impact on employees' moral acceptability judgment
Hypothesis 4a: Ethical leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.
Hypothesis 4b: Unethical leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.
Hypothesis 5a: Ethical leadership has a positive impact on employees' moral acceptability judgment.
Hypothesis 5b: Unethical leadership has a negative impact on employees' moral acceptability judgment.
Hypothesis 6: (Ethical) leadership is strongly related to ethical culture.
Hypothesis 7: Ethical culture has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.
Hypothesis 8: Ethical culture has a positive impact on employees' moral acceptability judgment.

Subsequent chapters, which report the empirical research, are framed by additional questions not yet addressed in the text:

5. What empirical research has been conducted among police officers in the Netherlands and how were the different variables measured?

6. Which (ethical) leadership styles do respondents attribute to their direct supervisor in the research organization selected?
7. How do respondents perceive the ethical culture of their direct work environment?
8. What is the incidence and prevalence of different types of integrity violations in the direct work environment as perceived by the respondents?
9. What is the respondents' moral acceptability judgment as measured by their evaluations of the acceptability of the different types of integrity violations?
10. What is the relationship between leadership, ethical culture, moral acceptability judgment, and the observed frequency of integrity violations in this study in terms of direct correlations (bivariate and multiple regression analyses) and indirect correlations (AMOS analyses)?
11. What conclusions follow from the resulting overall models for understanding the relationship between leadership, ethical culture, moral acceptability judgment, and the observed frequency of the ten types of integrity violations? How and under what conditions does (ethical) leadership influence the observed frequency of integrity violations in terms of direct effects and indirect effects (through the ethical culture and employees' moral acceptability judgment)?

The first question (5) will be answered in this and the following chapter; questions 6–9 will be discussed in chapter seven, question 10 in chapter eight, and question 11 in chapter nine.

5.3 Research context: integrity of governance in the Netherlands

The Netherlands does not have a reputation for corruption in public life in general nor in the police in particular. For example, the Transparency International Corruption Perception Index paints a stable picture of the Netherlands as among the least corrupt nations, even compared to many other western democracies (Huberts, 2002). This picture is supported by research on misconduct in the Netherlands, which suggests that, in spite of the corruption and fraud brought to light by the Dutch construction industry scandal (Dohmen & Verlaan, 2003, 2004; Tweede Kamer der Staten-Generaal, 2002), explicit cases of corruption in the public sector are rare (Fijnaut, 1993; van den Heuvel, Huberts & Verberk, 1999; Huberts & Lasthuizen, 2005; Ruimschotel, 1993). Nevertheless, after the late Mrs. Dales, Minister of Internal Affairs, brought up the matter of integrity in a political speech (Dales, 1994), it became an explicit topic on the political agenda for the first time and since then, public sector policies have been widely developed and a National Integrity System constructed (Huberts, 2002).

Not surprisingly, because the police force, charged with maintaining law, is one of the most important institutions for protecting integrity of governance, business, and the community (Fijnaut & Huberts, 2002; Mischkowitz, Bruhn, Desch, Hübner & Beese, 2000), police integrity has attracted much attention from policymakers and researchers. Obviously, integrity is a necessary condition for the credibility and legitimacy of the police organization (Huberts, 1998; Kaptein & van Reenen, 2001; Newburn, 1999; Punch, 1985) and the consequences of police corruption can be dire. Well-known police scandals in the Netherlands include the 1970's case in Amsterdam and the so-called IRT case in the 1990s (Enquêtecommissie opsporingsmethoden, 1996; Huberts, 1994; Punch, 1985, 1996). Nevertheless, in general, integrity violations are more likely to involve theft, small fraud, questionable activities in private time, leaking of information, and waste and abuse of organizational resources. Private time misconduct, particularly, like domestic violence and/or drunken driving, constitutes a relatively common subject of investigation by internal affairs bureaus (Bommels, 1997; Lamboo, 2005; van der Steeg, Lamboo & Nieuwendijk, 2000).

To combat such problems, every Dutch police force has developed integrity policies. One of the first integrity initiatives was the Council of the Chief Commissioners' 1997 distribution to every police officer in the country of the Professional Code for the Dutch Police. However, a 2001 evaluation of the integrity policies of the Dutch police force (Adviescommissie Politie en Integriteit, 2001; see also van den Heuvel & Lamboo, 2001) identifies a multitude of other policy instruments emphasizing culture and cultural change (awareness, leadership, openness to discussion, code of conduct, mentorship, training) and structural and organizational demands (instructions, ombudsman/trusted representative, internal affairs bureaus, circulation of personnel, job mobility, division of roles, selective screening). Most such policies aim to discourage integrity violations in the broad sense (Lamboo, 2005), meaning that the integrity policies of the Dutch police force can be characterized as general and intended to enhance integrity within the organization.

This central role of integrity within the police organization, as well as the attention already given this subject, motivated the choice of the police force as an appropriate population for this study,[14] and the fieldwork was thus conducted on a regional police force in the Netherlands. This investigation can therefore be considered a case study. Admittedly, the generalizability of the study results to the whole Dutch police force and other sectors in (local) government may be questioned; however, some direction for an answer to this question will be given in Chapter seven by comparing the survey results with those of earlier survey research (Kaptein, Huberts, Avelino & Lasthuizen, 2005; Kaptein & van Reenen, 2001; Lasthuizen, Huberts & Kaptein, 2005; van Reenen & Kaptein, 1998) both within and outside the police force. This issue is further discussed in section 5.7 in relation to the survey method's validity and reliability.

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[14] Additionally, the Department of Public Administration of VU University has a long tradition of research into police organizations, which facilitated access to the relatively familiar research population and research environment.

5.4 Research population: the Midden- and West Brabant police force

In the Netherlands, a country with about 16 million inhabitants, the overall police force totals about 48,000 police officers, approximately 294 police officers per 100.000 inhabitants. The majority (73 percent) of these employees are executive (sworn) police officers. The task and organization of the Dutch police is embedded in the Police Act of 1993, under which the National Police and the 148 municipal police forces merged into 25 regional police forces and one National Police Agency (see Fig. 5.2). This latter is responsible for supervision and surveillance on the motorways, railways, and waterways, as well as protecting members of the royal family, national crime investigation, and the provision of expert support and specialized facilities. Although the size of each regional force varies, depending on each region's population size, building density, and crime level, most regions are divided into a number of police districts with both general and specialized tasks. Thus, districts are composed of a number of basic police units or teams, as well as specialized divisions like criminal investigation. Nevertheless, compared to those of some other countries, the Dutch police force is still highly centralized. Because the crucial steering of the police organization falls under the authority of two central ministries, the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Justice, recruitment, training, salaries, uniform, and much equipment are determined nationally. In addition, since 2003, these two ministries have drawn up agreements with each regional police force about the performance of core tasks.[15]

This empirical research was conducted on the police force of Midden- and West Brabant (hereafter, the MWB), one of the larger regional forces in the Netherlands. This force, located in the southern part of the Netherlands on the border with Belgium, covers 26 municipalities having a total of over 1 million inhabitants. Because this region includes rural and agricultural areas in addition to a few larger cities (Breda, Tilburg, Roosendaal, Bergen op Zoom), the MWB faces a mixture of urban and rural problems, as well as problems like illegal transport across the border (e.g., drugs, stolen goods). To cover this large police region, the MWB employs 2,720 individuals (as of 2003), and in terms of its problems, police tasks, and performance is comparable[16] to the regional police forces of Amsterdam-Amstelland, Rotterdam-Rijnmond, Haaglanden, and Utrecht, which are located in the most urban part of the Netherlands (including cities like Amsterdam, Rotterdam, the Hague, and Utrecht).

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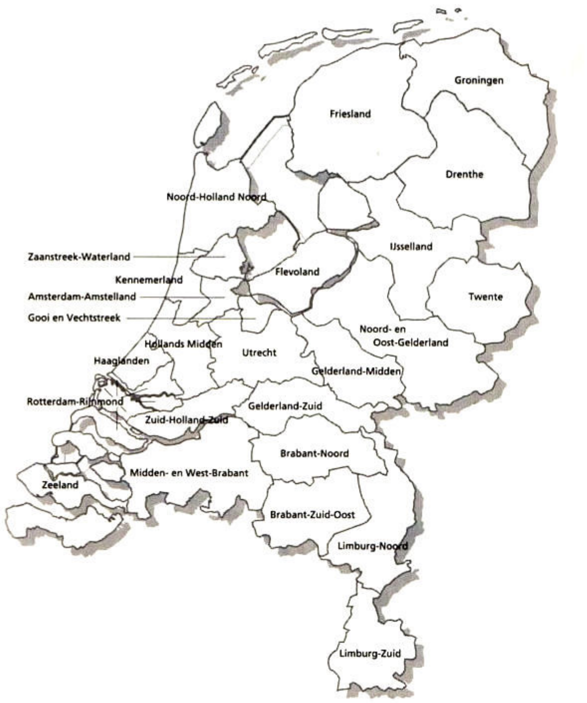
[15] See van Steden and Huberts (2006) for a comprehensive overview of (the organization and tasks of) the Dutch police force.

Figure 5.2 Dutch police force


Groningen
Friesland
Drenthe
Noord-Holland Noord
IJsselland
Zaanstreek-Waterland
Flevoland
Kennemerland
Amsterdam-Amstelland
Twente
Gooi en Vechtstreek
Noord- en Oost-Gelderland
Hollands Midden
Utrecht
Haaglanden
Gelderland-Midden
Rotterdam-Rijnmond
Gelderland-Zuid
Zuid-Holland-Zuid
Brabant-Noord
Midden- en West-Brabant
Zeeland
Brabant-Zuid-Oost
Limburg-Noord
Limburg-Zuid

Source: Politie Almanak, 2003

The MWB police region is divided into four territorial districts, a criminal investigation division, an operational division, and two administrative divisions (see Fig. 5.3). The four districts together comprise 30 basic police units, comparable to American police precincts. The organizational structure of the MWB is characterized by a strong focus on basic units or operational teams, which are geographically separated.

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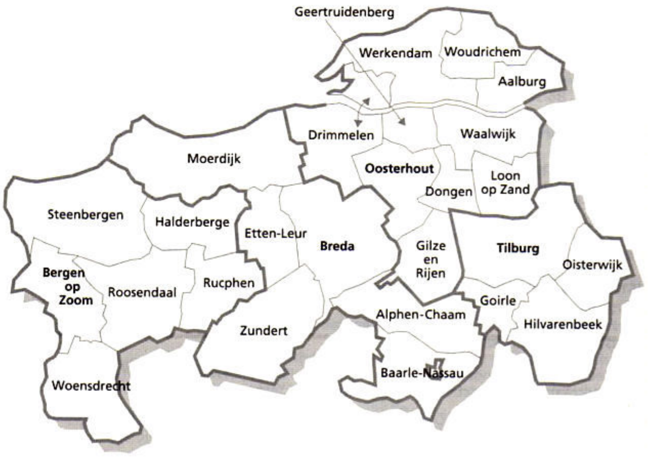
[16] The ministries benchmark comparable police force performance by clustering: the Midden- and West Brabant police force belongs to cluster 1, which also includes Amsterdam-Amstelland, Rotterdam-Rijnmond, Haaglanden and Utrecht (see Ministerie van Binnelandse Zalen en Koninkrijksrelaties. (2004). *Kerngegevens Nederlandse Politie 2003* [Core Data: Dutch Police Force, 2003]. Rijswijk, The Netherlands: Artoos).

Figure 5.3 Regional police force of Midden- and West Brabant


Geertruidenberg
Werkendam
Woudrichem
Aalburg
Drimmelen
Waalwijk
Moerdijk
Oosterhout
Loon op Zand
Dongen
Steenbergen
Halderberge
Etten-Leur
Breda
Gilze en Rijen
Tilburg
Oisterwijk
Bergen op Zoom
Roosendaal
Rucphen
Goirle
Alphen-Chaam
Hilvarenbeek
Zundert
Baarle-Nassau
Woensdrecht

Source: *Politie Almanak*, 2003

The MWB Safety and Integrity Unit (UVI), which has both investigative and preventive tasks, is directly responsible to the Chief Commissioner. This unit's activities and policies make explicit the connection between leadership and integrity. Specifically, it supports line management with regard to integrity and safety by

- conducting research on organizational integrity (of which this study is part);
- passing resources and instruments for carrying out integrity policies, such as the so-called Plan on Integrity Leadership (plattegrond integriteit leidinggevenden: PIL);
- coordinating complaints and requests within the framework of the privacy regulation;
- advising and giving support on information security;
- communicating and supporting communication with employees;
- conducting security investigations into vulnerable positions; and
- developing preventive measures.

Information about integrity norms, rules, and laws is transferred by means of employee meetings and an Intranet,[17] making communication a priority in preventive integrity policies. In 2003, the unit's investigative tasks led to 66 reports of integrity violations, resulting in 37 criminal investigations and 29 disciplinary investigations by the unit. In three cases, the criminal investigation resulted in public prosecution.

The mission statement of the MWB is known by its acronym VIP – security (*Veiligheid*), integrity, and professionalism – and the Chief Commissioner is well aware of his specific responsibility with regard to this mission. By role modeling and being open and accessible, he tries to keep integrity high on the agenda. In his own words,[18]

> there are clear rules for police officers, but sometimes police officers are confronted with integrity dilemmas. Integrity implies discussion; it is necessary to discuss norms and values within the organization. The binding factor is that we work in the police, where integrity legitimizes existence.

5.5 Procedure and response

Because it was determined that the central research question on the effects of leadership on integrity violations could be best addressed by a quantitative data analysis of survey material, the data were collected from MWB employees by questionnaire. The research was carried out with the full cooperation of the organization, which facilitated distribution of the final questionnaire among all employees of the selected force.[19] As part of the fieldwork, relevant (policy) documents were also studied and in-depth interviews were held with key organizational personnel. The aim of these interviews and the document analysis was to collect background information on which to map contextual variables about the research object and possible situational effects during the fieldwork. All fieldwork (survey, interviews, and document analysis) was conducted between November 2003 and June 2004.

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[17] Unit Veiligheid en Integriteit. Jaarrapportage 2003. [Unit Safety and Integrity. Annual Report, 2003].

[18] Free translation of the 2004 in-house Intranet article, "Integrity as legitimacy, feelings of trust," by Mr. Heeres, Chief Commissioner of Midden- and West Brabant.

[19] I thank both the management and staff for their support during the fieldwork and especially the head of the Security and Integrity Unit, Mr. Dirks, who was of great help with the research logistics.

The research population consisted of about 2,700 employees, each of whom received a letter from the Chief Commissioner requesting survey participation and emphasizing the importance of the research. The letter explained the study purpose and guaranteed respondent anonymity and confidentiality of information. Respondents were not required to identify themselves on the questionnaire in any way and were given assurance that no one from their organization would have access to individual questionnaires. Respondents returned the completed questionnaires to the independent researchers in a sealed envelope.

In total, 800 completed questionnaires were received for a response of almost 30 percent. Initial examination of these questionnaires for socially desirable response patterns and full completion resulted in a total of 755 usable questionnaires that were accumulated into one dataset. The question of sampling did not arise because all employees of the MWB were invited to complete the survey, meaning that the research can be considered population research. Thus, the results need not be subjected to basic tests for statistical significance, as would be needed to determine the probability of a research outcome in a sample drawn from a larger population. Nevertheless, a higher response would have made the results more valid for the entire research population. Fortunately, the aim of this exploratory research is to sketch a model for understanding the relationship between leadership and integrity, not to give exact figures on the number and nature of integrity violations, perceived leadership styles, or features of the ethical culture.

Several factors contributed to the rather low response. First, some units within the districts could not participate because of other internal priorities; for instance, one unit just had participated in another work-related survey and a few units were under reorganization and/or awaiting a new supervisor. Second, because of the research's threefold purpose, completion of the total questionnaire took about 30 to 40 minutes, which some respondents felt was simply too long. Third, some nonrespondents justified failure to participate by indicating they had "no time at the moment," an argument to reckon with in this specific public organization, whose work by its very nature deals with emergency calls and operations.

The match between the respondent group and the research population was compared using background statistics like gender, ethnicity, age, and position,[20] which, as table 5.1 shows, did reveal minor differences. The survey included questions about the direct supervisor and direct work environment but nothing more about respondent background because the police organization boards feared that such questions might make officers doubt the assurances of response anonymity. Therefore, analysis on the basic unit level was impossible.

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[20] Based on Ministerie van Binnelandse Zalen en Koninkrijksrelaties (2004), *Kerngegevens Nederlandse Politie 2003* [Core Data: Dutch Police Force, 2003], in 2003 the MWB had 2,674 FTE executive and administrative-technical (AT) employees (these data exclude candidate police officers).

Table 5.1 Response distribution

	Respondent group	Research population
Gender		
Male	72%	73%
Female	28%	27%
Ethnicity		
Other than Dutch	5.0%	3.5%
Age		
25 years or younger	9.1%	7.9%
26-35 years old	20.9%	23.5%
36-45 years old	34.4%	33.4%
46-55 years old	30.5%	30.4%
56 years and older	5.1%	4.8%
Position		
Executive	67.7%	70.9%
Administrative-technical (AT)	25.3%	21.2%
Aspirant	4.1%	7.9 %
Different	2.9%	0%

Data reduction and scale construction (see chapter six) used the complete dataset, as did the descriptive analysis (see chapter seven). However, since the objective of the survey was to examine the relationship between aspects of leadership and integrity violations, the main *correlation analysis* (see chapter eight) used only the data from the regular police officers (n = 546) and excluded the responses of those filling a supervisory position (n=209).

5.6 In-depth interviews and document analysis

Once the survey results were processed, the results were presented to the police force management team for discussion and feedback. In-depth interviews were then carried out with individual members of the management team, the head of the Security and Integrity Unit, and the Chair of the Council of Employers.[21] These interviews were intended to complete the picture of the regional police force and its districts and divisions and to determine whether specific circumstances should be taken into account during the evaluation of results. As anticipated, the topics of leadership, ethical culture, and integrity violations emerged from these interviews.

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[21] See Appendix A, table A1 for the list of persons interviewed.

The document analysis served a similar purpose: policy documents and annual reports were analyzed for complaints and (disciplinary) investigations against police officers, while the annual report of the Security and Integrity Unit was examined to identify interdistrict and interdivisonal differences in integrity violations. The basic survey results, together with additional information from the interviews and document analyses, are presented in chapter seven.

5.7 Validity and reliability of the survey research

Employee perceptions were assessed using a survey questionnaire, a method that has both benefits and limitations. One associated problem is the possibility that the results may be influenced by common method variance (Javidan & Waldman, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Lee, 2003), although Doty and Glick's metastudy (1998:374) indicates that the common method bias "is a cause of concern, but does not invalidate many research findings." Important for the validity of this study are the *common rater effects*.[22] That is, asking the same officers to describe both integrity violations and the behavior of supervisors responsible for addressing these violations virtually insures a positive relationship between these two sets of variables. This type of bias can be traced to a number of sources, including the tendency of respondents to try to maintain consistency between their cognition and attitudes (the *consistency motif*); the assumptions they have about the relationship between the items (*implicit theories*); the respondents' need for social approval and acceptance (*social desirability*); and the tendency for raters "to rate those whom they know well, or [with] whom they are ego involved, [more highly] than they should" (*leniency biases*; Podsakoff et al., 2003). What then is the relationship between these sources of bias and the research design used here?

The consistency motif, respondent attempts to maintain consistency between their cognition and attitudes (Podsakoff et al., 2003: 881), is probably not an important source of bias in this research because the questions, rather than probing individual cognition and attitude on an issue, address supervisory leadership characteristics, on the one hand, and the observed extent of integrity violations in the team, on the other. The danger that responses reflect the respondent's implicit theories, however, is of more importance. That is, it must be asked whether the results reflect the actual relationship between leadership characteristics and integrity violations or are merely a reflection of the police officers' assumptions about that relationship? Because respondents were not explicitly asked for their views on this relationship, any discussion of the possible existence of implicit theories must rely on other research.

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[22] Because it is not feasible to address all 21 potential causes mentioned by Podsakoff et al. (2003), this discussion concentrates on those that seem most troubling for the research design.

Two established theories within the field of police research throw some light on police officers' perceptions in this respect. First, a wide body of knowledge on police culture and the conflict between street police officers, those in management positions, and those responsible for policy making (Lipsky, 1980; Reus-Ianni, 1984; Reiner, 1997) suggests that the average police officer is distrustful of or skeptical about supervisors who try to 'interfere' with the discretionary powers of beat officers. Second, police officers are so dependent on their direct colleagues (a matter of life and death) that they are anxious about reporting fellow officers' wrongdoing, which results in a code of silence (Crank & Caldero, 1999; Punch, 1985; Skolnick, 2002). The combination of these factors renders it improbable that police officers will presuppose that all types of leadership have a positive influence on integrity. Moreover, of the findings show that a number of relationships between independent and dependent variables are not significant, this would also indicate that the influence of common method variance might be limited (cf. Huberts, Kaptein and Lasthuizen, 2007).

The other two biases, social desirability and leniency, are quite likely given the topics assessed by most of the questionnaire items: respondent perceptions of the frequency and the moral acceptability judgment of integrity violations within their own work environment, the characteristics of their direct supervisor[23], and the characteristics of the ethical culture in the direct work environment. Whereas this focus seems appropriate for measuring the leadership variables (because follower perception are the expected conduit for leadership's influence), the moral acceptability judgment of integrity violations, and ethical culture (in which respondent's own opinion and experiences matter), perceptions or observations are more dubious as an indicator of the actual number of integrity violations. It is therefore in this regard that social desirability and leniency can be most anticipated.

In terms of officer perceptions of integrity violations, one potential problem concerns what the respondents *can* actually observe. That is, employees can only have a limited view of what happens, although such limitation applies to some integrity violations more than others. For example, unethical behavior outside the organization is harder to observe than behavior within the organization, most particularly in the case of private time misconduct but also in regard to work outside the office (e.g., on patrol). The fact that offenders try to hide their actions (e.g., through bribery) and that some violations have no (personal) victims or involve no third party (e.g., fraud) increases the size of the validity problem of relying on observations as a true reflection of the actual level of unethical behavior.

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[23] Supervisory leadership seems the most appropriate level at which to study the effects on integrity violations (Treviño et al., 1999) because employees have more daily contact with their supervisors than with managers at higher levels. Supervisors are therefore the nearest role models, are responsible for rewards and punishments, and are likely to be the employees' first recourse for discussing problems at work (Bovens, 1998).

A second problem involves what respondents *do* observe. In other words, although responses on which types of integrity violations employees perceive in their work environment will reflect the individual's own specific experiences, without a doubt, more subjective impressions will also play a role. That is, respondent perceptions are not neutral: respondents must label what they see, be aware of the different aspects of the type of integrity violation asked about, and recognize the behaviors as manifestations of the problem. Discrimination and sexual harassment, especially, are not always recognizable as such. Employee awareness of such issues may be increased by the attention management gives to unethical behavior (e.g., in policies, training, and codes of conduct); however, this perspective may also be reflected in respondents' observations. Moreover, not only awareness but also the acceptability of a behavior will play a role in respondent estimations of events. Although it is not clear exactly how respondent evaluations of the behaviors studied will influence their estimations (underestimation is as possible as overestimation), responses may well be affected by whether or not a behavior is widely accepted within the organization (e.g., the private use of organizational resources like the telephone and Internet). Another possible influence is in-group and out-group phenomena like the frequency with which employees (the in-group) perceive favoritism from management (the out-group).

A third problem relates to what respondents actually *report* – they might be reluctant to report behavior by other team members because of loyalty to colleagues or the organization – while a fourth concerns the way unethical behavior is *measured*. In terms of the former, most survey research omits items dealing with the respondents' own transgressions because it is generally assumed that the validity of these answers will be questionable (cf. Huberts, Lasthuizen & Peeters, 2006). Nevertheless, social desirability always plays a role in such research, making question formulation extremely important. For example, it makes a difference whether items on integrity violations refer to more general or very specific behaviors such as the careless use of organizational resources versus the careless use of pencils or paper.

Thus, the request that officers report integrity violations within their teams might undeniably lead to underreporting of the extent of integrity violations. Nevertheless, underreporting does not necessarily influence the analysis and results, which do not require reliable *absolute* figures but rather reliable *relative* figures. That is, conclusions about the exact number of integrity violations are not the goal of this research; it is sufficient that employee perceptions serve as an indicator of the actual presence. Therefore, to make these numbers more plausible, the survey includes behavior types of varying impact and seriousness.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the research also avoids other types of error by guaranteeing confidentiality (against social desirability bias), mixing items from the same context throughout the questionnaire, including several question batteries on organizational culture (against item context effects), and using different response formats for the predictor and criterion variables (against common scale anchor errors). To deal with measurement context effects, it also combines different sources and methods to test the findings. In addition, the document analysis provides objective data like the number of recorded integrity violations, while the in-depth interviews provide organizational feedback on the results.

To gage reliability, the results are compared with relevant (police) survey data collected previously by other researchers. Within organizations, the survey instrument is most often used to *monitor* how employees think of integrity and integrity violations in the organization and thereby to *evaluate* the effect of integrity policies through organizational management. Therefore, employee surveys are seldom repeated within short periods of time, meaning that readministration (after the passage of time) may (and should) produce different results as a consequence of the policies implemented by management in the interim. However, if the findings in this current study are in line with previous survey results and show similar patterns with regard to the different types of integrity violations, it would engender more confidence in the applicability of the findings to a larger population than the (specific) regional police force under study.

6. Measurement

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the most important aspects of the research questionnaire, including questionnaire development and the survey's overall structure (section 6.2). Section 6.3 then describes the process of item generation and details data reduction and scale construction. The final section (6.4) presents the operationalized model.

6.2 Development and structure of the questionnaire

As already pointed out, the questionnaire used as the data collection tool in this study served a threefold purpose[24] and therefore covers more topics than needed for this research. Specifically, it is composed around seven parts containing the following content:

1. Background information on the respondent.
2. Information about the respondent's supervisor.
   a. Integrity violations: perceptions of frequency and moral acceptability judgment.
3. Personal experience with integrity violations.
4. Organizational culture.
   a. Clarity
   b. Role modeling
   c. Leadership
   d. Achievability
   e. Businesslike approach
   f. Transparency
   g. Discussability
   h. Sanctionability
   i. Support
5. Values.
6. Description of one personal situation in which integrity was at stake.

For the purposes of this study, only part 3 (perceptions of frequency and moral acceptability judgment of integrity violations), part 5 (organizational (ethical) culture including (ethical) leadership), and part 1 and 2 (background statistics) are relevant.

Feedback during the questionnaire development process was provided by colleagues at the VU University Amsterdam, other (foreign) universities, and the police. In addition, before the actual fieldwork began, the questionnaire was tested in a small pilot study using a test group of police officers working in regional police forces other than that selected for study. These participants were asked to fill in the questionnaire and make comments about the clarity of the wording and meaning of the questions, the answer categories, the survey length, the completion time (for the several parts), the social desirability, and the relevance. Their comments led to minor amendments to the final questionnaire.

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[24] See chapter five, section 5.2.

6.3 Item generation, data reduction, and scale construction

Several questionnaire items were formulated for each of the conceptual model's main elements (see chapter five) based as much as possible on existing and already tested variables and scales so as to enhance reliability and validity. Four groups of variables were distinguished from the conceptual model, which are detailed in the following paragraphs.

I. Variables for organizational leadership styles.
II. Variables for ethical leadership styles.
III. Variables for the ethical culture of the direct work environment
IV. Variables for integrity violations (perceived frequency *and* moral acceptability judgment).

The actual data reduction and scale construction then used factor and reliability analysis as analytical techniques within the SPSS-package (see e.g., Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

First, an explorative principal component factor analysis was conducted on each group of variables.[25] After inspection of the rotated component matrix, the variables were again divided into subgroups and both an explorative and a final confirmative principal component factor analysis was carried out.[26]

The last step was to conduct a reliability analysis and build the final scales.[27] The testing criteria for the scale were a Cronbach's alpha >.70, average interitem correlations >.30, and item-rest correlations >.20 (Kline, 1986). Factor loadings had to be >.30, and the difference between the factor loadings of an item on two factors >.20. Any item not meeting the criteria was removed from the analysis unless there were serious theoretical considerations to do otherwise. The analytical outcomes for each group of variables are discussed below.

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[25] The data reduction and scale construction used the complete dataset.

[26] This explorative principal component factor analysis employed the following procedure: principal component analysis, missing: pairwise, eigenvalues of factors >1, iterations <25, varimax with Kaiser normalization, method: correlations. The final principal component factor analysis used the following procedure: principal component analysis, missings replaced by the mean, eigenvalues of factors >1, no rotation, method correlations. A procedure based on the method covariances was then performed for both factor analyses and produced the same results.

[27] For the reliability analysis, Cronbach's alpha and various other scale statistics were computed based on the covariance matrices as indicators for internal consistency like average interitem correlation and corrected interitem

I. Organizational leadership styles

This study measures (perceived) leadership styles using a slightly adapted version of den Hartog's (1997) Inspirational Leadership in Organizations (ILO) questionnaire, which distinguishes three leadership styles: inspirational leadership, rational-objective leadership, and passive leadership (den Hartog, 1997:103). For the questionnaire items the same wording in Dutch was used, as well as for the English translations here. As space considerations prevented use of all den Hartog's survey items, so for inspirational leadership 13 items were used instead of the original 18 (den Hartog, 1997:104). For rational-objective leadership, 5 items were selected (instead of 9 items; see den Hartog, 1997:106) and one item, "My supervisor is focused on the achievement of results" (V3.13), was added in order to fill the need for a more explicit performance-based item suggested by the research by Kolthoff (2007). For passive leadership, 3 items were chosen (instead of 7 items; see den Hartog, 1997:104) after a fourth item, "If I don't bother him/her, s/he doesn't bother me," was eliminated based on pilot study feedback that it was difficult to interpret the exact meaning of the word 'bother.'

To streamline the entire questionnaire, the original response scales were adapted from 1, *not al all*; 2, *now and then*; 3, *sometimes*; 4, *regularly*; 5, *often*, to the response scale given below.

Example item:
My direct supervisor articulates a vision of future opportunities.

Response scale:
1, *completely disagree*; 2, *disagree*; 3, *disagree more than agree*; 4, *agree more than disagree*; 5, *agree*; 6, *completely agree.*

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correlations. It should be noted that the terms 'item-rest correlation' and 'item-total correlation' both refer here to corrected item-total correlations. The final scales were built by computing indicator variables according to the principle that inda=var1+var2+var3/3. All missings were replaced by means, and variables were recoded in the same direction as needed.

Because the items and scales had already been validated in previous research (see den Hartog, van Muijen & Koopman, 1994, 1997), the aim of the validation here was primarily to assess whether the items also fit the appropriate scales in this study. Therefore, a first explorative factor analysis was performed on all items for these three organizational leadership scales. The three factors that appeared in the rotated solution conformed to expectations (see Appendix B, table B1):

- All items of the inspirational leadership scale loaded on the first factor.
- Almost all items of the rational-objective leadership scale loaded on the second factor with the exception of V3.16, "my direct supervisor tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts," which clearly loads on factor 1.
- All items of the passive leadership scale (negatively) loaded on factor 3.
- All factor loadings were above >.30.
- Despite some cross loadings, the difference between the factor loadings of an item on two factors was >.20 with the exception of V3.27, "My direct supervisor displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever s/he decides," and V3.22, "My direct supervisor focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me."

The cross loadings in these latter two cases were permitted because (i) it is widely accepted in the (methodological) literature that the three leadership styles intercorrelate (e.g., Tejeda, 2001) and (ii) it was decided to allow covariances in the multiple correlation analysis. Moreover, the cross loading for V3.27, which loaded on factor 1 (inspirational leadership) and on factor 3 (passive leadership), seemed admissible because the factor loading was positive (in contrast to the other three items) as did the cross loading for V3.22 because the difference between the factor loadings was almost equal to .20. Item V3.16, however, was eliminated because it clearly loaded on factor 1 (inspirational leadership) instead of on factor 2 (rational-objective leadership). This finding supports Tejeda's (2001:11) finding that the contingent reward that should be part of transactional leadership is in fact (also) related to transformational leadership.

In the next step, the explorative factor analyses for the inspirational leadership variables, the passive leadership variables, and the rational-objective leadership variables all showed that only one factor could be extracted. However, the latter analysis also revealed a weak factor loading for item V3.24, "My direct supervisor demonstrates a strong conviction in his/her beliefs and values." This factor analysis was therefore performed again without V3.24, which resulted in stronger factor loadings and a larger explained variance (Ŕ). The scale reliability (α) also improved considerably: the reduced scale now corresponded to the active management-by-exception or direct supervision scale (see den Hartog, 1997:124). Therefore, rational-objective leadership was renamed 'result-oriented leadership,' which seemed a more accurate description. Table 6.1 shows the correlations (Spearman's rho for ordinal variables) between the three leadership factors, after which table 6.2 lists the results for the final scales.

Table 6.1 Correlations between the organizational leadership factors*

	Inspirational leadership	Result-oriented leadership	Passive leadership
Inspirational leadership	1.00		
Result-oriented leadership	.59**	1.00	
Passive leadership	-.60**	-.39**	1.00

* Spearman's rho; *N* = 755. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation of .59 between inspirational and result-oriented leadership is relatively strong and similar to the .62 correlation found by den Hartog (1997:106) between inspirational and rational-objective leadership. However, the -.60 correlation between inspirational and passive leadership exceeds the -.37 correlation between the two found in den Hartog (1997:106), as does the -.39 correlation between result-oriented leadership and passive leadership (versus -.23 in den Hartog, 1997:106). The subsequent analyses take this relatively strong correlation between the three leadership styles into account.

Table 6.2 Final scales for organizational leadership styles

Item #	**Organizational leadership styles**	*Factor loadings*	*Item-rest correlation*
	Inspirational leadership		
	My direct supervisor		
V3.02	instills pride in being associated with him/her.	.86	.82
V3.11	shows how to look at problems from new angles.	.84	.80
V3.05	articulates a vision of future opportunities.	.82	.78
V3.15	provides advice when it is needed.	.82	.78
V3.04	mobilizes a collective sense of mission.	.82	.79
V3.17	makes me back up my opinions with good reasoning.	.81	.77
V3.01	makes me aware of strongly held values, ideals, and aspirations that are shared in common.	.80	.76
V3.10	listens to my concerns.	.78	.75
V3.29	has my complete confidence.	.77	.72
V3.27	displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever s/he decides.	.77	.73
V3.07	projects a powerful and magnetic presence.	.76	.71
V3.09	talks optimistically about the future.	.70	.64
V3.14	treats me as an individual rather than just a member of the group.	.67	.63
13 items in final scale			
R² = 62%; α =.95; item M = 4.31; SD =.97; average interitem correlation = .59			
	Result-oriented leadership		
	My direct supervisor:		
V3.12	is alert for failure to meet performance targets.	.82	.49
V3.13	is focused on the achievement of results.	.77	.46
V3.21	monitors performance for errors needing correction.	.76	.58
V3.22	focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me.	.71	.51
4 items in final scale			
R² = 59%; α = .77; item M = 4.19; SD = .89; average interitem correlation = .46			
	Passive leadership		
	My direct supervisor:		
V3.28	avoids trying to make improvements, as long as work meets minimal standards.	.79	.49
V3.25	avoids getting involved when important issues arise.	.78	.49
V3.06	only takes action when things go wrong.	.76	.46
3 items in final scale			
R² = 60%; α = .67; item M = 2.72; SD = 1.05; average interitem correlation = .40			

II. Ethical leadership styles

Because no previously operationalized and validated measure of (perceived) ethical leadership styles existed and related empirical studies were scarce, leadership variables and scales were borrowed from difference sources that appeared relevant for integrity (violations) within organizations. Included first was the role modeling scale operationalized (and validated) in the ILO questionnaire (den Hartog, 1997:118–119) to which were added some leadership variables from the KPMG Integrity Thermometer that operationalizes the qualities of ethical leaders as described by Kaptein (2002) and Kaptein and Wempe (2002). Unfortunately, the 10-item ethical leadership scale developed by Brown and Treviño (2002:7; see also Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005) could not be used here because of the explicit study goal of operationalizing different ethical leadership dimensions and measuring their varying impact on integrity violations. Therefore, the above variables and scales were used to operationalize Treviño, Hartman, and Brown's (2000) moral manager, as defined in their Two Pillar Model of Ethical Leadership, which includes the following three components:

1. Role modeling through visible action;
2. Rewards and discipline; and
3. Communicating about ethics and values.

In contrast, *un*ethical leadership was operationalized using the Craig and Gustafson's (1998) Perceived Leadership Integrity Scale (PLIS) and the integrity scale operationalized in the ILO questionnaire (den Hartog, 1997:118–123). One of the original items, "My direct supervisor clearly has favorites among subordinates," was also eliminated prior to analysis because of its close resemblance to the dependent variable 'favoritism by superiors.' Finally, to streamline the entire questionnaire, the original response scales were adapted to the response scale given below.

Example item:
My direct supervisor sets a good example in terms of ethical behavior.

Response scale:
1, *completely disagree*; 2, *disagree*; 3, *disagree more than agree*; 4, *agree more than disagree*; 5, *agree*; 6, *completely agree*

For these leadership styles, the factor and reliability analyses had to validate the theoretical conceptualization. Again, analysis began with an explorative factor analysis on all items for the ethical leadership styles (including the unethical leadership items). However, instead of the expected four factors, only three factors appeared in the rotated solution (see Appendix B, table B2):

- All items of the role modeling component of the moral manager loaded on the second factor.
- All items of the rewards and discipline component of the moral manager loaded on the first factor.
- However, the reward part of this component, operationalized by V4.13, “My direct supervisor encourages me to act with integrity,” loaded on factor 1 *and* factor 2.
- No communicating component as such emerged for the moral manager.
- Three items loaded on the first factor (reward/discipline): V7.07, “My supervisor is accessible to me to discuss moral dilemmas in the task performance”; V7.08, “My supervisor will appreciate it that, if a colleague acts unethically, I discuss this with him/her”; and V7.05, “My supervisor will appreciate it that, if I have to do something that conflicts with my conscience, I discuss this with him/her.”
- Two items loaded on the second factor (role modeling): V2.02, “My supervisor communicates the importance of ethics and integrity well,” and V1.04, “My supervisor clarifies for me which values and norms should be lived up to.”
- All items on unethical leadership scale loaded (negatively) on factor 3.
- All factor loadings were >.30.
- Despite some cross loadings, the difference between factor loadings of an item on two factors was >.20 with the exception of V4.13.

Overall, the picture that emerged was somewhat different than expected: the factor analysis identified not three but two moral manager components. Two alternative explanations are possible: first, operationalization of the moral manager components may not have included all the right items and second, the moral manager in Treviño et al.’s (2000) theoretical Two Pillar Model for Ethical Leadership really has only *two* empirical components, at least as it relates to the research population here.

As a result, V4.13 was eliminated prior to the explorative factor analysis for the three variable subgroups of role-modeling leadership, integrity-focused leadership (now renamed for a better fit), and unethical leadership. Again, all analyses indicated that only one factor could be extracted. Table 6.3 gives the correlations (Spearman's rho for ordinal variables) between the three leadership factors, after which table 6.4 lists the results for the final scales on ethical leadership styles.

Table 6.3 Correlations between the ethical leadership factors*

	Role-modeling leadership	Integrity-focused leadership	Unethical leadership
Role-modeling leadership	1.00		
Integrity-focused leadership	.69**	1.00	
Unethical leadership	-.55**	-.52**	1.00

*Spearman's rho; N = 755. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The .69 correlation between role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership is relatively strong, which indicates that these two styles of ethical leadership do often coincide. On the other hand, the relatively strong *negative* correlations between the two moral manager styles and unethical leadership suggest that role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership often, albeit not always, stand on opposite sides, which the subsequent analyses take into account.

Table 6.4 Final scales for ethical leadership styles

Item #	Ethical leadership styles	*Factor loadings*	*Item-rest correlation*
	Role-modeling leadership		
	My direct supervisor		
V2.02	communicates the importance of ethics and integrity well.	.88	.82
V2.07	makes sure that his/her actions are always ethical.	.88	.81
V2.01	sets a good example in terms of ethical behavior.	.86	.79
V2.06	meets his/her obligations.	.85	.78
V2.05	does what s/he says.	.84	.77
V2.04	would never authorize unethical or illegal conduct to meet organizational goals.	.78	.70
V1.04	clarifies which values and norms should be lived up to.	.65	.56

7 items in final scale

R^2 = 68%; α =.91; item M = 4.71; SD =.93; average inter-item correlation = .62

continuation

Item #	**Ethical leadership styles**	*Factor loadings*	*Item-rest correlation*
	Integrity-focused leadership		
	My direct supervisor		
V7.06	takes reports of undesirable employee conduct seriously.	.87	.81
V7.07	is accessible to me to discuss moral dilemmas in the task performance.	.87	.81
V7.08	will appreciate it that, if a colleague acts unethically, I discuss this with him/her.	.84	.78
V7.05	will appreciate it that, if I have to do something that conflicts with my conscience, I discuss this with him/her.	.83	.76
V8.01	will call me or a colleague to account if s/he observes us behaving unethically.	.77	.71
V8.05	sanctions someone who consciously behaves unethically.	.73	.67
V8.06	does not tolerate when things happen behind his/her back.	.70	.65
V6.05	is alert to potentially undesirable behavior within my work unit.	.69	.62
8 items in final scale			
R^2= 62%; α =.92; item M = 4.70; SD =.80; average interitem correlation = .58			
	Unethical leadership		
	My direct supervisor		
V3.19	does not behave in a manner consistent with the values s/he expresses.	.84	.66
V3.18	manipulates subordinates.	.80	.61
V3.20	holds me responsible for things that are not my fault.	.75	.54
V3.26	acts without considering my feelings.	.71	.51
4 items in final scale			
R^2 = 60%; α =.78; item M = 2.13; SD = 0.96: average interitem correlation = .47			

III. Ethical Culture

Measuring (perceived) ethical culture relied heavily on the work of Kaptein (1998:58, cf. 2008), whose corporate ethical virtues model of normative criteria for ethical organizational culture distinguishes seven ethical virtues or qualities. This model was selected not only because of theoretical considerations (see chapter three) but also for several methodological reasons. First, the construct of ethical culture is still underdeveloped (cf. Kaptein, 2008) so that Kaptein's attempt to *measure* the ethical culture of organizations along several dimensions makes a valuable contribution to knowledge. Second, Kaptein's construct of ethical culture fits well with the study goal of connecting supervisory leadership to ethical employee conduct, as these ethical qualities have been operationalized from the bottom up with a focus on the perceived *direct* work environment (employee and coworkers) rather than the ethical culture of the organization as a whole. This focus means that ethical culture is considered to be a characteristic of a unit (e.g., department or team). Within the selected police force, the unit level seems appropriate because, although seemingly not a necessary condition, these units are also geographically separated. Third, based on his many empirical studies in business ethics, Kaptein provides a useful tool, the KPMG Integrity Thermometer, which allows existing items to be used and validated in relation to earlier work (e.g., Kaptein, 1998, 2003; Kaptein & Avelino, 2005; Kaptein & van Dalen, 2000; Kaptein, Huberts, Avelino & Lasthuizen, 2005).[28] Lastly, this measure was used for similar data in an earlier stage of this research (e.g., Huberts, Kaptein & Lasthuizen, 2007; Lasthuizen, Huberts & Kaptein, 2002, 2005).

Six ethical qualities borrowed from Kaptein's work constitute ethical culture in this study; the seventh, 'consistency or congruency' was omitted because it refers to role modeling management behavior, which is the independent variable in this study:

a. Clarity;
b. Achievability;
c. Visibility (or transparency);
d. Discussability;
e. Sanctionability; and
f. Supportability.

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[28] Kaptein (2008) himself validates the corporate ethical virtues model but in a forthcoming article not available at the time of writing.

Example item:

Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity for discussing ethical dilemmas.

Response scale:
1, *completely disagree*; 2, *disagree*; 3, *disagree more than agree*; 4, *agree more than disagree*; 5, *agree*; 6, *completely agree.*

Because factor and reliability analyses are necessary to validating the theoretical conceptualization, the procedure again began with an explorative factor analysis for all six ethical culture qualities. As expected, six factors appear in the rotated solution (see Appendix B, table B3):

- Factor 1 reflects clarity;
- Factor 2 reflects discussability and sanctionability, which coincide;
- Factor 3 reflects supportability;
- Factor 4 reflects achievability;
- Factor 6 reflects transparency;
- Factor 5 is a rest category that seemingly represents the darker side of ethical work culture and is therefore omitted;
- All factor loadings were >.30;
- Despite some cross loadings, the difference between factor loadings of an item on two factors was >.20, except for the following five items: V1.02, "If I do not know how to deal with a specific matter, there are sufficient opportunities to discuss this within the organization"; V6.04, "If I criticize other people's behavior, I will receive feedback on any action taken as a result of my criticism"; V6.08, "Within my work unit, adequate checks are carried out to detect violations"; V9.01, "My colleagues in my work unit treat me with respect"; and V9.15, "Within my work unit, everyone takes the existing norms and standards seriously."
- Particularly noteworthy is the finding that the supportability factor includes two theoretically *un*expected items, V7.01 and V8.02, which both deal with talking to a colleague about his/her unethical conduct.

The items with cross loadings were eliminated from further analysis, with the exception of V9.01, which showed a cross loading on factor 5. Given that factor 5 is to be omitted, this cross loading is not disturbing.

The explorative factor analysis for the five subgroups of variables subsequently showed that only one factor could be extracted. In the results for the final ethical culture scales (see table 6.6 below), transparency consisted of only two items; thus, the scale, with an alpha of .37 and an average interitem correlation of .23, is not reliable. However, the correlation between the two is strong, and they clearly form a factor (as they also did in the initial solution for all items). Therefore, because of its theoretical importance, this factor was retained in the subsequent analyses but keeping in mind that the results should be carefully interpreted. Table 6.5 shows the correlations (Spearman's rho for ordinal variables) between the ethical culture factors.

Table 6.5 Correlations between ethical culture factors*

	Clarity	Achievability	Transparency	Discussability/ sanctionability	Support-ability
Clarity	1.00				
Achievability	.34**	1.00			
Transparency	.17**	.17**	1.00		
Discussability/ sanctionability	.40**	.36**	.26**	1.00	
Supportability	.36**	.37**	.27**	.62**	1.00

*Spearman's rho; *N* = 755. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Most correlations between the ethical culture factors are moderate (between .17 and .40), although a relatively strong correlation of .62 exists between discussability/sanctionability and supportability, possibly because V7.01 and V8.02 empirically fit the latter factor but theoretically belong to the former. The analysis thus takes into account that these two ethical culture factors correlate relatively strongly.

Table 6.6 Final scales for ethical culture dimensions

Item #	Ethical culture dimensions	*Factor loadings*	*Item-rest correlation*
	Clarity		
	It has been made sufficiently clear to me		
V1.01c	how I should use business equipment responsibly.	.81	.75
V1.01d	how I should deal with working hours.	.78	.71
V1.01i	how I should deal with external business parties responsibly.	.78	.72
V1.01j	how I should deal with gifts.	.76	.71
V1.01e	how I should handle money and other financial assets responsibly.	.75	.68
V1.01a	how I should behave towards colleagues responsibly.	.73	.67
V1.01k	how I should deal with private time behavior.	.73	.67
V1.01b	how I should obtain proper authorizations responsibly.	.72	.65
V1.01f	how I should use the Internet/ e-mail responsibly.	.72	.66
V1.01g	how I should deal with conflicts of interests through jobs responsibly.	.72	.66
V1.01h	how I should deal with confidential information responsibly.	.69	.63
11 items in final scale *R^2=55%; α =.92; item M = 5.0; SD =0.8; average inter-item correlation= .51*			
	Achievability		
V4.06	I have sufficient information at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.	.81	.63
V4.07	I have adequate means at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.	.83	.65
V4.05	I have sufficient time at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.	.75	.55
V4.08	There are realistic targets set for me.	.73	.52
4 items in final scale *R^2=61%; α =.78; item M = 4.20; SD =0.97; average interitem correlation = .48*			
	Transparency		
V6.02	If a colleague within my work unit does something that is not permitted, I or another colleague will find out about it.	.78	.23
V6.06	If an incident were to occur in my work unit, it can readily be established who has been negligent.	.78	.23
2 items in final scale *R^2=61%; α =.37; item Ms = 3.94; SD =0.92; average interitem correlation = .23*			

continuation

Item #	**Ethical culture dimensions**	***Factor loadings***	***Item-rest correlation***
	Discussability/ sanctionability		
V7.11	Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity for discussing ethical dilemmas.	.86	.78
V7.10	Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity to express own opinions.	.85	.76
V8.09	If someone is called to account for his/her conduct, it is done in a respectful manner.	.80	.71
V7.09	Within my work unit, reports of undesirable conduct are treated carefully.	.79	.69
V8.14	Within my work unit, incidents are resolved in an appropriate manner.	.78	.69
V8.08	If I reported a violation to management, I would not experience retaliation.	.73	.63
6 items in final scale *R^2=65%; α =.89; item M = 4.57; SD = 0.85; average interitem correlation = .47*			
	Supportability		
V9.05	An atmosphere of mutual trust prevails in my work unit.	.82	.66
V9.06	Within my work unit, everyone has the best interests of the organization at heart.	.76	.57
V8.02	If my colleagues observe someone behaving unethically in my work unit, they would call him/her to account.	.74	.58
V9.01	My colleagues in my work unit treat me with respect.	.67	.49
V7.01	If a colleague acts unethically, s/he will appreciate it if I discuss it with him/her.	.62	.45
5 items in final scale *R^2=53%; α =.77; item M = 4.43; SD = 0.75; average interitem correlation = .41*			

IV. Variables for integrity violations

Integrity violations were measured using Huberts, Pijl and Steen’s (1999) broad typology of ten types of integrity violations based on their analysis of the (police) integrity literature and empirical research on internal investigations by police forces (see chapter two):

1. Corruption: bribing;
2. Corruption: favoritism (nepotism, cronyism, patronage);
3. Fraud and theft of resources;
4. Conflict of (private and public) interest through gifts;
5. Conflict of (private and public) interest through sideline activities;
6. Improper use of authority;
7. Misuse and manipulation of information;
8. Indecent treatment of colleagues or citizens and customers;
9. Waste and abuse of organizational resources; and
10. Private time misconduct [29]

To validate the typology *empirically,* 64 manifestations of integrity violations were included in the questionnaire in a section labeled Incidents in the Workplace. The starting point for the exact wording was the KPMG Integrity Thermometer, which has also been administered in several regional police forces.[30] Building on the secondary analysis of this dataset, a number of specific manifestations were selected to measure both the moral acceptability judgment (i.e., acceptability) and the observed frequency of the integrity violations that fit the typology. That is, for each manifestation, the survey included an item on the observed frequency of the violation and one on the employee’s moral acceptability judgment, measured by the acceptability of the violation.

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[29] This typology has been of fundamental importance in many recent studies by the Research Group on Integrity of Governance at the VU University Amsterdam (see www.fsw.vu.nl/integriteit).

[30] The findings for the police are reported in two articles by Kaptein and van Reenen (2001; van Reenen & Kaptein, 1998). The secondary analysis of all police data (*NN* = 3,125) is reported in several articles by Kaptein, Lasthuizen, and Huberts (i.e., Huberts et al., 2007; Lasthuizen et al., 2002, 2005).

Example item for integrity violation frequency:

In my opinion, theft of organizational properties *has occurred in the past year within my unit*

0, *never;* 1, *once;* 2, *several times;* 3, *regularly;* 4, *often (weekly).*

Example item for integrity violation moral judgment (i.e., acceptability):

In my opinion, theft of organizational properties *within my unit is*

0, *never acceptable;* 1, *seldom acceptable;* 2, *sometimes acceptable;* 3, *mostly acceptable;* 4, *always acceptable.*

Based on Robinson and Bennett's (1995:565; Bennett and Robinson, 2000:350)[31] observation that it is necessary to concentrate on the 'target of deviance' (the qualitative dimension) rather than the 'severity of deviance' (the quantitative dimension), a first attempt to validate the typology began with an initial factor analysis of *acceptability* designed to establish different families of integrity violations.[32] Further rationale for this choice is provided by the fact that employee moral judgments of integrity violation acceptability represent the qualitative dimension, while the observed frequency of integrity violations represents the quantitative dimension. Thus, the factor and reliability analysis needed to establish the theoretical conceptualization began with an explorative factor analysis on all 64 items. Eighteen factors appeared in the rotated solution, most of which conformed to expectations and were theoretically interpretable (see Appendix B, table B4):

- Factor 1 reflects corruption: bribing and theft (types 1 and 3);
- Factor 2 reflects discrimination against colleagues (type 8);
- Factor 3 reflects private time misconduct (type 10);
- Factor 4 reflects conflict of interest through gifts (type 4);
- Factor 5 reflects waste and abuse, and fraud (types 9 and 2);
- Factor 6 reflects waste and abuse, and indecent treatment of colleagues (types 9 and 8);
- Factor 7 reflects improper use of authority (type 6);
- Factor 8 reflects corruption: favoritism (nepotism and cronyism) (type 2);
- Factor 9 reflects fraud: private use of organizational resources (type 3);

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[31] See chapter two, for an extensive review of Robinson and Bennett's work.

[32] Bennett and Robinson (2000: 349–350) define behavioral families as a cluster of deviant behaviors that are similar in nature and share similar antecedents, and may thus be functional substitutes because they serve the same goals. This present research substitutes the term 'types' for 'families.'

- Factor 10 reflects forms of intimidation among colleagues and indecent treatment of customers (type 8);
- Factor 11 reflects misuse and manipulation of information (type 7);
- Factor 12 reflects sexual harassment (type 8);
- Factor 13 reflects domestic violence (type 10);
- Factor 14 reflects corruption: favoritism by supervisors (type 2);
- Factor 15 reflects use of drugs on duty and falsifying police reports (types 9 and 7);
- Factor 16 reflects the disclosure of information to the media and theft of lost properties (types 7 and 3);
- Factor 17 reflects conflict of interest through sideline activities (type 5);
- Factor 18 reflects use of alcohol on duty (type 9);
- Almost all factor loadings were >.30;
- Not all factors are interpretable in terms of content or exist as single items (factors 13, 15, 16, and 18);
- Some (theoretical) types of integrity violations are divided into more than one factor (types 2, 3, 7, 8, and 9); and
- Analysis of the cross loadings shows some intermingling between manifestations (or items) of waste and abuse and manifestations (or items) of indecent treatment of colleagues and fraud. Theft of organizational properties also coincides with bribing.

The next step was to select groups of variables for each type, although it should also be noted that some types in fact consist of subtypes. Thus, an explorative factor analysis was carried out for each type in this first classification, although to avoid ambiguous items with high cross loadings, some initial factors were omitted (factors 13, 15, 16, and 18). Even though these analyses did lead to some changes in the initial factor analysis on all items, in the end only one factor could be extracted for each (sub)type.

The final step was an explorative factor analysis (followed by a final more confirmatory analysis) on the item subgroups; however, because the goal was equal types (or families) for acceptability and observed frequency of integrity violations, this analysis concentrated on the observed frequencies. This attempt succeeded, although some concessions were made to scale reliability as in the case of conflict of interest through sideline activities (alphas of .51 and .54), misuse and manipulation of information (one lower average interitem correlation of .23), and indecent treatment of customers (one alpha of .37). Tables 6.7 and 6.8 present the results for the final scales, which produce 15 *empirical* types of integrity violations:

1. Corruption: bribing;
2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors;
2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees;
3a. Fraud: private use of organizational resources;
3b. Theft;

4. Conflict of interest through gifts;
5. Conflict of interest through jobs;
6. Improper use of authority;
7. Misuse and manipulation of information;
8a. Discrimination against colleagues or citizens and customers;
8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues or citizens and customers;
8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues;
8d. Indecent treatment of customers;
9. Waste and abuse of organizational resources; and
10. Private time misconduct

Although further small adjustments should be made to the following scales to improve reliability[33], this first success of the typology validation is theoretically important in that Bennett and Robinson's (2000) work was limited by their inclusion in their scales of only the forms of employee deviance found more *commonly* across organizational contexts and occupations. In contrast, the typology developed here includes both the *more serious* and *less common* forms of employee deviance (like corruption).

Table 6.7 Final scales for the acceptability of integrity violations

Item #	Types of integrity violations	*Factor loadings**		*Item-rest correlation**	
	1. Corruption: bribing	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.04b	Accepting bribes (money or favors) to do or neglect something while on duty.	.78	.79	.53	.60
III.05b	Being offered bribes (money or favors) to do or neglect something while on duty.	.91	.79	.72	.59
III.06b	Accepting bribes (money or favors) for delivering better service.	.63	.72	.43	.53
III.07b	Selling confidential information to external parties.	.90	.81	.71	.59
4 items in final scale					
A: R^2=66%; α =.73; item M = 0.03; SD =.19; average interitem correlation= .53					
F: R^2=60%; α =.75; item M = 0.06; SD =.24; average interitem correlation = .46					
	2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors				
III.01	Favoritism by superiors.				
1 item in final scale					
A: item M = 0.52; SD = 0.81; F: item M = 0.97; SD = 1.13					

*A = acceptability; F = observed frequency.

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[33] The next step should include several validation studies to further test the construct validity of the typology of integrity violations throughout different samples.

continuation

Item #	Types of integrity violations	*Factor loadings*		*Item-rest correlation*	
	2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.03	Favoring of friends or family outside the organization.	.63	.55	.38	.33
III.14	Asking a colleague to undo a ticket given to a family member.	.71	.63	.46	.36
III.34	Consulting confidential police files for former colleagues.	.72	.77	.43	.48
III.35	Consulting confidential police files for friends or family outside the organization.	.77	.79	.49	.48
4 items in final scale *A: R²=50%; α =.64; item M = 0.31; SD =0.44; average interitem correlation = .33* *F: R²=48%; α =.62; item Ms = 0.29; SD =0.45; average interitem correlation = .51*					
	3a. Fraud: private use of organizational resources	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.08	Use of organizational resources for private purposes.	.80	.82	.51	.58
III.10	Use of working hours for private purposes.	.83	.84	.55	.61
III.12	Use of the Internet, e-mail, or telephone for private purposes.	.71	.78	.42	.53
3 items in final scale *A: R²=61%; α =.68; item M = 1.31; SD =0.71; average interitem correlation = .41* *F: R²=66%; α =.75; item M = 1.53; SD =0.85; average interitem correlation = .50*					
	3b. Theft				
III.09	Theft of organizational properties.				
1 item in final scale *A: item M= 0.05; SD = 0.26; F: item M = 0.30; SD = 0.71*					
	4. Conflict of interest through gifts	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.16	Accepting small gifts (< 25 euro) from grateful civilians.	.80	.78	.63	.57
III.17	Accepting small gifts (< 25 euro) from shopkeepers or businesses.	.89	.85	.76	.67
III.18	Accepting gifts of more serious value (> 25 euro) from external parties.	.78	.66	.60	.44
III.19	Accepting goods or services with discount from catering establishments or businesses while on duty.	.66	.63	.46	.40
4 items in final scale *A: R²=62%; α =.78; item M = 0.75; SD = 0.76; average interitem correlation = .49* *F: R²=54%; α =.71; item M = 047; SD= 0.58; average interitem correlation = .39*					

*A = acceptability; F = observed frequency

continuation

Item #	Types of integrity violations	***Factor loadings***		***Item-rest correlation***	
	5. Conflict of interest through jobs	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.21	Working in private time as a security guard.	.79	.78	.45	.42
III.22	Working in private time as a security consultant in one's own neighborhood.	.75	.78	.41	.39
III.23	Sideline activities or jobs that might pose a conflict of interest.	.65	.59	.30	.26
3 items in final scale *A: R^2=54%; α =.54; item M = 0.95; SD = 0.75; average interitem correlation = .31* *F: R^2=52%; α =.51; item M = 0.25; SD = 0.43; average interitem correlation = .29*					
	6. Improper use of authority	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.24	Use of improper and/or disproportional violence.	.78	.85	.48	.64
III.25	Incorrect care of suspects and prisoners.	.82	.83	.55	.61
III.26	Use of illegal investigational methods.	.74	.75	.45	.51
3 items in final scale *A: R^2=61%; α =.67; item M = 0.22; SD =0.43; average interitem correlation = .50* *F: R^2=66%; α =.75; item M = 0.33; SD =0.56; average interitem correlation = .42*					
	7. Misuse and manipulation of information	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.28	Stretching the truth about the facts of a case.	.55	.73	.31	.52
III.30	Concealing information from the supervisory authorities.	.71	.73	.41	.50
III.32	Unauthorized use of a colleague's password or access code.	.59	.51	.32	.32
III.33	Violation of secrecy rules.	.70	.70	.42	.46
III.37	Accidentally disclosing information to criminals.	.52	.62	.27	.37
5 items in final scale *A: R^2=38%; α =.57; item M = 0.14; SD =0.27; average interitem correlation = .23* *F: R^2=44%; α =.66; item M = 0.22; SD =0.37; average interitem correlation = .30*					
	8a. Discrimination against colleagues	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.38	Racial discrimination against colleagues.	.85	.89	.67	.76
III.39	Gender discrimination against colleagues.	.88	.89	.72	.74
III.40	Discrimination based on sexual orientation against colleagues.	.91	.89	.77	.77
3 items in final scale *A: R^2=77%; α =.85; item M= 0.05; SD =0.22; average interitem correlation = .66* *F: R^2=79%; α =.87; item M = 0.24; SD =0.57; average interitem correlation = .70*					

*A = acceptability; F = frequency.

continuation

Item #	Types of integrity violations	*Factor loadings*		*Item-rest correlation*	
	8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.43	Unwanted sexual physical contact.	.90	.89	.60	.58
III.44	Sexual harassment.	.90	.89	.60	.58
2 items in final scale					
A: R^2=80%; α =.74; item M = 0.02; SD = 0.12; average interitem correlation = .60					
F: R^2=79%; α =.73; item M = 0.12; SD= 0.37; average interitem correlation = .58					
	8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.43	Unwanted sexual physical contact.	.90	.89	.60	.58
III.44	Sexual harassment.	.90	.89	.60	.58
2 items in final scale					
A: R^2=80%; α =.74; item M = 0.02; SD = 0.12; average interitem correlation = .60					
F: R^2=79%; α =.73; item M = 0.12; SD= 0.37; average interitem correlation = .58					
	8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.41	Bullying (e.g., teasing, ignoring, or isolating).	.65	.72	.33	.43
III.42	Dubious compliments about appearance or clothing.	.80	.84	.49	.59
III.47	Racist jokes or insinuations.	.79	.80	.48	.53
3 items in final scale					
A: R^2=56%; α =.60; item M = 0.40; SD = 0.53; average interitem correlation = .34					
F: R^2=62%; α =.70; item M = 0.81; SD = 0.79; average interitem correlation = .51					
	8d. Indecent treatment of customers	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.48	Discriminating remarks to citizens or suspects and prisoners.	.81	.87	.32	.53
III.49	Offensive language to customers.	.81	.87	.32	.53
2 items in final scale					
A: R^2=66%; α =.47; item M = 0.27; SD = 0.46; average interitem correlation = .32					
F: R^2=76%; α =.68; item M = 0.68; SD = 0.77; average interitem correlation = .53					
	9. Waste and abuse	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.11	Unjustified billing of work hours/cheating on time sheets.	.61	.70	.40	.53
III.13	Incorrect handling of expense claims.	.65	.58	.47	.43
III.51	Falsely reporting in sick.	.74	.74	.55	.59
III.53	Minimal effort by employees (laziness).	.63	.73	.46	.58
III.31	Careless handling of confidential police information.	.65	.70	.47	.56
III.56	Careless use of organizational properties.	.68	.76	.51	.62
6 items in final scale					
A: R^2=44%; α =.72; item M = 0.18; SD = 0.29; average interitem correlation = .33					
F: R^2=50%; α =.79; item M = 0.71; SD = 0.66; average interitem correlation = .39					

*A = acceptability; F = frequency.

continuation

Item #	Types of integrity violations	*Factor loadings*		*Item-rest correlation*	
	10. Private time misconduct	**A**	**F**	**A**	**F**
III.57	Setting a bad example in private time.	.67	.71	.51	.58
III.58	Excessive use of alcohol in private time.	.74	.76	.56	.63
III.59	Use of soft drugs in private time.	.82	.83	.64	.63
III.60	Use of party drugs in private time.	.73	.78	.53	.56
III.64	Contact with criminals in private time.	.59	.56	.38	.40

5 items in final scale

A: R^2=51%; α =.75; item M = 0.47; SD = 0.59; average interitem correlation = .37

F: R^2=54%; α =.76; item M = 0.45; SD = 0.56; average interitem correlation = .42

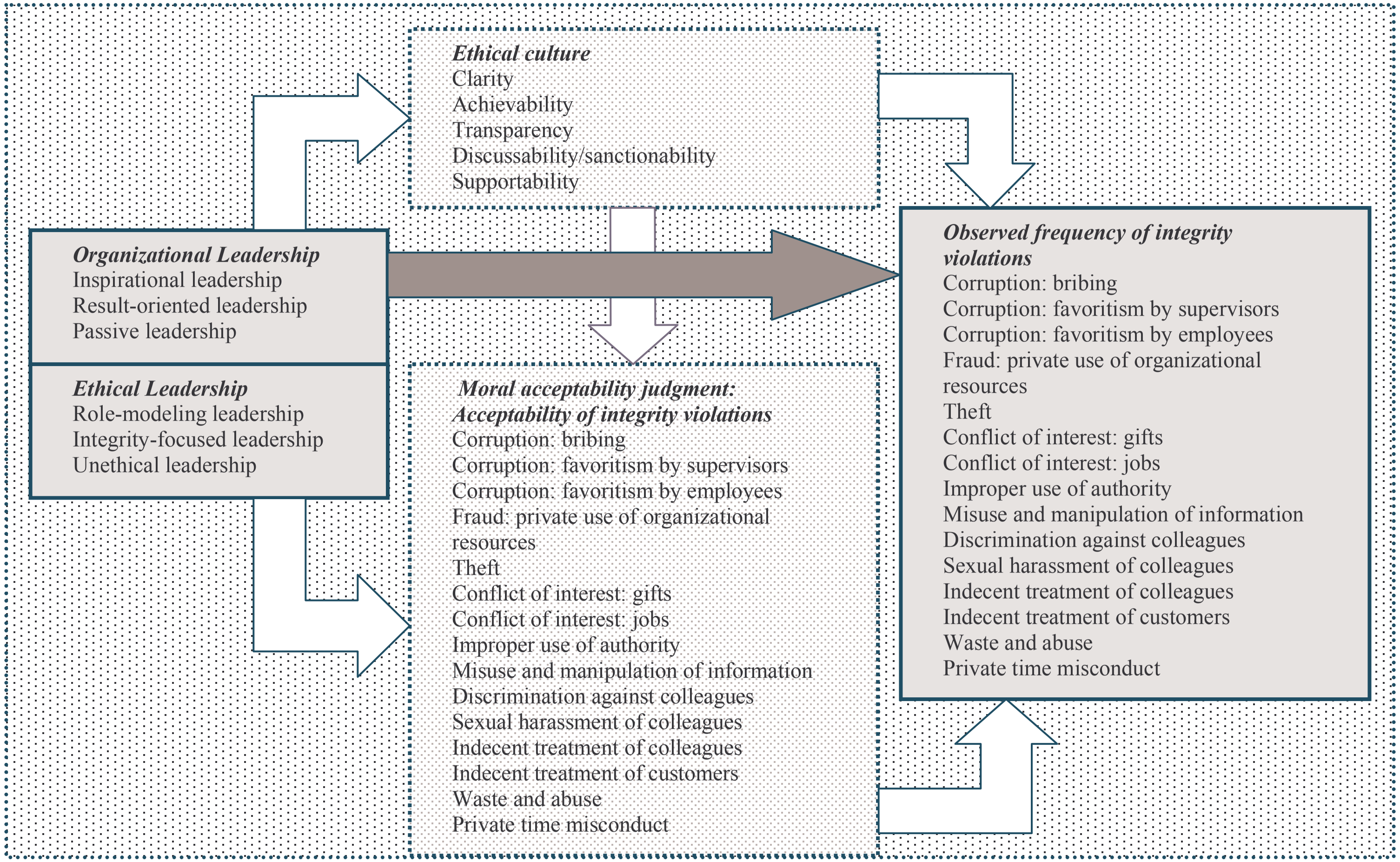
*A = acceptability; F = frequency.

Appendix B lists the correlations (Spearman's rho for ordinal variables) between the factors related to the acceptability of integrity violations (Table B5) and the observed frequency of integrity violations (Table B6). The correlation between the factors related to integrity violation *acceptability* ranges between .07 and .45, with most correlations being moderately strong and the strongest correlation (.45) found between the acceptability of discrimination against and sexual harassment of colleagues, the acceptability of indecent treatment of colleagues and waste and abuse, and the acceptability of waste and abuse and private time misconduct. The correlation between the factors related to *observed frequency* ranges between .14 and .63, with most correlations being moderately strong but with stronger correlations found for the observed frequency of waste and abuse with fraud (.58), misuse of authority (.54), misuse and manipulation of information (.58), indecent treatment of colleagues (.59), indecent treatment of customers (.63), and private time misconduct (.59), as well as for the observed frequency of misuse and manipulation of information with misuse of authority (.54) and indecent treatment of colleagues (.52); and of indecent treatment of colleagues with discrimination against colleagues (.51) and indecent treatment of customers (.54). The subsequent analyses take these findings into account.

6.4 Operationalized model

This chapter has clarified the measurement procedures for the data collected from regional police force employees through a standardized survey based on relevant research concepts operationalized into variables for empirical study. Specifically, the leadership concept was incorporated into three organizational leadership scales labeled inspirational, result oriented, and passive, and into three ethical leadership scales labeled role modeling, integrity focused, and unethical. The six theoretical dimensions for ethical culture were operationalized into five variables: clarity, achievability, transparency, discussability/sanctionability, and supportability. Employee moral acceptability judgment on integrity violations was measured based on the acceptability of 15 (sub)types of integrity violations, while the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations was assessed by the observed frequency of these 15 (sub)types. Thus, the conceptual model outlined earlier can now be expanded to give the operationalized model shown in figure.6.1, which acts as a starting point for the empirical results and analyses presented in the subsequent chapters.

Figure 6.1 Operationalized model


Organizational Leadership
Inspirational leadership
Result-oriented leadership
Passive leadership
Ethical Leadership
Role-modeling leadership
Integrity-focused leadership
Unethical leadership
Ethical culture
Clarity
Achievability
Transparency
Discussability/sanctionability
Supportability
Moral acceptability judgment:
Acceptability of integrity violations
Corruption: bribing
Corruption: favoritism by supervisors
Corruption: favoritism by employees
Fraud: private use of organizational resources
Theft
Conflict of interest: gifts
Conflict of interest: jobs
Improper use of authority
Misuse and manipulation of information
Discrimination against colleagues
Sexual harassment of colleagues
Indecent treatment of colleagues
Indecent treatment of customers
Waste and abuse
Private time misconduct
Observed frequency of integrity violations
Corruption: bribing
Corruption: favoritism by supervisors
Corruption: favoritism by employees
Fraud: private use of organizational resources
Theft
Conflict of interest: gifts
Conflict of interest: jobs
Improper use of authority
Misuse and manipulation of information
Discrimination against colleagues
Sexual harassment of colleagues
Indecent treatment of colleagues
Indecent treatment of customers
Waste and abuse
Private time misconduct

7. Results for (Ethical) Leadership, Ethical Culture, Moral Acceptability Judgments, and Integrity Violations

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a descriptive outline of the survey results. First, section 7.2 identifies which (ethical) leadership styles are present in the organization under study, after which section 7.3 addresses the ethical culture of the work environment. Section 7.4 discusses the frequency of integrity violations that the Midden- and West Brabant police force employees report observing by respondents within their work unit over the past year (2003). It also describes how the respondents morally judge the integrity violations in terms of their evaluations of their acceptability. Finally, section 7.5 sketches a general picture of the organization by combining the results and comparing them with other relevant findings.

7.2 (Ethical) leadership styles

Several survey items asked respondents to give their opinions on perceived leadership characteristics. Responses to these items, categorized by organizational style (inspirational, result oriented, and passive) are given in table 7.1, and the mean scores for the corresponding scales are listed in figure 7.1. Table 7.2 then outlines the responses on the ethical leadership styles (role modeling, integrity focused, and unethical), and the mean scores for these scales are graphed in figure 7.2

Table 7.1 Perceived organizational leadership styles (in percentages; n = 755)

	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Inspirational leadership			
My direct supervisor instills pride in being associated with him/her.	14.2	47.3	38.5
My direct supervisor shows how to look at problems from new angles.	9.5	42.6	47.9
My direct supervisor articulates a vision of future opportunities.	13.6	42.4	44.0
My direct supervisor provides advice when it is needed.	6.7	30.0	63.4
My direct supervisor mobilizes a collective sense of mission.	11.0	43.3	45.7
My direct supervisor makes me back up my opinions with good reasoning.	9.6	37.0	53.4
My direct supervisor makes me aware of strongly held values, ideals, and aspirations that are shared in common.	11.6	45.5	42.9
My direct supervisor listens to my concerns.	7.1	29.3	63.6
My direct supervisor has my complete confidence.	8.9	28.2	62.9
My direct supervisor displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever s/he decides.	11.4	46.5	42.1
My direct supervisor projects a powerful and magnetic presence.	12.8	44.8	42.4
My direct supervisor talks optimistically about the future.	5.7	32.2	62.2
My direct supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just a member of the group.	8.0	24.4	67.6
Result-oriented leadership			
My direct supervisor is alert for failure to meet performance targets.	7.7	38.1	54.2
My direct supervisor is focused on the achievement of results.	6.3	42.4	51.3
My direct supervisor monitors performance for errors needing correction.	12.8	48.2	39.1
My direct supervisor focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me.	13.4	49.7	36.8

continuation

	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Passive leadership			
My direct supervisor avoids trying to make improvements as long as work meets minimal standards.	48.2	36.7	15.1
My direct supervisor avoids getting involved when important issues arise.	66.0	24.2	9.8
My direct supervisor only takes action when things go wrong.	46.4	37.9	15.7

For *inspirational leadership,* more than 60 percent of the respondents agreed with the items that measure the (original) individualized consideration dimension (i.e., “My direct supervisor listens to my concerns”; “My direct supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just a member of the group”; “My direct supervisor provides advice when it is needed”). Over 60 percent of respondents agreed with the items “My direct supervisor talks optimistically about the future” (the original vision dimension) and “My direct supervisor has my complete confidence” (the original charisma dimension). For the latter two, however, other items of the same dimension present a somewhat less convincing picture; 44 percent of the respondents agreed with the vision dimension statement “My direct supervisor articulates a vision of future opportunities,” 46 percent with the charisma dimension item “My direct supervisor displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever s/he decides,” and 42 percent with the charisma dimension item “My direct supervisor projects a powerful and magnetic presence.” The two other original dimensions of inspirational leadership measured – the motivating dimension and the intellectual stimulation dimension – were the weakest (relative) indicators of inspirational leadership in the organization studied. The former was assessed by “My direct supervisor instills pride in being associated with him/her,” “My direct supervisor mobilizes a collective sense of mission,” and “My direct supervisor makes me aware of strongly held values, ideals, and aspirations that are shared in common,” and the latter by “My direct supervisor shows how to look at problems from new angles” and “My direct supervisor makes me back up my opinions with good reasoning.” Nevertheless, between 38 and 53 percent of the respondents agreed with the various items in these two dimensions.

The findings for *result-oriented leadership* seemed to split into two dimensions. About 50–55 percent of the respondents agreed that their direct supervisor is alert for failure to meet performance targets and is focused on the achievement of results, while about 35–40 percent agreed that their direct supervisor monitors performance for errors needing correction and focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected. Apparently, supervisors are active in steering on results but less active in also correcting errors and mistakes.

For *passive leadership*, 66 percent of the respondents disagreed with the item “My direct supervisor avoids getting involved when important issues arise,” and almost half also disagreed that their direct supervisor avoids trying to make improvements as long as work meets minimal standards and only takes action when things go wrong. However, it is worth noting that about 15 percent of the respondents did agree with these two items on passive leadership style.

The outcomes for police officers *not* in a supervisory position (n = 536) paint more or less the same picture as for the whole research population, although the perceptions are slightly more negative, with fewer reports of inspirational and result-oriented leadership, and perceptions of a somewhat more passive leadership style.

As figure 7.1 shows, the mean scores for the perceived leadership styles range between 1 and 6, and inspirational leadership and result-oriented leadership are clearly present in the police force studied, with respective mean scores of 4.3 and 4.2. Likewise, responses for different items on both leadership styles agree, although this agreement holds more for inspirational leadership than for result-oriented leadership. Passive leadership – whose mean score is 2.6 – is uncommon; most respondents disagreed with the questionnaire statements.

Figure 7.1 Perceived organizational leadership styles (scale mean scores; range= 1, *low*, to 6, *high*)

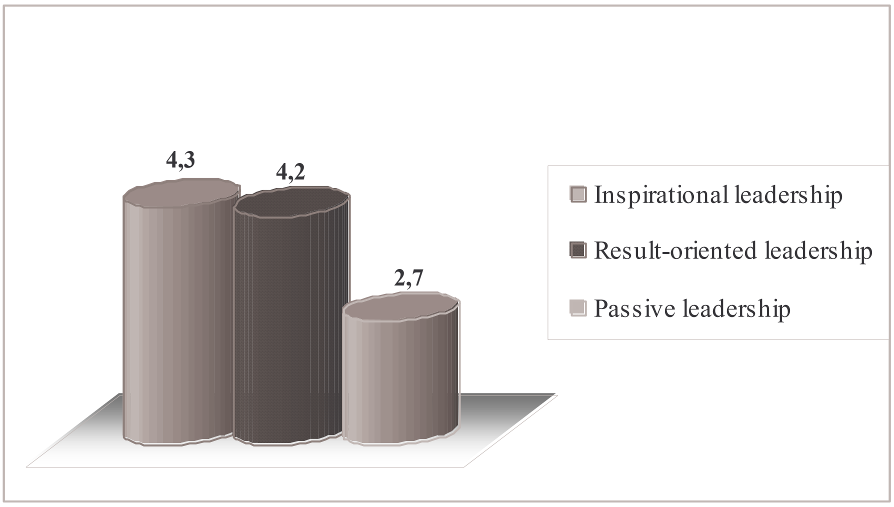


Table 7.2 Perceived ethical leadership styles (in percentages; n = 755)

	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Role-modeling leadership			
My direct supervisor communicates the importance of ethics and integrity well.	4.2	25.1	70.7
My direct supervisor makes sure that his/her actions are always ethical.	2.6	23.1	74.4
My direct supervisor sets a good example in terms of ethical behavior.	4.4	21.9	73.7
My direct supervisor meets his/her obligations.	7.1	31.9	60.9
My direct supervisor does what s/he says.	9.5	34.3	56.2
My direct supervisor would never authorize unethical or illegal conduct to meet organizational goals.	2.7	19.8	77.4
My direct supervisor clarifies which values and norms should be lived up to.	15.4	40.2	44.3
Integrity-focused leadership			
My direct supervisor takes reports of undesirable employee conduct seriously.	2.5	20.7	76.8
My direct supervisor is accessible to me to discuss moral dilemmas in the task performance.	2.3	26.5	71.2
My direct supervisor will appreciate it that, if a colleague acts unethically, I discuss this with him/her.	2.9	27.9	69.2
My direct supervisor will appreciate it that, if I have to do something that conflicts with my conscience, I discuss this with him/her.	3.3	26.2	70.5
My direct supervisor will call me or a colleague to account if s/he observes us behaving unethically.	3.3	27.7	69.0
My direct supervisor sanctions someone who consciously behaves unethically.	3.8	26.3	69.9
My direct supervisor does not tolerate when things happen behind his/her back.	3.9	35.7	60.4
My direct supervisor is alert to potentially undesirable behavior within my work unit.	9.3	44.2	46.5

continuation

	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Unethical leadership			
My direct supervisor does not behave in a manner consistent with the values s/he expresses.	76.6	18.8	4.6
My direct supervisor manipulates subordinates.	71.3	22.8	5.9
My direct supervisor holds me responsible for things that are not my fault.	78.0	16.4	5.6
My direct supervisor acts without considering my feelings.	62.1	27.5	10.4

For *role modeling leadership,* more than 70 percent of the respondents agreed that their direct supervisor communicates the importance of ethics and integrity well, makes sure that his/her actions are always ethical, sets a good example in terms of ethical behavior, and would never authorize unethical or illegal conduct to meet organizational goals. Moreover, when asked about more concrete behavior, as in "My direct supervisor meets his/her obligations" and "My direct supervisor does what s/he says [s/he will do]," about 55–60 percent of the respondents still agreed. Relatively, respondents disagreed most with the item "My direct supervisor clarifies which values and norms should be lived up to": about 44 percent agreed, 40 percent were neutral, and 15 percent disagreed.

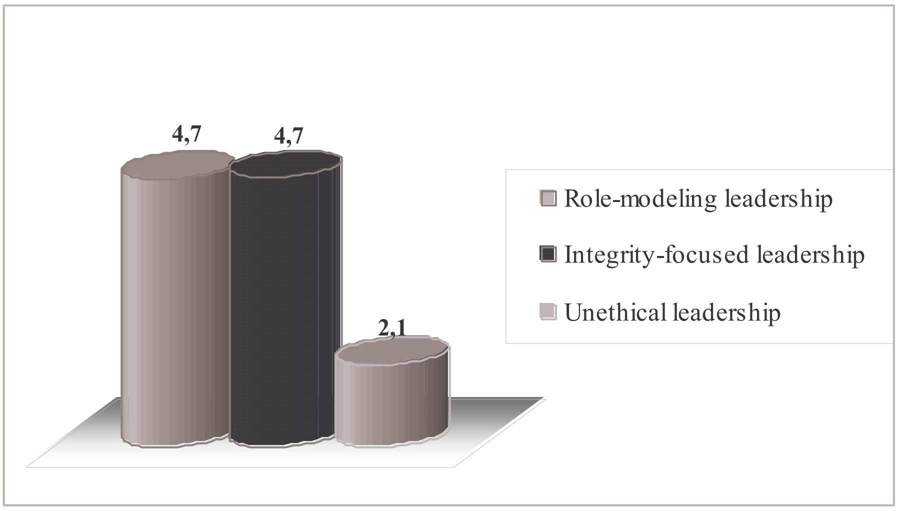
Integrity-focused leadership showed a similar response pattern: about 70 percent of the respondents agreed that their direct supervisor takes reports of undesirable employee conduct seriously, will call them or a colleague to account if s/he observes them behaving unethically, and sanctions someone who consciously behaves unethically. This agreement also holds for the items "My direct supervisor is accessible to me to discuss moral dilemmas in the task performance," "My direct supervisor will appreciate it that, if a colleague acts unethically, I discuss this with him/her," and "My direct supervisor will appreciate it that, if I have to do something that conflicts with my conscience, I discuss this with him/her." Sixty percent of the respondents also agreed that their supervisor does not tolerate things happening behind his/her back. Relatively, most respondents disagreed with the item "My direct supervisor is alert to potentially undesirable behavior within my work unit": about 46 percent agreed, 44 percent were neutral, and 9 percent disagreed.

For *unethical leadership,* three quarter of the respondents disagreed with the items "My direct supervisor does not behave in a manner that is consistent with the values s/he expresses" or "My direct supervisor holds me responsible for things that are not my fault." Seventy-one percent disagreed with the item “My direct supervisor manipulates subordinates,” although 23 percent hesitated and answered neutrally, while 6 percent agreed. As regards the last item on unethical leadership, “My direct supervisor acts without considering my feelings,” 62 percent of the respondents disagreed, while 27.5 percent answered neutrally, and 10 percent agreed.

The outcomes for police officers *not* in a supervisory position (*n* = 536) are similar to those for the whole research population, although again the perceptions are slightly more negative, with fewer reports of role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership styles and perceptions of a somewhat more unethical leadership style.

As figure 7.2 shows, the mean scores for the perceived ethical leadership styles again vary between 1 and 6, with mean scores of 4.7 for both role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership, which clearly indicates the presence of both styles. However, unethical leadership, with a mean score of 2.1, is not very salient in the police organization studied.

Figure 7.2 Perceived ethical leadership styles (mean scale scores; range = 1, *low,* to 6, *high*)



7.3 Ethical culture

Responses to the several statements about the perceived (dimensions of) ethical culture of the direct work environment are given in table 7.3 and figure 7.3.

Table 7.3 Perceived ethical culture (in percentages; *n* = 755)

	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Clarity:			
It has been made sufficiently clear to me			
how I should use business equipment responsibly.	2.7	19.3	78.1
how I should deal with working hours.	1.7	11.8	86.4
how I should deal with external business parties responsibly.	5.9	21.8	72.2
how I should deal with gifts.	4.5	22.6	72.9
how I should handle money and other financial assets responsibly.	3.5	18.9	77.6
how I should behave myself towards colleagues responsibly.	4.3	18.4	77.3
how I should deal with private time behavior.	11.6	28.9	59.5
how I should obtain proper authorizations responsibly.	1.6	13.4	85.0
how I should use the Internet/e-mail responsibly.	6.0	22.1	71.9
how I should deal with conflicts of interests through jobs responsibly.	6.3	24.6	69.2
how I should deal with confidential information responsibly.	1.7	7.3	90.9
Achievability			
I have sufficient information at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.	7.8	34.7	57.4
I have adequate means at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.	13.5	34.6	51.9
I have sufficient time at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.	20.8	36.4	42.9
There are realistic targets set for me.	8.2	35.7	56.1
Transparency			
If a colleague within my work unit does something that is not permitted, I or another colleague will find out about it.	10.3	52.2	37.5
If an incident were to occur in my work unit, it could readily be established who has been negligent.	16.1	51.2	32.7

continuation

	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
Discussability/Sanctionability			
Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity for discussing ethical dilemmas.	3.2	29.6	67.2
Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity to express one’s own opinions.	3.9	20.6	75.5
If someone is called to account for his/her conduct, it is done in a respectful manner.	2.9	34.6	62.5
Within my work unit, reports of undesirable conduct are treated carefully.	3.2	32.0	64.8
Within my work unit, incidents are resolved in an appropriate manner.	6.8	46.7	46.4
If I reported a violation to management, I would not experience retaliation.	8.9	44.3	46.8
Supportability			
An atmosphere of mutual trust prevails in my work unit.	3.1	28.2	68.8
Within my work unit, everyone has the best interests of the organization at heart.	7.5	48.0	44.4
If my colleagues observe someone behaving unethically in my work unit, they will call him/her to account.	8.4	47.7	43.9
My colleagues in my work unit treat me with respect.	1.1	12.1	86.8
If a colleague acts unethically, s/he will appreciate it if I discuss it with him/her.	13.9	55.4	30.7

Clarity deals with organizational norms, rules, and policies with regard to integrity violations and whether respondents feel that these have been made clear to them. In the police organization studied, most respondents confirmed that it has been made clear to them how they should behave. Three quarters of the respondents or more agreed that it has been made sufficiently clear to them how to use business equipment (78%), deal with working hours (86%), handle money and other financial assets responsibly (78%), behave responsibly toward colleagues (77%), obtain proper authorizations responsibly (85%), and deal responsibly with confidential information (91%). About 70 percent of the respondents were also well informed about the way they should deal responsibly with external business parties (72%), gifts (73%), Internet/e-mail (72%), and conflicts of interests through jobs (69%). Moreover, even though about 60 percent of the respondents agreed with the item "It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should deal with private time behavior," almost 12 percent disagreed with this statement.

As regards *achievability*, which concerns the information, time, and means to carry out tasks responsibly and the targets set, just over half the respondents agreed that they have sufficient information and adequate means at their disposal to carry out their tasks responsibly and feel that there are realistic targets set for them. Nevertheless, 43 percent agreed that time is sometimes a problem, while 36 percent remained neutral, and 21 percent disagreed that they have sufficient time at their disposal to carry out their tasks responsibly.

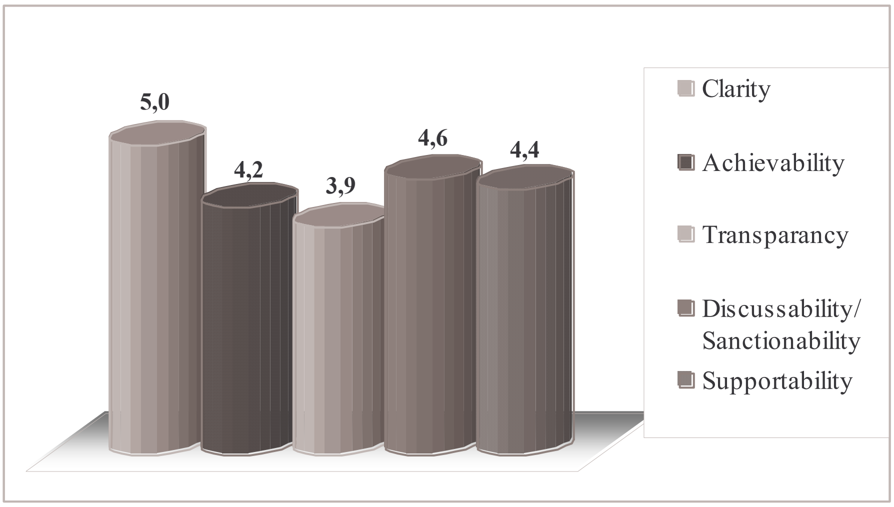
In terms of *transparency*, which deals with the visibility of improper behavior and mistakes, about 10 percent of the respondents disagreed with the item "If a colleague within the work unit does something that is not permitted, they or another colleague will find out about it," while about 16 percent disagreed that "if an incident were to occur in their work unit, it can readily be established who has been negligent." About half the respondents had a neutral opinion on these two items, although about one third agreed.

Discussability/sanctionability is made of different kinds of items. In terms of discussability, three quarters of the respondents agreed that there is ample opportunity within the work unit to express one's own opinions, while 67 percent agreed that there is also ample opportunity to discuss ethical dilemmas. As regards *sanctionability*, over 60 percent of the respondents confirmed that "if someone is called to account for his/her conduct, this is done in a respectful manner" and that "reports of undesirable conduct are treated carefully." Relatively fewer respondents reported feeling that in their work unit incidents are resolved in an appropriate manner (only 46 percent agreed) and that if they report a violation to management, they would experience no retaliation (only 47 percent agreed).

Regarding s*upportability*, the fifth dimension of ethical culture, a majority of the respondents reported that they are treated with respect by colleagues and that there is an atmosphere of mutual trust in their work unit (87 percent and 69 percent, respectively). Forty-four percent also agreed that everyone in their work unit has the best interests of the organization at heart. Moreover, 44 percent reported that colleagues will call each other to account for unethical behavior, while 31 percent agreed that "if a colleague acts unethically, s/he will appreciate it if I discuss it with him/her."

In figure 7.3, which gives the mean scores for the five dimensions of the ethical culture, the mean score can again vary between 1 and 6. Clarity has the highest mean score (5.0), but discussability/sanctionability (4.6) and supportability (4.4) are also relatively strong. Achievability has a mean score of 4.2, but transparency, with a mean score of 3.9, is relatively the weakest dimension of ethical culture in the police organization studied.

Figure 7.3 Perceived ethical culture (scale mean scores; range = 1, *low*, to 6, *high*)



7.4 Moral acceptability judgments and observed frequency of integrity violations

The incidence and prevalence of integrity violations was assessed by asking respondents how often they had observed specific integrity violations in their work unit over the last 12 months, while moral acceptability judgment was assessed by asking respondents to indicate how acceptable they found these behaviors. Table 7.4 gives the outcomes for the observed frequency and acceptability of the different manifestations of the ten types of integrity violations, each of whose mean scores are then combined more comprehensively in figure 7.4. This combination provides a clearer picture of the different types of integrity problems in the police force under study.

Table 7.4 Observed frequency and acceptability of integrity violations (n = 755)

Observed frequency (% of respondents)			**Type and item**	**Acceptability** (% of respondents)		
Never	Once or several times	Regular-ly or often		Never	Seldom or some-times	Mostly or always
			1. Corruption: bribing			
96.4	3.3	0.3	Accepting bribes (money or favors) to do or neglect something while on duty.	97.4	2.4	0.1
93.3	6.5	0.3	Being offered bribes (money or favors) to do or neglect something while on duty.	98.7	1.2	0.1
96.8	3.2	0.0	Accepting bribes (money or favors) for delivering better service.	95.5	3.9	0.5
96.1	3.7	0.1	Selling confidential information to external parties.	99.6	0.3	0.1
			2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors			
51.0	38.3	10.7	Favoritism by superiors.	64.4	33.2	2.3
			2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees			
81.0	16.6	2.4	Favoring of friends or family outside the organization.	74.5	23.7	1.8
70.8	27.2	1.9	Asking a colleague to undo a ticket given to a family member.	65.9	32.5	1.6
87.7	11.7	0.6	Consulting confidential police files for former colleagues.	83.8	15.8	0.4
82.0	16.6	1.4	Consulting confidential police files for friends or family outside the organization.	86.7	12.9	0.4
			3a. Fraud: private use of organizational resources			
39.0	51.2	9.7	Use of organizational resources for private purposes.	35.2	60.5	4.3
29.4	59.7	10.9	Use of working hours for private purposes.	31.8	64.3	3.9
6.6	67.1	26.3	Use of the Internet, e-mail, or telephone for private purposes.	9.0	77.0	14.0
			3b. Theft			
82.2	16.3	1.5	Theft of organizational properties.	95.7	4.2	0.1

continuation

Observed frequency (% of respondents)			**Type and item**	**Acceptability** (% of respondents)		
Never	Once or several times	Regular-ly or often		Never	Seldom or some-times	Mostly or always
			4. Conflict of interest: gifts			
51.4	43.3	5.2	Accepting small gifts (< 25 euro) from grateful civilians.	34.7	48.0	17.2
64.4	33.7	1.9	Accepting small gifts (< 25 euro) from shopkeepers or small businesses.	49.5	41.8	8.7
90.5	8.8	0.7	Accepting gifts of more serious value (> 25 euro) from external parties.	79.8	17.7	2.6
80.8	16.8	2.4	Accepting goods or services with discount from catering establishments or small businesses while on duty.	75.7	21.4	2.9
			5. Conflict of interest: jobs			
90.6	9.2	0.1	Working in private time as a security guard.	67.4	26.5	6.1
76.2	20.9	2.9	Working in private time as a security consultant in one's own neighborhood.	23.8	38.7	37.6
82.7	16.7	0.6	Sideline activities or jobs that might pose a conflict of interest.	80.3	19.2	0.5
			6. Improper use of authority			
72.6	24.7	2.7	Use of improper and/or disproportional violence.	81.0	18.2	0.8
80.4	18.6	1.0	Incorrect care of suspects and prisoners.	88.5	11.4	0.1
82.7	16.9	0.4	Use of illegal investigation methods.	79.6	19.3	1.1

continuation

Observed frequency (% of respondents)			Type and item	Acceptability (% of respondents)		
Never	Once or several times	Regular-ly or often		Never	Seldom or some-times	Mostly or always
			7. Manipulation and misuse of information			
78.0	20.6	1.4	Stretching the truth about the facts of a case.	92.1	7.6	0.3
85.9	13.4	0.7	Concealing information from the supervisory authorities.	85.9	13.4	0.7
78.7	19.5	1.8	Unauthorized use of a colleague’s password or access code.	82.5	16.4	1.1
86.5	13.1	0.4	Violation of secrecy rules.	93.8	6.1	0.1
90.6	9.1	0.3	Accidentally disclosing information to criminals.	91.9	7.8	0.3
			8a. Discrimination against colleagues			
85.3	13.3	1.4	Racial discrimination against colleagues.	96.2	3.6	0.1
80.5	17.5	1.9	Gender discrimination against colleagues.	96.0	4.0	0.0
88.2	10.0	1.8	Discrimination based on sexual orientation against colleagues.	96.6	3.2	0.1
			8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues			
91.8	7.9	0.3	Unwanted sexual physical contact.	98.9	1.1	0.0
91.4	8.5	0.1	Sexual harassment.	99.3	0.5	0.1
			8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues			
66.5	29.9	3.6	Bullying (e.g., teasing, ignoring, or isolating).	90.1	9.6	0.3
48.8	44.8	6.4	Dubious compliments about appearance or clothing.	60.8	36.3	3.0
47.3	45.4	7.4	Racist jokes or insinuations.	65.5	32.3	2.3
			8d. Indecent treatment of customers			
68.1	30.1	1.8	Discriminating remarks to citizens or suspects and prisoners.	87.7	11.8	0.5
47.7	48.5	3.8	Offensive language to customers.	71.5	27.9	0.7

continuation

Observed frequency (% of respondents)			**Type and item**	**Acceptability** (% of respondents)		
Never	Once or several times	Regular-ly or often		Never	Seldom or some-times	Mostly or always
			9. Waste and abuse			
63.1	31.9	5.0	Unjustified billing of work hours/cheating on time sheets.	89.5	10.5	0.0
87.2	11.2	1.7	Incorrect handling of expense claims.	95.3	4.7	0.0
59.8	33.5	6.7	Falsely reporting in sick.	85.6	14.1	0.3
33.6	52.8	13.5	Minimal effort by employees (laziness).	65.3	34.2	0.5
71.2	27.0	1.8	Careless handling of confidential police information.	91.4	8.6	0.0
43.1	46.2	10.7	Careless use of organizational properties.	81.0	18.7	0.3
			10. Private time misconduct			
53.0	41.1	5.9	Setting a bad example in private time.	66.7	31.8	1.5
50.9	40.1	8.9	Excessive use of alcohol in private time.	52.7	38.9	8.3
83.4	15.6	1.0	Use of soft drugs in private time.	70.0	22.6	7.4
90.2	9.1	0.7	Use of party drugs in private time.	85.1	12.2	2.7
85.2	14.4	0.4	Contact with criminals in private time.	82.0	16.8	1.2

Note: Due to rounding differences, the percentages sometimes do not total 100.

Before interpreting the results in table 7.4, it is important to note that both sets of percentages (including those in the left column) represent the *share of respondents* (*not* the number of integrity violations) and therefore cannot be converted into exact numbers. However, the more the respondents indicating that a certain integrity violation occurs regularly or often in the work environment, or the fewer the respondents indicating that a certain integrity violation never occurs in the work environment, the more salient the manifestation of the integrity violation throughout the entire organization.

As table 7.4 makes clear, the observed frequency and acceptability varies across different types of integrity violations and across the different manifestations within types of integrity violations. Therefore, the following discussion reports the results by type of integrity violation.

Corruption: bribing. Most respondents (over 93 percent) indicated that they have never observed any manifestations of bribing in their team or unit during the last 12 months, and most respondents (over 95 percent) find bribing “never acceptable”. However, even given these figures, it is difficult to make a statement in terms of ‘much or little’. For instance, how serious is the problem when 3.7 percent of the respondents (i.e., 28 out of 755) reported observing the selling of confidential information to external parties once or several times in *their* team or unit in the last 12 months? Or when 0.5 percent of the respondents (i.e., 4 out of 755) stated that they find it mostly or always acceptable to accept bribes (money or favors) for delivering better service? It is probably safe to suggest that, compared to other (types of) integrity violations, bribing is a limited problem; nevertheless, in themselves, these percentages might be an alarm signal for organizational integrity.

Corruption: favoritism. Observations of *favoritism by supervisors* were reported by almost half the respondents (49 percent), although about two thirds (64 percent) reported finding this behavior “never acceptable”. The results for *favoritism by employees* indicate that about 88 percent of the respondents had never noticed others consulting police files for former colleagues or friends and family, and about the same percentage consider these behaviors “never acceptable”. Likewise over 80 percent of respondents reported never observing the favoring of friends or family outside the organization, although fewer respondents (74.5 percent) considered it “never acceptable”. The form of favoritism most reported by respondents was asking a colleague to undo a ticket given to a family member: almost 30 percent of the respondents indicated that they have noticed this behavior at least once in the work environment during the last 12 months. Respondents also considered this behavior more acceptable then other manifestations of this type; almost one third (32 percent) were of the opinion that asking a colleague to undo a ticket given to a family member is seldom or sometimes acceptable.

Fraud and theft. Defrauding through the use of organizational resources for private purposes including time, the Internet, e-mail, and the telephone was reported quite heavily and was generally considered a relatively acceptable behavior. About two thirds of the respondents reported observing such behavior at least once in their work environment in the last 12 months, and about the same share were of the opinion that the use of organizational resources, including working hours, for private purposes is (seldom, sometimes, mostly, or always) acceptable. Moreover, reports of the private use of the Internet, e-mail, or the telephone exceeded these figures and was a far more widely recognized and accepted behavior: 26 percent of the respondents observed such behavior regularly or often, while 77 percent regarded it as seldom or sometimes acceptable, and 14 percent considered it mostly or always acceptable. These results seem to contradict the findings on the ethical cultural dimension, clarity, in which three-quarters or more of the respondents agreed that it has been made sufficiently clear to them how to use business equipment and deal with working hours, the Internet, and e-mail responsibly. Thus, fraudulent behavior is seemingly widely accepted and recognized in the organization. Employee *theft* of organizational property, however, was reported by fewer respondents, with about 82 percent indicating that they have never observed such behavior. Theft is also considered unacceptable, with about 96 percent answering that it is “never acceptable”.

Conflict of (private and public) interests through gifts. In general, a gradual change in responses occurred between items related to accepting small gifts to those concerning large gifts. About half of the respondents indicated that they have never observed colleagues accepting small gifts from grateful civilians, while two thirds made the same claim for small gifts from shopkeepers or small businesses, and over 90 percent reported never observing peers accepting larger gifts from external parties in the last 12 months. However, the figure for accepting goods or services with discount while on duty lies between these figures, with about 80 percent of the respondents reporting never having observed such behavior in their work environment. The same pattern holds for the acceptability of conflict of interests through gifts. Whereas one third of the respondents consider it never acceptable to take small gifts from civilians, almost 80 percent only feel this way about gifts with more serious value.

Conflict of (private and public) interests through sideline activities. In general about 80 percent of the respondents reported never observing sideline activities or jobs that might pose a conflict of interest, while about the same share of respondents offered the opinion that this behavior is never acceptable. As regards concrete examples, respondents seemingly distinguished between a ‘real’ job and activities. That is, according to one third of the respondents, a second job as security guard is seldom or sometimes acceptable, while three-quarters considered it acceptable to be active as a security consultant in one’s own neighborhood. Of these latter, about 38 percent even find such consultancy mostly or always acceptable. Therefore, it may be asked whether respondents even see a potential conflict of interest in such behavior.

Improper use of authority. Although improper use of authority occurs in all types of organizations, this type of integrity violation is operationalized in this study as typical police behavior that is rare anywhere else in public administration. For example, the use of improper and/or disproportional violence does sometimes happen, with about one quarter of the respondents having observed it at least once in their work environment during the last 12 months. On the other hand, less then 20 percent of the respondents reported observing incorrect care of suspects and prisoners and the use of illegal investigation methods at least once. Moreover, almost 88.5 percent of the respondents considered it never acceptable to take incorrect care of suspects and prisoners, with only about 11 percent judging it to be seldom or sometimes acceptable. Most particularly, only slightly less that 20 percent of the respondents considered it seldom or sometimes acceptable to use improper and/or disproportional violence or to use illegal investigation methods. This attitude might be connected to 'the noble cause' concept that is often mentioned in reference to improper use of authority.

Manipulation and misuse of information. The manipulation and misuse of information involve different manifestations. For example, about 20 percent of the respondents reported seeing colleagues stretching the truth about the facts of a case and the unauthorized use of a colleague's password or access code once or several times over the last 12 months. Likewise, 13 percent of the respondents indicated having observed colleagues concealing information from supervisory authorities or the violation of secrecy rules. However, less then 10 percent reported the accidental disclosure of information to criminals, and most respondents (between 82.5 and 94 percent) gave the opinion that these behaviors are always unacceptable.

Indecent treatment of colleagues or citizens and customers. Almost all respondents (over 96 percent) judged *discrimination against* and *sexual harassment* of colleagues "never acceptable", although the fact that discrimination does sometimes occur was indicated by reports by 13, 17.5, and 10 percent of the respondents, respectively, that they had observed racial discrimination, gender discrimination, or discrimination based on sexual orientation once or several times in their work environment over the last 12 months. Even more respondents reported seeing *indecent treatment of colleagues*, although 90 percent considered bullying (e.g., teasing, ignoring, or isolating) unacceptable, while about 30 percent reported observing such behavior once or several times. About 45 percent of the respondents reported incidents of dubious compliments or racist jokes, but about one third also considered such behavior seldom or sometimes acceptable. As regards *indecent treatment of customers*, another form of this type of integrity violation, 32 percent of the respondents reported hearing discriminating remarks to citizens or suspects and prisoners during the last 12 months, and over half reported at least one use of offensive language to customers. Moreover, although most respondents (about 88 percent) considered it "never acceptable" to make discriminating remarks to the public, fewer respondents (71.5 percent) gave the same opinion about offensive language.

Waste and abuse of organizational resources. Some manifestations of waste and abuse are widely observed throughout the organization; for example, 66 percent of respondents reported seeing minimal effort by employees (laziness, which 65 percent considered "never acceptable"), while 57 percent reported careless use of organizational properties (which 81 percent considered never acceptable). Forty percent of respondents indicated knowing that colleagues had falsely reported in sick (which 86 percent considered never acceptable), while 37 percent reported observations of unjustified billing of work hours or cheating on time sheets (which 89.5 percent judged as never acceptable). According to 29 percent of the respondents, the careless handling of confidential police information has occurred at least once in the last 12 months (which 91 percent say is never acceptable), and 13 percent reported observing incorrect handling of expense claims in the work environment (judged as "never acceptable" by 95 percent). With the exception of laziness, which 34 percent of respondents reported as being seldom or sometimes acceptable, most manifestations of waste and abuse were considered unacceptable, however present in the organization.

Private time misconduct. This type of integrity violation, which covers a difficult grey area, is heavily debated within the Dutch police force. Such private time misconduct includes not only private crime and offences but also involves the double standard: conduct that is not necessarily blameworthy if performed by others but does violate the higher normative expectations held to civil servants and especially police officers. Over recent years, the debate within the police force has produced a consensus that police officers should not take part in activities at leisure that could harm the reputation of the police or bring police officers into a conflict of interest situation. As a result, police officers have been fired for buying soft drugs in a coffee shop, a behavior that has no consequences for the average Dutch citizen. Thus not surprisingly, responses in this category were diverse. In general, two thirds of the respondents indicated that setting a bad example is unacceptable, even though 47 percent had observed colleagues engaging in such behavior at least once in the last 12 months. Almost half of the respondents reported seeing the excessive use of alcohol, while 17 percent and 10 percent reported the use of soft drugs or party drugs, respectively, and 15 percent reported seeing colleagues having contact with criminals in private time. Most respondents (85 percent) find the use of party drugs to be "never acceptable," although fewer judged the other manifestations of private time misconduct as unacceptable.

Overall, the survey responses mapped out the observed frequency and acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment) within the police force being studied. This combination of employee perceptions of integrity violation frequency and their moral acceptability judgments (i.e., their views on the acceptability of such violations) enabled categorization of different types of integrity *problems* (Lasthuizen, Huberts & Kaptein, 2002, 2005).

To do so, a mean score for observed frequency and acceptability was calculated for each type of integrity violations. The higher the mean score for the observed frequency, the fewer the respondents who reported never observing this type of integrity violations in their work environment over the last 12 months and the more the respondents who reported observing it once, several times, regularly, or often. Likewise, the higher the mean score for acceptability, the fewer the respondents who considered this type of integrity violation never acceptable and the more the respondents who judged it seldom, sometimes, mostly, or always acceptable. On the basis of these mean scores, the integrity problems can be categorized as follows:[34]

Type 1: These integrity problems occur relatively often according to the respondents but are viewed as unacceptable by most. Therefore, they are labeled ‘urgent problems’.

Type 2: These violations are also observed relatively often, but many respondents find them more acceptable than type 1 problems. These are therefore labeled ‘recurring problems’.

Type 3: These integrity violations hardly occur according to respondents and most respondents consider them unacceptable. They are labeled ‘specific problems’.

Type 4: These violations are also hardly ever observed, but many respondents find them relatively acceptable compared to type 3 violations. Therefore, they are labeled ‘nonproblems’ because respondents do not see them as a problem.[35]

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[34] It should be noted that integrity problems are categorized on the basis of respondent observations and evaluations; that is, based on the perceptions of the *employees* of a police organization, not the *management*.

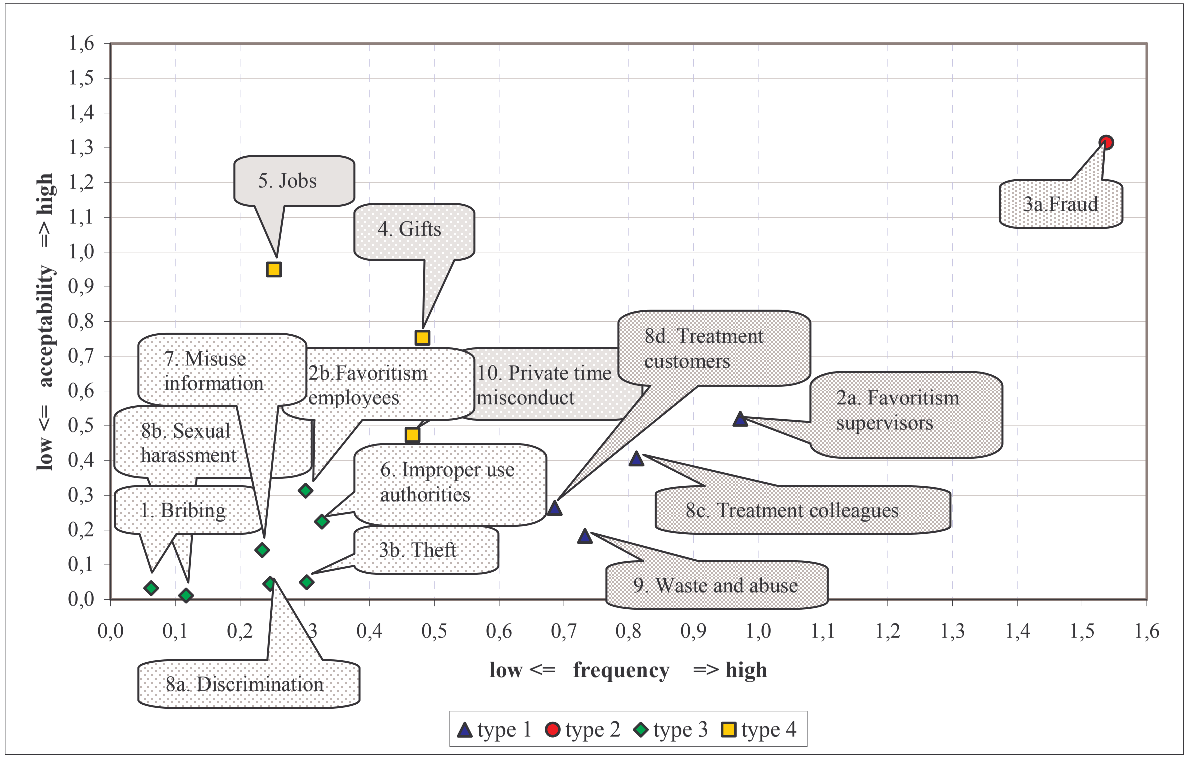
[35] The management of an organization probably does not always share the employees’ views on the supposed frequency or acceptability of integrity violations. That is, they might estimate the extent of misconduct differently because, for example, they have better insight into unethical behavior in external relations or as a result of investigations by the Internal Affairs Bureau. Likewise, they may morally judge acceptability differently or take a position of zero tolerance.

Figure 7.4 plots the mean score for each type of integrity violation, with the frequency on the *x*-axis and acceptability on the *y*-axis. The range for the mean score is between 0 and 4. Although the exact line between low and high acceptability and low and high frequency is always somewhat arbitrary, it does provide the following rough profile of integrity problems in the MWB:

Urgent integrity problems (type 1): Favoritism by supervisors, indecent treatment of colleagues and customers, and waste and abuse of organizational resources.
Recurring integrity problems (type 2): Fraud (i.e., the use of organizational resources and working hours for private purposes).
Specific integrity problems (type 3): Bribing, favoritism by employees, theft, improper use of authority, manipulation and misuse of information, discrimination against and sexual harassment of colleagues.
Nonintegrity problems (type 4): Conflict of interest through gifts and jobs, and private time misconduct.

Presenting the data in this format might also give important indications for prevention within the framework of an integrity policy. For instance, recurring and nonintegrity problems (types 2 and 4) require a different preventive treatment than urgent and specific integrity problems (types 1 and 3), which are already considered unacceptable by most employees. In the first case (type 2 and 4), the employees must first be made aware that the behavior in question is unacceptable according to organizational policy. Thus, the recurring integrity problems (type 2) are more urgent than the nonproblems (type 4) because they have a higher observed frequency. In the latter case (types 1 and 3), because this awareness is already in place, the focus should be on why that specific behavior occurs anyway. This emphasis holds particularly for the urgent integrity problems (type 1), which have a higher observed frequency than the specific integrity problems (type 3).

Figure 7.4 Observed frequency versus acceptability of integrity violation types (mean scale scores; range 0, *low,* to 4, *high*)



7.5 Conclusion

Based on the above findings, this section now sketches a general picture of the organization under study, including the leadership styles it incorporates and the ethical culture that characterizes it. It also addresses how police officers morally judge integrity violations and the observed frequency of integrity violations in the work environment. Above all, to answer the question of whether the research population is exceptional in these respects, it compares these findings with those of other empirical research on integrity violations, leadership, and culture to produce a general picture that is reassuring.

As described previously in this chapter, the organizational leadership styles of *inspirational* and *result-oriented leadership* and the ethical leadership styles of *role-modeling* and *integrity-focused leadership* are clearly evident in the police force studied. Conversely, *passive leadership* and *unethical leadership* are not widespread. For the ethical culture dimensions, *clarity* above all, but also *discussability/sanctionability* and *supportability,* is widely recognized and constitutes a relatively strong dimension of the ethical culture, while *achievability* and *transparency* are present but relatively weaker.

The categorization of integrity problems based on moral acceptability judgments about and the observed frequency of the ten integrity violation types studied resulted in the following profile. According to respondents, *urgent integrity problems*, although considered unacceptable, occur relatively often; these include favoritism by supervisors, indecent treatment of colleagues and customers, and waste and abuse of organizational resources. *Recurring integrity problems*, considered somewhat acceptable, also occur relatively often; these comprise types of fraud such as the use of organizational resources and working hours for private purposes. In contrast, s*pecific integrity problems* are not only considered unacceptable but hardly ever occur; these include bribing, favoritism by employees, theft, improper use of authority, manipulation and misuse of information, and discrimination against and sexual harassment of colleagues. Finally, *nonintegrity problems*, considered somewhat acceptable but hardly ever occurring, include conflict of interest through gifts and jobs and private time misconduct.

Following tabulation of the employee survey results, the findings were discussed with the chiefs of districts and divisions, as well as with the Chair of the Council of Employers and the Head of the Security and Integrity Unit to determine whether these officials recognized the outcomes. These interviews explained some of the more remarkable findings, which are apparently attributable to circumstances or events specific to the district or division in question. The general profile on leadership, ethical culture, moral acceptability judgment, and the observed frequency of integrity violations, whether perceived as ‘good’ or ‘bad,’ was widely recognized by all. In addition, the survey and interview results were supplemented by a document analysis of the 2003 annual complaints report of the Security and Integrity Unit (UVI), as well as of their annual statistical report on the number and nature of disciplinary and criminal investigations against police officers. The employee survey results reflected the official statistics in both reports, which increases the reliability of the findings (cf. Kolthoff, 2007:107).

To gage the applicability of this study to other organizational settings in the Netherlands and abroad, the survey findings were compared to those of other relevant empirical studies, which, although few report the level of unethical conduct or the dimensions of ethical leadership and ethical culture, are worth mentioning.

First, a previous study (Lasthuizen et al., 2002) reported results from the so-called KPMG Integrity Thermometer, a large scale 1996–1999 survey of 3,125 respondents from several Dutch police organizations. Although the figures are not totally comparable, applying the typology of integrity problems reveals some interesting similarities and differences. Most particularly, despite the intensification of police integrity policies over the last couple of years, urgent problems of favoritism by supervisors and waste and abuse of organizational resources remain, as does the recurring problem of fraud. Nevertheless, the improvement in moral acceptability judgment about and perceived frequency of these integrity violations over the years suggests that police officers have become more critical. Some shifts have also taken place. Most remarkable is the decrease in the observed frequency of conflict of interest through jobs (formerly a recurring problem but now a nonproblem), which can be ascribed to increased policy efforts (cf. van Bree & Lasthuizen, 2006; Lamboo, 2005).

A similar KPMG survey, the 2000 Organizational Integrity Survey, which gathered data on 2,390 prequalified working adults in the United States, made clear that the Dutch police are in several respects similar to U.S. public and private sector organizations (Kaptein, Huberts, Avelino & Lasthuizen, 2005:303; cf. Kaptein & Wempe, 2002:21). For instance, 21–27 percent of the U.S. employees reported observing activities that posed a conflict of interest, which were also reported by 17 percent of the police officers in this research. Likewise, 34 percent of U.S. employees reported observing sexual harassment or a hostile environment, which in this present study were reported as sexual harassment (8 percent) and bullying of colleagues (34.5 percent). Similarly, 31–35 percent of U.S. employees reported carelessness with confidential/proprietary information compared to 19 percent of Dutch police officers reporting careless handling of confidential police information, and 11–15 percent of U.S. employees reported falsification/improper manipulation of financial data compared to 13 percent of the respondents in this study reporting incorrect handling of expense claims and making false/misleading statements to government regulators. Finally, 9–15 percent of U.S. employees reported having observed the concealment of information from supervisory authorities compared to 14 percent of the Dutch police respondents studied here.

This pattern is confirmed by another American survey of 600 hourly restaurant industry workers (Berta, 2003, in Kidwell, Jr. & Martin, 2005:3), although admittedly theses U.S. percentages were generally higher than those reported here. Nevertheless, 25 percent of the employees surveyed admitted to touching coworkers in a sexually inappropriate way (sexual harassment), 21 percent had observed coworkers stealing cash (theft), 22 percent reported calling coworkers insulting names (indecent treatment of colleagues), 37 percent admitted making fun of coworkers or customers (indecent treatment of colleagues and customers), and 24 percent admitted taking illegal drugs just before coming to work (private time misconduct). In addition, another U.S. survey (Verton, 2000, in Bennett & Naumann, 2005:115) reported that 30–40 percent of employee work time is spent using the Internet for nonwork-related purposes, while yet another (Vardi & Weitz, 2004:181) reported that the most frequently observed organizational misconduct was wasting time or loafing.

Additional information on ethical leadership is provided by the Ethics Resource Center (2005; cf. Brown and Treviño, 2006:608), whose National Business Ethics survey showed that over 80 percent of the U.S. respondents indicated that leaders at all levels of their organization communicate the importance of ethics well and set a good example of integrity. This finding indicates that ethical leadership is far from a rare phenomenon in organizations other than the Dutch police force. More exact figures on ethical leadership and ethical culture in U.S. organizations from the KPMG 2000 Organizational Integrity Survey (cf. Kaptein et al., 2005:305) also indicate that the percentages found for the Dutch police organization under study are somewhat more favorable than those for the U.S. working population, but the pattern is more or less the same. For instance, 56 percent of the U.S. respondents attributed role-modeling leadership (i.e., setting a good example) to management compared with 74 percent of the respondents in this survey. Likewise, in terms of integrity-focused leadership, 50–60 percent of the U.S. respondents reported that management was accessible for discussion of moral dilemmas and took reports of unethical conduct seriously compared with 70–75 percent of the Dutch regional police officers. Moreover, both the U.S. and this study identify the same percentage (46 percent) of respondents reporting that management shows the integrity-focused leadership characteristic of being alert to unethical behavior.

As regards ethical climate, both the U.S. employee study and this regional Dutch police officer survey find the same percentages for the achievability measure that “there are realistic targets set for me” (about 56%)

and for the discussability/sanctionability dimension “if I reported a violation to management, I would not experience retaliation” (about 46%).

In sum, the above results demonstrate that integrity violations are present in profit, not-for-profit, and government organizations in the Netherlands, the U.S., and elsewhere, and other similarities between the research population in this study and other working populations (in the U.S.) with regard to ethical leadership and ethical culture. Thus, even though the Dutch police organization selected might appear slightly more ethical (which is exactly why it was chosen for a study into the relationship between ethical leadership, ethical culture, moral acceptability judgment, and integrity violations), the similar results and patterns found in other organizations and countries makes it more plausible that the conclusions drawn from these survey findings are applicable to organizations other than the Dutch police force.

8. Analysis of the Relation between (Ethical) Leadership, Ethical Culture, Moral Acceptability Judgments, and Integrity Violations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter analyzes the various effects of leadership on the observed frequency of integrity violations.[36] Specifically, section 8.2 focuses on the intercorrelations of the different leadership styles, the ethical culture dimensions, and the acceptability (moral acceptability judgment) and observed frequency of the different types of integrity violations. The correlational analysis then forms the basis for discussing the direct effects of leadership (section 8.3) and an analysis of these direct effects using multiple regression (section 8.4). Next, estimation of the direct and indirect effects of leadership using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with AMOS produces an overall model for the observed frequency of each of the ten types of integrity violations (section 8.5). Finally (in section 8.6), the hypotheses on the relationship between leadership, ethical culture, moral acceptability judgment, and integrity violations are tested and the main conclusions summarized.

8.2 Intercorrelations

Prior to detailing the correlations between the concepts of leadership, ethical culture, and the acceptability (moral acceptability judgment) and observed frequency of integrity violations, a discussion is needed of the correlations within the various aspects of the concepts under study.

Intercorrelations between leadership styles. The correlations between the leadership scales show that all six scales for both the organizational leadership styles and the ethical leadership styles overlap; that is, supervisors display characteristics of more than one leadership style (see table C1, Appendix C). Specifically, the correlations between the organizational leadership scales range between -.59 and .59, with inspirational and result-oriented leadership going together quite often (*r* = .59), although both correlate negatively with the passive leadership style (-.59 and -.36, respectively). The correlations between the ethical leadership scales range between -.54 and .68. Role modeling and integrity-focused leadership also appear together rather often (*r* = .68), and both correlate negatively with the unethical leadership style (-.54 and -.53, respectively). For the relationships between the organizational leadership styles and the ethical leadership styles, the following findings hold: Inspirational leadership correlates rather strongly, and coincides quite often, with role-modeling leadership (*r* = .78) and integrity-focused leadership (r = .71). As expected, with a correlation of -.60, inspirational leadership seldom goes together with unethical leadership. Result-oriented leadership also correlates with role-modeling leadership (*r* = .52) and integrity-focused leadership (*r* = .51) but not as strongly as does inspirational leadership. Moreover, the correlation between result-oriented leadership and unethical leadership is rather weak (*r* = -.22). Finally, passive leadership shows negative correlations with role-modeling leadership (*r* = -.48) and integrity-focused leadership (r=.-52) but is regularly associated with unethical leadership (*r* = .55).

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[36] All analyses (including structural equation modeling with AMOS) are performed on the subset using only nonsupervisory employees (n = 536). All correlations reported in sections 8.2 and 8.3 are Spearman rank order correlations, which do not assume a normal data distribution (e.g., Bryman & Cramer, 1994).

Intercorrelations between ethical culture dimensions. Most correlations between the ethical culture dimensions are moderate (see table C2, Appendix C). The correlation between clarity, achievability, discussability/sanctionability, and supportability are all between .37 and .39, with exception of the rather strong correlation of .66 between the two latter. Transparency shows the weakest correlations with the other ethical culture dimensions, between .15 and .22.

Because the intercorrelations between the leadership styles and the ethical culture dimensions show signs of interdependence, there is a risk of multicollinearity in the multiple regression analysis (section 8.4) for the effects of the mediator and independent variables on the dependent variable. This risk reduces the power in the consecutive steps of the regression analysis. Therefore, variance inflation factors (VIF) and the condition number of the regressor matrix are obtained to rule out the possibility of multicollinearity. For the leadership scales, the largest condition number is 4.7 and the largest VIF is 4.3; for the ethical culture dimensions, the largest condition number is 4.4 and the largest VIF is 5.9, which are all below the common standards of 30 and 10, respectively. This problem is further dealt with in the AMOS analysis (section 8.5) by allowing covariances between the leadership scales when estimating the direct and indirect effects in one model.

Intercorrelations between the acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment). The strength of the correlations between the acceptability of the different types of integrity violations varies (see table C3, Appendix C). In many cases, the correlation is weak (or not significant) or moderate. The strongest correlations are found between the acceptability of discrimination against and the sexual harassment of colleagues (*r* =.51) and between the acceptability of waste and abuse and private time misconduct (*r* = .50). In general, the correlations are somewhat weak, indicating that respondents make different moral acceptability judgments about most types of integrity violations, which thus apparently constitute different phenomena.

Intercorrelations between the observed frequencies of integrity violations. The strength of the correlations between the observed frequency of the different types of integrity violations also varies (see table C4, Appendix C). Most correlations are moderate, with the strongest found between the observed frequency of improper use of authority and manipulation and misuse of information (*r* =.51); between the observed frequency of indecent treatment of colleagues and indecent treatment of customers (*r* = .52); and between the observed frequency of waste and abuse and favoritism by employees (*r* = .50), fraud (*r* = .58), conflict of interest through gifts (*r* = .50), improper use of authority (*r* = .51), manipulation and misuse of information (*r* = .52), indecent treatment of colleagues (*r* = .57), indecent treatment of customers (*r* = .62), and private time misconduct (*r* = .59). These stronger correlations suggest that these types of integrity violations, as observed by respondents in their work environment, often go hand in hand. This finding might provide further evidence for the 'slippery slope' hypothesis, which suggests that serious corruption cases begin with minor offences that are unrelated to the execution of (police) duties (e.g., waste and abuse) but after some time result in serious misconduct like improper use of authority (e.g., Newburn, 1999).

8.3 Direct effects of leadership: correlations

The correlations between leadership styles and the ethical culture dimensions, the acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment), and the observed frequency of integrity violations, respectively, provide initial insights into the direct effects of leadership, which are confirmed in section 8.4 by the outcomes of the multiple regression analysis. That section also pays some attention to the direct relations between the ethical culture dimensions, the acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment), and the observed frequency of integrity violations.

Correlations between leadership styles and ethical culture dimensions. The correlations between the organizational leadership styles and the ethical culture dimensions all point in the expected direction (see table 8.1): a positive correlation between inspirational and result-oriented leadership and the ethical culture dimensions, but a negative correlation between these dimensions and passive leadership. Although most correlations are moderate in strength, the strongest are found between inspirational leadership and discussability/sanctionability ($r = .63$) and supportability ($r = .52$).

A similar picture emerges for the ethical leadership styles; role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership correlate positively with the ethical culture dimensions, which are correlated negatively with unethical leadership. The strongest correlations are found between role-modeling leadership and discussability/sanctionability ($r = .60$), clarity ($r = .54$), and supportability ($r = .51$), as well as between integrity-focused leadership and discussability/sanctionability ($r = .77$), and supportability ($r = .56$). In general, the ethical leadership styles correlate more strongly with the ethical culture dimensions than do the organizational leadership styles.

Table 8.1 Correlations between leadership and ethical culture (Spearman's rho, *n* = 536)

	Clarity	Achievability	Transparency	Discussability/ sanctionability	Support-ability
Inspirational leadership	0,38	0,42	0,26	0,63	0,52
Result - oriented leadership	0,26	0,26	0,24	0,41	0,33
Passive leadership	-0,24	-0,19	-0,07	-0,44	-0,33
Role-modeling leadership	0,54	0,42	0,21	0,60	0,51
Integrity - focused leadership	0,41	0,37	0,27	0,77	0,56
Unethical leadership	-0,27	-0,31	-0,16	-0,49	-0,38

Note: All correlations are significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean.

Correlations between leadership styles and the acceptability of integrity violations. In general, the correlations between leadership styles and the acceptability of integrity violations are weak (see table 8.2). The strongest correlation is found between role-modeling leadership and waste and abuse (*r* = -.30); all other correlations are below -.30. Therefore, based on this first analysis, the relation between leadership and moral acceptability judgment seems negligible.

Correlations between leadership styles and the observed frequency of integrity violations. The correlations between leadership styles and the observed frequency of integrity violations are generally moderate (see table 8.3), although the relation between leadership styles and the observed frequency of integrity violations is somewhat stronger than that between leadership and moral acceptability judgment. Inspirational leadership correlates moderately with the observed frequency of corruption: favoritism by supervisors (*r* = -.41) and with waste and abuse (*r* = -.34), which suggests that the more respondents evaluate their supervisor as having an inspirational leadership style, the less favoritism by supervisors and waste and abuse they perceive in their direct work environment.

In contrast, result-oriented leadership correlates weakly with the observed frequency of integrity violations, while passive leadership shows only the expected moderate correlation with corruption: favoritism by supervisors (*r* = .35); in other words, the more passive the leadership, the more the perceptions of favoritism by supervisors. In terms of correlations with the observed frequency of integrity violations, role-modeling leadership exhibits patterns similar to those for inspirational leadership. The strongest correlations are found between the observed frequency of corruption: favoritism by supervisors (*r* = -.40) and waste and abuse (*r* = -.37). Finally, integrity-focused leadership and unethical leadership correlate moderately in the expected direction with corruption: favoritism by supervisors (*r* = -.38 and *r* = .41, respectively).

Other correlations. In general, the correlations between the ethical culture and the acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment) are weak and thus comparable with the direct effects of leadership (see table C5, Appendix C). Even the strongest (negative) correlations, those for clarity, never exceed -.31.

In contrast, the correlations between the ethical culture and the observed frequency of integrity violations are somewhat stronger, with discussability/sanctionability showing moderate (negative) correlations with corruption: favoritism by supervisors (*r* = -.43), indecent treatment of colleagues (*r* = -33), and waste and abuse (*r* = -.36); while supportability correlates moderately with indecent treatment of colleagues (*r* = -.33) and waste and abuse (*r* = -.36) (see table C6, Appendix C).

Rather strong (positive) correlations are found between the acceptability (moral acceptability judgment) and observed frequency of the same types of integrity violations (see table C7, Appendix C), implying that respondents who perceive integrity violations in their direct work environment also judge these violations as more acceptable. This observation holds particularly for fraud (i.e., the private use of organizational resources) (*r* = .60) and conflict of interest through gifts (*r* = .58). In contrast, there is no strong correlation between the acceptability and observed frequency of corruption: bribing, theft, and sexual harassment of colleagues. However, the observed frequency of conflict of interest through jobs is correlated with the acceptability of corruption: favoritism by employees (*r* = .23), which correlation is of virtually the same strength as the correlation for the acceptability of conflict of interest through jobs (*r* = .24), although both are rather weak.

Table 8.2 Correlations between leadership and the acceptability of integrity violations (Spearman's rho, n = 536)

	Acceptability of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Inspirational leadership		*-0.10*	*-0.09*	-0.18		-0.14	-0.16	-0.14	-0.15			-0.13	-0.12	-0.24	-0.16
Result-oriented leadership				-0.14		-0.11	*-0.10*	*-0.09*				-0.13	*-0.10*	-0.13	-0.14
Passive leadership		0.17	*0.10*	*0.11*		*0.11*	*0.09*	0.12	*0.09*					0.21	*0.09*
Role-modeling leadership	*-0,10*	-0.11	-0.20	-0.22	*-0.09*	-0.24	-0.22	-0.25	-0.19			-0.23	-0.16	-0.30	-0.24
Integrity-focused leadership	*-0,10*	-0.22	-0.16	-0.22		-0.15	-0.16	-0.18	-0.15			-0.20	-0.19	-0.26	-0.16
Unethical leadership		0.19	0.14	0.16		0.16		0.15	0.13			0.13	*0.09*	0.24	*0.09*

Note: Only significant correlations are included. Correlations that are significant at the .05 level are printed in italics; all other correlations are significant at the .01 level. The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

Table 8.3 Correlations between leadership and the observed frequency of integrity violations (Spearman's rho, n = 536)

	Observed frequency of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Inspirational leadership	-0.12	-0.41	-0.15	-0.28	-0.14	-0.16	-0.13	-0.16	-0.23	-0.13	-0.11	-0.24	-0.25	-0.34	-0.22
Result-oriented leadership		-0.17		-0.19	*-0.10*	*-0.09*	*-0.09*		-0.13	*-0.11*	*-0.10*	-0.12	-0.14	-0.15	*-0.10*
Passive leadership	*0.10*	0.35	0.11	0.15		0.14			0.14	0.14	0.11	0.14	0.14	0.27	0.17
Role-modeling leadership	-0.22	-0.40	-0.19	-0.29	-0.19	-0.22	-0.15	-0.21	-0.25	-0.16	-0.14	-0.29	-0.23	-0.37	-0.26
Integrity-focused leadership	-0.18	-0.38	-0.17	-0.28	-0.14	-0.16	-0.13	-0.13	-0.19	*-0.11*	*-0.11*	-0.23	-0.21	-0.28	-0.21
Unethical leadership	0.13	0.41	0.18	0.19	0.14	0.16	0.14	0.12	0.24	*0.10*	*0.09*	0.17	0.15	0.26	0.17

Note: Only significant correlations are included. Correlations that are significant at the .05 level are printed in italics; all other correlations are significant at the .01 level. The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authorities; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct

8.4 Direct effects of leadership: regression analysis

The first step in determining whether leadership directly or indirectly affects the integrity violations observed by respondents is a multiple regression analysis that computes the correlations between certain variables while holding other variables constant. Doing so allows measurement of the relative importance of the independent variables because it removes the potential or distorting influences of other predictor variables (Lewis-Beck, 1980). That is, if the variables for ethical culture and the acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment) mediate the relationship between leadership and integrity violations, the direct effects of leadership shown in the correlational analysis will be smaller or even disappear.

For this study, a multiple *ordinal* regression analysis (the PLUM[37]) was carried out, whose results are presented in tables 8.4, 8.5, and 8.6. The analysis controls not only for the independent variables but also for several background variables,[38] which, although not given in the tables, are discussed in text when they contribute significantly to the dependent variable. The tables do present the significant estimates for the independent variables, as well as a measure for the overall explained variance (the Nagelkerke *R* square: $R2_N$).[39]

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[37] The data were checked using Gauss-Markov assumptions of linearity, normality of distribution, and homoscedasticity of the variance. The dependent variables (the types of integrity violations), particularly, failed severely to meet these assumptions. As result the more commonly used linear regression analysis was not an option, so ordinal regression analysis (one of the categorical regression techniques available in the SPSS package) was used instead. This measure uses the PoLytomous Universal Model (PLUM; based on McCullagh, 1980) with the logit option as link. Because it is infeasible to explain the exact procedure here, the reader is referred for details to Jansen, 1991, Johnson and Albert, 1999, and O'Connell, 2006.

[38] The background variables are sex, age, position (executive versus nonexecutive), length of tenure, district/division, supervisory position (staff, district/division, team/unit, operational or group level), expertise supervising in the team (more or less than a year), number of subordinates (size of the unit), and frequency of contact with the supervisor (more than once a day to less than once a week).

[39] The estimates in the ordinal regression analysis, which are included in the tables, are in log-odds; the regression coefficients represent the change in the logit for each one-unit increase in X once the effects of all other independent variables in the model are controlled for. The *log-odds* estimates in an ordinal regression analysis are somewhat comparable to the estimates in a linear regression analysis in that positive estimates represent positive effects and negative estimates indicate negative effects on the dependent variable. Therefore, the tables include these estimates but not the odds *ratios* (OR) that

Direct effects of leadership on ethical culture dimensions. As table 8.4 illustrates, not all leadership styles affect the ethical culture. For example, *clarity* is affected by role-modeling leadership and to a lesser degree by integrity-focused leadership but not by the other leadership styles. In other words, only ethical leadership styles count for clarifying organizational norms and rules. On the other hand, *achievability* (availability of means, information, and time to carry out tasks and reach realistic targets) is positively affected by inspirational leadership, passive leadership, role-modeling leadership, and integrity-focused leadership but remains unaffected by result-oriented leadership and is negatively affected by unethical leadership. Most remarkable is the positive impact of passive leadership, which indicates that it is better not to steer at all than focus strongly on results as in result-oriented leadership. One explanation might lie in the fact that the passive leader does not expect a high level of effort but is satisfied with meeting minimal work standards. In contrast, *transparency* is affected by inspirational leadership, result-oriented leadership, and integrity-focused leadership but not by passive or unethical leadership, while role-modeling leadership is inappropriate to the creation of a culture in which deviant behavior is easily detectable. *Discussability/sanctionability* and *supportability*, however, are affected by role-modeling leadership and integrity-focused leadership, with the latter having the strongest effect. Overall, ethical leadership styles are most conducive to a culture in which integrity is discussed frequently.

Some background variables also play a role, with age and length of tenure showing the strongest results. Younger respondents (<25 years) experience less achievability in the ethical culture and, like respondents with less than a year of tenure, perceive less clarity within it.

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statisticians more commonly consider as the variable effects. The statistical significance of the estimates is assessed using a Wald chi-square test of whether the regression coefficient (β) is statistically different from zero (e.g., O’Connell, 2006:16). The Nagelkerke *R*2 for logit analysis ($R2_N$) gives an idea of the overall explained variance of the dependent variable (with a bound of 1.0 analogue to the *R*2 for OLS). The model is also assessed for fit using the measure for deviance (*D*) (e.g., O’Connell, 2006:14-24). The exact statistics for each model are available from the author upon request.

Table 8.4 Ordinal regression analysis (PLUM) of the impact of independent variables on the ethical culture dimensions (n = 536)

	Dependent variables				
	Clarity	Achievability	Transparency	Discussability/ sanctionability	Support-ability
$R2_N$	0.39	0.37	0.17	0.67	0.43
Independent variables					
Inspirational leadership		0.58	*0.44*		
Result-oriented leadership			*0.32*		
Passive leadership		0.37			
Role-modeling leadership	1.44	0.44		*0.40*	0.57
Integrity-focused leadership	0.55	0.51	0.54	2.66	1.24
Unethical leadership		*-0.28*			

Note: Only significant estimates are included. Estimates that are significant at the .05 level are printed in italics; all other estimates are significant at the .01 level; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean.

Direct effects of leadership and ethical culture on the acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment). It should first be noted that in the regression equations for the acceptability of integrity violations (see Table 8.5), a positive number means a negative impact (i.e., more acceptability of the type of integrity violation in question) while a negative number means a positive impact (i.e., less acceptability of the type of integrity violation in question).

In general, clarity shows the best results in that the acceptability of most integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment) is positively affected by the norms and rules for that behavior being made clear. Most remarkable is that result-oriented leadership, passive leadership, and unethical leadership show no significant effect on the acceptability of any integrity violations, and nor does the ethical culture aspect of discussability/sanctionability. Because the effects of the other variables vary according to integrity violation type, they are discussed in terms of type below.

In terms of the acceptability of *corruption: bribing*, clarity has a significant positive impact, whereas transparency also scores significantly but has a negative impact.[40] As regards the acceptability of *corruption: favoritism by supervisors*, integrity-focused leadership has a significantly positive impact in that respondents who perceive their supervisor as having an integrity-focused leadership style find favoritism by supervisors (i.e., by superiors) less acceptable. Achievability and transparency also score significantly but have a negative impact. On the other hand, clarity has no significant effect, which might be explained by the lack of a norm or rule for such behavior. Yet only clarity has a significant positive impact on the acceptability of *corruption: favoritism by employees*, thus, the acceptability of favoring friends, family, or former colleagues is only addressed by making the rules and norms clear.

The only significant effect that emerged for the acceptability of *fraud* (i.e., the private use of organizational resources) was integrity-focused leadership: supervisors that discuss, are alert to, and sanction the use of organizational resources for private purposes can influence the moral acceptability judgment of such behavior. On the other hand, acceptability of *theft* was only significantly negatively impacted by inspirational leadership. In contrast, the acceptability of *conflict of interest through gifts* was significantly positively influenced by role-modeling leadership and clarity, thus, supervisors who clarify the values and norms that should be lived up to and show exemplary behavior themselves are enforcing the norms and rules. Likewise, clarity has a significant positive impact on the acceptability of *conflict of interest through jobs*, while supportability has a negative impact. The *improper use of authority* and *manipulation and misuse of information* is also significantly influenced by clarity, while the same holds true for the acceptability of *discrimination against colleagues* and *indecent treatment of customers*: clarity is the only factor that has a significant positive impact on the acceptability of such behavior, which is worth noting as indecent treatment of customers is relatively more accepted than discrimination (see chapter seven, table 7.4).

For *sexual harassment of colleagues* integrity-focused leadership aids its moral acceptability judgment, while inspirational leadership has a significantly negative impact. Inspirational leadership also results in a significantly negative impact on the more commonly accepted *indecent treatment of colleagues* (see chapter seven, table 7.4), while clarity again helps to enforce the desired norm, and it, together with integrity-focused leadership, shows a significantly positive impact. In terms of the acceptability of *private time misconduct*, however, clarity and role-modeling leadership exert a significantly positive influence but supportability has a negative impact.

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[40] However, it remains difficult to interpret this effect. Because the bivariate correlations (see Table 8.2, p.125) show no significant relationship between transparency and bribing, there is a possibility that suppression effects occurred in the ordinal regression analysis: a predictor which has no correlation with the criterium variable is included with a negative weight in the equation to remove undesirable variance in another predictor. In these cases (for example also for the relationship of inspirational leadership with theft, sexual harassment and indecent treatment of colleagues) the outcomes will be ignored and further dealt with in the structural equation modeling with AMOS (section 8.5).

Some background variables also play a role in the acceptability of integrity violations, with most effects being rather strong, which indicates that employee moral acceptability judgment is determined by individual characteristics such as sex and age or work characteristics like type of work or district/division. For example, younger respondents find fraud (i.e., the private use of organizational resources) and waste and abuse (e.g., laziness and the careless use of organizational properties) more acceptable than do older employees. It is also probably not surprising that the criminal investigation division has stricter norms on theft and accepting gifts than other divisions or districts. More remarkable are the effects of supervisory characteristics: respondents whose supervisor places on a lower organizational level (team/unit, operational and group supervisor) find private time misconduct more acceptable. Moreover, when the subordinates supervised number fewer than 50, it has a significant negative impact on the acceptability of improper use of authority, while respondents that have less frequent contact with their supervisor find waste and abuse more acceptable.

Finally, it is important to note that the regression analysis results indicate that leadership appears to have primarily indirect, rather than direct, effects on employee perceptions of (i.e., moral judgment on) the acceptability of integrity violations. Indeed, many of the bivariate correlations shown in table 8.2 disappear in the regression equations.

Direct effects of leadership, ethical culture, and moral acceptability judgment on observed frequency of integrity violations. In the table 8.6 regression equations for the observed frequency of integrity violations, a positive number for the leadership and ethical culture variables (but not for the acceptability variable) again means a negative impact (i.e., higher observed frequency of that type of integrity violation), while a negative number means a positive impact (i.e., lower observed frequency of that type of integrity violation).

Table 8.5 Ordinal regression analysis (PLUM) on the impact of independent variables on the acceptability of integrity violations ($n = 536$)

	Dependent variables														
	Acceptability of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
$R2_N$	0.19	0.15	0.20	0.16	0.56	0.20	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.19	1.00	0.15	0.14	0.20	0.17
Independent variables															
Inspirational leadership					*1.16*						*1.76*	0.56			
Result-oriented leadership															
Passive leadership															
Role-modeling leadership						*-0.43*					-2.55	*-0.45*			*-0.42*
Integrity-focused leadership		-0.81		-0.59										*-0.58*	
Unethical leadership															
Clarity	*-0.63*		-0.68			-0.36	-0.54	-0.58	-0.76	-0.77		-0.36	-0.58	-0.48	-0.55
Achievability		*0.35*													
Transparency	*0.56*	*0.29*													
Discussability/sanctionability															
Supportability							*0.35*								*0.36*

Note: Only significant estimates are included. Estimates that are significant at the .05 level are printed in italics; all other estimates are significant at the .01 level; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing, 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors, 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees, 3a. Fraud, 3b. Theft, 4. Conflict of interest through gifts, 5. Conflict of interest through jobs, 6. Improper use of authority, 7. Manipulation and misuse of information, 8a. Discrimination against colleagues, 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues, 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues, 8d. Indecent treatment of customers, 9. Waste and abuse, 10. Private time misconduct.

Table 8.6 Ordinal regression analysis (PLUM) regarding the impact of independent variables on the observed frequency of integrity violations ($n = 536$)

	Dependent variables														
	Observed frequency of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
$R2_N$	0.21	0.41	0.36	0.44	0.29	0.48	0.18	0.26	0.27	0.21	0.16	0.38	0.31	0.36	0.35
Independent variables															
Inspirational leadership		*-0.46*													
Result-oriented leadership															
Passive leadership														0.36	
Role-modeling leadership	*-0.75*	*-0.41*													*-0.37*
Integrity-focused leadership										*0.60*					
Unethical leadership		*0.31*							*0.29*						
Clarity															
Achievability					*-0.37*		*-0.29*				*-0.41*				
Transparency					*-0.36*		*0.27*								
Discussability/ sanctionability		-0.71					*-0.52*			*-0.56*		*-0.47*	*-0.45*		
Supportability			-0.46	-0.68						*-0.54*		-0.79	-0.56	-0.74	
Acceptability		0.76	2.18	1.91	2.51	1.89	0.68	1.75	2.54	2.38		1.81	1.54	1.75	1.37

Note: Only significant estimates are included. Estimates that are significant at the .05 level are printed in italics; all other estimates are significant at the .01 level; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing, 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors, 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees, 3a. Fraud, 3b. Theft, 4. Conflict of interest through gifts, 5. Conflict of interest through jobs, 6. Improper use of authority, 7. Manipulation and misuse of information, 8a. Discrimination against colleagues, 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues, 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues, 8d. Indecent treatment of customers, 9. Waste and abuse, 10. Private time misconduct.

This table makes it immediately clear that acceptability (moral acceptability judgment) is the main factor in the observed frequency of each type of integrity violation. In general, the more acceptable an integrity violation is judged to be, the more it is observed in the direct environment. Specifically, acceptability has a significant impact on the observed frequency of almost all integrity violations with the exception of corruption: bribing and sexual harassment. Thus, particularly given that many of the bivariate correlations shown earlier in table 8.3 have disappeared in the regression equations, these results point to the indirect effects of leadership styles and ethical culture dimensions on the observed frequency of integrity violations through employee moral acceptability judgment.[41] The most remarkable result is that clarity, the most important factor for the acceptability of integrity violations, has no significant impact on the observed frequency of any integrity violation. The same holds true for result-oriented leadership. The effects of the other variables vary and are therefore discussed based on type of integrity violation.

For the observed frequency of *corruption: bribing*, role-modeling leadership has a significant positive impact. That is, even though bribing is hardly ever observed (see chapter seven, table 7.4), the regression results suggest that supervisors who communicate the importance of integrity, clarify the values and norms that should be lived up to, never authorize illegal or unethical conduct to meet organizational goals, and show exemplary behavior themselves play a major part in ensuring its absence.[42] For the observed frequency of *corruption: favoritism by supervisors*, however, direct significantly positive impacts are found not only for role-modeling leadership, but also for inspirational leadership, the acceptability of favoritism by supervisors, and discussability/sanctionability. Conversely, and not surprisingly, a significant negative impact is found for unethical leadership. The observed frequency of *corruption: favoritism by employees* and *fraud* (i.e. the private use of organizational resources) is influenced not only by acceptability but also by supportability, which has a significantly positive influence, probably because favoring friends and family and the use of organizational resources for private purposes are successfully addressed when colleagues call each other to account within a culture of mutual trust.

In terms of the observed frequency of *theft*, achievability and transparency, as well as the acceptability of each, have significant positive impacts. Although theft is barely observed (see chapter seven, table 7.4), the regression results show that respondents who experience more achievability and transparency in the ethical culture perceive less theft of organizational properties. However, for the observed frequency of *conflict of interest through gifts,* only acceptability of that behavior counts: the effects of leadership (role modeling) and the ethical culture (clarity) occur only indirectly through employee moral judgment (see table 8.5). On the other hand, the observed frequency of *conflict of interest through jobs* is significantly positively impacted not only by acceptability but also by achievability and discussability/sanctionability, whereas the observed level of sideline activities is significantly negatively affected by transparency.

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[41] The next step is to conduct an AMOS analysis in which it is possible to estimate the direct and indirect effects of leadership styles and ethical culture dimensions on the observed frequency of integrity violations in a single model (see section 8.5).

[42] As already discussed extensively in chapter five, a relationship is assumed between the observed level of integrity violations and the actual level of integrity violations.

As regards the observed frequency of *improper use of authority* and *manipulation and misuse of information,* only acceptability has a significant positive effect, although the latter is also influenced by unethical leadership: respondents who evaluate their supervisor as having an unethical leadership style observe more manipulation and misuse of information. Likewise, acceptability has a significant positive effect on the observed frequency of *discrimination against colleagues* and *indecent treatment of colleagues or customers*, which are also significantly positively impacted by discussability/sanctionability and supportability; that is, the more these ethical culture dimensions are experienced, the less discrimination and indecent treatment is observed. On the other hand, integrity-focused leadership has a significantly negative impact on discrimination.[43] Yet the impact of achievability on the observed frequency of *sexual harassment* is significantly positive; that is, although minimally observed (see chapter seven, table 7.4), such behavior is more observed by respondents who report *not* having sufficient information, means, and time at their disposal to carry out their tasks responsibly and feel that the targets set are not realistic.

The frequency of *waste and abuse* is negatively influenced by passive leadership: the more supervisors avoid interfering, the more waste and abuse is observed. Positive impacts are nevertheless found for supportability and the acceptability of this kind of behavior. Acceptability, as well as role-modeling leadership, also has a significant positive impact on the observed frequency of *private time misconduct*. Most particularly, supervisors that communicate the importance of integrity, clarify the values and norms that should be lived up to, and show exemplary behavior themselves can reduce unethical behavior by off-duty employees.

Again, some background variables also play a role in the observed frequency of integrity violations, although the effects found are weaker than in the case of employee moral acceptability judgment. Not surprisingly, men perceive less discrimination and sexual harassment than women. Moreover, more corruption: favoritism by employees is observed in the districts than in the divisions, with criminal investigation division respondents, particularly, perceiving significantly less favoritism of friends and family. Respondents in the districts also reported perceiving more conflict of interest through jobs, manipulation and misuse of information, indecent treatment of customers, and private time misconduct. Most remarkable is the rather strong effect found for having a supervisor on the district level: these respondents observed more manipulation and misuse of information and more waste and abuse than respondents whose supervisor placed on other levels (staff, team/unit, operational or group level).

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[43] See note 40.

To complete the analysis and glean insights into the total effects of leadership on the observed level of integrity violations, single models of the direct and indirect effects of leadership are now estimated and reported in the following section.

8.5 Direct and indirect effects of leadership: structural equation modeling with AMOS

The regression analysis provided an initial impression of the direct and indirect effects of leadership on the acceptability (moral acceptability judgment) and frequency of integrity violations through ethical culture. Specifically, it showed that the effects of leadership are probably mediated because the direct relationship between leadership and integrity violations – as shown in the correlational analysis – became weaker or even disappeared. A more powerful tool for exploring the direct and indirect effects of leadership is structural equation modeling (SEM) using such statistical packages as LISREL or AMOS, which enables causal path analysis. In such analyses, the direct, indirect, and total effects (i.e., the sum of the direct and indirect effects) can be estimated in a single model.[44] However, as stated previously,[45] the data in this study are not appropriate for multiple linear regression, the basic technique for these causal path analysis programs, and unfortunately, no such software is as yet easily available for categorical data.[46] Nevertheless, many scientists (e.g., O'Connell, 2006:3) argue that linear regression techniques are very robust; therefore, social sciences often apply parametric models for ordinal outcomes. Hence, an analysis was conducted using AMOS (part of the SPSS-package analysis) in a first attempt to explore the factors that directly or indirectly influence the (observed) frequency of integrity violations.

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[44] For further discussion of direct, indirect and total effects, see Kline (1998:52).

[45] See note 37.

[46] SEM for categorical dependent data can be performed either via classical generalized latent variable models or through Bayesian modeling (e.g., Lee, 2007; Skrondal & Rabe-Hesketh, 2004); however, statistical software to perform such analyses, such as GLLAMM (Rabe-Hesketh, Skrondal & Pickles, 2004) and Winbugs (Spiegelhalter, Thomas, Best & Lunn, 2004) are not readily available to the larger (scientific) public in that they require specific programming and are computationally very intensive.

Prior to the SEM analysis, however, a multiple linear regression analysis was carried out and the results compared with those for an ordinal regression analysis.[47] Although different results emerged, the differences were not as large as expected; therefore, those variables that proved influential in the multiple *ordinal* regression analysis were chosen for inclusion in the structural equation models. Only variables were chosen, however, that are amenable to organizational interference, so the background variables, which are more or less fixed, were omitted.

The direct and indirect effects of the leadership variables on the observed frequency of integrity violation were estimated in a single model for each type of integrity violation.[48] All 15 path diagrams that resulted from the AMOS analyses are included in Appendix D. In each of these models, the exact paths of influence from all included variables (i.e., leadership styles, ethical culture dimensions, and moral acceptability judgment) are identifiable for each type of integrity violation. Thus, it is easy to identify what helps protect organizational integrity and how each type of integrity violations might be addressed through a combined approach of leadership styles working directly or indirectly by improving the ethical culture in the direct work environment and enhancing employee moral acceptability judgment. The total effects (i.e., the sum of the direct and indirect effects) for all included variables on the *observed frequency* of integrity violations are given in table 8.7, while the total effects for all included variables on the

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[47] The results for the linear regression are given in tables C8, C9 and C10 in Appendix C.

[48] The models were checked for fit on several requirements (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999). First, *chi-square* tests of the null hypothesis confirmed that the overidentified (reduced default) model adequately fit the data as did a just-identified (full saturated) model and was nonsignificant for all 15 models. *CMIN/DF*, the relative chi-square that indexes how much the fit of data to model has been reduced by dropping one or more paths, never exceeded 2 or 3, and in all models the goodness-of-fit indexes, *GFI* and *AGFI*, and *NFI* and *CFI*, exceeded the .9 required for a good model. The Tucker-Lewis-Index (*TLI*) exceeded .96 in all models, and the *RMSEA* lack of fit compared to the saturated model was .05 or less, which indicates a good fit. The dataset size for this study was never larger than the sample size given by HOELTER .01, indicating that all 15 models adequately fit the data as did the saturated model. All models are parsimonious and contain as few paths as possible. The exact statistics are available from the author upon request.

acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment) are presented in table 8.8.

Direct and indirect effects of leadership, ethical culture, and moral acceptability judgment on observed frequency of integrity violations. Of these three factors, *employee moral acceptability judgment* has the strongest impact on the observed level of all types of integrity violations (see table 8.7). That is, the acceptability of an integrity violation type positively affects its observed frequency: the more acceptable the integrity violation, the more it is observed in the direct environment.

The most influential leadership styles are *role-modeling leadership* and *integrity-focused leadership*. The former has the most positive (i.e. limiting) impact with small or moderate negative (total) effects on the observed level of all types of integrity violations. The latter also affects the observed frequency of all integrity violation types distinguished, but the effects are in general much smaller than for role-modeling leadership, although it does have a moderate (total) effect on corruption: bribing and corruption: favoritism by employees. *Inspirational leadership* has a few total effects on the observed level of integrity violations; most particularly, a moderate negative (i.e., allowing) impact on corruption: bribing. In general it appears that within the complete picture of all influence relationships between the variables, the total effect of inspirational leadership on the observed frequency of integrity violations is nil or indicating a small allowing impact. In contrast, *result-oriented leadership, passive leadership,* and *unethical leadership* have almost no influence on the observed frequency of integrity violations, although the latter does have a moderate negative (i.e., allowing) impact on corruption: favoritism by supervisors. In general, it can be assumed that these leadership styles have no profound impact on the observed level of integrity violations.

Among the ethical culture dimensions, *discussability/sanctionability* and *supportability* have the strongest influence on the observed frequency of integrity violations. Specifically, the former has moderate positive impacts on the observed frequency of corruption: favoritism by supervisors, conflict of interest through jobs, discrimination against colleagues, and indecent treatment of colleagues and customers, while the latter has moderate positive impacts on the observed level of fraud (i.e., the private use of organizational resources), discrimination against colleagues, indecent treatment of colleagues and customers, and waste and abuse. *Clarity* has a small positive total impact on the observed frequency of most types of integrity violations, with the exception of corruption: favoritism by supervisors, fraud, theft, and sexual harassment. In contrast, *achievability* and *transparency* have no impact on the observed frequency of most integrity violations. Nevertheless, within the complete picture of all influence relationships, achievability does positively affect the observed frequency of theft, conflict of interests through jobs, and sexual harassment, and transparency not only positively affects the observed frequency of theft but has a negative (total) impact on the observed frequency of conflict of interests through jobs and manipulation and misuse of information. This counterintuitive result might be logically explained by the fact that more transparency might indirectly lead to increased visibility of these integrity violations.

Direct and indirect effects of leadership and ethical culture on the acceptability of integrity violations (moral acceptability judgment). Given the important role of moral acceptability judgment in the observed frequency of all integrity violations, it is worth examining the total effects of the independent and intermediate variables on the acceptability of integrity violations (see table 8.8) to gain a better understanding of the processes of influence.

As regards the acceptability of integrity violations, *role-modeling leadership* is the most influential leadership style, with (total) effects found for all types of integrity violations. Presumably, supervisors who communicate the importance of integrity, clarify the values and norms that should be lived up to, never authorize illegal or unethical conduct to meet organizational goals, and show exemplary behavior themselves can positively affect employee moral acceptability judgment. *Integrity-focused leadership* also affects the acceptability of almost all types of the integrity violations identified but its positive impact is weaker than that for role-modeling leadership and its influence on the acceptability of conflict of interests through jobs, the manipulation and misuse of information, sexual harassment, and private time misconduct is on the whole small and negative. *Inspirational leadership* does have a few moderate effects on the acceptability of integrity violations; however, the total effects found on the acceptability of corruption: bribing, corruption: favoritism by supervisors, theft, sexual harassment, and indecent treatment of colleagues indicate a negative impact. In contrast, *result-oriented leadership, passive leadership,* and *unethical leadership* have almost no influence on integrity violation acceptability, although passive leadership contributes negatively to the acceptability of corruption: favoritism by supervisors, while unethical leadership negatively impacts the acceptability of theft. The few other effects found were negligible. In other words, all these leadership styles have no real impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.

Among the ethical culture dimensions, *clarity* has the most positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment, moderately influencing the acceptability of most types of integrity violations. However, no impact was found for the acceptability of corruption: favoritism by supervisors, fraud, theft, or sexual harassment. Rather, comparing the effect of clarity on acceptability (table 8.8) with the observed frequency of integrity violations (table 8.7) makes it clear that the impact of clarity works primarily in an indirect manner on the observed frequency of integrity violations through moral acceptability judgment (see also tables 8.5 and 8.6). In addition, *supportability* has some smaller effects on the acceptability of integrity violations, but its impact varies. Small positive impacts were also found for the acceptability of discrimination against colleagues and indecent treatment of customers, but these impacts are negative for the acceptability of corruption: favoritism by employees, fraud (i.e., the private use of organizational resources), conflict of interests through jobs, waste and abuse, and private time misconduct. However, with the exception of conflict of interests through jobs, this negative impact is compensated for by the direct positive impacts of supportability on their observed level (see tables 8.5 and 8.6). In contrast, *discussability/sanctionability* has almost no effect on employee moral acceptability judgment: this ethical culture aspect, which works primarily in a direct manner (see table 8.7), appears to positively impact only the acceptability of indecent treatment of customers. Likewise, *achievability* and *transparency* have virtually no influence on the acceptability of integrity violations; however, when they do, the impact is negative.

Table 8.7 Structural equation modeling (AMOS) of the standardized total effects of independent variables and intermediate variables on the observed frequency of integrity violations (n = 536)

	Dependent variables														
	Observed frequency of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Independent variables															
Inspirational leadership	0.22	-0.09			0.06		0.01					0.08			
Result-oriented leadership	-0.01	0.08			-0.04		0.03								
Passive leadership		0.02			-0.05						-0.02			0.08	
Role-modeling leadership	-0.11	-0.17	-0.08	-0.21	-0.19	-0.16	-0.12	-0.13	-0.13	-0.08	-0.06	-0.27	-0.11	-0.26	-0.19
Integrity-focused leadership	-0.25	-0.13	-0.21	-0.13	-0.01	-0.06	-0.07	-0.08	-0.10	-0.13	-0.02	-0.10	-0.12	-0.06	-0.11
Unethical leadership		0.20			0.06		0.01				0.01				
Intermediate variables															
Clarity	0.04		-0.07			-0.10	-0.07	-0.17	-0.06	-0.04		-0.08	-0.09	-0.08	-0.07
Achievability		-0.07			-0.18		-0.13				-0.11				
Transparency	0.01	0.01			-0.10		0.11		0.14						
Discussability/ sanctionability		-0.24					-0.17			-0.26		-0.21	-0.24		
Supportability			-0.03	-0.17			0.04			-0.19		-0.29	-0.26	-0.22	-0.01
Acceptability	0.18	0.22	0.46	0.53	0.25	0.59	0.22	0.32	0.33	0.28	0.16	0.38	0.33	0.25	0.35

Note: The numbers represent the standardized total effects on the observed frequency of integrity violations, which is the sum of the direct and indirect effects (see appendix D); however, the effects must be interpreted with some caution because they were computed with parametric modulation; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authorities; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

Table 8.8 Structural equation modeling (AMOS) on the standardized total effects of independent variables and intermediate variables on the acceptability of integrity violations (n = 536)

	Dependent variables														
	Acceptability of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Independent variables															
Inspirational leadership	0.12	0.29			0.14		0.02				0.12	0.26			
Result-oriented leadership	-0.06	0.01			-0.08		0.01								
Passive leadership		0.13			-0.06						0.01			-0.01	
Role-modeling leadership	-0.12	0.01	-0.16	-0.15	-0.16	-0.20	-0.26	-0.25	-0.23	-0.04	-0.22	-0.33	-0.09	-0.19	-0.24
Integrity-focused leadership	-0.10	-0.31	-0.07	-0.08		-0.02	0.03	-0.02	0.04	-0.04	0.02	-0.12	-0.07	-0.15	0.03
Unethical leadership		0.07			0.14				0.02		-0.01				
Intermediate variables															
Clarity	-0.11		-0.21			-0.17	-0.21	-0.17	-0.19	-0.07		-0.12	-0.19	-0.13	-0.21
Achievability		0.07									0.10				
Transparency	0.05	0.07													
Discussability/ sanctionability													-0.07		
Supportability			0.10	0.08			0.10			-0.08			-0.02	0.07	0.09

Note: The numbers represent the standardized total effects on the observed frequency of integrity violations, which is the sum of the direct and indirect effects (see Appendix D); however, the effects must be interpreted with some caution because they were computed with parametric modulation; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authorities; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

8.6 Hypotheses testing and conclusion

This chapter has explored the effects of leadership on the observed frequency of integrity violations, which finally resulted in fifteen overall models for understanding the relationship between (ethical) leadership styles, ethical culture dimensions, moral acceptability judgment, and (the observed frequency of) each (sub)type of integrity violations. On the basis of these final results, the hypotheses formulated at the end of chapter four can now be tested, meaning that the impact of the various (ethical) leadership styles on moral acceptability judgment and the observed frequency of integrity violations will be described based on the total (i.e., direct and indirect) effects. Following this basic discussion of whether or not the data support the hypotheses[49], chapter nine will present more profound conclusions and an extensive discussion of the implications for future research and organizational practice.

Hypothesis 1: When employees evaluate integrity violations as morally unacceptable, this type of moral judgment (i.e. moral acceptability judgment) limits the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

The moral acceptability judgment of employees was measured by their evaluations of the acceptability of integrity violations, while the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations was measured by their observations of such violations. Before analysis, the integrity violations were divided into 15 scales that represent the ten (theoretical) types of integrity violations (see chapters two and six).

The results show that, relatively, moral acceptability judgment has the strongest limiting impact on the observed level of all types of integrity violations. The acceptability of an integrity violation positively affects the observed level of *that* type of integrity violations. In other words, the more acceptable the integrity violation type, the more it is observed in the direct environment and vice versa. Thus, hypothesis 1 is supported by the data.

Hypothesis 2a: Transformational leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

The results for transformational leadership, measured by the inspirational leadership scale, indicate that inspirational leadership has only few marginal (total) effects on the observed level of integrity violations. Moreover, if other leadership styles are controlled for, some results suggest that inspirational leadership is associated with a *higher* observed frequency of integrity violations. Therefore (as discussed in more detail in the final chapter), hypothesis 2a is not supported by the data.

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[49] The hypothesistesting is, ofcourse, based on the chosen research design and measures with all its pros and cons (see chapter five and six).

> *Hypothesis 2b*: Transactional leadership has a smaller limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations than does transformational leadership.

According to the data on transactional leadership, measured partly by the result-oriented leadership scale (see chapter six), result-oriented leadership seems to have almost no influence on the observed frequency of integrity violations. Hence, hypothesis 2b is not supported by the data.

> *Hypothesis 2c*: Laissez-faire leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

The results for laissez-faire leadership, measured by the passive leadership scale, show that it has almost no influence (positive or negative) on the observed frequency of integrity violations. Thus, it can generally be concluded that this leadership style has no profound impact on the observed level of integrity violations and hypothesis 2c is not supported.

> *Hypothesis 3a*: Transformational leadership has a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.

Inspirational leadership does have a few moderate (total) effects on employee evaluations of the acceptability of integrity violations; however, surprisingly, within this complete picture of influence relationships, these indicate a negative impact. The more the inspirational leadership, the more employees see integrity violations as morally acceptable. Although the results are not conclusive[50], hypothesis 3a is not supported by the data.

> *Hypothesis 3b*: Transactional leadership has no impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.

Result-oriented leadership has almost no influence on the acceptability of integrity violations, suggesting that this transactional leadership style has no real impact on employee moral acceptability judgment. Hence, the data support hypothesis 3b.

In addition, the data indicate that passive leadership has virtually no influence on the *acceptability* of integrity violations with the exception of corruption: favoritism by supervisors (to which passive leadership seems to contribute negatively). In general, a passive leadership style has no real impact on employee moral acceptability judgment, which leads to an additional hypothesis suggested by the study data:

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[50] See note 40.

> *Hypothesis 3c*: Laissez-faire (i.e., passive) leadership has no impact on employee moral acceptability judgment

A number of the other hypotheses address ethical and unethical leadership styles and their impact on the presence and acceptability of integrity violations.

> *Hypothesis 4a:* Ethical leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

The results for ethical leadership, measured by the role-modeling leadership and integrity-focused leadership scales, indicate that, relatively, both are the most influential leadership styles. That is, while role-modeling leadership has the highest positive (i.e., limiting) impact on the observed level of all types of integrity violations, integrity-focused leadership also affects the observed frequency of all integrity violations, but these effects are generally much smaller than those of role-modeling leadership. Hypothesis 4a is thus supported by the data.

> *Hypothesis 4b*: Unethical leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

According to the data, unethical leadership has virtually no influence on the observed frequency of integrity violations, although it does have a moderate negative (i.e., allowing) impact on corruption: favoritism by supervisors. All other effects were negligible. Therefore, hypothesis 4b is not supported by the data.

> *Hypothesis 5a*: Ethical leadership has a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.

In terms of the acceptability of integrity violations, role-modeling leadership has the most positive impact on moral acceptability judgment and is therefore, relatively, the most influential leadership style. Integrity-focused leadership also affects the acceptability of almost all types of integrity violations, but its positive impact is smaller than that of role-modeling leadership. Thus, hypothesis 5a is generally supported by the data but most particularly for the case of role-modeling leadership.

> *Hypothesis 5b*: Unethical leadership has a negative impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.

Unethical leadership has almost no influence on the acceptability of integrity violations except for a negative impact on the acceptability of theft. Hence, in general, hypothesis 5b is not supported by the data.

> *Hypothesis 6*: (Ethical) leadership is related strongly to the ethical culture.

For this hypothesis, the results from the ordinal regression analysis (table 8.4) are decisive. Clarity is affected by role-modeling leadership and to a lesser degree by integrity-focused leadership but not by the other leadership styles. In contrast, achievability is positively affected by inspirational leadership, passive leadership, role-modeling leadership, and integrity-focused leadership but remains unaffected by result-oriented leadership and is negatively affected by unethical leadership. Somewhat similarly, transparency is affected by inspirational leadership, result-oriented leadership, and integrity-focused leadership but not by role-modeling leadership, passive leadership, or unethical leadership. However, discussability/sanctionability and supportability are affected only by role-modeling leadership and integrity-focused leadership, with the latter having the strongest effect. Moreover, not all leadership styles affect ethical culture. Thus, hypothesis 6 is only partly supported by the data. [The relationship between leadership styles and the ethical culture is discussed in more detail in chapter nine].

> *Hypothesis 7*: Ethical culture has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.

The results for ethical culture, measured by the five distinct dimensions of clarity, achievability, transparency, discussability/ sanctionability and supportability, indicate that discussablity/sanctionability and supportability have the strongest positive (i.e., limiting) impacts on the observed frequency of integrity violations. Clarity also has small positive impacts on the observed frequency of *most* types of integrity violations, which remain, however, unaffected by achievability and transparency. Nevertheless, achievability does positively affect the observed frequency of theft, conflict of interests through jobs, and sexual harassment; while transparency positively affects the observed frequency of theft. Therefore, hypothesis 7 is, in general, supported by the data.

> *Hypothesis 8*: Ethical culture has a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.

Of the ethical culture dimensions, clarity has the most positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment, indicated by its moderate influence on the acceptability of almost all types of integrity violations. Moreover, comparing the effect of clarity on acceptability with the observed frequency of integrity violations makes clear that clarity works primarily in an indirect manner through employee moral acceptability judgment on the observed frequency of integrity violations. Supportability also has some smaller effects on the acceptability of integrity violations, although its impact varies; however, discussability/ sanctionability has almost no effect on employee moral acceptability judgment. Thus, this ethical culture dimension appears to works primarily in a direct manner (i.e., on the observed frequency of integrity violations). Likewise, achievability and transparency have almost no influence on the acceptability of integrity violations, but when they do, they seem to have a negative (total) impact. Overall, hypothesis 8 is only partly supported by the data, which leads to the following new hypotheses:

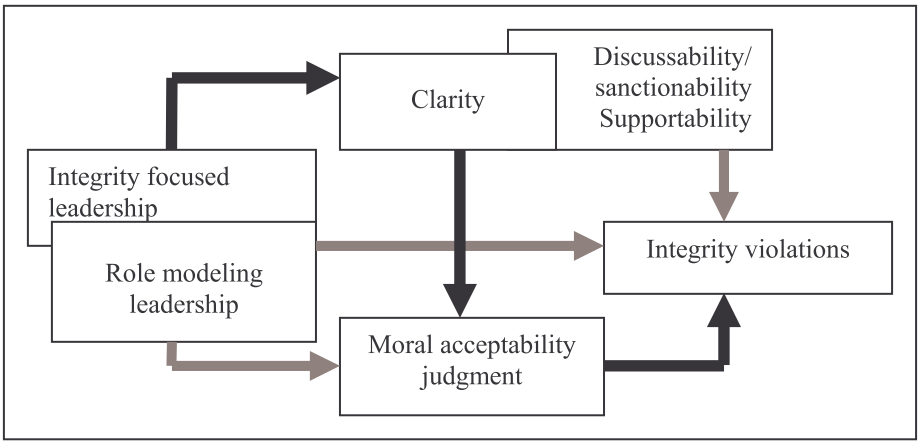
> *Hypothesis 8a*: The ethical culture dimensions of clarity and supportability have a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.
>
> *Hypothesis 8b*: The ethical culture dimension of discussability/ sanctionability, achievability and transparency have no impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.

In general, the results suggest that leadership addresses integrity violations in organizations indirectly. That is, it is the acceptability of an integrity violation that most affects its observed level, which implies that organizational integrity can best be protected or improved indirectly through employee moral acceptability judgment (see also Appendix D). If so, clarity should produce the best results because it affects moral acceptability judgment most and can best be promoted by role-modeling leadership, which works directly on both moral acceptability judgment and the observed level of integrity violations

Integrity-focused leadership also has a positive effect on clarity and a limiting impact on the observed level of integrity violations, but its impact on moral acceptability judgment varies. Finally, the ethical culture dimensions of discussability/sanctionability and supportability have the strongest limiting impacts on the observed frequency of types of integrity violations, which are in turn affected by role-modeling leadership and, most strongly, by integrity-focused leadership.

The model tested and graphed in figure 8.1 illustrates these findings, which lead to the overall conclusion that a combination of ethical leadership styles is most successful in limiting unethical employee behavior. Based on all the above, the last chapter ties all insights together and draws conclusions related to the central research question.

Figure 8.1 Tested model


Clarity
Discussability/
sanctionability
Supportability
Integrity focused
leadership
Role modeling
leadership
Integrity violations
Moral acceptability
judgment

9. Conclusions and Discussion

9.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter begins by outlining the research design (section 9.2) and the major findings of the field study (section 9.3 and 9.4). It then discusses the methodological, theoretical, and practical implications of these findings (section 9.5, 9.6 and 9.7) and proposes an agenda for future research (section 9.8).

9.2 Research question, concepts, model, and methods

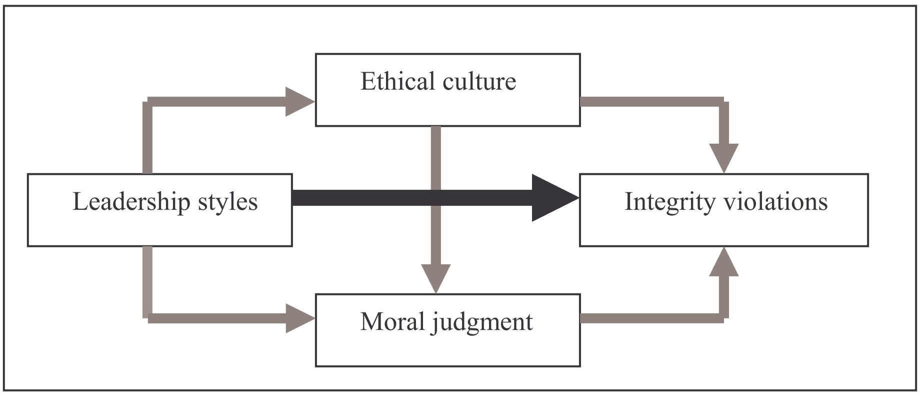
To assess what type of leadership helps protect the integrity of an organization and its employees, this research focused first on the following research question:

> *How and to what extent does leadership influence the integrity of an organization and its employees?*

This issue is important because despite a comprehensive, although often normatively slanted (cf. Kellerman & Webster, 2001; van Wart, 2003), body of literature on leadership, ethics, and integrity, there is little empirical data on the extent to which *different* leadership approaches contribute to organizational and employee integrity and discourage *different* types of integrity violations within an organizational context. Therefore, this research defined, conceptualized, and empirically operationalized distinct notions of (ethical) leadership and integrity violation types, as well as the mediating factors of ethical culture and moral acceptability judgment. The research's main aim was to make an empirical contribution to the primarily normative research in the field and put theory into practice for a better understanding of how integrity policies actually work.

The first research phase consisted of a review of the extant knowledge on and insights into ethics and leadership. Therefore, chapter two examined theories on ethics and integrity, after which chapter three addressed theories on leadership and ethical leadership. Chapter four then described the current status of empirical research on the relationship between leadership and integrity, which is particularly important to the study. This overview resulted in the basic assumption that leadership has a major influence on organizational integrity, assumedly by working directly on employee's moral judgments and actual moral behaviors, as manifested directly through the (observed) level and frequency of integrity violations and indirectly through the ethical culture and moral acceptability judgments about integrity violations. This dynamic is graphically conceptualized in figure 9.1, in which the relations between the different elements constitute the basic hypotheses to be tested.

Figure 9.1 Conceptual model



The definitions chosen for the main research concepts, selected from among the many different approaches proposed in the literature, are presented in table 9.1.

Table 9.1 Theoretical concepts and definitions

Concept and definition
Leadership: a process of social influence whereby a leader steers members of a group towards a goal, which in this study is the integrity of an organization and its employees (cf. Bryman, 1992).
Organizational leadership styles: three styles of leadership – inspirational, rational-objective, and passive (see e.g. den Hartog, 1997) – reflect the full range of leadership model of Bass and associates (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993).
Ethical leadership: "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and promotion of such conduct among followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making processes" (Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005:120).
Ethical leadership styles: role modeling through visible action, rewards and discipline, communicating about ethics and values (cf. Treviño, Hartman & Brown, 2000:131), and unethical leadership (cf. Craig & Gustafson, 1998).

Ethical culture: a slice of the overall organizational culture in which formal and informal elements work together to guide employee thought and action in the ethical domain and stimulate ethical behavior (cf. Treviño & Weaver, 2003).

Ethical culture dimensions: clarity (the degree to which organizational expectations towards the moral conduct of employees are accurate, concrete, and complete), achievability (the degree to which responsibilities can be carried out), transparency (the degree to which employee moral conduct and the consequences of their actions can be observed), discussability (the degree to which meeting responsibilities is open for discussion), sanctionability (the degree to which negative or positive sanctions can be applied in connection with (un)ethical conduct). and supportability (the degree to which employees experience support from coworkers for the proper use of organizational assets and the way they treat each other) (cf. Kaptein, 1998, 2008).

Moral acceptability judgment: employee evaluations of the acceptability of the ten types of integrity violations, which reflect their opinion of what is morally right and appropriate behavior (cf. Treviño & Weaver, 2003).

Organizational integrity: the quality of employee behavior in accordance with the values and norms, rules, and obligations of the organization and its environment (cf. Huberts, 1998).

Integrity violations: violations of the relevant moral values, norms, rules, and obligations classified by a typology of ten types: corruption (bribing and favoritism); fraud and theft; conflict of (private and public) interests through gifts, jobs, and activities; improper use of authority; abuse and manipulation of information; discrimination and sexual harassment; waste and abuse of organizational resources; and private time misconduct (cf. Huberts, Pijl & Steen, 1999).

The second research phase involved operationalizing the theoretical concepts for the empirical study in line with the central research question on the effects of leadership on integrity violations. Specifically, it generated quantitative data for analysis by formulating and administering a survey questionnaire in which each main element of the conceptual model was assessed using several items. To enhance the research validity, survey formulation drew as much as possible on existing and tested variables and scales, although these were adapted as needed to streamline the questionnaire. Table 9.2 lists the operationalized concepts.

Table 9.2 Operationalized concepts and measurement

Operationalized concept and measurement[51]
Organizational leadership styles: inspirational leadership, result-oriented leadership, and passive leadership. Example item: inspirational leadership: *My direct supervisor mobilizes a collective sense of mission.* Example item: result-oriented leadership: *My direct supervisor is alert for failure to meet performance targets.* Example item: passive leadership: *My direct supervisor only takes action when things go wrong.* Response scales: 1. *completely disagree;* 2. *disagree;* 3. *disagree more than agree;* 4. *agree more than disagree;* 5. *agree;* 6. *completely agree.*
Ethical leadership styles: role-modeling leadership, integrity-focused leadership, and unethical leadership. Example item: role-modeling leadership: *My direct supervisor sets a good example in terms of ethical behavior.* Example item: integrity-focused leadership: *My direct supervisor will call me or a colleague to account if he/she observes us behaving unethically.* Example item: unethical leadership: *My direct supervisor does not behave in a manner that is consistent with the values he/she expresses.* Response scales: 1. *completely disagree;* 2. *disagree;* 3. *disagree more than agree;* 4. *agree more than disagree;* 5. *agree;* 6. *completely agree.*
Ethical culture dimensions: clarity, achievability, transparency, discussability/sanctionability, and supportability. Example item: ethical culture: *Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity for discussing ethical dilemmas.* Response scales: 1. *completely disagree;* 2. *disagree;* 3. *disagree more than agree;* 4. *agree more than disagree;* 5. *agree;* 6. *completely agree.*
Types of integrity violations used for the *observed frequency* and *moral acceptability judgment*: 1. corruption: bribing, 2. corruption: favoritism by supervisors, 3. corruption: favoritism by employees, 4. fraud (i.e., private use of organizational resources), 5. theft, 6. conflict of interest through gifts, 7. conflict of interest through jobs, 8. improper use of authority, 9. misuse and manipulation of information, 10. discrimination against colleagues, 11. sexual harassment of colleagues, 12. indecent treatment of colleagues, 13. indecent treatment of customers, 14. waste and abuse, 15. private time misconduct. Example item: frequency of integrity violations: *In my opinion, theft of organizational properties has occurred in the past year within my unit:* Response scales: 0. *never;* 1. *once;* 2. *several;* 3. *regularly;* 4. *often (weekly).* Example item on moral judgment of integrity violations: *In my opinion, theft of organizational properties within my unit is* Response scales: 0. *never acceptable;* 1. *seldom acceptable;* 2. *sometimes acceptable;* 3. *mostly acceptable;* 4. *always acceptable.*

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[51] A description of the exact procedure and the final scales is given in chapter six.

The third investigational phase was the actual empirical research conducted among the employees of the Midden- and West Brabant police force in the Netherlands between November 2003 and June 2004. The fieldwork also included in-depth interviews with key persons in the organization and a document analysis of relevant (policy) documents. The purpose of these interviews and the document analysis was to collect background information on which to map the contextual research variables and the possible situational effects during fieldwork. The research population consisted of about 2,700 employees, of whom 800 completed questionnaires to give a response rate of almost 30 percent. As discussed in the detailed research outline given in chapter five, the respondent group matched the research population on several background statistics.

The fourth research phase involved the presentation and analysis of the data and testing of the related hypotheses using statistical techniques such as multiple ordinal regression and structural equation modeling in AMOS.

9.3 Outline of the survey results

The primary results indicate the presence of both the organizational leadership styles of inspirational and result-oriented leadership and the ethical leadership styles of role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership throughout the organization studied. Passive and unethical leadership are also present but are not very common. The results also point to a solid ethical culture, with reasonable scores on the various dimensions.

Table 9.3 Descriptive results (ethical) leadership and ethical culture

Concept and operationalization	**Mean scores** ***(range 1–6)***
Organizational leadership styles	
Inspirational leadership	4,3
Result-oriented leadership	4,2
Passive leadership	2,7
Ethical leadership styles	
Role-modeling leadership	4,7
Integrity-focused leadership	4,7
Unethical leadership	2,1
Ethical culture dimensions	
Clarity	5,0
Achievability	4,2
Transparency	3,9
Discussability/sanctionability	4,6
Supportability	4,4

One major finding is that the respondents did not perceive most types of integrity violations as occurring frequently in the direct work environment and morally judged them to be unacceptable practices. However, the responses also suggest that favoritism by supervisors, fraud (i.e., private use of organizational resources), indecent treatment of colleagues and customers, and waste and abuse may be more widespread, an observation that, for fraud, coincides with a milder moral acceptability judgment (i.e., fewer respondents find this violation unacceptable). Moreover, even though no one-to-one relationship emerged between moral acceptability judgment and observed frequency, combining the moral acceptability judgments of employees with the observed frequency of integrity violations produced four different types of integrity problems (detailed in chapter seven), each of which implies a different policy approach.

Table 9.4 Moral acceptability judgments on and observed frequency of integrity violations: descriptive results

Types of integrity violations	**Observed frequency**	**Acceptability**
	Percentage of 'never'	
Corruption: bribing	96%	98%
Corruption: favoritism by supervisors	51%	64%
Corruption: favoritism by employees	80%	78%
Fraud: private use of organizational resources	25%	25%
Theft	82%	96%
Conflict of interest through gifts	72%	60%
Conflict of interest through jobs	83%	57%
Improper use of authority	78%	83%
Misuse and manipulation of information	84%	89%
Discrimination against colleagues	85%	96%
Sexual harassment of colleagues	92%	99%
Indecent treatment of colleagues	54%	72%
Indecent treatment of customers	58%	80%
Waste and abuse	60%	85%
Private time misconduct	73%	71%

9.4 Primary conclusions

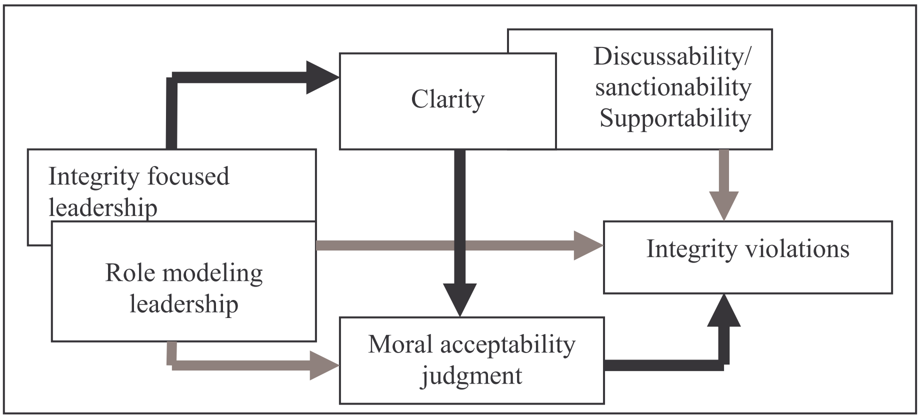
The analysis of the influence of the relationships between the variables of (organizational and ethical) leadership styles, ethical culture, moral acceptability judgment, and the observed frequency of integrity violations made it clear that simple theoretical assumptions about these relationships are in fact not always clearly demonstrated in organizational practice, meaning that not all hypotheses could be supported.

Table 9.5 Hypotheses testing: results

Hypothesis		Result
1	When employees evaluate integrity violations as morally unacceptable, this type of moral judgment (i.e. moral acceptability judgment) limits the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.	True
2a	Transformational leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.	False
2b	Transactional leadership has a smaller limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations than transformational leadership.	False
2c	Laissez-faire leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.	False
3a	Transformational leadership has a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.	False
3b	Transactional leadership has no impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.	True
3c	Laissez-faire or passive leadership has no impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.	True
4a	Ethical leadership has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.	True
4b	Unethical leadership has an allowing impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.	False
5a	Ethical leadership has a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.	True
5b	Unethical leadership has a negative impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.	False
6	(Ethical) leadership is related strongly to the ethical culture.	Partly true Partly false
7	Ethical culture has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations.	True
8	Ethical culture has a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment.	Partly true Partly false

As regards the primary research question of how and to what extent leadership influences the organizational and employee integrity, in general, ethical leadership – that is, role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership – has a positive impact on employee moral acceptability judgment and limits the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations (as observed by employees). Moreover, employee evaluation of integrity violations as morally unacceptable limits the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations. The same holds for the ethical culture and its effects on integrity violations, although to a lesser degree. These findings are outlined in figure 9.2.

Figure 9.2 New model developed from the findings



Nevertheless, in drawing such general conclusions, it is important to specify the relationship between *different* leadership styles and *different* types of integrity violations. Therefore, figures 9.3 and 9.4 (below) outline the exact influential relationships on which several further conclusions are based.

First, it should be noted that, contrary to the assumptions prevalent in the literature, leadership is neither a Eureka concept nor a panacea. Rather, the influence of the relationship between leadership and the (observed) incidence and prevalence of integrity violations primarily works indirectly through the ethical culture and employee moral acceptability judgments. Only a few *direct* effects were established. Specifically, positive direct effects (i.e., the limiting of integrity violations) were found for inspirational leadership on favoritism by supervisors; and for role-modeling leadership on bribing, favoritism by supervisors, and private time misconduct. However, negative direct effects (i.e., the allowing of integrity violations) were observed for passive leadership on waste and abuse, and for unethical leadership on favoritism by supervisors and manipulation and misuse of information.

Second, general organizational leadership styles clearly have a far smaller influence on integrity violations than ethical leadership styles. Moreover, the total relationships found (including the *indirect* effects) do not always indicate a positive impact but rather often constitute a negative impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations. Somewhat surprisingly, this finding even seem to hold for inspirational leadership (see figure 9.3), meaning that even leadership styles that supposedly work positively on organizational outcomes might have unexpected and unwanted side effects.

Third, among the ethical leadership styles, role-modeling leadership and integrity-focused leadership are both powerful. Both influence all types of integrity violations, although role-modeling leadership has a positive direct influence on some integrity violations while integrity-focused leadership does not. More generally, it appears that role-modeling leadership works primarily via clarity on moral acceptability judgments and on the observed frequency of integrity violations, while integrity-focused leadership works primarily via discussability/sanctionability and supportability on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations. Unethical leadership has only negative impacts, although admittedly very small (see figure 9.3) and, perhaps surprisingly, nowhere near as frequent as might be expected.

Fourth, ethical culture of the direct work environment has a limiting impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations, with discussability/sanctionability and supportability having the strongest direct effects. Clarity about the norms and rules is also very important but works primarily in an indirect manner through employee moral acceptability judgments. Ethical leadership (i.e., role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership) in turn affects the ethical culture dimensions, while organizational leadership styles are less effective in this respect.

Fifth, employee moral acceptability judgment is an important factor for limiting the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations. If employees find a specific type of integrity violation unacceptable, less integrity violations of that type will occur. Employee moral acceptability judgments can also be influenced by the ethical leadership styles of role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership, and, the results suggest, may also be strongly influenced by the ethical culture dimension of clarity.

The AMOS models illustrating the various indirect paths along which these total effects were reached (dependent on type of integrity violation) are given in Appendix D, while figures 9.3 and 9.4, respectively, outline the *total* effects of both organizational and ethical leadership styles on the observed frequency of integrity violations.

Figure 9.3 Total effects of organizational leadership styles on the observed frequency of integrity violations

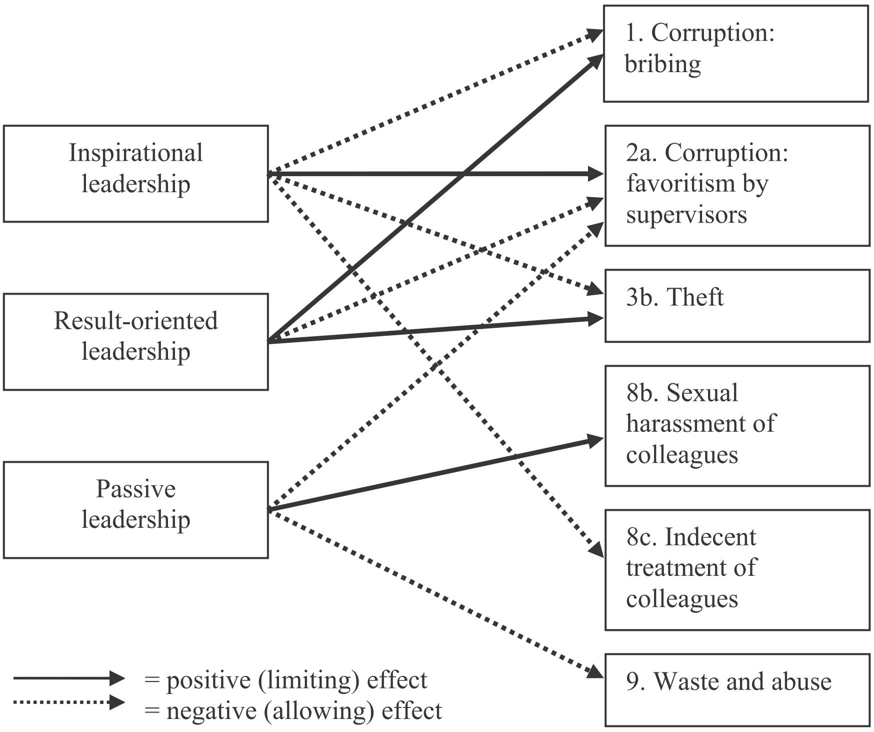
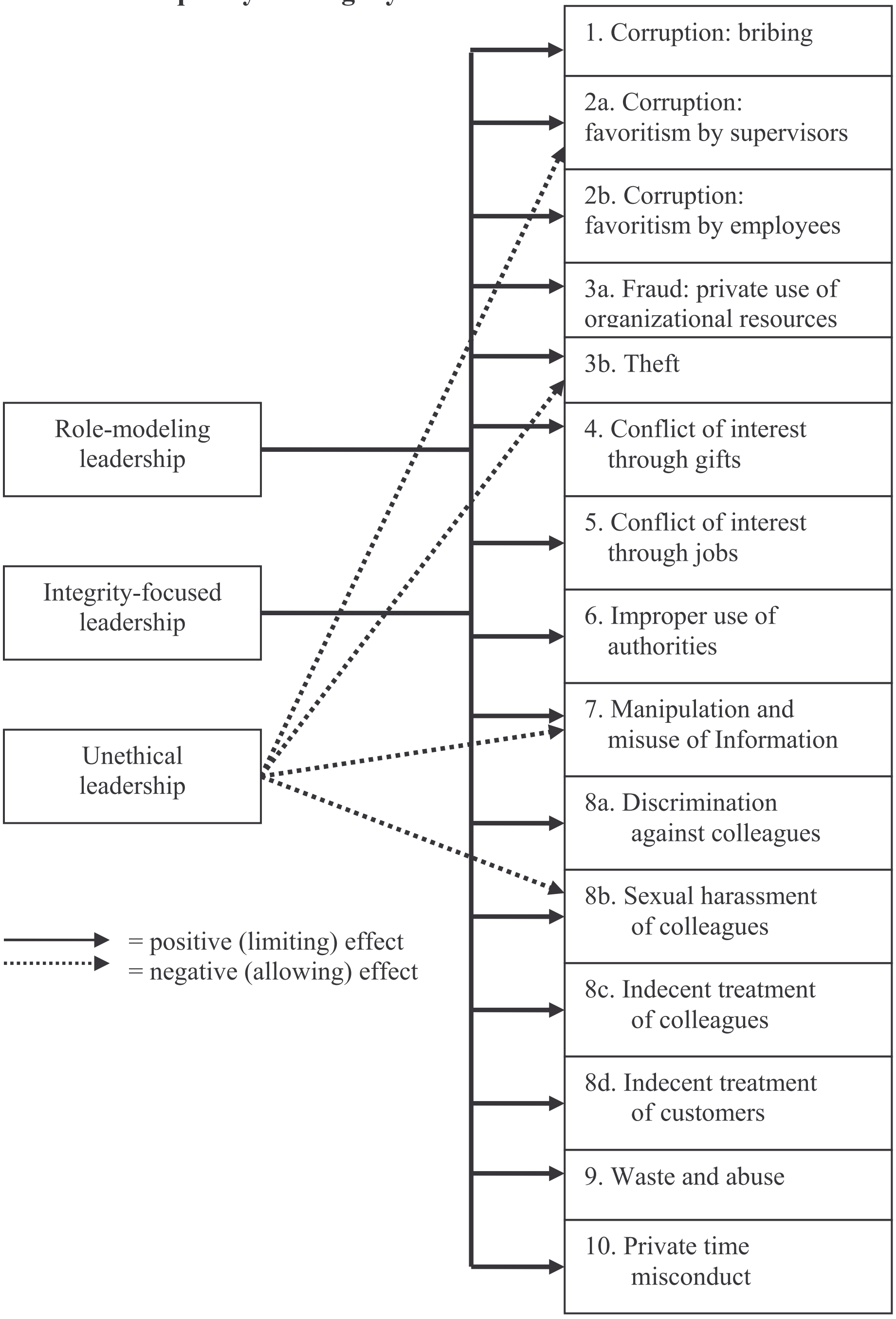

Inspirational leadership
Result-oriented leadership
Passive leadership
1. Corruption: bribing
2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors
3b. Theft
8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues
8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues
9. Waste and abuse
= positive (limiting) effect
= negative (allowing) effect

Figure 9.4 Total effects of ethical leadership styles on the observed frequency of integrity violations


Role-modeling leadership
Integrity-focused leadership
Unethical leadership
= positive (limiting) effect
= negative (allowing) effect
1. Corruption: bribing
2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors
2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees
3a. Fraud: private use of organizational resources
3b. Theft
4. Conflict of interest through gifts
5. Conflict of interest through jobs
6. Improper use of authorities
7. Manipulation and misuse of Information
8a. Discrimination against colleagues
8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues
8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues
8d. Indecent treatment of customers
9. Waste and abuse
10. Private time misconduct

In sum, this study used quantitative analysis to test generally accepted theoretical and normative assumptions about the relationship between leadership and integrity. Its analytical outcomes make clear that overarching notions do not hold: not only is the relationship between leadership and integrity far more complex than such notions suggest, but testing this relationship becomes even more complicated when other important factors like ethical culture are also incorporated. Therefore, as this study convincingly shows, those wishing to pinpoint what works and what does not should concentrate on *specific* influential relationships between different leadership styles and different integrity violations.

9.5 Contribution to methodology

As one of the rare quantitative studies in the field of organizational ethics and integrity, this research yielded some important *methodological* improvements.

A broad typology of integrity violations. As discussed in chapter two, only a few attempts have been made previously to generate a broad typology for integrity violations. Instead, most authors have concentrated on one particular type of violation or included a wide range of misconduct without any systematic categorization. One exception is the work of Robinson and Bennett (1995; Bennett & Robinson, 2000), which is considered particularly important, even though their typology of deviant workplace behaviors was not designed to study integrity violations and their research did not include the more serious forms of unethical behavior. This current study, however, not only yielded a first success in validating the broad theoretical typology of ten types of integrity violations (cf. Huberts, 2005; Huberts et al., 1999), the empirical results also fitted into fifteen subtypes that included the more serious and less common forms of unethical employee behavior (like corruption). Hence, this empirical typology of integrity violations is appropriate not only for the study of integrity violations and the way they are morally judged within organizations but also for the broader field of organizational misbehavior (OMB) (cf. Vardi & Weitz, 2004). This current study thus represents an initial serious attempt to apply such instruments to the leadership–integrity relationship, although, to improve reliability, further small adjustments should be made to the following scales.

Measurement of ethical leadership styles. As outlined and discussed in chapter three, Brown, Treviño, and colleagues's work on ethical leadership and its effects is exceptional and both their theoretical and empirical studies have proven very useful for this current investigation. Not only did their earlier work visualize ethical leadership as containing several dimensions

(Treviño, Hartman & Brown, 2000), but their definition of ethical leadership (cf. Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005) clearly emphasized that it has several key parts. Based on such recognition, they recently developed a 10-item ethical leadership scale for standardized surveys that combines all the dimensions assumed to be important for the ethical leader (cf. Brown & Treviño, 2002; Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005). Nevertheless, as argued earlier, to improve understanding of how diverse aspects of leadership affect the various integrity violations, it would be of great value to measure leadership dimensions separately. To this end, this current study distinguished two separate ethical leadership styles – role-modeling leadership and integrity-focused leadership – which approximate the `role modeling by visible action´ and `reward and discipline´ dimensions of the original Treviño et al. (2000) model. However, because this investigation found no confirmation for the `communication about ethics and values´ dimension, it remains unclear whether or not such communication is a separate leadership dimension. Rather, based on the study findings, communication may be both an aspect of role-modeling leadership, which communicates the importance of ethics and values, and an aspect of integrity-focused leadership, which promotes active discussions on moral issues and dilemmas. Thus, further empirical research is needed if a clear validated picture is to emerge of which dimensions do and do not belong to ethical leadership.

Measurement of ethical culture dimensions. Based on the several perspectives on ethical climate and culture elaborated in chapter three, this study operationalized ethical culture in line with Kaptein´s (1998, 2008) corporate ethical virtues model, in which leadership, although a separate dimension, is also an integral part of other ethical culture dimensions. In contrast, most authors in the field see leadership as a part of culture, which has resulted in a lack of knowledge on and insights into how different leadership styles correlate with different cultural dimensions and whether leadership influences organizational integrity directly or indirectly through the ethical culture. Therefore, this current investigation excluded leadership elements from ethical culture, so that both leadership styles and ethical culture dimensions could be studied separately. As evidenced by the empirical results, this division yielded valuable new insights. In addition, the measurement tool developed for this study has proven useful in unraveling both ethical leadership and ethical culture, allowing study of the interplay both between and within these factors.

9.6 Contribution to theory

In addition to the overall conclusions presented above, this study also made some valuable *theoretical* contributions.

Types of integrity violations. The first validation of the broad typology of integrity violations indicates that concepts like ethics, integrity, and unethical behavior cannot be considered unspecified or monodimensional. Rather, the ten theoretical integrity violation types, which were subdivided here into fifteen empirical types, represent different 'families', different clusters of behaviors that are similar, share similar antecedents, and thus, because they serve the same goals, may be functional substitutes (Bennett & Robinson, 2000: 349–350). First, it has become clear that these differing types or families should be approached in different ways. Hence, whereas this study concentrated on their relationship with leadership styles and showed, for example, that the prevention of fraud demands leadership behavior other than the prevention of indecent treatment of colleagues, much remains to be learned about these *types* of integrity violations. One advantage is that insights from previous studies on one particular type (e.g., bullying or aggression; police brutality, leaking, sleeping on duty) might now be applied to other unethical behaviors of the same type. However, being a quantitative study, this research was limited in its understanding of individual and group processes that might expose the underlying causes of unethical behavior, their interactions, and their possible causal relationships.

Moral judgment. The results of this study not only indicate the importance of moral acceptability judgment for the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations but also show that leaders can influence these moral acceptability judgments. Thus, the study did contribute to research in the area of ethical decision-making processes. However, because the measurement of the moral judgment concept in this research might not have been ideal, a logical next step would be to link leadership styles to the level of moral intent and moral character. These latter encompass the recognition of a situation's morality (moral awareness) or what is morally right in this situation (moral judgment), the decision to commit to moral action (moral intent), and the demonstrated persistence to follow through on the intention to behave morally (moral character).

Ethical culture. Studies on ethical culture are rare, and most such research has applied Victor and Cullen´s ethical climate questionnaire (ECQ) to determine the ethical climate. However, because the concept of ethical culture both reflects the formal and informal control systems that guide employee thought (moral judgment) and action (ethical behavior) and can potentially influence organizational ethics and integrity, it might be a more fruitful perspective for those interested in integrity management. Moreover, as this present study has shown, the ethical culture is promising as an intermediate variable between leadership, moral acceptability judgment, and integrity violations, indicating that not only leaders but also the ethical quality of the direct work environment play a significant role. However, this present study was not designed to explore the reciprocity between leadership and ethical culture, which opens up a completely new research domain.

(Ethical) leadership. This study was framed around the question of the extent to which leadership influences the integrity of an organization and its employees. Although leadership did not prove to be the overarching solution, ethical leadership (role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership) did indeed influence all types of integrity violations along various direct and indirect paths. This finding, though challenging, is very important. First, the concept of ethical leadership is itself still underdeveloped: very little is known about its content and dimensions. Moreover, this study, despite being one of the few that have actually tried to measure the concept, was unable to empirically determine all its theoretical components, meaning that much work remains to be done. Such research should not only aim to validate the concept, it should also pay attention to the content of the separate dimensions. For example, it might look for concrete examples of role-modeling behavior in organizational practice and how followers recognize and learn from these examples.

Second, this study not only illustrated that ethical leadership styles work on integrity violations in either a direct or an indirect way, but that the concept of ethical leadership itself consists of styles that must be balanced if the desired results are to be obtained. Likewise, most authors in leadership studies (either ethical leadership or the broader organizational leadership) eventually stress that all dimensions or styles are interdependent and should be combined. For instance, it is widely recognized that both transformational and transactional styles are important – which turns the concept back into a monodimensional construct in practice (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) – and various scholars have studied the overlap between transformational and ethical leadership styles (Brown et al., 2005; Treviño & Brown, 2004); between authentic, transformational, and ethical leadership (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson, 2008); and between other leadership styles (Brown & Treviño, 2006). However, as important as this work may be, leaders in daily organizational practice do not work with any such theoretical labels but are most helped by knowing which leadership styles and behaviors work under what conditions and in which situations. Based on such knowledge, they can vary their leadership styles and adapt their leadership to a given situation, an approach labeled situational or contingency leadership

(Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; cf. Bass, 1990). Although this latter theory has been criticized (cf. Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; Graeff, 1997), its underlying rationale that leadership effectiveness depends on the specific situation and followers remains appealing; particularly in light of the answers produced by this current study on how leaders might adapt their leadership in ethics-related situations. In this respect, Kolthoff's (2007) epiphenomenal finding of 'ethical management' in his research on the relation between new public management and integrity is particularly important. Specifically, he found that ethical management, as represented by leadership questions related to safeguarding integrity in performance management, contributed strongly and significantly to the limitation of integrity violations.

As already discussed, in this present study, the inspirational and result-oriented organizational leadership styles proved not to be powerful in the context of organizational ethics and integrity. In fact, these leadership styles were found to be ineffective when the analyses included ethical leadership styles. Moreover, even though, as shown in the correlational analysis, inspirational and ethical leadership often go together, problems arise when leaders are inspirational but not ethical. In such cases, inspirational leadership seems to have no influence on moral acceptability judgments and little impact on the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations. At the very least, this finding implies that effective leadership is not equal or identical to ethical leadership nor does it automatically include ethical leadership. Rather, the findings may point to the existence of a pseudo-transformational leadership, as suggested by Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), or may even support the assumption of Giampetro, Brown, Browne, and Kubasek (1998) and Price (2003) that authentic transformational leaders can also fail ethically (see chapter three).

Without doubt, this dark side of inspirational leadership warrants further examination in relation to unethical leadership. For example, it might be hypothesized that such inspirational leaders are hypocritical leaders that score low in the domain of the moral person but overact in that of the moral manager (cf. Treviño et al., 2000). The importance of obtaining such knowledge is implied by the wide body of research on this new leadership approach and the many organizations that have invested in these types of leadership. This current study has contributed to this area most particularly by shedding light on the unwanted side effects in the domain of ethics and integrity.

9.7 Contribution to practice

Lastly, it is worth noting some *practical* implications of this study. First, the findings indicate that leadership does indeed influence organizational integrity; however, to improve the selection and training of leaders, it is important to distinguish between the effects of different leadership styles on different integrity violation types. Based on the study findings, leadership training and courses should be multidimensional and aimed at improving a variety of leadership competencies, but especially ethical leadership styles. More specifically, as solutions for these issues, integrity courses should pay attention to both ethics- and integrity-related issues *and* ethical leadership, which encompasses role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership styles.

Organizational needs. The models presented in the appendix provide a basic practical guide to the different modes of leadership necessary to combat each of the fifteen types of integrity violations. That is, they give an overview of all the influential factors and the direct and indirect effects of the various (ethical) leadership styles on the type of integrity violation under consideration and thus allow derivation of those factors that help protect organizational integrity. Accordingly, these models suggest which leadership styles should be focused on when an organization is confronted with corruption or any other type of integrity violation.

Types of leadership. In general, role-modeling leadership seems to be important for all integrity violations and works primarily through clarity and employee moral acceptability judgment. The importance of clarity for ethical decision-making processes (i.e., moral judgments) underscores the need for integrity policies to contain explicit integrity rules, which affect how employees think of ethics-related situations and thereby limit the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations. Integrity-focused leadership also appears to matter for all integrity violations but works differently from role-modeling leadership. That is, by listening to employees, discussing ethics-related problems, and disciplining employees who violate the rules, leaders exhibiting this type of leadership behavior reinforce ethical culture dimensions like discussability/sanctionability and supportability, which in turn creates a work environment in which integrity violations are less likely to occur. Thus, both leadership dimensions are important, and both should be emphasized in the ethical leadership deployed in organizational practice.

Integrity policy. This study also offers some insights into ethical decision-making processes, which is how employees learn what is morally right in a given situation that could prove useful in educational and training programs. Most particularly, the effect found for clarity on moral acceptability judgments indicates that clear integrity rules are necessary and that the interpretation of what these rules actually mean in daily work situations is learned by observing significant others like leaders and peers. In addition, because role modeling by leaders is particularly important for ensuring such clarity, such integrity rules should hold for all employees regardless of rank.

Moreover, because employees learn not only from leaders but also from observing what colleagues do and get away with, employees also become role models for others whose behavior integrity-focused leaders either reward or punish (cf. Treviño & Brown, 2004). Therefore, it is important that an integrity policy constitute a framework of integrity rules directed at *all* types of integrity violations, one that teaches leaders how to bring these rules into practice through role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership. Moreover, such integrity rules and policies should form the starting point for ethics education and employee training because of their direct effect on moral acceptability judgments.

9.8 Future research directions

The findings of this study suggest various avenues for future research, some of which have already been outlined in the previous section.

1. Testing existing theories and assumptions

To meet the important goal of testing extant theories and normative assumptions about the leadership–integrity relationship, the field of ethics and integrity could profit from more quantitative empirical research using data modeling and techniques that can identify direct and indirect effects, which allow the incorporation of intermediating variables, and that can adequately measure sensitive data (see e.g., Huberts, Lasthuizen & Peeters, 2006; Peeters, Lensvelt-Mulders & Lasthuizen, 2008; Peeters, Lensvelt-Mulders, Lasthuizen & Cruyff, 2008).

2. Opening up the black boxes of the main theoretical concepts

It is also important to unravel the theoretical constructs that appear to be monodimensional – the so-called black boxes of ethics and integrity, values, unethical behavior, culture, moral awareness, ethical leadership, and role modeling. Whereas qualitative research techniques (cf. Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Menzel & Carson, 1999) such as Q-methodology (cf. de Graaf, 2005; de Graaf & van der Wal, 2008) should be especially valuable for identifying the content and dimensions of these factors, the constructs operationalized in this study could also prove useful to such investigation.

3. Studying the types of integrity violations and their causes

Even though this study empirically validated in a first attempt a broad typology of fifteen types of integrity violations, much remains unknown about the causes, interactions, and causal relationships (the slippery slope hypothesis) of these types of integrity violations. Again, whereas qualitative research methods that can delve deeply into these processes would be more appropriate to answering these questions, the typology of integrity violations used here could prove valuable because by systematically determining the families of unethical behaviors, it has broadened the applicability of qualitative research outcomes.

4. Testing the effectiveness of integrity policies and instruments
By researching the specific influential relationships between different leadership styles and different integrity violations, this study has hopefully taken a fundamental step toward the development of theories that offer solutions for specific integrity problems. That is, both the central research question of what is effective for what and the prevention of 'integritism' in the ethics and integrity field (cf. Huberts, 2005) are likely to retain their importance and remain at the heart of this type of research for years to come. Thus, a logical next step would be to develop effective research instruments for specific integrity violations (cf. van Tankeren, 2008).

5. Observing the ethical leadership styles in practice
Now that this study has shown that role-modeling and integrity-focused leadership are effective in limiting the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations, it is important to pinpoint exactly what these behaviors entail. For example, future investigations might identify concrete examples of role-modeling behavior in organizational practice and how followers recognize and learn from these examples (cf. Sims & Brinkmann, 2002; Six & Huberts, 2008). Also in need of greater clarification is the role of reward within integrity-focused leadership and the role of communication within ethical leadership overall. Thus, further research is needed to give a clear, validated picture of ethical leadership and which dimensions are or are not part of this concept. Other possible questions of interest are as follows: Can individuals be trained in ethical leadership styles, and if so, how? How can leaders become capable in the various leadership styles and adapt their approach depending on the integrity violations in question? Which insights into the previous issue can be borrowed from situational leadership theory?

6. Studying the dark side of leadership
In this study, the organizational leadership styles proved minimally effective in the context of organizational ethics and integrity. At the very least, this finding implies that effective leadership is neither equal nor identical to ethical leadership see (see e.g., Ciulla, 2004). It may even point to the existence of a pseudo-transformational leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) or the ethical failure of authentic transformational leaders (Giampetro et al., 1998; Price, 2003). Given the number of organizations that have invested heavily in this new leadership approach, this dark side of inspirational leadership warrants further examination in relation to unethical and hypocritical leadership (cf. Treviño et al., 2000).

7. Studying the ethical culture instead of the ethical climate

As this study has shown, ethical culture is promising as an intermediate variable between leadership, moral acceptability judgment, and integrity violation. Thus, even though this current research was not designed explicitly to explore the reciprocity between leadership and ethical culture, this promise opens up a whole new research domain in which the measurement tool provided here may be of use (cf. Kaptein, forthcoming 2008). In addition, the study did show that the ethical culture dimensions of discussability/sanctionability and supportability were particularly influential in limiting the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations. Thus, particularly given the empirical evidence that peer reporting of unethical behavior by colleagues is not a part of most organizational cultures (de Graaf, 2007), it would be worthwhile to further examine the role of these dimensions not only as individual entities but also in relation to each other.

8. Examining ethical decision-making processes

Another interesting research perspective is the role of the ethical culture dimension of clarity. Because clear rules limit the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations indirectly (but not directly) via moral acceptability judgments, clarity seems surprisingly helpful in raising moral awareness (see e.g., Lamboo, Lasthuizen & Huberts, 2008). Thus, more research is needed in this area because, first, moral acceptability judgments play a major role in limiting the incidence and prevalence of integrity violations and second, organizational ethics training to enhance ethical decision-making processes seemingly starts from a value-based rather than a compliance-based perspective that stipulates clear rules (cf. Paine, 1994; see also, van Tankeren, 2008). It would also be logical to empirically investigate the question of which factors influence ethical decision-making processes and, for example, link leadership styles to the level of moral intent and moral character (Treviño & Weaver, 2003).

9. Differentiating between individual characteristics

Even though a detailed examination of differences based on individual variables such as gender, age, ethnicity, or position was beyond the scope of this research, the findings do provide some evidence that in specific cases these background variables might be relevant. Thus, it would be interesting to examine the differences, not only with regard to unethical behavior or moral judgment but also with regard to ethical leadership. For example, it might be asked whether female leaders would be better ethical leaders (see e.g., Heres, de Graaf & Lasthuizen, 2008) or, given that ethical decision-making processes are assumed to be related to age and education (cf. Treviño & Weaver, 2003), whether young and/or less educated supervisors are mature enough to handle ethics-related issues. In addition, as most extant leadership has been researched at the level of immediate supervisors, other management levels could also prove of interest (cf. Treviño, Hartman & Brown, 2003).

10. Comparing the empirical results of similar research designs in different contexts

Meeting the study goal required selection of a research context that incorporates all the main variables: (ethical) leadership, ethical culture, and integrity violations. Therefore, because of the central role that integrity plays within the police organization and the attention already paid this sector, a case-study within the Dutch police was chosen as the most appropriate means for assessing whether a general integrity model could be drafted. Obviously, a logical expansion of this approach would be to perform similar analyses in other public sectors; for instance, in municipalities (cf. Kearney, 2008) or central government agencies. It would also be interesting to conduct research within the private sector and hybrid organizations, not only because the organizational goals might be completely different but because, for example, the underlying value structures might also differ (cf. van der Wal, 2008; van der Wal, de Graaf & Lasthuizen, 2008). Finally, it is crucial to move beyond geographical and cultural borders and conduct similar research worldwide (cf. House, Javidan, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002; Resick, Hanges, Dickson & Mitchelson, 2006), because comparing the estimated models in several organizations and sectors and within different nations and cultures would enable the major step forward of determining the critical contextual factors. Not only is the type of quantitative research used in this present study useful in this respect, but the potential of qualitative research to map out contextual factors should not be overlooked (cf. Bryman, Stephens & à Campo, 1996).

Appendix A

A1 List of key persons interviewed (2004)

Name	Function
Mr. Jan Reijers	Deputy District Chief, Oosterhout
Ms. Wilma Nijssen	Deputy District Chief, Bergen Op Zoom
Mr. Paul Martens	District Chief, Breda
Mr. Wilbert Paulissen	District Chief, Tilburg, and Deputy Chief Commissioner
Mr. Wim Franke	Chair of the Council of Employers
Mr. John Dirks	Head of the Security and Integrity Unit
Mr. Frans Heeres	Chief Commissioner

Appendix B

Table B1 Rotated component matrix: organizational leadership

Item #		**Component**		
	My direct supervisor:	1	2	3
EC2	instills pride in being associated with him/her.	.814		
EC27	displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever s/he decides.	.587		*.449*
EC10	listens to my concerns.	.727		
EC1	makes me aware of strongly held values, ideals, and aspirations shared in common.	.753		
EC4	mobilizes a collective sense of mission.	.745		
EC7	projects a powerful and magnetic presence.	.587		
EC11	shows how to look at problems from new angles.	.772		
EC17	makes me back up my opinions with good reasoning.	.771		
EC5	articulates a vision of future opportunities.	.721		
EC15	provides advice when needed.	.743		
EC14	treats me as an individual rather than just a member of the group.	.671		
EC9	talks optimistically about the future.	.585		
EC29	has my complete confidence.	.718		
EC22	focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me.	*.366*	.551	
EC21	monitors performance for errors needing correction.		.649	
EC13	is focused on the achievement of results.		.748	
EC16	tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts.	*.703*		
EC12	is alert for failure to meet performance targets.		.686	
EC24	demonstrates a strong conviction in his/her beliefs and values.		.559	
EC28	avoids trying to make improvements as long as work meets minimal standards.			-.739
EC25	avoids getting involved when important issues arise.			-.741
EC6	only takes action when things go wrong.			-.616

Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization; one rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table B2 Rotated component matrix: ethical leadership

Item #		Component		
	My direct supervisor:	1	2	3
EB1	sets a good example in terms of ethical behavior.		.759	
EB5	does what s/he says.		.760	
EB6	meets his/her obligations.		.773	
EB7	makes sure that his/her actions are always ethical.		.725	
EB4	would never authorize unethical or illegal conduct to meet organizational goals.		.675	
EH6	does not tolerate when things happen behind his/her back.	.670		
EF5	is alert to potentially undesirable behavior within my work unit.	.557		
EG6	takes reports of undesirable employee conduct seriously.	.769		
EH1	will call me or a colleague to account if s/he observes us behaving unethically.	.672		
EH5	sanctions someone who consciously behaves unethically.	.719		
ED13	encourages me to act with integrity.	*.425*	.469	
EA4	clarifies which values and norms should be lived up to.		.632	
EB2	communicates the importance of ethics and integrity well.		.791	
EG5	will appreciate it that, if I have to do something that conflicts with my conscience, I discuss this with him/her.	.747		
EG7	is accessible to me to discuss moral dilemmas in the task performance.	.745		
EG8	will appreciate it that, if a colleague acts unethically, I discuss this with him/her.	.755		
EG19	does not behave in a manner that is consistent with the values s/he expresses.			-.708
EC18	manipulates subordinates.			-.762
EC20	holds me responsible for things that are not my fault.			-.739
EC26	acts without considering my feelings.			-.626

Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization; one rotation converged in 6 iterations.

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Table B3 Rotated component matrix: ethical culture

Item		Component					
#		1	2	3	4	5	6
EA1A	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should behave myself towards colleagues responsibly.	.701					
EA1B	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should obtain proper authorizations responsibly.	.675					
EA1C	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should use business equipment responsibly.	.772					
EA1D	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should deal with working hours.	.754					
EA1E	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should handle money and other financial assets responsibly.	.733					
EA1F	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should use internet/ e-mail responsibly.	.730					
EA1G	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should deal with conflicts of interests responsibly.	.702					
EA1H	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should deal with confidential information responsibly.	.669					
EA1I	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should deal with external business parties responsibly.	.756					
EA1J	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should deal with gifts.	.738					
EA1K	It has been made sufficiently clear to me how I should deal with private time behavior.	.717					
EA2	If I do not know how to deal with a specific matter, there are sufficient opportunities to discuss this within the organization.	.448	*.320*				
ED5	I have sufficient time at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.				.756		
ED6	I have sufficient information at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.				.712		
ED7	I have adequate means at my disposal to carry out my tasks responsibly.				.779		
ED8	There are realistic targets set for me.				.641		

Continuation

Item		**Component**					
#		1	2	3	4	5	6
EF8	Within my work unit, adequate checks are carried out to detect violations.		.459	*.333*			
EG9	Within my work unit, reports of undesirable conduct are treated carefully.		.737				
EG10	Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity to express one's own opinions.		.759				
EG11	Within my work unit, there is ample opportunity for discussing ethical dilemmas.		.757				
EH8	If I reported a violation to management, I would not experience retaliation.		.663				
EH9	If someone is called to account for his/her conduct, it is done in a respectful manner.		.739				
EH14	Within my work unit, integrity incidents are resolved in an appropriate manner.		.689				
EG1	If a colleague acts unethically, s/he will appreciate it if I discuss it with him/her.			.556			
EH2	If my colleagues observe someone behaving unethically in my work unit, they will call him/her to account.			.706			
EI1	My colleagues in my work unit treat me with respect.			*.507*		.551	
EI5	An atmosphere of mutual trust prevails in my work unit.			.697			
EI6	Within my work unit, everyone has the best interests of the organization at heart.			.577			
EI15	Within my work unit, everyone takes the existing norms and standards seriously.		*.370*	.498			
ED3	It is easy to realize the conduct that I am bounded to.					.524	
ED10	Within the organization, I am put under pressure to break rules.					-.667	
EF4	If I criticize other people's behavior, I will receive feedback on any action taken as a result of my criticism.		*.457*				.515
EF2	If a colleague within my work unit does something which is not permitted, me or another colleague will find out about it.						.800
EF6	If an incident were to occur in my work unit, it can readily be established who has been negligent						.606

Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization; one rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table B4 Explorative factor analysis of all integrity violations items (acceptability): rotated component matrix

Item		Components																	
#	**Acceptability of**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
C1B	Favoritism by superiors.														.734				
C2B	Unfair distribution of work.														.762				
C3B	Favoring friends or family outside the organization.								.361					.248	.463		-.284		
C4B	Taking bribes (money or favors) to do or neglect something while on duty.	.759																	
C5B	Being offered bribes (money or favors) to do or neglect something while on duty.	.875																	
C6B	Taking bribes (money or favors) for delivering better service.	.551																	*.358*
C7B	Selling confidential information to external parties.	.897																	
C8B	Using organizational resources for private purposes.									.608									
C9B	Stealing organizational properties.	.682																	
C10B	Using working hours for private purposes.									.709									
C11B	Unjustified billing of work hours/cheating on time sheets.					.630													
C12B	Using Internet, e-mail or telephone for private purposes.									.688									
C13B	Incorrect handling of expense claims.					.647													
C14B	Asking a colleague to undo a ticket given to a family member.						*.415*		.463										
C15B	Stealing lost properties.																.670		
C16B	Taking small gifts (<25 euro) from grateful civilians.				.731														
C16B	Taking small gifts (<25 euro) from shopkeepers or small businesses.				.789														

Continuation

Item #	**Acceptability of**	**Components** 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
C18B	Taking gifts of more serious value (>25 euro) from external parties.				.670														
C19B	Taking goods or services with discount from catering establishments or small businesses while on duty.				.530				*.344*										
C20B	Arranging private discounts from suppliers.				*.326*			*.254*	.398								*.345*		
C21B	Working in private time as a security guard.																	.567	
C22B	Working in private time as a security consultant in one's own neighborhood.																	.603	
C23B	Sideline activities or jobs that might pose a conflict of interest.							*.266*										.416	
C24B	Use of improper and/or disproportional violence.						*.257*	*.449*						.467					
C25B	Incorrect care of suspects and prisoners.							.669											
C26B	Use of illegal investigation methods.							.595											
C27B	Threatening with violence during interrogations.							.592											
C28B	Stretching the truth about the facts of a case.										.478								
C29B	Falsifying police reports.															.806			
C30B	Concealing information from the supervisory authorities.											.623							
C31B	Careless handling of confidential police information.					.417			*.303*		*.256*	*.233*							
C32B	Unauthorized use of a colleague's password or access code.										*.416*	.473							

Continuation

Item #	Acceptability of	Components 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
C33B	Violation of secrecy rules.											.751							
C34B	Consulting confidential police files for former colleagues.								.691										
C35B	Consulting confidential police files for friends or family outside the organization.								.714										
C36B	Disclosing information to the media.																.529		
C37B	Accidentally disclosing information to criminals.												*.311*	.485					
C38B	Racial discrimination against colleagues.		.838																
C39B	Gender discrimination against colleagues.		.798																
C40B	Discrimination based on sexual orientation against colleagues.		.834																
C41B	Bullying (e.g., teasing, ignoring, or isolating).		.529																
C42B	Dubious compliments about appearance or clothing.			*.247*			.319	*.307*											
C43B	Unwanted sexual physical contact.												.800						
C44B	Sexual harassment.												.812						
C45B	Other forms of intimidation.										.587								
C47B	Racist jokes or insinuations.		.368				*.286*	*.276*	*.264*										
C48B	Discriminating remarks to citizens or suspects and prisoners.						*.400*	*.240*			.421								
C49B	Offensive language to customers.						.472												
C50B	Gossiping among colleagues.						.535												
C51B	Falsely reporting in sick.					.606													
C52B	Watching television during working hours.						.643												
C53B	Minimal effort of employees (laziness).					.453	*.359*												

Continuation

Item		**Components**																	
#	**Acceptability of**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
C54B	Use of alcohol on duty.																		.701
C55B	Use of drugs during or before working hours.															.635			
C56B	Careless use of organizational properties.					.294	*.255*							*.245*					
C57B	Setting a bad example in private time.			.382		*.263*	*.298*				*.283*	*.214*							
C58B	Excessive use of alcohol in private time.			.560			*.426*												
C59B	Use of soft drugs in private time.			.789															
C60B	Use of party drugs in private time.			.785															
C61B	Domestic violence.													.683					
C62B	Cheating on tax forms.			.328															
C63B	Visiting prostitutes in private time.			.645															
C64B	Contact with criminals in private time.			.433															

Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization; one rotation converged in 13 iterations.

Table B5 Correlations between the factors of the acceptability of integrity violations (Spearman's rho; n = 755)

	Acceptability of integrity violations* **														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
1.	1.00														
2a.	.14**	1.00													
2b.	.17**	.24**	1.00												
3a.	.13**	.25**	.33**	1.00											
3b.	.29**	.15**	.21**	.14**	1.00										
4.	.21**	.18**	.40**	.42**	.13**	1.00									
5.	.12**	.19**	.27**	.38**	.11**	.38**	1.00								
6.	.20**	.16**	.39**	.22**	.22**	.34**	.34**	1.00							
7.	.14**	.22**	.29**	.32**	.19**	.31**	.32**	.41**	1.00						
8a.	.14**	.10**	.18**	.07	.25**	.12**	.10**	.29**	.23**	1.00					
8b.	.23**	.07*	.11**	.02	.29**	.08*	.08*	.17**	.17**	.45**	1.00				
8c.	.13**	.21**	.37**	.30**	.15**	.32**	.30**	.39**	.37**	.32**	.15**	1.00			
8d.	.19**	.20**	.34**	.22**	.17**	.31**	.23**	.40**	.32**	.24**	.13**	.40**	1.00		
9.	.19**	.31**	.38**	.34**	.20**	.34**	.28**	.39**	.36**	.19**	.17**	.36**	.45**	1.00	
10.	.13**	.21**	.36**	.39**	.14**	.39**	.41**	.38**	.38**	.18**	.12**	.43**	.36**	.45**	1.00

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). ***1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

Table B6 **Correlations between the factors of the observed frequency of integrity violations (Spearman's rho; n = 755)**

	Observed frequency of integrity violations***														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
1.	1.00														
2a.	.21**	1.00													
2b.	.25**	.26**	1.00												
3a.	.26**	.23**	.32**	1.00											
3b.	.35**	.22**	.29**	.32**	1.00										
4.	.25**	.23**	.42**	.37**	.32**	1.00									
5.	.24**	.24**	.39**	.21**	.17**	.42**	1.00								
6.	.28**	.19**	.46**	.31**	.34**	.44**	.37**	1.00							
7.	.24**	.25**	.39**	.41**	.30**	.42**	.42**	.54**	1.00						
8a.	.23**	.15**	.30**	.27**	.24**	.17**	.28**	.38**	.41**	1.00					
8b.	.32**	.14**	.29**	.15**	.24**	.20**	.27**	.34**	.35**	.38**	1.00				
8c.	.26**	.22**	.36**	.47**	.25**	.30**	.30**	.41**	.45**	.51**	.35**	1.00			
8d.	.26**	.24**	.38**	.40**	.29**	.42**	.32**	.49**	.52**	.39**	.33**	.54**	1.00		
9.	.32**	.28**	.48**	.58**	.35**	.47**	.39**	.54**	.58**	.42**	.30**	.59**	.63**	1.00	
10.	.26**	.22**	.43**	.40**	.24**	.47**	.41**	.47**	.47**	.30**	.33**	.48**	.48**	.59**	1.00

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). ***1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

APPENDIX C

Table C1 Correlations between the leadership styles (Spearman's rho; n = 536)

	Inspirational leadership	Result - oriented leadership	Passive leadership	Role-modeling leadership	Integrity-focused leadership	Unethical leadership
Inspirational leadership	1.00					
Result-oriented leadership	0.59	1.00				
Passive leadership	-0.59	-0.36	1.00			
Role-modeling leadership	0.78	0.52	-0.48	1.00		
Integrity-focused leadership	0.71	0.51	-0.52	0.68	1.00	
Unethical leadership	-0.60	-0.22	0.55	-0.54	-0.53	1.00

Note: The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean.

Table C2 Correlations between the ethical culture dimensions (Spearman's rho; n = 536)

	Clarity	Achievability	Transparency	Discussability/ sanctionability	Supportability
Clarity	1.00				
Achievability	0.37	1.00			
Transparency	0.15	0.20	1.00		
Discussability/ sanctionability	0.39	0.39	0.22	1.00	
Supportability	0.36	0.38	0.21	0.66	1.00

Note: The correlations are the Spearman rho because the variables are nonparametric; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean.

Table C3 Correlations between the acceptability of integrity violations (Spearman's rho; n = 536)

	Acceptability of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
1.	1.00														
2a.	0.11	1.00													
2b.	0.19	0.25	1.00												
3a.	*0.10*	0.20	0.35	1.00											
3b.	0.33	0.14	0.19	0.14	1.00										
4.	0.24	0.16	0.39	0.43	0.17	1.00									
5.		*0.11*	0.26	0.37	*0.09*	0.35	1.00								
6.	0.19	*0.11*	0.39	0.27	0.22	0.34	0.33	1.00							
7.	0.12	0.17	0.33	0.37	0.18	0.34	0.30	0.44	1.00						
8a.	0.17	*0.09*	0.19		0.27	0.13		0.28	0.24	1.00					
8b.	0.31	*0.09*	0.15		0.37	0.13		0.20	0.21	0.51	1.00				
8c.	0.12	0.19	0.39	0.37	0.15	0.34	0.28	0.43	0.43	0.30	0.17	1.00			
8d.	0.20	0.19	0.34	0.24	0.19	0.28	0.20	0.39	0.37	0.23	0.19	0.37	1.00		
9.	0.21	0.30	0.39	0.37	0.22	0.36	0.25	0.41	0.41	0.18	0.23	0.37	0.47	1.00	
10.	0.12	0.17	0.36	0.39	0.15	0.37	0.39	0.38	0.39	0.17	0.15	0.44	0.38	0.50	1.00

Note: The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

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Table C4 Correlations between the observed frequency of integrity violations (Spearman's rho; n = 536)

	Observed frequency of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
1.	1.00														
2a.	0.17	1.00													
2b.	0.29	0.30	1.00												
3a.	0.25	0.26	0.33	1.00											
3b.	0.34	0.22	0.30	0.31	1.00										
4.	0.27	0.24	0.41	0.35	0.32	1.00									
5.	0.20	0.24	0.36	0.15	0.15	0.39	1.00								
6.	0.30	0.24	0.43	0.30	0.29	0.42	0.36	1.00							
7.	0.23	0.27	0.39	0.40	0.31	0.39	0.37	0.51	1.00						
8a.	0.21	0.15	0.34	0.25	0.24	0.15	0.23	0.35	0.37	1.00					
8b.	0.36	0.15	0.30	0.16	0.27	0.19	0.25	0.33	0.33	0.41	1.00				
8c.	0.25	0.23	0.37	0.49	0.25	0.28	0.28	0.41	0.41	0.49	0.32	1.00			
8d.	0.28	0.28	0.41	0.39	0.28	0.39	0.30	0.49	0.47	0.36	0.34	0.52	1.00		
9.	0.33	0.33	0.50	0.58	0.35	0.50	0.34	0.51	0.52	0.38	0.30	0.57	0.62	1.00	
10.	0.27	0.26	0.46	0.42	0.20	0.47	0.38	0.47	0.43	0.27	0.31	0.45	0.49	0.59	1.00

Note: The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

Table C5 Correlations between the ethical culture and acceptability of integrity violations (Spearman's rho; n = 536)

	Acceptability of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Clarity	-0.18	*-0.10*	-0.30	-0.23		-0.27	-0.24	-0.30	-0.31	*-0.09*		-0.25	-0.27	-0.30	-0.30
Achievability			-0.15	*-0.10*		-0.12	-0.11	-0.19	*-0.09*			-0.13	-0.19	-0.12	
Transparency															
Discussability/ sanctionability		-0.20	-0.18	-0.19		-0.16	-0.14	-0.17	-0.17			-0.22	-0.20	-0.22	-0.16
Supportability		-0.12		-0.12				*-0.10*	-0.11			-0.12	*-0.10*	-0.17	

Note: The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

Table C6 Correlations between the ethical culture and observed frequency of integrity violations (Spearman's rho; n = 536)

	Observed frequency of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Clarity	-0.15	*-0.18*	-0.19	-0.24	-0.12	-0.22	-0.13	-0.25	-0.24	*-0.17*	-0.15	-0.25	-0.24	-0.31	-0.24
Achievability	-0.14	-0.24	-0.19	*-0.18*	-0.22	-0.17	-0.18	-0.22	*-0.18*	-0.13	-0.15	-0.20	-0.23	-0.28	-0.18
Transparency		-0.09		-0.12	-0.17									-0.10	
Discussability/ sanctionability	-0.18	-0.43	-0.21	-0.30	-0.18	-0.20	-0.21	-0.18	-0.23	-0.18	-0.13	-0.33	-0.28	-0.36	-0.24
Supportability	-0.17	-0.28	-0.16	-0.30	-0.17	-0.09	-0.09	*-0.16*	-0.18	-0.21	-0.11	-0.33	*-0.27*	-0.36	-0.14

Note: The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

Table C7 **Correlations between the acceptability and observed frequency of integrity violations (Spearman’s rho; n = 536)**

Acceptability of integrity violations*	Observed frequency of integrity violations*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
1.	0.15														
2a.		0.33	0.13	0.14		0.14	0.17		0.14			*0.11*	*0.10*	0.16	0.12
2b.	0.14	0.18	0.50	0.22	0.13	0.26	0.23	0.22	0.22	*0.09*	0.15	0.20	0.17	0.24	0.30
3a.		0.13	0.16	0.60		0.19	0.12	0.12	0.19			0.28	0.15	0.22	0.28
3b.	*0.09*				0.19										
4.	0.13	0.13	0.21	0.28	0.18	0.58	0.16	0.21	0.18			0.22	0.16	0.26	0.27
5.	*0.09*	*0.11*		0.20		0.18	0.24	0.15	0.13		0.13	0.20	0.15	0.14	0.21
6.		*0.11*	0.15	0.19		0.18	0.12	0.40	0.26	0.12	0.18	0.24	0.21	0.19	0.21
7.		0.11	0.12	0.28	*0.11*	0.14	0.15	0.26	0.48	0.15	0.11	0.27	0.19	0.20	0.25
8a.					*0.10*			*0.11*	0.13	0.29	*0.11*	0.16		0.11	
8b.										0.11	0.15				
8c.	*0.09*	0.16	0.21	0.30	0.15	0.22	0.18	0.24	0.24		0.16	0.49	0.14	0.23	0.31
8d.	*0.10*	0.13	0.18	0.21	0.16	0.24	0.15	0.22	0.23		0.12	0.19	0.41	0.27	0.25
9.	0.17	0.21	0.16	0.29	0.14	0.21	0.19	0.26	0.29	*0.10*	0.18	0.22	0.22	0.33	0.33
10.	*0.11*	0.12	0.19	0.27	0.11	0.23	0.14	0.19	0.21		0.12	0.20	0.17	0.23	0.49

Note: The correlations are the Spearman rho; missings in the dataset were replaced by the mean. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

C8 Linear regression analysis on the impact of background variables and independent variables on the ethical culture dimensions (n = 536)

	Dependent variables				
	Clarity	Achievability	Transparency	Discussability/ sanctionability	Supportability
Adjusted *R* square	0.28	0.31	0.10	0.65	0.37
Independent variables					
Inspirational leadership		0.19			
Result-oriented leadership			0.16		
Passive leadership		0.13			
Role-modeling leadership	0.51	0.23		0.18	0.21
Integrity-focused leadership		0.16	0.21	0.67	0.43
Unethical leadership		-0.12			
Background variables					
Sex		0.09			
Age	0.15	0.11			
Length of tenure					-0.09
District/division		0.10			-0.08
Position supervisor		0.12			
Number of subordinates of supervisor		0.11			

Note: A number of background variables were transformed into dummy variables before prior to the regression analysis. The STEPWISE procedure was followed in the SPSS linear regression option; the standardized betas are presented in the table and give an idea of the effect size on the dependent variable, and the adjusted *R* square gives the overall explained variance of the dependent variable.

C9 Linear regression analysis on the impact of the independent variables on the acceptability of integrity violations (n = 536)

	Integrity violations (dependent variable)*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Adjusted R square	0.04	0.08	0.12	0.06	0.02	0.11	0.08	0.12	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.06	0.11	0.08
Independent variables															
Inspirational leadership		0.27	0.16					0.17				0.25			
Result-oriented leadership														0.12	
Passive leadership		0.16													
Role-modeling leadership			-0.24	-0.20	-0.14	-0.14	-0.18	-0.28	-0.12		-0.17	-0.31		-0.18	-0.18
Integrity-focused leadership		-0.32												-0.17	
Unethical leadership															
Clarity	-0.13		-0.19			-0.14	-0.21	-0.11	-0.18				-0.15	-0.11	-0.21
Achievability								-0.14			0.11		-0.12		
Transparency															
Discussability/ sanctionability												-0.13			
Supportability							0.13			-0.10					0.11

Note: the STEPWISE procedure was followed in the SPSS linear regression option; the standardized betas are presented in the table and give an idea of the size of the effect on the dependent variable and the adjusted R^2 gives the overall explained variance of the dependent variable. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

C10 Linear regression analysis on the impact of the independent variables on the frequency of integrity violations (n = 536)

	Integrity violations (dependent variable)*														
	1.	2a.	2b.	3a.	3b.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8a.	8b.	8c.	8d.	9.	10.
Adjusted *R* square	0.08	0.30	0.30	0.38	0.13	0.40	0.11	0.20	0.22	0.16	0.05	0.28	0.22	0.28	0.25
Independent variables															
Inspirational leadership	0.13														
Result-oriented leadership														0.10	
Passive leadership															
Role-modeling leadership		-0.20												-0.19	
Integrity-focused leadership															
Unethical leadership		0.20							0.12						
Clarity		0.09													
Achievability					-0.19		-0.10				-0.14				
Transparency							0.12								
Discussability/ sanctionability	-0.28	-0.20	-0.20				-0.12	-0.18	-0.19	-0.25					-0.23
Supportability				-0.25		-0.09						-0.32	-0.27	-0.28	
Acceptability	0.17	0.21	0.41	0.54	0.26	0.58	0.22	0.30	0.33	0.28	0.16	0.38	0.32	0.23	0.34

Note: the STEPWISE procedure was followed in the SPSS linear regression option; the standardized betas are presented in the table and give an idea of the size of the effect on the dependent variable and the adjusted R^2 gives the overall explained variance of the dependent variable. *1. Corruption: bribing; 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors; 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees; 3a. Fraud; 3b. Theft; 4. Conflict of interest through gifts; 5. Conflict of interest through jobs; 6. Improper use of authority; 7. Manipulation and misuse of information; 8a. Discrimination against colleagues; 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues; 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues; 8d. Indecent treatment of customers; 9. Waste and abuse; 10. Private time misconduct.

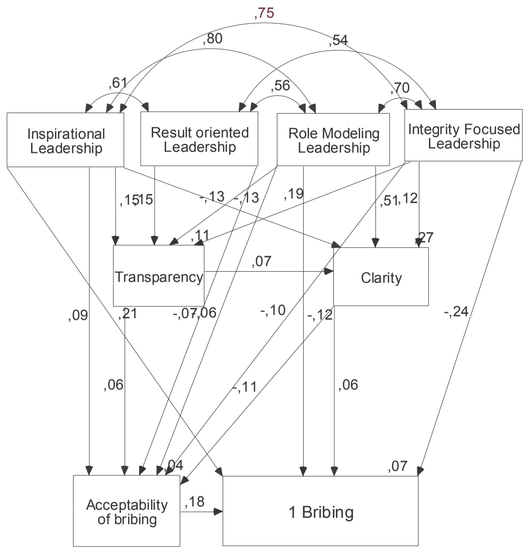
APPENDIX D

Explanation

In each of the following 15 models, exact paths of influence are identifiable for every (sub)type of integrity violation. The arrows represent the effect of the independent and intermediate variables on the dependent variable, while the numbers represent the effect size; only significant standardized betas are included. Covariances were permitted between all leadership styles, as the correlational analysis (see table C1, Appendix C) has shown that the leadership styles intercorrelate significantly.

Each model gives an overview of all influential factors, as well as the direct and indirect effects of the various (ethical) leadership styles on (the observed frequency of) the type of integrity violation under consideration. Thus, it is easy to derive from the models what helps to protect the organizational integrity and how each type of integrity violations might be addressed with a combination of leadership styles working directly or indirectly by improving the ethical culture in the direct work environment and enhancing the moral judgment of employees.

Figure D1 1. Corruption: bribing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Inspirational Leadership
Result oriented Leadership
Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Transparency
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Clarity
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Acceptability of bribing
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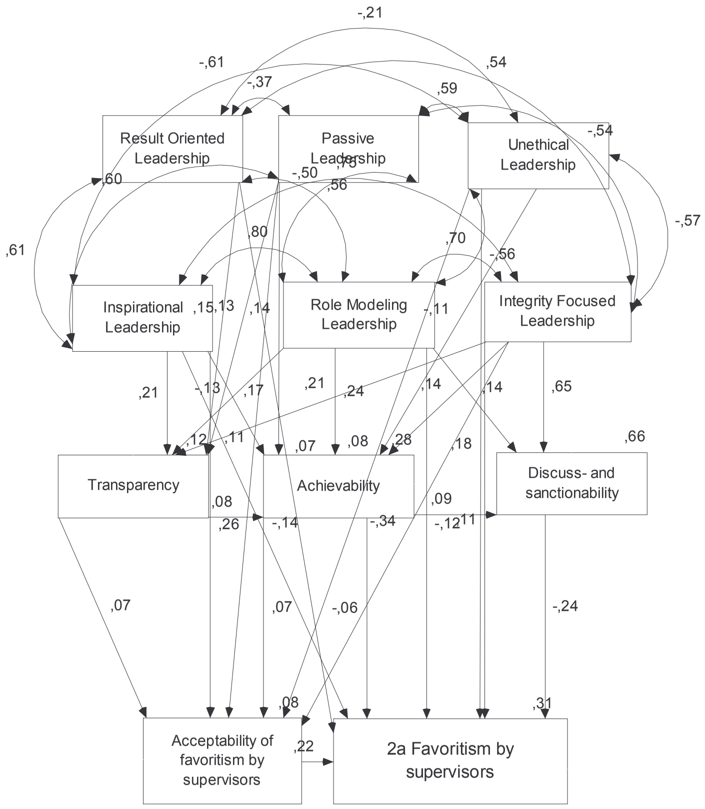
1 Bribing

Figure D2 2a. Corruption: favoritism by supervisors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Result Oriented Leadership
Passive Leadership
Unethical Leadership
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Inspirational Leadership
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Role Modeling Leadership
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Integrity Focused Leadership
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Transparency
Achievability
Discuss- and sanctionability
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Acceptability of favoritism by supervisors
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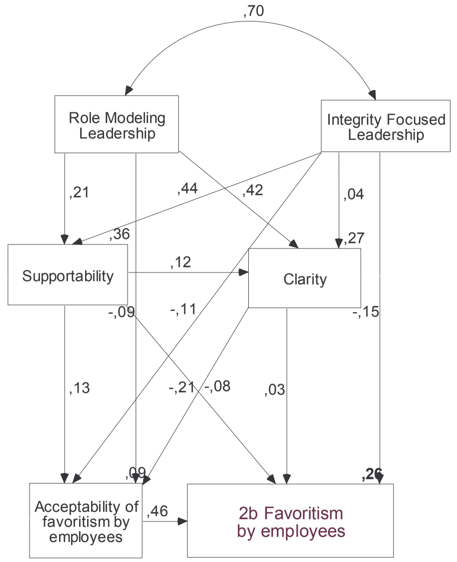
2a Favoritism by supervisors

Figure D3 2b. Corruption: favoritism by employees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Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Supportability
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Clarity
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Acceptability of favoritism by employees
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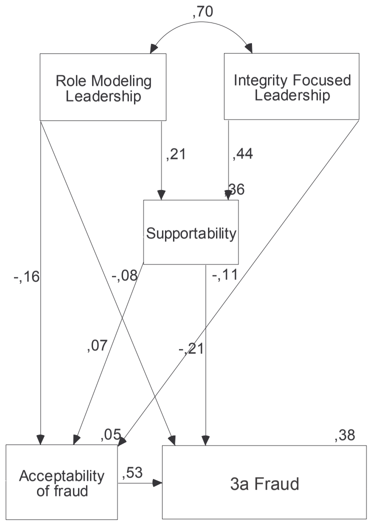
2b Favoritism by employees

Figure D4 3a. Fraud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Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Supportability
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Acceptability of fraud
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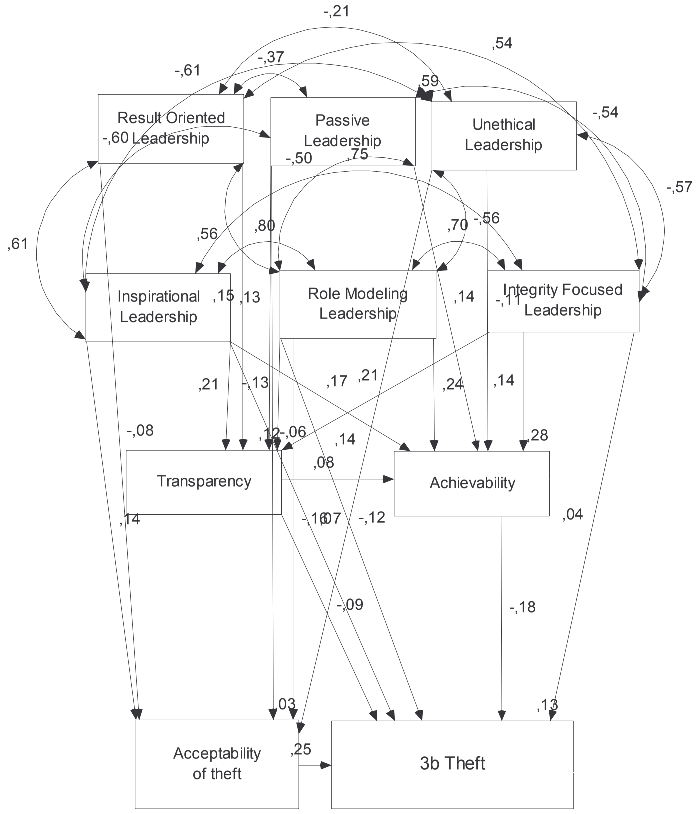
3a Fraud

Figure D5 3b. Theft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Result Oriented Leadership
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Passive Leadership
Unethical Leadership
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Inspirational Leadership
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Role Modeling Leadership
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Integrity Focused Leadership
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Transparency
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Achievability
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Acceptability of theft
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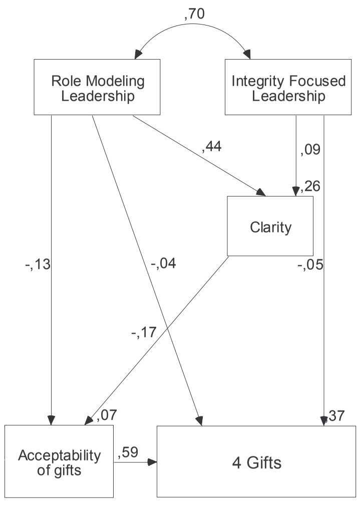
3b Theft

Figure D6 4. Conflict of interest through gifts



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Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Clarity
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Acceptability of gifts
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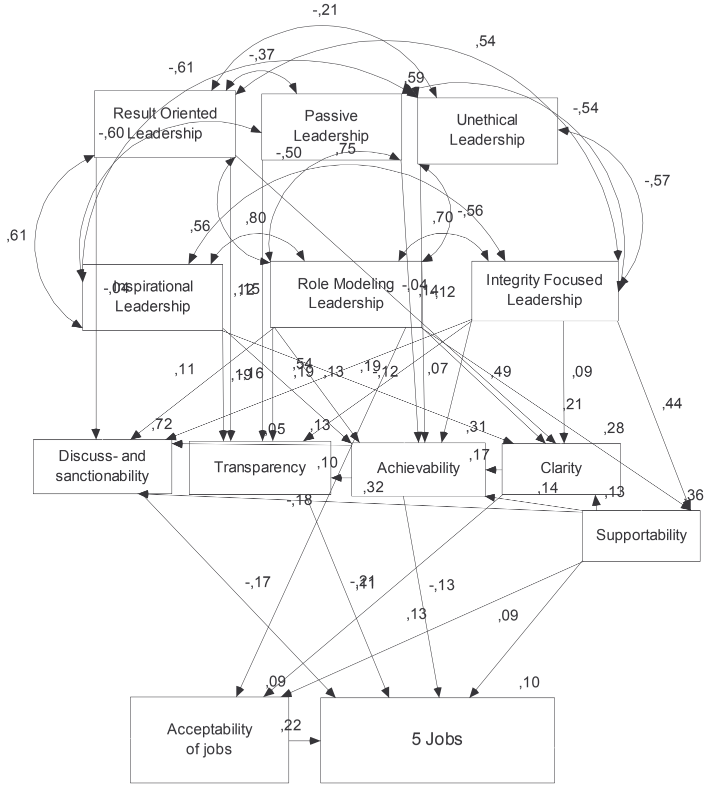
4 Gifts

D7 5. Conflict of interest through jobs



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Result Oriented Leadership
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Passive Leadership
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Unethical Leadership
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Inspirational Leadership
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Role Modeling Leadership
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Integrity Focused Leadership
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Discuss- and sanctionability
Transparency
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Achievability
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Clarity
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Supportability
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Acceptability of jobs
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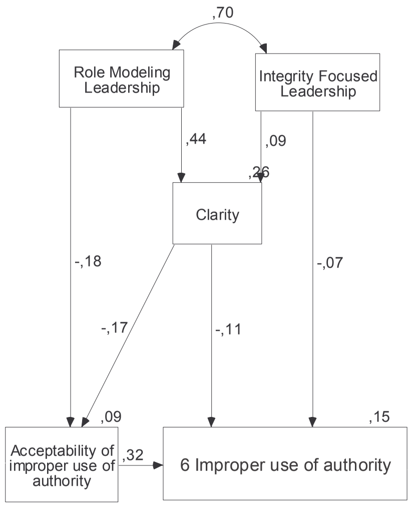
5 Jobs

Figure D8 6. Improper use of authority



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Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Clarity
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Acceptability of improper use of authority
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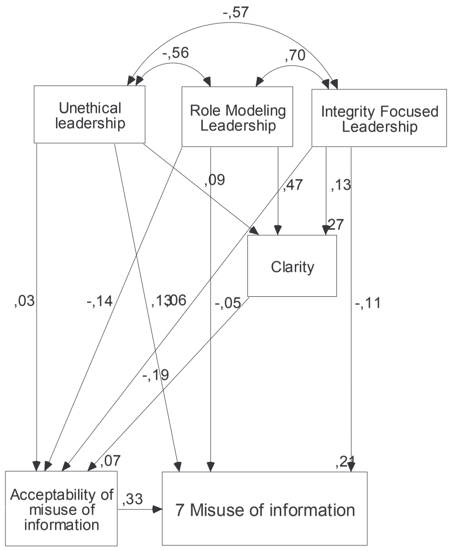
6 Improper use of authority

Figure D9 7. Manipulation and misuse of information



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Unethical leadership
Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Clarity
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Acceptability of misuse of information
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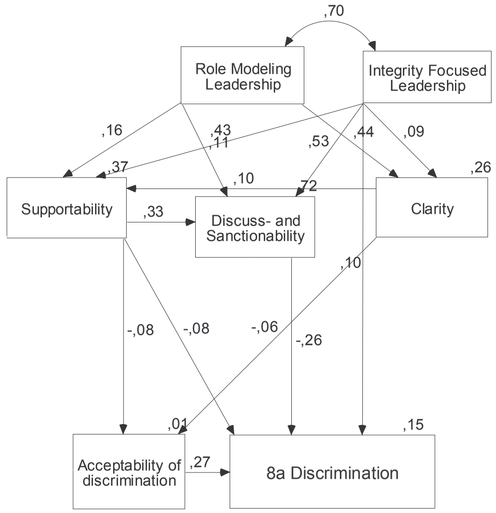
7 Misuse of information

Figure D10 8a. Discrimination against colleagues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Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Supportability
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Discuss- and Sanctionability
Clarity
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Acceptability of discrimination
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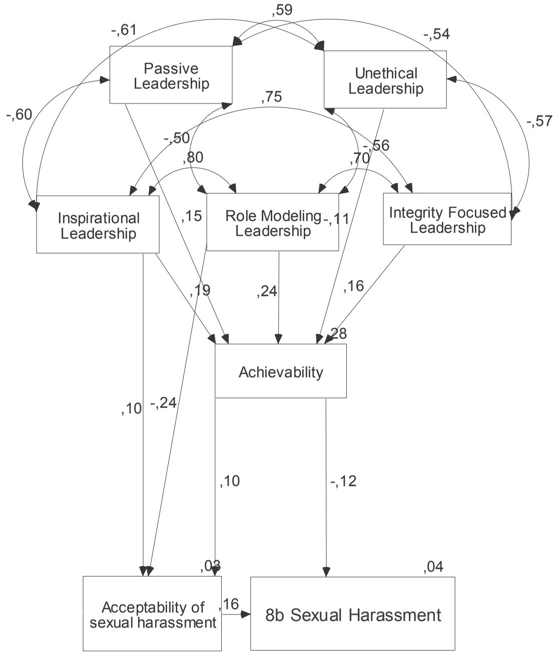
8a Discrimination

Figure D11 8b. Sexual harassment of colleagues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Passive Leadership
Unethical Leadership
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Inspirational Leadership
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Role Modeling Leadership
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Integrity Focused Leadership
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Achievability
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Acceptability of sexual harassment
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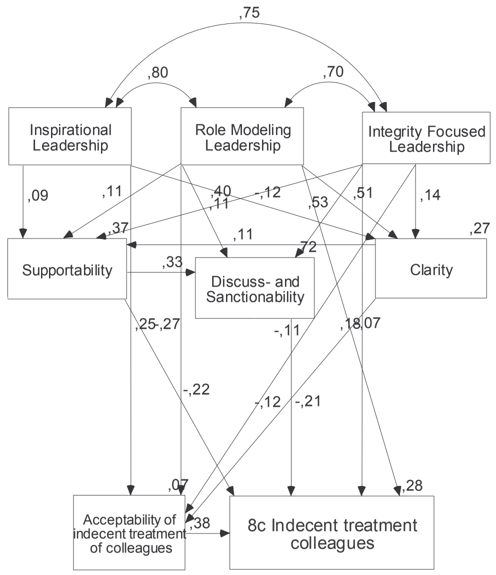
8b Sexual Harassment

Figure D12 8c. Indecent treatment of colleagues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Inspirational Leadership
Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Supportability
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Discuss- and Sanctionability
Clarity
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Acceptability of indecent treatment of colleagues
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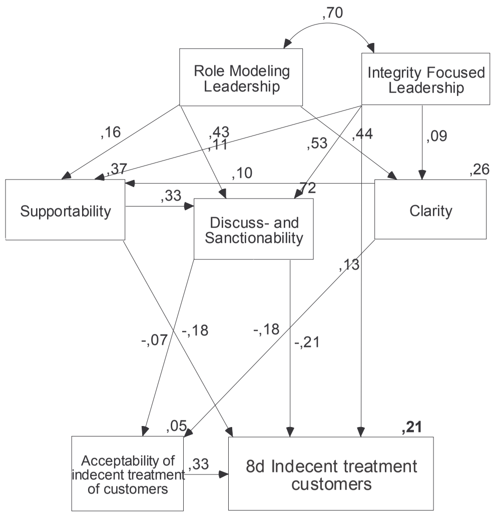
8c Indecent treatment colleagues

Figure D13 8d. Indecent treatment of customers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Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Supportability
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Discuss- and Sanctionability
Clarity
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Acceptability of indecent treatment of customers
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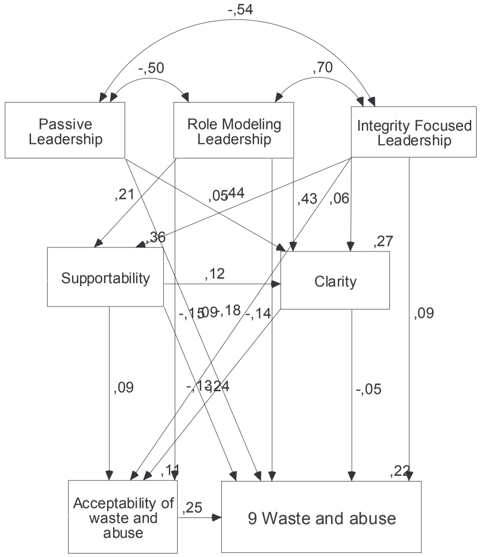
8d Indecent treatment customers

Figure D14 9. Waste and abuse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Passive Leadership
Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused Leadership
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Supportability
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Clarity
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Acceptability of waste and abuse
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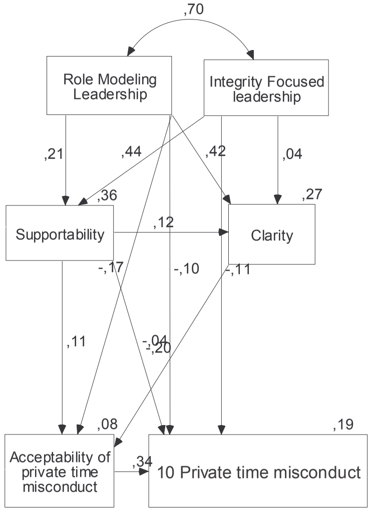
9 Waste and abuse

Figure D15 10. Private time misconduct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Role Modeling Leadership
Integrity Focused leadership
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Supportability
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Clarity
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Acceptability of private time misconduct
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10 Private time misconduct

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Samenvatting ‘Leiden naar Integriteit’

Summary in Dutch

Aanleiding en achtergrond

‘Nederland fraudeland’ concludeerde de Socialistische Partij in maart 2004 naar aanleiding van de slepende bouwfraudeaffaire, de discussie over bonussen en salarisverhogingen van bestuurders van ondernemingen, affaires rond politici zoals wethouder Oudkerk van Amsterdam en de commotie over de inrichting van het nieuwe gebouw van het Uitvoeringsorgaan Werknemers Verzekeringen (Huberts & Lasthuizen, 2005). Integriteit is van groot belang voor zowel publieke als private organisaties. Bij de overheid leiden schendingen van de bestuurlijke integriteit onherroepelijk tot een verlies aan vertrouwen van de burgers, hét fundament van onze democratische rechtsstaat (van den Heuvel, Huberts & Verberk, 2002). Ook voor de betrokken politicus, bestuurder of ambtenaar heeft het, als zijn of haar integriteit op het spel staat, verstrekkende gevolgen: “je bent integer of je bent het niet” (Dales, 1994). In het bedrijfsleven leidt een twijfelachtige integriteit al snel tot financiële verliezen of zelfs tot faillissement als de aandeelhouders hun vertrouwen opzeggen of als consumenten de producten of diensten van de organisatie niet langer afnemen. De affaire rondom Brent Spar en Shell is hier een duidelijk voorbeeld van (van der Wal & van Es, 2004).

Om de integriteit van een organisatie te waarborgen of te verbeteren, worden door het bestuur allerlei beleidsmaatregelen genomen zoals het opstellen van gedragscodes en richtlijnen, het screenen van sollicitanten, het afleggen van de ambtseed, het geven van trainingen en het instellen van een klokkenluidersregeling (van den Heuvel & Huberts, 2003; Weaver, Treviño & Cochran, 1999). Naast deze maatregelen wordt benadrukt dat integriteit staat en valt met *leiderschap*. Leiderschap wordt gezien als de cruciale factor in de beïnvloeding van de integriteit van werknemers van een organisatie (Ciulla, 1998; Treviño & Nelson, 1999; Treviño, Hartman & Brown, 2000). Opvallend is echter dat deze veronderstelling over het belang van leiderschap maar weinig is onderzocht in de praktijk; veelal gaat het om een normatieve aanname (zie bijv. Kellerman & Webster, 2001; van Wart, 2003). De studie in dit proefschrift heeft op basis van de theorie in de praktijk getoetst of en in welke mate leiderschap belangrijk is en op welke manier leiderschap helpt om de integriteit van organisaties en haar medewerkers te waarborgen.

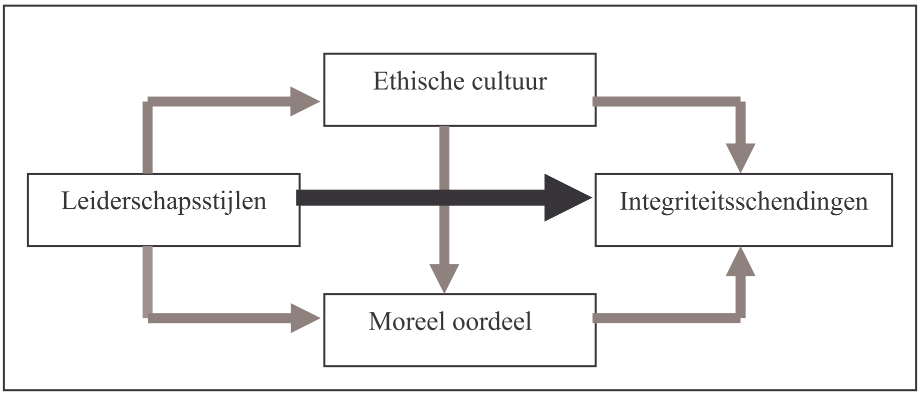
Onderzoeksvraag, concepten en model voor onderzoek

De onderzoeksvraag die centraal staat in dit proefschrift luidt:

> *Hoe en in welke mate beïnvloedt leiderschap de integriteit van de organisatie en haar werknemers?*

Om deze vraag goed te kunnen beantwoorden is voor leiderschap onderscheid gemaakt in verschillende leiderschapsstijlen en is als graadmeter voor het integriteitsniveau binnen een organisatie gekeken naar de aan- of afwezigheid van verschillende typen integriteitsschendingen (zie Treviño, Weaver, Gibson & Toffler, 1999). Door op deze wijze te differentiëren kan worden vastgesteld of de aanpak van corruptie of fraude een andere leiderschapsbenadering nodig heeft dan bijvoorbeeld de aanpak van misbruik van informatie of discriminatie en intimidatie. Daarnaast is ook de ethische cultuur in de organisatie en de wijze waarop de medewerkers oordelen over schendingen van integriteit (hier 'moreel aanvaardbaarheidsoordeel' genoemd) in deze studie meegenomen. Uit de literatuur komt namelijk naar voren dat ook deze factoren van invloed kunnen zijn op de relatie tussen leiderschap en integriteit. Dit kan worden samengevat in een conceptueel model dat hieronder wordt weergegeven.

Figuur 1 Conceptueel model



Integriteit van organisaties wordt in deze studie opgevat als de kwaliteit van handelen van de werknemers in overeenstemming met de relevante morele waarden, normen en daaruit voortvloeiende verplichtingen en (spel)regels van de organisatie en de samenleving (zie Huberts, 1998). *Schendingen van integriteit* kunnen worden onderverdeeld in verschillende typen: corruptie in de zin van omkoping, corruptie in de zin van oneigenlijke bevoordeling van vrienden of familie door leidinggevenden of door medewerkers, fraude en diefstal, belangenverstrengeling door dubieuze giften en beloften of door conflicterende nevenfuncties, oneigenlijk gebruik van bevoegdheden, misbruik of manipulatie van informatie, discriminatie en seksuele intimidatie, onfatsoenlijke omgangsvormen onder collega's of in relatie tot klanten, verspilling en wanprestatie tijdens het werk en wangedrag in de vrije tijd, dat het aanzien van de functie en de organisatie kan schaden (Huberts, Pijl & Steen, 1999). In dit onderzoek is niet alleen gekeken naar de aanwezigheid van integriteitsschendingen in de organisatie, zoals werknemers dit waarnemen, maar is ook onderzocht welk *moreel oordeel* medewerkers hebben ten aanzien van de aanvaardbaarheid van deze integriteitsschendingen (zie Treviño & Weaver, 2003).

Om voor *leiderschap* onderscheid te maken in verschillende leiderschapsstijlen werden na de literatuurstudie de volgende keuzes gemaakt. Ten eerste is een invloedrijk organisationeel leiderschapsmodel gebruikt. Dit model, waarin veel organisaties geïnvesteerd hebben, omvat drie leiderschapsstijlen: *inspirerend leiderschap, resultaatgericht leiderschap* en *passief leiderschap* (zie bijvoorbeeld Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993; den Hartog, 1997). De inspirerende leiderschapsstijl heeft als doel werknemers boven verwachting te laten presteren en gaat verder dan de zakelijke ruilrelatie tussen leidinggevende en ondergeschikte die centraal staat bij resultaatgericht leiderschap. Passief leiderschap geeft een leiderschapsstijl weer waarbij de leidinggevende pas ingrijpt als zaken fout dreigen te gaan. Ondanks dat dit organisationele leiderschapsmodel primair gericht is op de effectiviteit van de medewerkers in termen van productiviteit en kwantiteit, wordt van inspirerend leiderschap aangenomen dat deze ook een positieve invloed heeft op de integriteit van werknemers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Naast deze organisationele leiderschapsstijlen zijn in deze studie tevens leiderschapsstijlen meegenomen die speciaal tot doel hebben de integriteit van werknemers te beïnvloeden. Deze leiderschapsstijlen worden geschaard onder het begrip *ethisch leiderschap* (zie Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005) en zijn genoemd *voorbeeldleiderschap, integriteitsgericht leiderschap* en *onethisch leiderschap*. Bij voorbeeldleiderschap geven leidinggevenden zelf het goede voorbeeld en dragen zij het belang van integriteit uit. Bij integriteitsgericht leiderschap neemt de leidinggevende een actieve rol aan door het onderwerp integriteit met zijn of haar medewerkers te bespreken en door medewerkers die over de schreef gaan te disciplineren. Bij onethisch leiderschap manipuleert de leidinggevende ondergeschikten en gedraagt hij of zij zich niet naar de waarden die hij of zij uitdraagt (Craig & Gustafson, 1998).

Omdat leiderschap niet alleen direct effect heeft op de integriteit van de werknemers maar ook indirect via de cultuur binnen de organisatie is de *ethische cultuur* als invloedsfactor meegenomen in dit onderzoek. Hieronder wordt dat deel van de organisatiecultuur verstaan waarin formele en informele mechanismen de zienswijze en het gedrag van medewerkers in het ethische domein sturen en ethisch gedrag stimuleren (Treviño & Weaver, 2003). Concreet gaat het dan om de (mate van) *helderheid* van de regels over de omgang met elkaar en met de organisatiemiddelen, de *uitvoerbaarheid* ten aanzien van de normen die aan medewerkers worden gesteld, de *zichtbaarheid* van de wijze waarop medewerkers met elkaar en met bedrijfsmiddelen omgaan, de *bespreekbaarheid* van morele dilemma's, de *sanctioneerbaarheid* van (on)ethisch gedrag en het *draagvlak* onder collega's om zorgvuldig met elkaar en met organisatiemiddelen om te gaan (Kaptein, 1998, 2001, 2008).

Empirisch onderzoek

Het praktijkonderzoek is verricht in het politiekorps Midden- en West Brabant tussen november 2003 en juni 2004.[52] De keuze voor een politiekorps werd gemaakt omdat binnen de Nederlandse politie ruime aandacht is geschonken aan integriteit en hiernaar ook al enig onderzoek is verricht (zie bijvoorbeeld Adviescommissie Politie en Integriteit, 2001; van den Heuvel & Lamboo, 2001; Lamboo, 2005; Lasthuizen, Huberts & Kaptein, 2005). De resultaten van deze studie kunnen daardoor in perspectief worden geplaatst, wat de betrouwbaarheid van deze studie ten goede komt. Om in staat te zijn de relaties tussen de invloedsfactoren uit het conceptueel model statistisch te toetsen, is een enquête uitgevoerd onder alle medewerkers van het politiekorps. Daarnaast zijn diepte-interviews gehouden met verschillende sleutelpersonen en zijn relevante beleidsdocumenten bestudeerd. Van de 2700 politiemedewerkers hebben 800 respondenten meegewerkt aan het onderzoek, wat neerkomt op een responspercentage van 30 procent. De gegevens uit de vragenlijsten zijn verwerkt tot een databestand ten behoeve van de analyse.

Resultaten van het onderzoek

De resultaten uit de enquête laten zien dat van de organisationele leiderschapsstijlen inspirerend leiderschap en resultaatgericht leiderschap, en van de ethische leiderschapsstijlen voorbeeldleiderschap en integriteitsgericht leiderschap, in redelijke mate aanwezig zijn in het politiekorps

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[52] Het onderzoek in het politiekorps Midden- en West Brabant leverde ook de gegevens voor de studie van Kolthoff (2007) naar de relatie tussen bedrijfsmatig werken en integriteit en voor het integriteitsbeleid van het korps.

Midden- en West Brabant. Passief en onethisch leiderschap komen ook voor, maar zijn niet wijdverspreid. Daarnaast is er sprake van een redelijk solide ethische cultuur (zie tabel 1).

Tabel 1 Aanwezigheid van (ethisch) leiderschap en ethische cultuur

Concept en operationalisatie	**Gemiddelde** ***(1, laag – 6, hoog)***
Organisationele leiderschapsstijlen	
Inspirerend leiderschap	4,3
Resultaatgericht leiderschap	4,2
Passief leiderschap	2,7
Ethische leiderschapsstijlen	
Voorbeeldleiderschap	4,7
Integriteitsgericht leiderschap	4,7
Onethisch leiderschap	2,1
Dimensies van de ethische cultuur	
Helderheid	5,0
Uitvoerbaarheid	4,2
Transparantie	3,9
Bespreekbaarheid en sanctioneerbaarheid	4,6
Draagvlak	4,4

Voor de meeste typen van integriteitsschendingen geldt dat zij niet zo vaak voorkomen in de organisatie en dat veruit de meeste medewerkers moreel oordelen dat zulke schendingen niet aanvaardbaar zijn. Wanneer de percepties over de frequentie van typen integriteitsschendingen gecombineerd worden met het morele oordeel over de aanvaardbaarheid hiervan, ontstaat een categorisering van integriteitsproblemen die elk een andere beleidsaanpak vereisen (Lasthuizen, Huberts & Kaptein, 2002, 2005). Dit levert het volgende beeld op voor de onderzochte politieorganisatie Midden- en West Brabant (zie figuur 2).

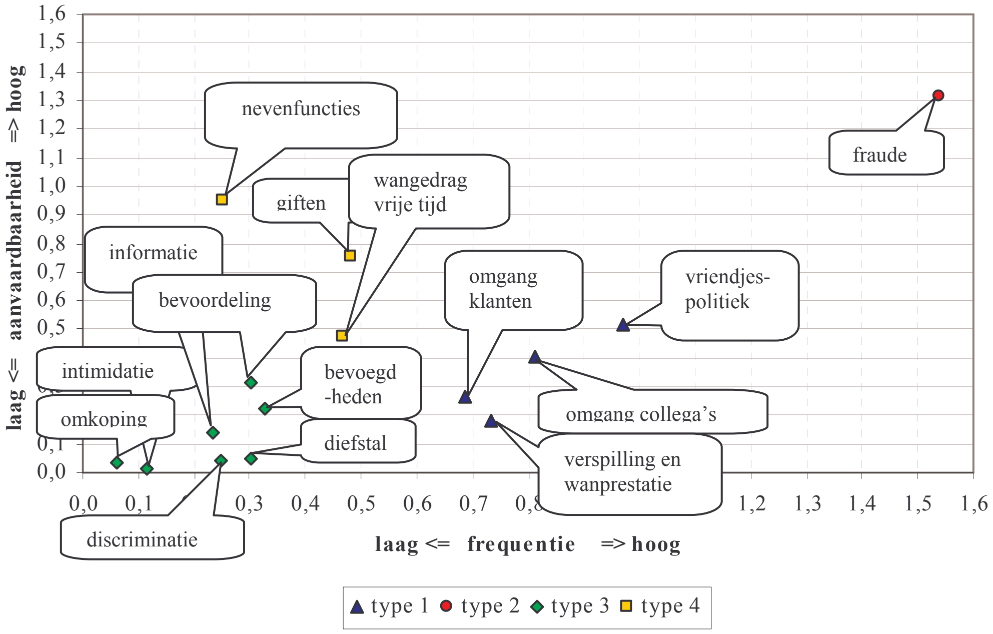
Urgente integriteitsproblemen (type 1): integriteitsschendingen die relatief vaak worden gesignaleerd, maar die onaanvaardbaar worden gevonden door de meeste medewerkers. In het politiekorps Midden- en West Brabant gaat het om vriendjespolitiek door leidinggevenden, onfatsoenlijke omgangsvormen onder collega's en in relatie tot klanten, en verspilling en wanprestatie tijdens het werk.

Terugkerende integriteitsproblemen (type 2): schendingen die relatief vaak worden gesignaleerd, maar ook meer aanvaardbaar worden geacht, zoals het gebruik van organisatiemiddelen en werktijd voor privé-doeleinden (fraude).

Specifieke integriteitsproblemen (type 3): schendingen die nauwelijks worden gesignaleerd en worden beoordeeld als onaanvaardbaar. Het gaat hier om corruptie in de zin van omkoping, bevoordeling door medewerkers, diefstal, oneigenlijk gebruik van bevoegdheden, misbruik en manipulatie van informatie, discriminatie en seksuele intimidatie.

Non-integriteitsproblemen (type 4): schendingen die nauwelijks worden gesignaleerd, maar relatief aanvaardbaar worden gevonden en dus door de medewerkers zelf niet als een probleem worden gezien. In het politiekorps Midden- en West Brabant gaat het om belangenverstrengeling door giften en nevenfuncties en wangedrag in de vrije tijd.

Figuur 2 Waargenomen frequentie versus aanvaardbaarheid van typen integriteitsschendingen (gemiddelde scores; 0, *laag* tot 4, *hoog*)



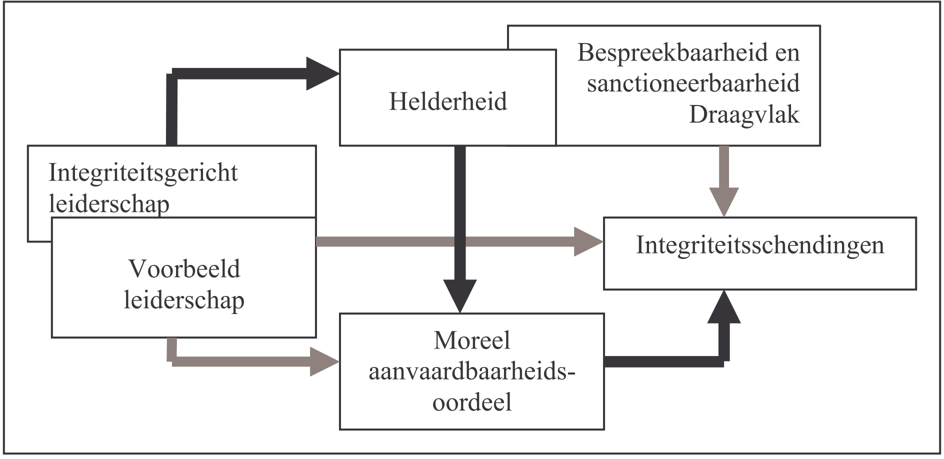
Het op deze manier presenteren van de data geeft ook een handvat voor de wijze waarop integriteitsproblemen zouden kunnen worden aangepakt. Bij terugkerende en non- integriteitsproblemen die relatief aanvaardbaar worden gevonden, zou de beleidsaanpak zich eerst moeten richten op het bewust maken van medewerkers dat er sprake is van een integriteitsprobleem. Voor urgente en specifieke integriteitsproblemen, die door de medewerkers onaanvaardbaar worden gevonden, zou de beleidsaandacht zich moeten richten op de vraag waarom zij dan toch voorkomen in de organisatie.

Conclusies over leiderschap en integriteit

Het analyseren van de invloedsrelaties tussen organisationeel en ethisch leiderschap, ethische cultuur, morele aanvaardbaarheidsoordelen en de waargenomen frequentie van integriteitsschendingen, leverde enkele belangrijke bevindingen op.

De hoofdconclusie over de invloed van leiderschap op de integriteit van een organisatie is dat ethische leiderschapsstijlen stimuleren dat medewerkers integriteitsschendingen onaanvaardbaar vinden, en dat voorbeeldleiderschap en integriteitsgericht leiderschap tevens de door medewerkers waargenomen integriteitsschendingen weten te beperken. Daarnaast heeft het morele oordeel van medewerkers zelf, de mate waarin ze schendingen onaanvaardbaar vinden, een belangrijke beperkende invloed op integriteitsschendingen. Ook een ethische cultuur helpt, maar in een minder sterke mate. Effecten worden vooral gevonden voor helderheid over de regels, bespreekbaarheid, sanctioneerbaarheid en draagvlak. Deze bevindingen zijn weergegeven in het onderstaande model (figuur 3).

Figuur 3 Resulterend model



Naast deze hoofdconclusie komt naar voren dat het belangrijk is om de relaties te specificeren naar verschillende leiderschapsstijlen en typen integriteitsschendingen. Dat leidt tot enkele meer toegespitste conclusies.

Ten eerste is het opvallend dat leiderschap niet het panacee of Eureka concept is zoals algemeen wordt verondersteld in de literatuur. De invloed van leiderschap op de waargenomen frequentie van integriteitsschendingen verloopt veelal indirect via de morele oordelen van medewerkers en de ethische cultuur. Er zijn weinig directe effecten aantoonbaar en deze zijn niet zo sterk als verwacht werd op basis van de theorie.

Ten tweede blijkt dat organisationele leiderschapsstijlen, namelijk inspirerend leiderschap en resultaatgericht leiderschap, veel minder typen integriteitsschendingen beïnvloeden dan ethische leiderschapsstijlen. Ook wordt het veronderstelde positieve effect van inspirerend leiderschap op integriteit binnen het totale beeld van invloedsrelaties in deze studie niet gevonden.

Ten derde, de werking van voorbeeldleiderschap en integriteitsgericht leiderschap verschilt van elkaar. Voorbeeldleiderschap werkt primair via de ethische cultuurdimensie helderheid op de morele aanvaardbaarheidsoordelen van medewerkers en beïnvloedt zo de frequentie waarin integriteitsschendingen voorkomen, terwijl integriteitsgericht leiderschap de schendingen primair via de ethische cultuurdimensies bespreekbaarheid, sanctioneerbaarheid en draagvlak beïnvloedt.

Ten vierde, ethische cultuur beperkt de frequentie van integriteitsschendingen, waarbij de sterkste effecten worden gevonden voor de dimensies bespreekbaarheid, sanctioneerbaarheid en draagvlak. Helderheid over de normen en regels is ook belangrijk, omdat deze dimensie de morele oordelen van medewerkers over de aanvaardbaarheid van schendingen sterk beïnvloedt. De ethische cultuur zelf wordt vooral beïnvloed door de ethische leiderschapsstijlen en veel minder door de organisationele leiderschapsstijlen.

Ten slotte zijn de morele aanvaardbaarheidsoordelen van medewerkers erg belangrijk voor de mate waarin integriteitsschendingen daadwerkelijk lijken plaats te vinden. Als medewerkers integriteitsschendingen onaanvaardbaar vinden, zullen zij minder vaak voorkomen. Het morele oordeel wordt beïnvloed door ethisch leiderschap en door helder te zijn over de normen en regels over de omgang met elkaar en de organisatiemiddelen.

Deze bevindingen hebben, naast methodologische en theoretische implicaties, directe gevolgen voor beleid. Zo zou in leiderschapstrainingen niet alleen aandacht geschonken moeten worden aan effectief leiderschap in termen van output en prestaties, maar ook aan ethisch leiderschap. Daarnaast zouden binnen integriteitstrainingen naast integriteitskwesties ook de rol van voorbeeldleiderschap en integriteitsgericht leiderschap als oplossing voor integriteitsproblemen aan de orde kunnen komen. De resultaten geven tevens het belang van heldere normen en regels ten aanzien van alle typen integriteitsschendingen aan, omdat helderheid van grote invloed is op het morele oordeel van medewerkers over de aanvaardbaarheid van schendingen. Deze normen en regels zouden, gezien het belang van voorbeeldleiderschap, op alle niveaus in de organisatie even krachtig moeten gelden. Daarnaast leren medewerkers ook door het observeren van het gedrag van collega's en de consequenties daarvan: wat doen zij en komen zij er mee weg? Hier wordt het effect van integriteitsgericht leiderschap duidelijk, alsmede de bespreekbaarheid, de sanctioneerbaarheid en het draagvlak als belangrijke onderdelen van een solide ethische cultuur.

About the Author

Karin Lasthuizen (1970) studied Political Science with a specialization in quantitative research methods and women's studies at the University of Nijmegen (the Netherlands). After obtaining her Master's degree in 1995, she worked for several years at the European Social Research Center MZES in Mannheim (Germany) and at the private policy research bureau Intomart GfK in Hilversum (the Netherlands). In 2001 she joined the VU University of Amsterdam as a senior researcher within the research group 'Integrity of Governance' (www.fsw.vu.nl/integriteit) and as a lecturer in Public Administration within the Department of Public Administration and Organization Sciences, where she teaches the master seminar Ethics of Governance, the bachelor practical Inspirational Leadership in Organizations and the Honors Program course Leadership. In 2007, she was nominated by her students for the Lecturer of the Year Award.

Karin Lasthuizen is a member of the standing EGPA study group on the ethics and integrity of governance (www.egpa-ethics.eu) and has published on a variety of topics on administrative ethics and other public administration issues as well as on safety and policing issues in national and international journals and books. Journals which have accepted her work for publication include *Public Administration* (2008), *Policing* (2007), *Public Integrity* (2005), and *Police Practice and Research* (2005); books include *Ethics and Integrity of Governance: Perspectives across Frontiers* by Huberts, Jurkiewicz and Maesschalck (2008) and *Measuring Corruption* by Sampford, Shacklock, Connors and Galtung (2006).

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