J Bus Ethics (2014) 121:63–76
DOI 10.1007/s10551-013-1687-1

(Un)Ethical Behavior and Performance Appraisal: The Role of Affect, Support, and Organizational Justice

Gabriele Jacobs · Frank D. Belschak · Deanne N. Den Hartog

Received: 8 June 2012 / Accepted: 17 March 2013 / Published online: 27 March 2013

Abstract Performance appraisals are widely used as an HR instrument. This study among 332 police officers examines the effects of performance appraisals from a behavioral ethics perspective. A mediation model relating justice perceptions of police officers' last performance appraisal to their work affect, perceived supervisor and organizational support and, in turn, their ethical (pro-organizational proactive) and unethical (counterproductive) work behavior was tested empirically. The relationship between justice perceptions and both, ethical and unethical behavior was mediated by perceived support and work affect. Hence, a singular yearly performance appraisal was linked to both ethical and unethical behaviors at work. The finding that ethical and unethical aspects of employee behavior share several of the same organizational antecedents, namely organizational justice perceptions, has strong practical implications which are discussed as well.

Keywords Ethical behavior · Counterproductive work behavior · Performance appraisal · Organizational justice · Proactive behavior · Work affect

G. Jacobs
Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University Rotterdam, Burgemeester Oudlaan 50, 3062 PA Rotterdam, The Netherlands
e-mail: gjacobs@rsm.nl

F. D. Belschak (✉) · D. N. Den Hartog
Amsterdam Business School, University of Amsterdam, Plantage Muidergracht 12, 1018 TV Amsterdam, The Netherlands
e-mail: f.d.belschak@uva.nl

D. N. Den Hartog
e-mail: d.n.denhartog@uva.nl

Introduction

Scandals relating to unethical behavior, ranging from corruption to abuse to plagiarism, in the financial sector, business world, politics, and religion have dominated the news in recent years. Regardless of whether this is due to a genuine increase in unethical behavior or to a media effect, it does show that unethical behavior is a serious problem for organizations, economies, and society as a whole (see Cropanzano and Stein 2009; De Cremer et al. 2010; Treviño et al. 2006). Enhancing ethical and reducing unethical behavior is even more needed in professions where single employee actions can have crucial consequences for others, such as in health care, the fire brigade, or policing (Armeli et al. 1998; Michie and West 2004). Unethical behavior in these contexts might endanger the very people that rely on these workers for their protection. In this study, we explore antecedents of ethical and unethical work behaviors in a police context. Specifically, we investigate how organizations can effectively manage their employees' ethical and responsible behaviors while avoiding unethical ones (Treviño et al. 1999). We focus on the daily examples of organization-related ethical and unethical behavior, such as acting responsibly by showing extra work effort if needed or taking the initiative to improve faulty procedures (ethical behaviors) versus ignoring orders or being intentionally careless with organizational resources (unethical behaviors).

Organizations aim to guide the ethical behavior of their employees by communicating codes of conducts, training, behavioral guidelines, and monitoring of ethical decision-making (e.g., Brown et al. 2005). Especially organizations in the health and public safety sector are characterized by a large set of legally enforced ethical rules. Yet, such formal measures only work if supported by the informal side of the organization (i.e., its ethical culture; e.g., Kaptein 2009;

Tenbrunsel et al. 2003; Weaver et al. 1999). Employees' perceptions of organizational justice have been identified as an important factor that contributes to an ethical culture (Kaptein 2008; Treviño and Weaver 2001). While an ethical culture is complex and influenced by many different factors (e.g., Kaptein 2009), here we focus on employees' justice perceptions of a specific HR instrument as part of the ethical culture and its effects on employees' (un)ethical behavior. Understanding the influence of a single HR practice (the performance appraisal) on (un)ethical behavior is of importance for organizations, since the effects of such singular practices are often underestimated or overlooked. The understanding of the behavioral consequences of justice perceptions of specific practices also has important practical implications; interventions targeting specific organizational or managerial activities can be more easily developed and implemented than interventions addressing the more general justice or ethical climate of organizations.

The performance appraisal interview is an important managerial practice that triggers justice perceptions (Folger and Cropanzano 1998; Greenberg 1990; Heslin and VandeWalle 2011; Holbrook 2002). Even though appraisals represent short, single events in the magnitude of daily interactions at the workplace, they have a huge impact on employees. Appraisals offer supervisors the opportunity to give performance feedback, agree on targets or work goals, establish a basis for promotion and salary decisions, and discuss employees' career ambitions. These activities, in turn, have strong implications for employees' position in the organization and their career development, which affects their attitudes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, trust) and work behaviors (e.g., Mayer and Davis 1999). Thus, a sense of justice in relation to appraisal is important for employees.

Here, we develop and test a justice-based model of the (un)ethical behavioral consequences of performance appraisals. Model development was driven by three contributions to the extant literature. First, we aim at enhancing the understanding of factors that simultaneously enable ethical and suppress unethical behavior. The literatures on voluntary work behavior as well as behavioral ethics suggest that ethical and unethical behavior might share the same antecedents (e.g., Fay and Sonnentag 2010; Treviño et al. 2006). Second, as an important contextual factor, we analyze the impact of a specific HR practice, the yearly performance appraisal, on (un)ethical behavior. This answers a call of behavioral ethics researchers to explore the role of specific contextual antecedents of (un)ethical behavior (e.g., Treviño et al. 2006). Third, in this context of performance appraisals, we explore justice- and support-related variables as particularly relevant aspects of the organizational and managerial environment (Brown et al. 2005; Cropanzano and Stein 2009; Weaver et al. 2005) and affect as an important individual characteristic which can influence (un)ethical behavior (see e.g., Eisenberg 2000; Gaudine and Thorne 2001). To our knowledge, the role of performance appraisal-related justice perceptions for (un)ethical behavior has not yet been investigated to date.

We propose an integrative model (see Fig. 1) elaborating on the mechanisms through which organizational justice perceptions are linked to employees' ethical and unethical behaviors. We test this model in a multisource sample of 332 German police officers and their peers.

Ethical and Unethical Behavior in Organizations

In the last two decades, (un)ethical behaviors in organizations have received increased scholarly attention (De Cremer et al. 2010; Treviño et al. 2006). Three different streams of research on (un)ethical behavior have been identified in the field of behavioral ethics (see Treviño et al. 2006). The first stream of research focuses on unethical behavior (stealing, lying, cheating, counterproductive work behavior; e.g., Chang 1998; Peterson 2002); the second focuses on ethical behavior defined as behavior that *reaches* some minimum moral standards and is therefore not unethical (e.g., obeying the law; e.g., Wimbush et al. 1997); a third stream of research covers ethical behavior that *exceeds* moral minimums (e.g., whistle-blowing; Treviño and Youngblood 1990). While the first and the second streams of research assume that ethical and unethical behavior are opposite poles of one dimension, the third stream addresses qualitatively different types of behaviors as ethical and goes beyond "reverse coded unethical behaviors". Here, we focus on the first and third stream of research in our conceptualization of unethical and ethical behavior.

We see unethical behavior as referring to behavior that violates moral norms that are accepted by a larger community (Vardi and Weitz 2004) and that goes beyond local organizational norms (Velasquez 2005; Kaptein 2008). Ethical behavior implies adherence to such generally accepted moral norms (Kaptein 2008). Many past field

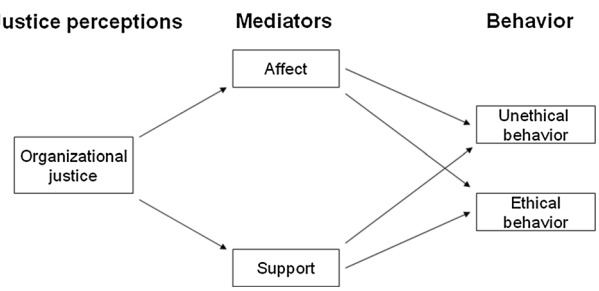

Fig. 1 An integrative model: the effects of organizational justice on ethical and unethical behavior

studies have focused on specific impactful ethical behaviors such as whistle-blowing (Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran 2005) or on specific extreme unethical behaviors such as stealing and corruption (Greenberg 2002; Ashforth and Anand 2003). While it is important to further develop our understanding of specific impactful or extreme cases of (un)ethical behavior, such behaviors are usually characterized by a low base rate and even lower likelihood that these extreme (especially unethical) behaviors are reported (Treviño and Weaver 2003). We therefore take a broader perspective and focus on more commonly or daily occurring (un)ethical behaviors. Via social contagion processes and role modeling, organizational members may copy each other in such (un)ethical behaviors and contribute to an (un)ethical organizational climate (Skarlicki and Kulik 2005).

We also follow the call in the behavioral ethics literature to investigate (un)ethical behaviors as clusters that may be triggered by the same antecedents (e.g., Treviño et al. 2006). The study of clusters of (un)ethical behavior provides more valid and reliable information on the underlying theoretical construct (Kaptein 2008). Specifically, we focus on day-to-day counterproductive work behavior and on pro-organizational proactive behavior as clusters of (un)ethical work behaviors that are of particular relevance for organizations (e.g., Rotundo and Sackett 2002). In organizational behavior, unethical behavior of employees such as theft (Greenberg 1990) is often clustered or labeled as counterproductive behavior (which can be defined as behavior that is intended to hurt the organization or other members of the organization; see Marcus and Schuler 2004; Fox et al. 2001). Unethical behavior can be broader than only counterproductive behavior. Unethical behavior may bring harm, but it does not necessarily (intend to) do so (Kaptein 2008). Thus counterproductive behavior is a specific form or subclass of unethical behavior intended to harm, which can have a detrimental impact on organizational performance. While counterproductive behavior damages the organization it is not always necessarily intended to be unethical. In specific cases, disobeying orders (e.g., strikes) or stealing material (e.g., to prove organizational misbehavior) might reflect ethical behavior in the sense of civil courage. However, here we focus on the daily context of work behavior, in which counterproductive work behavior can be considered as unethical.

The same argument applies to pro-organizational proactive behavior: proactively improving the efficiency of work procedures might take unethical forms in some specific, rare cases (e.g., suggesting unethical work practices by blindly obeying an unethical organization) but in general such work behavior on part of employees are ethical behaviors that demonstrate their sense of responsibility (e.g., Kalshoven et al. in press; Frese and Fay 2001). Hence, here, we focus on day-to-day ethical proactive behaviors of people who take responsibility and show anticipatory, future- and change-oriented behavior that aims at furthering the welfare of the organization and its members (see Frese and Fay 2001).

Both proactive behavior and counterproductive behavior are voluntary, discretionary forms of work behavior (Fay and Sonnentag 2010; Spector and Fox 2002). Even though discretionary behavior can be encouraged by the organizational culture, it is free of direct organizational guidance in the sense of orders or explicit job descriptions. Pro-organizational proactive behavior qualifies as ethical behavior in the sense that it not only reaches minimal moral standards such as honesty or obeying the law but exceeds those moral minimums by contributing more to the organization than is directly expected and enforced (Treviño et al. 2006). As proactive behavior can be subtle and enacted "behind the scenes" (for example, taking the initiative to help out a new colleague or to solve a problem for a customer), it is often not directly observable by supervisors. It thus often yields no direct benefits for the employee and can therefore be considered as genuinely pro-organizational behavior. Pro-organizational proactive behavior may be fueled by utilitarian ethics considerations (Brady and Wheeler 1996) or by a more deontic, principle-based type of ethics (Cropanzano et al. 2003), both of which reflect an ethical motivational basis.

To our knowledge, research has not yet investigated to what extent unethical and ethical work behaviors share the same antecedents. Both the literature on organizational behavior and on behavioral ethics suggests that this might be the case though (e.g., Fay and Sonnentag 2010; Treviño et al. 2006) and argues that organizational justice plays an important role here (e.g., Cropanzano and Stein 2009; Fox et al. 2001).

Organizational Justice and (Un)Ethical Behavior

In line with other field research on organizational justice (e.g., Korsgaard and Roberson 1995; Heslin and VandeWalle 2011), we investigate employees' justice perceptions of an important organizational event, that is, their performance appraisal interview. Performance appraisals that are perceived as unfair have been found to reduce employees' work attitudes and performance (e.g., Latham and Mann 2006). Building on an emotion-centered model, we further elaborate on the mechanism through which (un)fair appraisals affect employees' work behavior. More specifically, we argue that employees' justice perceptions regarding their appraisal evoke strong affect, which is related to both ethical and unethical behavior (cf. Fox et al. 2001; Spector and Fox 2002). There are several reasons for this expectation.

First, justice perceptions relate to ethical and unethical forms of work behavior (see Cropanzano and Stein 2009). For instance, in their meta-analysis on citizenship, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that fairness (distributive, procedural, and overall) was significantly positively linked to citizenship. Similarly, Skarlicki and colleagues noted that unfair supervisor behavior (in terms of unfair outcomes, unfair procedures, and/or unfair interpersonal behaviors) facilitates retaliatory actions from employees who aim to punish those responsible for the unfair situation and restore justice (Skarlicki and Folger 1997; Skarlicki et al. 1999). Such 'organizational retaliatory behavior' (Bidder et al. 2001) is a specific type of unethical behavior that aims to intentionally harm the organization. Similarly, counterproductive work behavior can be differentiated on an interpersonal–organizational dimension (Aquino et al. 1999). Organizational counterproductive behavior covers acts that are aimed at the organization, such as arriving late, ignoring a supervisor's instruction, or using company property in an unauthorized manner. Interpersonal counterproductive behavior describes acts directed at someone specific, such as teasing colleagues or gossiping about the supervisor. Fox et al. (2001) found that perceived injustice was linked to organization-directed counterproductive behavior.

Second, organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of working in a fair and just job environment. Appraisal theory (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996; Cropanzano et al. 2011) argues that emotions are developed as a reaction to an appraisal of events. If an event is appraised as relevant to the personal well-being and goal achievement of an individual, it will trigger emotional reactions. Organizational justice often has strong implications for employees (see Weiss et al. 1999). For instance, specific decision outcomes (distributive justice) have an immediate impact on employees' goal achievement, such as promotions or salary, and procedural justice perceptions induce the belief to be able to influence the environment oneself, which in turn leads to positive feelings (Fox et al. 2001). In addition, disrespectful behavior of and mistreatment by a supervisor (interactional justice) will negatively affect employees' well-being and hence trigger negative feelings such as stress, frustration, or anger (Chen and Spector 1992; see also Cropanzano et al. 2011). Consistently, Fitness (2000) found that the largest category of anger-eliciting events in the work place relates to perceived unfair treatment, such as being falsely accused of poor performance.

Third, next to economic or status-oriented interests in fair treatment, justice has a value of its own. Fairness theory stresses the importance of the deontic response to perceived injustice (Folger and Cropanzano 2001). A deontic response is emotionally reactive, retributive, and sometimes irrational (Cropanzano et al. 2003). Moral accountability is central to fairness theory, explaining strong emotional responses to unfairness. Actions are labeled as unfair, if the actor could have and should have behaved differently and the outcome could have been more favorable. Certainly performance appraisals are events that can be judged under the perspective of moral accountability and thus trigger strong deontic responses.

Affect and (Un)Ethical Behavior

Theory suggests that positive affect (PA) stimulates ethical behavior for several reasons (Den Hartog and Belschak 2007; Fritz and Sonnentag 2009; Kaplan et al. 2009). First, positive affective experiences stimulate pro-social and cooperative orientations as individuals want to maintain their positive emotions by helping others (e.g., Isen and Levin 1972; Levin and Isen 1975). Similarly Gaudine and Thorne (2001) argue that PA increases moral awareness thus facilitating ethical behavior. Also, as Fredrickson (2001, p. 220) elaborates in her broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, such feelings "broaden people's momentary thought-action repertoires, widening the array of thoughts and actions that come to mind". This allows people to shift their attention to new matters and encourages proactive behavior (Fredrickson 1998). Finally, PA includes an arousal component, which energizes individuals to direct attention at their environment and take initiative on its behalf (e.g., Fritz and Sonnentag 2009). Combined, these arguments suggest that PA is likely to focus individuals' action tendencies related to ethical behavior.

In contrast, the relationship between ethical proactive behavior and NA is less clear. Conceptually, scholars on emotions have argued that positive and negative affect (NA) are distinct constructs that can be meaningfully represented as orthogonal dimensions in factor analytic studies of affect (e.g., Watson et al. 1988; Cropanzano et al. 2003). Similarly, several studies have noted that PA and NA have different antecedents and lead to different consequences. In particular in the field of ethical and unethical behavior scholars have argued that PA and NA lead to different outcomes via different psychological pathways (e.g., Spector and Fox 2002; Miles et al. 2002). After perceptions of injustice triggered moral awareness, NA may stimulate cognitive reasoning for moral judgment (proactive problem solving), but NA may also inhibit the actual moral response in terms of proactivity (freeze reaction, learned helplessness) (Treviño et al. 2006). Consistently, the few empirical studies on NA and proactivity have yielded null- or contradictory results (e.g., Den Hartog and Belschak 2007). We therefore do not hypothesize a specific relationship between NA and proactivity here.

Research on unethical work behavior emphasizes the importance of situational constraints that block employees from attaining valued work goals. These constraints cause feelings of frustration that facilitate employees' engagement in counterproductive work behavior (Fox and Spector 1999). Such behavior can be seen as aggressive and, based on frustration–aggression theory, has been embedded in an affect-based theory of organizational aggression (e.g., Chen and Spector 1992; Cropanzano et al. 2011). Analogous to the emotional mediation of the general frustration–aggression link, authors suggest that the relationship of work frustrations with counterproductive behavior is mediated by NA (e.g., Belschak and Den Hartog 2009; Fox and Spector 1999). Frustrating or negative work events lead to emotional reactions, especially anger and frustration. These, in turn, lead to retaliatory behavioral intentions in form of unethical behavior (e.g., Cropanzano et al. 2011). In contrast, PA stimulates pro-organizational and cooperative behavior (e.g., Levin and Isen 1975) and should thus reduce unethical behavior as such behavior usually comes with negative consequences for others.

In sum, we argue that the relationship between employees' justice perceptions with: (a) ethical work behavior is mediated by PA as justice triggers PA which broadens individuals' thought-action repertoire and stimulates pro-organizational behavior; (b) unethical work behavior is mediated by NA as injustice invokes NA which can trigger aggressive behavior.

Hypothesis 1 The relationship between organizational justice perceptions and (un)ethical behavior is mediated by affect.

Perceived Support and Justice

The support that employees receive is a key construct in the justice literature (see Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). More specifically, researchers argue that employees' justice perceptions affect their perception of the extent to which they are valued by the organization (distributive and procedural justice) or by their supervisor (interactional justice) (Moorman et al. 1998; see Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). Also, support has received some attention in the literatures on proactive (e.g., Parker et al. 2006) and counterproductive behavior (Miles et al. 2002). Research suggests, that social influence is of high importance for the development of (un)ethical behavior. Role modeling ethical behavior by leaders is effective (e.g., Brown et al. 2005), since in many situations employees do not behave according to internalized standards and convictions, but according to material outcomes and social influence (Treviño and Brown 2004). Given these arguments, we add employees' perceived support as an additional potential mediation mechanism.

Employees develop globalized beliefs about the extent to which their organization sees them as favorable or unfavorable and takes their goals and values into account, the so-called perceived organizational support (POS) (Eisenberger et al. 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). POS scholars have noted that employees also develop general views on the degree to which their supervisor values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Kottke and Sharafinski 1988) and have labeled this perceived supervisor support (PSS). Research on POS and PSS usually finds positive relationships between the two constructs, and studies argue and find that supervisors are agents and representatives of the organization: employees thus seem to see PSS as an indicator or antecedent of POS (e.g., Eisenberger et al. 1986, 2002; Shannock and Eisenberger 2006). Still, the studies also consistently show that PSS and POS are distinct constructs that can be distinguished theoretically as well as empirically, that is, PSS is only one component of POS, and supervisors can also be perceived as supportive even if the organization in general is not (e.g., Eisenberger et al. 1986, 2002; Shannock and Eisenberger 2006).

Organizational justice researchers argue that different dimensions of justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional) are related to perceptions of being support (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). For example, distributive justice signals the organization's concern for the employee's welfare and therefore affects the perception of being supported (e.g., Shore and Shore 1995). Eisenberger et al. (1990) argue more broadly that all positive activities by the organization that might benefit the employee may be taken as evidence by employees that the organization cares about them. Such activities cover the different forms of justice and function as an antecedent to POS (e.g., Moorman et al. 1998; see Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002).

In the context of performance appraisals, distributive and procedural justice is likely related to both POS and PSS as an employee can hold both the organization and supervisor responsible for the outcome of a performance appraisal. Similarly, both organization and supervisor might be seen as responsible for the use of fair procedures. However, as interactional justice is more closely linked to the supervisor treating employees with dignity and respect, we argue that interactional justice should be linked to PSS rather than POS. We hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2 Both (a) distributive justice and (b) procedural justice, are positively related to perceived organizational support.

Hypothesis 3 All three, (a) distributive, (b) procedural, and (c) interactional justice are positively related to perceived supervisor support.

Perceived Support and (Un)ethical Behavior

As PSS is mostly treated as an antecedent of POS, the direct impact of PSS on outcomes has received less attention than that of POS. Exceptions are studies looking at both POS and PSS in relation to retention/turnover (e.g., Eisenberger et al. 2002) and job performance (Shanock and Eisenberger 2006) which show that both POS and PSS explain unique variance in employee behavior. Here, we therefore include both PSS and POS as potential antecedents of (un)ethical behavior.

The characteristics of ethical role models (Weaver et al. 2005) cover core aspects of support, that is, ethical leaders show helpful, positive, supportive, and trustworthy behavior. Research stresses the social exchange aspect: Followers wish to reciprocate supportive treatment with ethical behavior (Treviño and Brown 2004). Thus, PSS and POS can play a role. Feeling supported can enhance self-efficacy as well as outcome expectations related to ethical behaviors (Manz and Sims 1987; Parker et al. 2006). Clearly, employees expect at least not to suffer because of their ethical behavior (Treviño et al. 1999). POS and PSS can signal to employees that their organization and supervisor trust in their abilities and will likely reward their efforts to be proactive on behalf of the organization.

Empirical work on support and proactivity shows inconsistent results. While Frese et al. (1999) did not find an effect, Parker et al. (2006) did find a positive effect of perceived support on proactive behavior. As Frese and Fay (2001) argue, discretionary behavior, even if pro-organizational, may sometimes challenge supervisors' decisions, and supervisors may therefore at times find it difficult to support their employees' initiatives. In a policing context, however, supervisors can hardly offer detailed procedural guidelines or directives to police officers as situations often are complex, novel, and dynamic. Supervisors and the police organization are therefore dependent on the moral judgment of their officers, and supporting their officers is likely to stimulate their ethical behavior. We expect that, in such a context, supervisor and organizational support is authentic and taken seriously by employees, who will show more ethical behavior to benefit their organization when feeling supported. To our knowledge, research on ethical behavior has not yet empirically investigated the effects of POS and PSS. For the theoretical reasons mentioned above support should enhance employee ethical behavior.

We also expect that perceived support relates to unethical work behavior because support increases employees' caring about and loyalty to the organization (e.g., Eisenberger et al. 2001), which reduces behavior that might damage the organization. Direct research evidence on POS or PSS and unethical work behavior is scarce. Miles et al. (2002) investigated the effects of organizational constraints on counterproductive behavior. Their measure of organizational constraints was the frequency with which the job performance of employees was hindered, the limited availability of resources, or disturbing rules and procedures. Employees experience such constraints as a frustration, which can ultimately lead to retaliatory behavior (e.g., Chen and Spector 1992). We expect that employees experience support both by the organization and supervisor as the opposite of constraints and thus will reduce their unethical behavior when they feel supported (Chen and Spector 1992; Fox and Spector 1999). We hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4 Both (a) perceived organizational support, and (b) perceived supervisor support are significantly related to (un)ethical behavior.

In sum, we argue that the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and ethical as well as unethical behavior is mediated by POS and PSS. Organizational justice signals employees that their organization and supervisor cares about them and supports them; employees likely reciprocate such POS and PSS by engaging in pro-organizational behavior (showing ethical behavior) and by reducing behavior potentially damaging to the organization or supervisor (unethical behavior).

Hypothesis 5 The relationship between organizational justice perceptions and (un)ethical behavior is mediated by (a) perceived supervisor support and (b) perceived organizational support.

Method

Sample and Procedure

This study was carried out among police officers in Germany. Typically these police officers have one performance appraisal per year. In cooperation with the German Police Academy (the only training centre within the German police where senior police officers from all states as well as from the federal police forces receive training to qualify them for the higher ranks in the German police forces), we contacted the heads of the police forces of two German states asking them to cooperate in a study on the perception and acceptance of appraisal interviews within the German police force. Both agreed to send surveys to a representative sample of their police officers of lower to intermediate level (i.e., ranks lower to that of police captain). In total, we sent 500 questionnaires with stamped return envelopes to randomly selected police officers. Besides filling out their own survey, we asked these officers also to give a short questionnaire with a separate letter and return envelope to the colleague who would be best able to evaluate their work behavior. Police officers often

spend much of their working time in teams of two (being on the beat, driving). Therefore close colleagues have a good insight into each other's daily work behavior. The close colleague was requested to think of and rate recent work behavior of the focal officer and send the questionnaire back to the researchers in a sealed return envelope.

Only questionnaires that were completely filled out and for which a matching colleague evaluation was obtained were included in the analyses. The final sample consisted of 332 complete employee–colleague dyads (a 66 % response rate for complete dyads). Respondents participated voluntarily and anonymously and did not receive anything in return for participation. Of the responding officers, 85 % were men; 11 % were up to 30 years old, 26 % between 30 and 40, 49 % between 41 and 50, and 14 % older than 50. Average tenure was 23.2 years (SD = 9.0).

Measures

While justice perceptions, perceived supervisor and organizational support, PA and NA, and unethical (counterproductive) behavior were collected from the focal police officer, officers' ethical (pro-organizational proactive) behavior and complaining behavior (a form of counterproductive behavior visible to colleagues) were collected as colleague-ratings. Items had 7-point Likert scales.

Organizational justice perceptions were measured specifically related to respondents' last performance appraisal. This is in line with Heslin and VandeWalle (2011) who suggest tailoring justice operationalizations to study conditions and who also measured justice related to performance appraisal. To help respondents remember their last performance appraisal, we asked them to think back to this event and try to remember the process as well as the outcome of it as detailed as possible. They were first asked to make this memory as vivid as possible, re-experience the event, and write it down in response to an open question ('Please think back to your last performance appraisal interview. Please try to remember this event as vividly as possible and re-experience the conversation with your supervisor. Can you please describe the interview now?'). After describing their last performance appraisal, police officers filled out items on *justice perceptions* of the appraisal interview. The justice items were adapted from Colquitt (2001) by adjusting the general justice items to the specific performance appraisal context (i.e., replacing a general procedural term in the original items by a performance appraisal-specific term for our specific context; for instance, "Has he/she treated you with respect?" was changed to "Has the person who conducted the appraisal treated you with respect?"). Perceived *distributive justice* of the appraisal was measured by four items (e.g., "Does the outcome of the appraisal reflect what you have contributed to the organization?"); *procedural justice perceptions* with three items (e.g., "Were you able to express your views and feelings during the performance appraisal?"); and *interactional justice perceptions* with six items covering both informational and interpersonal aspects (e.g., "Has the person who conducted the appraisal treated you with respect?").

Police officers' *work affect* was measured by 10 items taken from Belschak and Den Hartog (2009) who developed the scale to capture emotional reactions to feedback in a performance appraisal context. These affect items are also used in other scales such as the PANAS (Watson et al. 1988) or the measure capturing emotions at work developed by Fisher (2000). After respondents had remembered and described their last performance appraisal interview, we asked them how intensely they felt a list of discrete emotions during and immediately after the appraisal. *Positive affect* covered five positive emotions (e.g., pride, enthusiasm, joy); *negative affect* included five negative emotions (e.g., frustration, anger, anxiety).

Perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support were both measured with the three highest-loading items from the short version of the POS scale of Eisenberger et al. (1986) and, for PSS, by replacing the word *organization* by *supervisor* (e.g., "The organization/My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values"). These measures (in full and short form) have been validated and successfully applied in earlier research (e.g., Eisenberger et al. 1986, 2001, 2002; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002, 2006).

Unethical work behavior was measured both through self- and colleague ratings. Specifically we asked focal police officers to what extent they had engaged in a number of organization-focused counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) since their last performance appraisal. For self-ratings we used 11 items from Fox and Spector (1999) focusing on production deviance (i.e., minor behaviors targeting the organization, not those directed at co-workers) as we expect that employees will engage specifically in unethical behavior directed against the source of injustice. This is in line with earlier research investigating counterproductive work behavior as a reaction to performance appraisals (e.g., Belschak and Den Hartog 2009; see also Fox et al. 2001). Sample items read "I falsified or exaggerated my work results", "I intentionally worked slowly or carelessly" or "I purposively did not work hard when there were things to be done". The measure by Fox and Spector (1999) is well-validated and has been used in different studies on workplace deviance before (e.g., Belschak and Den Hartog 2009, 2012; Fox et al. 2001; Penney and Spector 2005).

The use of self-reports in organizational research is an ongoing concern, although the validity of this criticism is highly contingent on the research topic. As scholars note, for delinquent acts such as CWB it is hard to come up with better-suited and less-biased alternative measures than self-reports (e.g., Fox and Spector 1999). Thus, self-reports of delinquent acts are still the most frequently used way to measure CWB (e.g., Belschak and Den Hartog 2009; Fox et al. 2001). To provide some validation for the self-report measure of CWB we also measured police officers' *complaining behavior* as a peer (colleague) rating. Complaining can be considered as CWB as it may harm the internal morale and external reputation of the organization and can be contagious. In contrast to general CWB, which is mostly hidden even from close colleagues (certainly in a policing context with its strong emphasis on integrity), complaining presents a visible part of CWB that colleagues can observe and rate. When selecting the items we focused on types of complaining that are destructive and negative in nature (to ensure we measured an unethical form of work behavior), instead of forms of complaining that could be considered as voicing legitimate issues. We measured police officers' complaining behavior with three items adapted from MacKenzie et al. (1991) (e.g., "My colleague often approached me to complain about trivial matters", "My colleague made problems bigger than they actually are").

Finally, police officers' *ethical behavior* was defined as the degree to which they took initiatives at work to help the organization. It was measured through seven items with which a colleague rated the focal police officer's behavior since the officer's last performance appraisal. Specifically, we took the seven items of the personal initiative scale by Frese et al. (1996, 1997) which is a validated measure (see Frese et al. 1996, 1997; Fay and Frese 2001) that other studies have also successfully used (e.g., Den Hartog and Belschak 2007, 2012; Fay and Sonnentag 2002). In our survey, personal initiative was defined as pro-organizational proactive behavior in an introductory sentence; after that, the seven items were presented (e.g., "At work, my colleague took the initiative immediately even if others didn't", "My colleague usually did more than was expected from her/him", "My colleague tried to make a difference." and "When something went wrong, my colleague immediately looked for a solution").

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To test the proposed factor structure, as well as convergent and discriminant validity of the above measures of constructs, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The goodness-of-fit of the models was assessed with χ^2 tests, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the incremental fit index (IFI). The fit indices showed that the proposed nine-factor model fits satisfactorily: χ^2 (1,130) = 2,247.15 ($p < .01$), CFI = .91, IFI = .91, and RMSEA = .06. The factor loadings were high: distributive justice (ranging from .75 to .96), procedural justice (.47 to .92), interactional justice (.55 and .84), PA (.71–.95), NA (.37–.97), POS (.74–.94), PSS (.83–.92), unethical behavior (.54–.79), complaining (.77–.87), and ethical behavior (.82–.89). The factor inter-correlations ranged from −.66 (PA and NA) to .72 (procedural justice and PA).

Descriptive Analysis

The descriptives and inter-correlations of the study variables are presented in Table 1. All three justice dimensions are significantly related with affect, support, and ethical and unethical behavior (with the exception of the relationship between distributive justice and ethical behavior). Also, both PA and NA as well as POS and PSS were significantly related to ethical and unethical behavior. The correlational pattern is thus similar for ethical and unethical behavior.

Test of Structural Hypotheses

We conducted Structural Equation Modeling using AMOS software to test our hypotheses. This yields the advantage of estimating all relationships simultaneously and thus providing more accurate significance levels and allows us to compare different models to each other through a χ^2 difference test. Given that the extant literature notes that the three justice dimensions are usually highly correlated and that ethical and unethical behavior are in general negatively correlated with each other, we allowed these measures to be correlated. In general, the hypothesized model fits the data relatively well: χ^2 (16) = 32.21 ($p < .01$), CFI = .98; IFI = .98; RMSEA = .06. Perceptions of distributive and interactional justice were significantly related to both PA ($\beta = .62$, $p < .01$, and $\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) and NA ($\beta = -.63$, $p < .01$, and $\beta = -.14$, $p < .01$). Procedural justice perceptions, however, were not significantly related to PA ($\beta = .09$, n.s.) or NA ($\beta = .05$, n.s.). Also, PA was neither significantly related to employees' ethical behavior ($\beta = .05$, n.s.) nor to their unethical behavior (CWB or complaining, $\beta = .04$, n.s., and $\beta = .03$, n.s.). NA was significantly positively linked to unethical behavior (CWB: $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$; complaining: $\beta = .12$, $p < .05$).

Table 1 Descriptives and inter-correlations of the variables included in the study (alphas on diagonal)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Distributive justice	(.93)									
2. Procedural justice	.68**	(.71)								
3. Interactional justice	.38**	.45**	(.88)							
4. Positive affect	.75**	.58**	.45**	(.92)						
5. Negative affect	−.65**	−.44**	−.35**	−.56**	(.85)					
6. Organizational support	.36**	.36**	.23**	.37**	−.29**	(.86)				
7. Supervisor support	.23**	.32**	.50**	.34**	−.15*	.35**	(.90)			
8. Counterproductive work behavior	−.18**	−.14**	−.20**	−.20**	.29**	−.23**	−.22**	(.88)		
9. Ethical behavior	.06	.13*	.17**	.14**	−.12*	.16**	.23**	−.14**	(.95)	
10. Complaining	−.08	−.15**	−.09	−.11*	.17**	−.16**	−.18**	.21**	−.44**	(.86)
Mean	3.79	2.75	5.09	3.19	2.68	2.96	4.27	2.04	5.24	3.17
SD	1.67	1.26	1.32	1.63	1.54	1.38	1.63	.98	1.22	1.51

$N = 332$; * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Next, POS was significantly related to perceptions of distributive justice ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$) and procedural justice ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$). Hypothesis 2 is thus supported. PSS was significantly related to procedural ($\beta = .13$, $p < .05$) and interactional justice ($\beta = .46$, $p < .01$) but not to distributive justice ($\beta = -.03$, n.s.) partially supporting Hypothesis 3.

Finally, ethical behavior, CWB, and complaining were significantly linked to PSS ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$, $\beta = -.16$, $p < .01$, and $\beta = -.14$, $p < .05$, respectively). While CWB was significantly related to POS ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$) ethical behavior and complaining were not ($\beta = .08$, n.s., and $\beta = -.09$, n.s.). Hypothesis 4 is thus partially substantiated. Figure 2 summarizes the significant findings of the analyses.

Given the strong theoretical and empirical support for a relationship between ethical (pro-organizational proactive) behavior and PA in the literature, we conducted additional analyses exploring the relationship between these two variables. Specifically, we explored whether a non-linear (squared) relationship between these constructs proved to be significant and added this to the baseline model M1. Indeed the coefficient of the squared effect was significantly related to the employees' ethical behavior ($\beta = .10, p < .05$).

Test of Additional Hypotheses

The hypotheses developed in the theoretical section constitute relatively specific propositions in the sense that particular predictions for mediation were made. To control for alternative explanations such as direct, non-mediated effects of employees' justice perceptions on the outcomes we computed two additional models. Specifically, we compared the model above (baseline model, M1) to a model including direct paths from the justice dimensions to ethical behavior (M2) and to unethical behavior (CWB

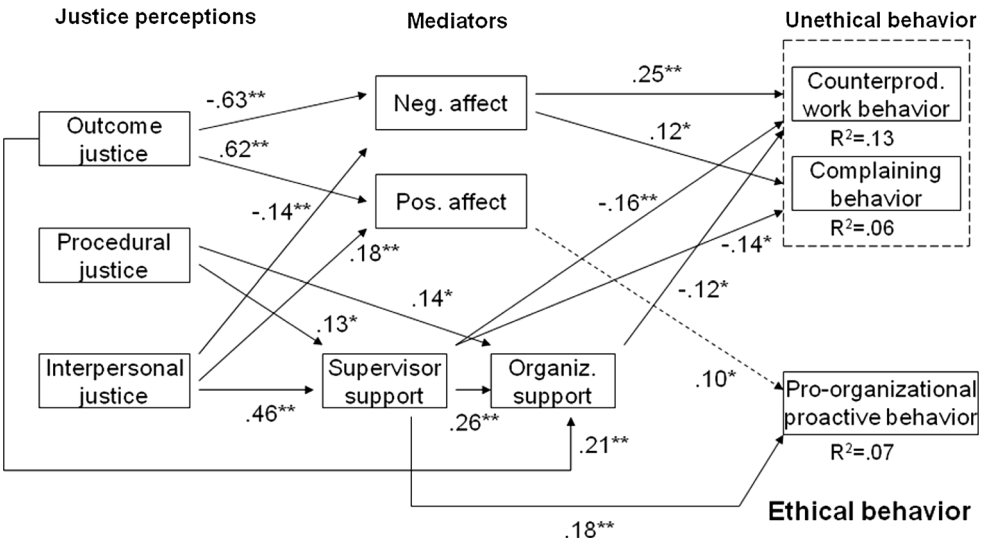

Fig. 2 Findings for structural equation model (non-significant paths are omitted). *Note:* Standardized coefficients are presented. *Dashed line* referring to coefficient of squared effect. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$

and complaining) (M3). None of the coefficients of the additional direct paths from justice perceptions to ethical or unethical behaviors reached a significant level of $p < .05$. Consistently, neither model M2 nor model M3 had a significantly better fit than the full-mediation baseline model M1 ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 2.31, n.s., and $\Delta\chi^2$ (6) = 6.25, n.s.). The paths from justice perceptions to outcomes therefore are fully mediated by affect and PSS. Hypothesis 1 is fully supported; Hypothesis 5 is partially supported. In sum, the results presented above and in Fig. 2 provide broad support for the proposed theoretical model.

Discussion

This study in a policing context tested a conceptual model proposing that employees' justice perceptions related to their last performance appraisal influenced their affect and their feelings of support as well as subsequently their ethical and unethical behaviors. We assumed an interdisciplinary perspective by applying existing theoretical frameworks from organizational behavior to the domain of behavioral ethics. In doing so, we aimed to further understanding of the role of affect and contextual aspects in behavioral ethics.

Our results suggest that employees interpret their performance appraisal as a symbolic situation in which they test the trustworthiness of both their superior and organization towards them (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). Individuals expect just treatment, and injustice creates tension that motivates behaviors to decrease feelings of injustice (e.g., Cropanzano and Stein 2009). As a consequence, the justice perceptions in performance appraisals can trigger long-lasting effects on organizational outcomes. Here, we found that police officers evaluated their performance appraisals in terms of justice, and that through their impact on affect and perceived support these justice perceptions had strong implications for their (un)ethical work behaviors. This adds to the literatures on behavioral ethics, performance appraisal, and organizational justice as, to our knowledge, the link between justice perceptions, HR practices (here: performance appraisal), and (un)ethical behavior has not been investigated to date.

First, in line with expectations we found distributive and interactional justice were related to PA and NA. Interestingly, procedural justice was linked to neither form of affect. Similar results were found in an earlier study for specific, discrete emotions such as anger, anxiety, happiness, or joy (Krehbiel and Cropanzano 2000).

Next, we found that the relationships of justice perceptions with ethical and unethical behaviors were mediated by affect. This demonstrates the role of affect in ethical and unethical behavior (Spector and Fox 2002; Fay and Sonnentag 2010; Gaudine and Thorne 2001). We did not find the expected negative relationship between PA and unethical behavior. Perhaps this is because unethical behavior is exceptional behavior that is usually not shown. Without reason—such as a frustrating, unfair event resulting in negative emotions—employees do not easily engage in counterproductive behavior, and thus likely no general negative behavioral intention exists that could be reduced by PA.

PA was related to employees' ethical behavior, but only in a curvilinear way. This is not fully in line with existing studies that found a linear link between PA and proactive behavior (e.g., Den Hartog and Belschak 2007; Fritz and Sonnentag 2009). It may be that the specific context of our study plays a role here: police organizations in Germany are rather bureaucratic and are characterized by formal procedures and a clear distribution of responsibilities. In this sense, PA (and the related motivation to show ethical behavior) may have to overcome a certain threshold before police officers decide to go beyond existing responsibilities and procedures to become proactive. In line with this explanation, we found a significant positive quadratic relationship between ethical behavior and PA in our post hoc analyses. This finding adds to the extant literature on affect and ethical behavior by suggesting that while PA is significantly linked to ethical behavior, the actual form of the relationship (i.e., linear or non-linear) needs to be tested and may be contingent on the context.

Finally, in line with the existing literature, we found that the extent to which employees perceived their performance appraisal to be fair was significantly related to their perception of being supported by the organization and supervisor. Employees' perceptions of support, in turn, formed an important antecedent of (un)ethical work behaviors. Yet, it was mainly perceived supervisor rather than organizational support that was related to (un)ethical behavior. This finding adds to the emerging stream of research investigating the direct effects of PSS on outcome variables rather than focusing only on the indirect effects as mediated by POS (e.g., Shanock and Eisenberger 2006). Given work on ethical leadership (see Brown and Treviño 2006), the strong impact of leader-related variables such as interactional justice and PSS on (un)ethical behavior is not surprising. Leaders are considered as role models (e.g., Brown et al. 2005). Their (un)fair behavior in performance appraisals is likely to affect the perception of their (un)supportiveness and ultimately translate in follower (un)ethical behavior.

POS was only significantly related to unethical work behavior. Employees' unethical activities are reduced if either the supervisor or the organization supports them. This further substantiates the proposition that unethical work behavior is not easily shown, and this may be even more so in a policing context in which strong ethical standards operate.

Limitations and Future Research

Like most research, this study suffers from a number of limitations. First, the independent and mediating variables in our study were collected from the same source, that is, the individual police officer. For variables aimed to measure respondents' perceptions and affect there was no real alternative to the use of self-reports as other people do not have sufficient insights into respondents' inner experiences. We measured most dependent variables from a different source. While we partially used self-reports of police officers' for measuring unethical behavior as such behavior is often not visible for others (see the methods section for a brief discussion), we also measured colleague ratings of a subset of unethical behavior (complaining) that is visible for colleagues. The results for self-reported and colleague-rated measures of unethical behavior largely converged, providing support for the validity of the self-report measure of counterproductive behavior. We therefore did not apply statistical corrections for common method variance (CMV) in our computations as such corrections can produce less accurate results than applying no corrections in most cases. As Richardson et al. (2009, p. 796) argue based on recent simulations, "we cannot recommend any post hoc CMV technique as a means for correcting CMV's potential effects in a given data set, nor can we recommend any technique as a means of detecting bias."

Next, our data was collected in a specific setting, that is, the German police organization. While our hypotheses are based on general, not context-specific theories some of our findings differed from our expectations and might be explained by contextual factors. Replicating the results in a different context might therefore be desirable.

Finally, we measured our data at one specific point in time, whereas certain processes may unfold or change over time. For instance, it might be interesting to measure whether effects of justice perceptions diminish over time. Also, the direction of causality where assumed in this article is inferred from theoretical arguments rather than tested here as our cross-sectional design did not allow testing for this. In this regard, experimental and longitudinal research could strengthen our conclusions.

Managerial Implications

Our study suggests that a single organizational event, namely a yearly performance appraisal has a strong impact on subsequent (un)ethical behavior. The careful handling of such HR practices is vital, since these effects are pervasive and long lasting. Consistently, scholars in behavioral ethics encourage looking at events such as performance appraisals from a normative perspective (e.g., Cropanzano and Stein 2009; Folger and Salvador 2008). As much as it is the duty of employees to show ethical behavior and avoid unethical behavior, it is the duty of organizations to treat their employees in fair and ethical ways. In the open question in our survey where we asked respondents to describe their last performance appraisal many respondents wrote long and highly emotional descriptions how they perceived the distanced and formal atmosphere of performance appraisal situations as inappropriate. Leaders need to be aware that interactional justice matters certainly also when conveying job appraisals.

Inspired by the literatures on voluntary work behavior and behavioral ethics (e.g., Fay and Sonnentag 2010; Treviño et al. 2006) we find that ethical and unethical behavior share many of the same antecedents. Justice perceptions of performance appraisals—and especially interactive justice—mediated by supervisor support and affect both encourage ethical behavior and reduce unethical behavior. This is an important finding which stresses that fair organizational processes and leader behavior can catch two birds with one stone.

To conclude, understanding performance appraisals as part of an ethical infrastructure (Tenbrunsel et al. 2003) opens up new opportunities. Official codes of conducts and reward systems for ethical behavior gain credibility when ethical guidelines are also reflected in HR practices and leader behavior. HR and justice researchers have refrained from normative or moral judgment (Cropanzano and Stein 2009; Folger and Salvador 2008), which has led to an underestimation of emotional (deontic) responses to justice. In the context of our study, namely policing, perceived injustice during a performance appraisal and perceived lack of support by a supervisor is likely judged against the general moral identity (Aquino and Reed 2002; Weaver and Agle 2002) of the police profession. Moral judgments are an integral part of police work and "being the good guys" is fundamental to police professional identity (Van Maanen 1975; Jacobs et al. 2008). The observation that one's own organization is accountable for unfair behavior then triggers strong emotional and behavioral responses.

References

Aquino, K., & Reed, A. (2002). The self-importance of moral identity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*(6), 1423–1440.

Aquino, K., Lewis, M. U., & Bradfield, M. (1999). Justice constructs, negative affectivity, and employee deviance: A proposed model and empirical test. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(7), 1073–1091.

Armeli, S., Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Lynch, P. (1998). Perceived organizational support and police performance: The moderating influence of socioemotional needs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(2), 288–297.

Ashforth, B. E., & Anand, V. (2003). The normalization of corruption in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 25*, 1–52.

Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2009). Consequences of positive and negative feedback: The impact on emotions and extra-role behaviors. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 58*(2), 274–303.

Bidder, S. L., Chang, C. C., & Tyler, T. R. (2001). Procedural justice and retaliation in organizations: Comparing cross-nationally the importance of fair group processes. *International Journal of Conflict Management, 12*(4), 295–311.

Brady, F. N., & Wheeler, G. E. (1996). An empirical study of ethical predispositions. *Journal of Business Ethics, 15*(9), 927–940.

Brown, M., & Treviño, L. K. (2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *Leadership Quarterly, 17*(6), 595–616.

Brown, M., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97*(2), 117–134.

Chang, M. K. (1998). Predicting unethical behavior: A comparison of the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 17*(16), 1825–1834.

Chen, P. Y., & Spector, P. E. (1992). Relationships of work stressors with aggression, withdrawal, theft, and substance use: An exploratory study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 65*(3), 117–184.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 386–400.

Conlon, D. E., Meyer, C. J., & Nowakowski, C. J. (2001). How does organizational justice affect performance, withdrawal, and counterproductive behavior? In J. Greenberg & J. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 301–328). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cropanzano, R., & Stein, J. H. (2009). Organizational justice and behavioral ethics: Promises and prospects. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 2*(2), 193–233.

Cropanzano, R., Goldman, B., & Folger, R. (2003a). Deontic justice: The role of morale principles in workplace fairness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*(8), 1019–1024.

Cropanzano, R., Weiss, H. M., Hale, J. M. S., & Reb, J. (2003b). The structure of affect: Reconsidering the relationship between negative and positive affectivity. *Journal of Management, 29*(6), 831–857.

Cropanzano, R., Stein, J. H., & Nadisic, T. (2011). *Social justice and the experience of emotion*. New York: Routledge.

De Cremer, D., Mayer, D., & Schminke, M. (2010). Guest editors' introduction on understanding ethical behavior and decision making: A behavioral ethics approach. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 20*(1), 1–6.

Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2007). Personal initiative, commitment and affect at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 80*(4), 601–622.

Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2012). Work engagement and Machiavellianism in the ethical leadership process. *Journal of Business Ethics, 107*(1), 35–47.

Eisenberg, N. (2000). Emotion, regulation, and moral development. *Annual Review of Psychology, 51*(1), 665–697.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 500–507.

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(1), 51–59.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(1), 42–51.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 565–573.

Fay, D., & Frese, M. (2001). The concept of personal initiative: An overview of validity studies. *Human Performance, 14*(1), 97–124.

Fay, S., & Sonnentag, S. (2002). Rethinking the effects of stressors: A longitudinal study on personal initiative. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7*(3), 221–234.

Fay, D., & Sonnentag, S. (2010). A look back to move ahead: New directions for research on proactive performance and other discretionary work behaviours. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 59*(1), 1–20.

Fisher, C. D. (2000). Mood and emotions while working: Missing pieces of job satisfaction? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(2), 185–202.

Fitness, J. (2000). Anger in the workplace: An emotion script approach to anger episodes between workers and their superiors, co-workers and subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(2), 147–162.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). *Organizational justice and human resource management*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 89–118). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Folger, R., & Salvador, R. (2008). Is management theory too "selfish"? *Journal of Management, 34*(6), 1127–1151.

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A model of work frustration–aggression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(6), 915–931.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59*(3), 291–309.

Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of General Psychology, 2*(3), 300–319.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist, 56*(3), 218–226.

Frese, M., & Fay, D. (2001). Personal initiative (PI): An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 23*, 133–187.

Frese, M., Kring, W., Soose, A., & Zempel, J. (1996). Personal initiative at work: Differences between East and West Germany. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*(1), 37–63.

Frese, M., Fay, D., Hilburger, T., Leng, K., & Tag, A. (1997). The concept of personal initiative: Operationalization, reliability and validity in two German samples. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 70*(2), 139–161.

Frese, M., Teng, E., & Wijnen, C. J. D. (1999). Helping to improve suggestion systems: Predictors of making suggestions in companies. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(7), 1139–1155.

Fritz, C., & Sonnentag, S. (2009). Antecedents of day-level proactive behavior: A look at job stressors and positive affect during the workday. *Journal of Management, 35*(1), 827–856.

Gaudine, A., & Thorne, L. (2001). Emotion and ethical decision-making in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics, 31*(2), 175–187.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management, 16*(2), 399–432.

Greenberg, J. (2002). Who stole the money and when? Individual and situational determinants of employee theft. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*(1), 985–1003.

Heslin, P. A., & VandeWalle, D. (2011). Performance appraisal procedural justice: The role of a manager's implicit person theory. *Journal of Management, 37*(6), 1694–1718.

Holbrook, R. L. (2002). Contact points and flash points: Conceptualizing the use of justice mechanisms in the performance appraisal interview. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(1), 101–123.

Isen, A. M., & Levin, P. F. (1972). The effect of feeling good on helping: Cookies and kindness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 21*(3), 384–388.

Jacobs, G., Christe-Zeyse, J., Keegan, A., & Polos, L. (2008). Reactions to organizational identity threats in times of change: Illustrations from the German police. *Corporate Reputation Review, 11*(3), 245–261.

Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. Ethical leadership and followers' helping and initiative: The role of demonstrated responsibility and job autonomy. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* (in press).

Kaplan, S., Bradley, J. C., Luchman, J. N., & Haynes, D. (2009). On the role of positive and negative affectivity in job performance: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(1), 162–176.

Kaptein, M. (2008). Developing a measure of unethical behavior in the workplace: A stakeholder perspective. *Journal of Management, 34*(5), 978–1008.

Kaptein, M. (2009). Ethics programs and ethical culture: A next step in unravelling their multi-faceted relationship. *Journal of Business Ethics, 89*(2), 261–281.

Korsgaard, M. A., & Roberson, L. (1995). Procedural justice in performance evaluation: The role of instrumental and non-instrumental voice in performance appraisal discussions. *Journal of Management, 21*(4), 657–669.

Kottke, J. L., & Sharafinski, C. E. (1988). Measuring perceived supervisory and organizational support. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 48*(4), 1075–1079.

Krehbiel, P. J., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Procedural justice, outcome favorability and emotion. *Social Justice Research, 13*(4), 339–360.

Latham, G. P., & Mann, S. (2006). Advances in the science of performance appraisal: Implications for practice. In G. P. Hodgkinson & J. K. Ford (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 21, pp. 295–337). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Levin, P. F., & Isen, A. M. (1975). Further studies on the effect of feeling good on helping. *Sociometry, 38*(1), 141–147.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(1), 123–150.

Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (1987). Leading workers to lead themselves: The external leadership of self-managing work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 32*(1), 106–129.

Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of counterproductive behavior at work: A general perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 647–660.

Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(1), 123–136.

Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Whistleblowing in organizations: An examination of correlates of whistleblowing intentions, actions, and retaliation. *Journal of Business Ethics, 62*(3), 277–297.

Michie, S., & West, M. A. (2004). Managing people and performance: An evidence based framework applied to health service. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 5*(2), 91–111.

Miles, D. E., Borman, W. E., Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). Building and integrative model of extra role work behaviors: A comparison of counterproductive work behavior with organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1/2), 51–57.

Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. (1998). Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior? *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(3), 351–357.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(4), 775–802.

Parker, S. K., Williams, H. M., & Turner, N. (2006). Modeling the antecedents of proactive behavior at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(3), 636–652.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior: The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(7), 775–796.

Peterson, D. (2002). The relationship between unethical behavior and the dimensions of the ethical climate questionnaire. *Journal of Business Ethics, 41*(4), 313–326.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 698–714.

Richardson, H. A., Simmering, M. J., & Sturman, M. C. (2009). A tale of three perspectives: Examining post hoc statistical techniques for detection and correction of common method variance. *Organizational Research Methods, 12*(4), 762–800.

Rotundo, M., & Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy-capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(1), 66–80.

Shanock, L. R., & Eisenberger, R. (2006). When supervisors feel supported: Relationships with subordinates' perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(3), 689–695.

Shore, L. M., & Shore, T. H. (1995). Perceived organizational support and organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano & K. Kacmar (Eds.), *Organizational politics, justice, and support* (pp. 149–164). Westport, CT: Quorum.

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(3), 434–443.

Skarlicki, D. P., & Kulik, C. (2005). Third party reactions to employee (mis) treatment: A justice perspective. *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews, 26*, 183–229.

Skarlicki, D. P., Folger, R., & Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a moderator in the relationship between fairness and retaliation. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*(1), 100–108.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counter productive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(2), 269–292.

Tenbrunsel, A. E., Smith-Crowe, K., & Umphress, E. (2003). Building houses on rocks: The role of the ethical infrastructure in organizations. *Social Justice Research, 16*(3), 223–235.

Treviño, L. K., & Brown, M. E. (2004). Managing to be ethical: Debunking five business ethics myths. *Academy of Management Executive, 18*(2), 69–83.

Treviño, L. K., & Weaver, G. R. (2001). Organizational justice and ethics program follow through: Influences on employees' helpful

and harmful behavior. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 11*(4), 651–671.

Treviño, L. K., & Weaver, G. R. (2003). *Managing ethics in business organizations*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Business Books.

Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., Gibson, D., & Toffler, B. (1999). Managing ethics and legal compliance: What works and what hurts. *California Management Review, 41*(2), 131–151.

Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., & Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Behavioral ethics in organizations: A review. *Journal of Management, 32*(6), 951–989.

Treviño, L. K., & Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision-making behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(4), 378–385.

Van Maanen, J. (1975). Police socialization: A longitudinal examination of job attitudes in an urban police department. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 20*(2), 207–228.

Vardi, Y., & Weitz, E. (2004). *Misbehavior in organizations: Theory, research, and management*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Velasquez, M. G. (2005). *Business ethics: Concepts and cases*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). The development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6), 1063–1070.

Weaver, G. R., & Agle, B. R. (2002). Religiosity and ethical behavior in organizations: A symbolic interactionist perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 27*(1), 77–97.

Weaver, G. R., Treviño, L. K., & Cochran, P. L. (1999). Integrated and decoupled corporate social performance: Management commitments, external pressure, and corporate ethics practices. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*(5), 539–552.

Weaver, G. R., Treviño, L. K., & Agle, B. R. (2005). "Somebody I look up to": Ethical role modeling in organizations. *Organizational Dynamics, 34*(4), 313–330.

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 18*, 1–74.

Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effects of justice conditions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(5), 786–794.

Wimbush, J. C., Shepard, J. M., & Markham, S. E. (1997). An empirical examination of the relationship between ethical climate and ethical behavior from multiple levels of analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 16*(1), 1705–1716.