



Country Cultural Effects on Deviant Workplace Behavior: Poland and France Perspective

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Abstract

Deviant workplace behavior has become an important problem of today's businesses as it has both financial impacts and social and psychological effects on the organization. Therefore, it is a very important, but not very common research area. There is no research done on the nature of workplace deviance in terms of country culture; thus, it is interesting to explore country culture effects on deviant workplace behavior.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate how country culture influences deviant workplace behavior. Firstly, we developed the link between the cultural diversity and deviant workplace behavior theories referring to the literature review and then we established the hypotheses which were tested in the survey of business students from different countries. This investigation led to the conclusions and solutions of the research problem.

The research revealed that cultural similarities can explain deviant workplace behavior. Our study was limited to two countries, Poland and France, which represent two different blocks of Europe, Eastern and Western. These countries were chosen because they are economically and historically different, thus, they are linked with different prejudices about deviant behavior tendencies. However, culturally they are very similar. This research has identified the patterns of deviance in these countries and has contradicted the prejudice about the deviance inclinations in Western (France) and Eastern (Poland) Europe. As this study focused on two countries, future research findings should be verified with studies on other countries.

This research will have both a theoretical and practical value. The theoretical value was created by connecting two research areas: deviant workplace behavior and cultural diversity theories. The practical value can be explained by a growing number of multinational enterprises and increasing internationalization of business environment. Thus, knowledge about possible trickery and its patterns in different cultures has increasing demand and value for companies in the global community.

Key words: *Deviant workplace behavior, typology of workplace deviance, cultural diversity, cultural diversity dimensions*

Foreword

With this research we complete our Bachelor degree at Kristianstad University College. During our studies in this establishment we gained a lot of experience and knowledge in the International Business field.

Our main goal of writing this research was to acquire new knowledge and improve on a personal and professional level. Writing this thesis was very fruitful for us as it developed our organizational and critical thinking skills.

First of all, we would like to say special thanks to our families who always supported, motivated and remained patient with us even during critical moments.

We are very grateful to our tutors, Elin Smith for her constructive remarks and Bengt Göransson for the creative freedom. We would also like to thank Annika Fjelkner for support and positive thinking, and, of course, for all, small and big, language mistakes noticed which thanks to her escaped from our work. We are also grateful for other tutors and teachers who developed our general understanding about writing thesis.

We would also like to thank our friends (and not only) Poles and the French who sacrificed some of their time to answer our questionnaire. Without their help we could never implement this research.

Oto Coubaneichvili

Egle Bazaraitė

List of abbreviations

p.	page
etc.	et cetera
et al.	et alii
MAS	Masculinity-Femininity Index
IDV	Individualism-Collectivism Index
PDI	Power Distance Index
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index
LTO	Long and Short Term Orientation Index

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1. Introduction

It is an exordial chapter in which the background, problem, purpose of the research are introduced. In addition, research questions and objectives are also presented to give an overview of the work structure and key issues. In order to define the focus area, limitations are discussed. Finally, the chapter ends with the outline of the research.

1.1 Background

Deviant behavior remains underestimated risk and the consequences of workplace deviance has both financial impacts and social and psychological effects on the organization and its employees. Therefore, it is a serious problem of today's businesses. In fact, employees' deviance causes 30% of all business failures (Bolin and Heatherly, 2001) and according to Perrier (2007), from 2005 to 2007, 43% of organizations experienced internal or external fraud. However, the costs of deviant behavior to businesses are difficult to estimate because not all parts of this behavior are discovered, not all uncovered parts are reported, and civil or criminal action is not always pursued. Thus, in the light of the cost and characteristics of offenders, it is important to investigate the roots of deviance at the workplace and develop strategies to detect the source of this behavior (Dungun, 2005). The understanding of the origins of deviant behavior would improve prevention methods and consequently reduce the costs related to deviance at workplace. Therefore, we think that it is very substantial and interesting topic.

The causes for deviant behavior are, like human behavior, complex. And the key here is that it is human behavior: deviant workplace behavior committed by people, independent from processes and policies (Smart *et al.*, 2007). According to Linton (1998, p.36), "personality is an individual embodiment of culture and it can explain an individual's behavior"; thus, we expected that national culture could influence deviant behavior. In addition, the reason of choosing culture as

deviant behavior predictor is that by revealing most common deviance forms in different cultures we could assure trust in certain countries business environment.

We presume that different prejudices about deviant behavior in certain cultures exist. There is a common belief in the business environment about corruption in the former Soviet countries or property embezzlement in Western Europe. Thus, it is interesting to focus on two different blocks of Europe, Eastern and Western, which are represented by two countries in our case, Poland and France. These countries were chosen because they are economically and historically quite different; however, referring to Hofstede (2005) and Kolman *et al.* (2003), culturally they are quite similar. We have done a preliminary survey in which we asked respondents to answer which country is more tended to deviance: France, Poland or they are equally predisposed to deviance. Half of respondents answered that Poland is more tended to deviance and one third that they are equally deviated. This small survey shows that prejudices about Eastern and Western European countries still exist and perceptions about workplace deviance are usually connected to economical and historical, but not cultural factors. Thus, comparing Eastern and Western European countries we wanted to amplify significance of cultural similarity effect on deviant behavior. As a consequence, we will see if Eastern/Western European cultural similarities shape deviant behavior.

Hence, we have chosen deviant workplace behavior theme because it is really important problem in business environment and new insights of this conundrum might help to reduce the extent of deviant workplace behavior. Moreover, as it is also a very compulsive topic due to the existing prejudices about different countries' tendencies to deviant workplace, it seemed challenging and interesting for us to conduct this study.

1.2 Problem

Even though deviant workplace behavior is a serious problem for business owners, it is very sparse study field. Nevertheless, there were some studies which

attempted to predict which employees are more likely to exhibit deviant behavior by exploring possible deviant behavior indicators. Several researchers have tried to explain workplace deviance by personal traits (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007; Bolin and Heatherly, 2001; Robinson and Bennett, 2000) or organizational culture aspects (Robinson and O'Leary, 1998; Liao *et al.*, 2004; Robinson and Bennett, 2000; Kulik *et al.*, 2008; Peterson, 2002; Sims, 1992; Baucus and Near, 1991; Trevino and Brown, 2005; Henle, 2005; Osgood *et al.*, 1996; Thau *et al.*, 2008); however, there is no research done on the nature of deviant behavior in terms of country culture, neither on organizational nor on individual level, even though the need of this information has an increasing demand due to growing internationalization of business environment. Therefore, in our research we aim to investigate how country culture can affect the patterns of workplace deviance.

1.3 Purpose

In order to clarify and understand the problem described above, the purpose of this study is to investigate how country culture influences deviant workplace behavior. To be more precise, how Eastern (Poland) and Western (France) European cultures could explain tendencies in deviant workplace behavior. After the research has been completed, the relationship between deviant workplace behavior and cultural dimensions will be displayed.

1.4 Research questions and objectives

To implement the project we must firstly identify the objectives which can help to resolve the final problem. The main research question is how the country culture of the employee affects the patterns of deviant behavior. In order to solve the main research problem, more limited questions must be answered:

Question 1:

What are the attributes of deviant workplace behavior?

Objective 1:

To introduce the definitions and define dimensions, reasons and factors of deviant workplace behavior.

Question 2:

What are the cultural differences and similarities between Poland and France?

Objective 2:

To define the cultural differences and similarities following cultural diversity theories.

Question 3:

How French and Polish cultural similarities could explain deviant workplace behavior referring to literature?

Objective 3:

To establish the link between the cultural diversity and deviant workplace behavior theories.

Question 4:

How does country culture influence deviant workplace behavior in practice?

Objective 4:

To identify if and how country culture affect deviant workplace behavior referring to empirical research. To verify the research assumptions and establish bases for further research.

1.5 Contribution

This research will have both a theoretical and practical value. Theoretical value will be created by connecting two research areas: deviant workplace behavior in business and cultural diversity theories. The practical value can be explained by increasing number of multinational enterprises and growing level of internationalization. Thus, knowledge about possible trickery and its patterns in different cultures has increasing demand and value.

1.6 Limitations

Due to the multidimensional character of deviant workplace behavior and the variety of cultural diversity theories, it is necessary to identify the limitations of the research. Since our research combined two research areas (deviant workplace behavior and cultural diversity), limitations are also discussed from deviance and cultural diversity perspectives.

To begin with, as there are two types of workplace deviance (negative and positive)¹ this paper is limited to the research about negative aspects of deviant workplace behavior since the impacts of negative deviance are much more crucial to business. We also mainly focused on the individual-level approach of deviance. In order to avoid the influence of organization on deviant behavior, we explored individuals' (students') behavior which is not affected by organizational factors. This led to the results of country cultural effects on workplace deviance.

Cultural diversity theories were another key issue of the research. Due to the growing diversity of ethnic groups in most countries, it is hard to identify what culture is in terms of a specific country and nation. Therefore, country cultures were in focus, not cultures in absolute sense as one country might contain many cultures formed by ethnic groups. Thus, in our research we focus on a culture of a precise nation and we limited the research to "pure" nationals eliminating the influence of ethnic groups and their cultures. This study is limited to two country cultures, Poland and France. These countries have been chosen because they are linked with different prejudices in terms of deviant workplace behavior and they represent two distinctive geographical areas with very different historical and economic backgrounds (former Eastern and Western blocks). However, culturally they are quite similar. Thus, focus on cultural resemblance could challenge the prejudice and provide more interesting and unexpected results. In addition, in this study we provided comparative, not absolute, results about tendencies of deviance in Poland and France. It means that assumptions are based on the comparison of these two country cultures, not cultures in general.

¹ Negative and positive concepts of deviance will be discussed more in the part 3.1.

The summary of limitations is recapitulated in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Summary of limitations

Deviant workplace behavior perspective	Cultural diversity perspective
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative workplace deviance • Individual-level approach of deviance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture of a specific nation is in focus, not culture in general • Research is limited to two countries: Poland and France • Emphasis on cultural similarities • Comparative, not absolute, results in terms of cultures

1.7 Outline

Chapter 1: Introduction

It is an exordial chapter of our research which introduces the background, problem and purpose of the research. In addition, structure and key issues are identified by deducing research questions and objectives. Furthermore, this chapter proceeds with discussion about research limitations which define the focus area. Finally, an overview of the work framework (which is also illustrated in Figure 1.1) is presented in the outline of the research.

Chapter 2: Method

This part of our study deals with the methodology used for conducting the research which is discussed referring to Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.132) proposed research “onion”. The method is identified via the description and motivation of type of study, research philosophy, approach and choice of method used in our study.

Chapter 3: Theoretical framework

This section provides a theoretical base for our research. This chapter consists of three main parts which include the presentation of deviant workplace behavior attributes, an overview of cultural diversity theories which define similarities and differences between Poland and France and compilation of common workplace

deviance and cultural diversity theories. The chapter ends with the discussion about hypothesis development.

Chapter 4: Empirical method

In this chapter the method for the empirical research is explained. The alternatives of collecting data and motivation of choice are discussed referring to the problem and aim of our research. This chapter includes the research strategy and the data collection method as well as the population and sample description. It continues with the operationalization, questionnaire composition, response rate, credibility and presentation of critique. The chapter ends with a summary of empirical method used in the research.

Chapter 5: Analysis

This chapter presents the outcome of empirical research. It is composed of survey data (quantitative) analysis followed by the evaluation of hypotheses. The chapter ends with the summary of results and critical reflections.

Chapter 6: Conclusions

In this chapter final conclusions are presented. The final part of our study begins with a summary of the findings and presentation of answers to the research questions. Subsequently, recommendations how to solve the problem and procedural drawbacks are disputed. The chapter ends up with the discussion about practical implications and suggestions for further research.

The framework of the work is illustrated in Figure 1.1

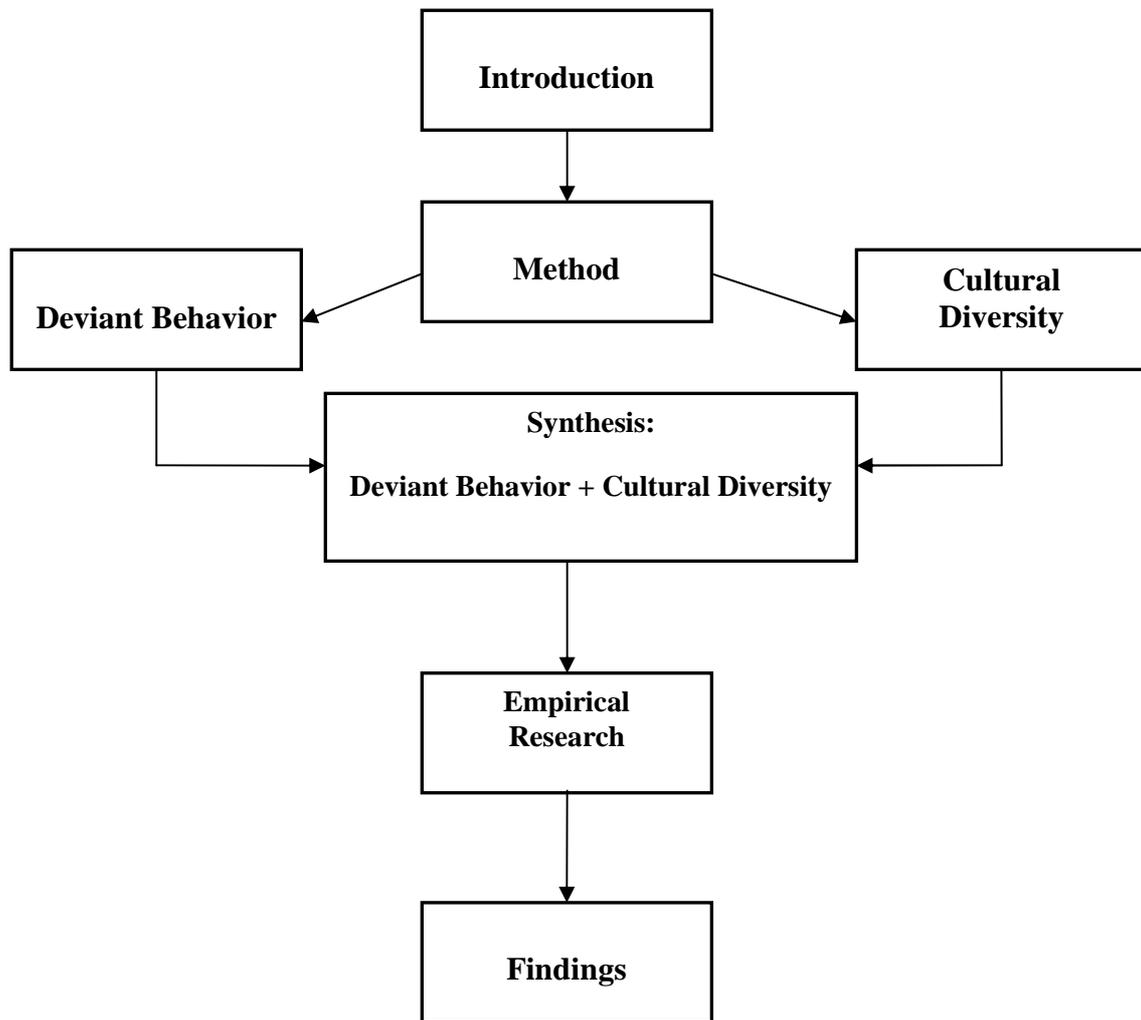


Figure 1.1 The structure of the work

2. Method

In this chapter the method of the research is discussed referring to Saunders et al.'s (2007, p.132) proposed research "onion". The method is identified via the description of type of study, research philosophy, as well as research approach, strategy and choice of method.

2.1 Type of study

Type of study depends on the main research question. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.133), "the classification of research purpose most often used in research methods literature is threefold one of explanatory, exploratory and descriptive."

"Studies that establish causal relationships between variables may be termed **explanatory studies**. The emphasis here is on understanding a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationship between variables" (Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.134). This type of study is usually used to explain already identified and confirmed relationship between variables; however, in our research we are trying to find out if there is a connection between workplace deviance and cultural dimensions. Consequently, this type of study is not suitable for our research.

An **exploratory study** is a valuable mean of finding out what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light. It is particularly useful clarifying the understanding of the problem. This type of research has been chosen, as the main purpose of this paper is not to describe or to explain why, but to explore how countries' culture can be reflected in workplace deviance. As workplace deviance has never been explored "in light" of country culture, this type of research is the most suitable.

The objective of **descriptive research** is to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations. This might be a forerunner to the other types of research

(Saunders et al., 2007). As it is significant to have a clear view about deviant behavior and cultural diversity theories as a base for our research, descriptive research will also be employed (in parts 3.1 and 3.2 of the theoretical framework) as a forerunner for this exploratory study.

2.2 Research philosophy

According to Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.101), research philosophy “relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge” and depends on the “particular view of the relationship between knowledge and the process by which it is developed”. There are three prevalent philosophies: realism, positivism or interpretivism. They are different, if not mutually exclusive, views about the way in which knowledge is developed and judged as being acceptable (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

The existence of a reality, independent of human thoughts and beliefs is the basic idea of **realism**. Objects have an existence independent from human mind. It assumes a scientific approach to the development of knowledge and underpins collection and understanding of data (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). This philosophy is quite similar to positivism. Characteristic for the **positivistic** research philosophy is that the researcher is more concerned with facts rather than impressions. The research is undertaken in a value-free way. An important factor is that the researcher is independent and not able to influence or be influenced by the subject of the research. The results are law-like generalizations (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The **interpretivistic** philosophy is characterized by the understanding of processes. Referring to this approach, it is necessary to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors and researcher has to adopt empathetic stance (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.116) claim that “business and management research is often a mixture of between interpretivist and positivist.” Our research could also be defined as “between interpretivist and positivist”, because to connect two research areas in Chapter 3.3 we needed to interpret different deviant workplace

behavior and cultural diversity theories (hence we referred to interpretivistic philosophy) and only then we could derive hypotheses for quantitative research in which we reflected positivistic philosophy. Therefore, the empirical research reflects value-free manner of collecting data and independence from the research subject. However, as workplace deviance is a multidimensional and miscellaneous topic, interpretivistic assumptions could not be avoided. According to Saunders (2007), interpretivistic philosophy is highly appropriate in organizational behavior and human resource management fields, as it is in this case. Deviant workplace behavior is a very sensitive issue requiring tact and caution because respondents are not willing to reveal this part of their personality; thus, we could not ask direct questions. As a consequence, we had to adopt empathetic stance (which is interpretivist feature) while developing hypotheses, building questionnaire and explaining results. However, our study also contains numerical data. Therefore, a positivistic attitude was still be maintained. To conclude, in this research both approaches are used in a complementary manner.

2.3 Research approach

The research design project depends on the extent to which the author is clear about the theory at the beginning of the research. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), there are two main approaches: inductive and deductive. In a **deductive approach**, the researcher develops theory and hypotheses and design approach to test the hypotheses. In an **inductive approach**, the researcher first collects data and then develops theory as a result of the data analysis. In this research we refer to a deductive approach as we have firstly reviewed the literature and then formulated testable hypotheses.

2.4 Choice of design

The research design or method is “the way in which research combines quantitative and qualitative techniques and procedures” (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p.145). There are two main types of research methods, **mono method** where only

one data collection technique and analysis procedures is used to answer research question and **multiple methods** where more than one data collection technique and analysis procedures are used to answer research question. In our study we have applied mono method research design. It means that we have combined single quantitative data collection technique (questionnaire) with quantitative data analysis procedures (graphs and statistics). The choice of data collection technique and analysis procedures is discussed in Chapter 5.

3. Theoretical framework

This chapter consists of four main parts. Firstly, attributes of deviant workplace behavior are discussed. Then an overview of cultural diversity theories which identify similarities and differences between Poland and France are presented. The outcome of these parts is used for developing common workplace deviance and cultural diversity theories which are evolved in cross-disciplinary analysis. The outcome of the theoretical framework forms the hypotheses in the end of this chapter.

Theoretical background of this dissertation deals with two research areas, deviant workplace behavior and cultural diversity. The main concern of this research is connection between these two study fields. The process of developing this connection is illustrated in figure below. In order to develop the linkage between workplace deviance and cultural dimensions and verify the hypotheses, we had to look at the roots (factors) of negative workplace behavior. Thus, first of all in Chapter 3.1 we identified what deviant workplace behavior is and its types; then we looked at the existing theories about factors which underline the conditions under which workplace deviance occurs. As these theories are already proved by researchers, additional research about these theories will not be provided. Thus, the connection between factors and types of deviance presented in Figure 3.1 is marked by full arrow. Secondly, in Chapter 3.2 we have identified cultural differences and similarities between France and Poland referring to Hofstede's Five Dimensions Model. Thirdly, we have conducted a cross-analysis of cultural diversity and deviant workplace behavior theories and established the connection between factor conditions and cultural dimension features. This link in Figure 3.1 is marked by arrow with small gaps, as it is a compilation of theoretical review and these theories are only one side proved, but not in combination with each other. Hence the connection between factors and dimensions enabled to establish a link between cultural dimensions and deviant workplace behavior, however, this link is valid only under factor conditions. As it is illustrated in Figure 3.1, the

connection between cultural dimensions and deviance is marked by dotted arrow because this link is a hypothetical outcome of theoretical research. It means that this connection needs to be proved to answer our main research question how country culture influences deviant workplace behavior?

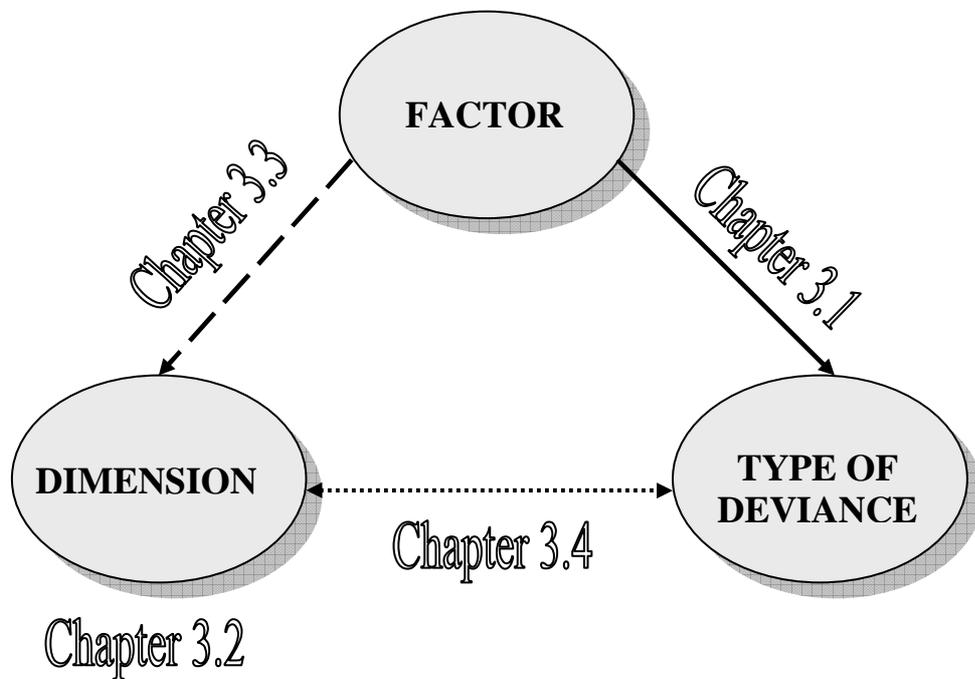


Figure 3.1 Structure of Hypotheses Development

3.1. Introduction to deviant workplace behavior

In this part will be identified and discussed definitions and alternative concepts, dimensions and classification of deviant workplace behavior, reasons and factors which might predict workplace deviance in a business environment.

3.1.1 Definition and concept

It is very difficult to compare and aggregate the results of deviant behavior studies as this behavior has a multidimensional nature and contains a very diverse set of related behaviors; thus, the constructs are not defined consistently. Researchers have given these behaviors many different names. Appelbaum (2007), Bennett

and Robinson (2003) call it “workplace deviance”, Mangione and Quinn (1975) use the term “counterproductive behavior”; Giacalone and Greenberg (1997) define it as “antisocial behavior”. Other synonyms of “bad” behavior could be mentioned, such as negative, deceitful, unethical behavior (Peterson, 2002; Das, 2005; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005). In this part we will try to define the meaning of deviant workplace behavior that we will refer to in the rest of dissertation. The definitions and related constructs are at first sight synonymous, thus, cognate concepts will be discussed.

In essence, behavior is deemed deviant when an “organization’s customs, policies, or internal regulations are violated by an individual or a group that may jeopardize the well-being of the organization or its citizens” (Robinson and Bennett, 1995, p.556). Sometimes “deceitful behavior” expression is used as alternative for deviant. Therefore, even though “deceitful behavior” is less often used, it is still an important construct to mention. According to Das (2005, p.706), deceitful behavior refers to the “self-interest seeking behavior of firms and their members that involve deceit”. The most important aspect of this concept is self-interest which is not always the motivation for deviant behavior. Therefore, this term will not be employed in this paper.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined employee or workplace deviance as a “voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (p. 556). This concept was based on empirical investigations, developed by eminent researchers of this field (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Robinson and Greenberg, 1998) who are widely cited and used for further investigations by other famous scientists (Bolin and Heatherly, 2001; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; Peterson, 2002; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007). Thus, in this paper we also focused on the construct of deviant workplace behavior as defined by Robinson and Bennett (1995).

It is also important to note that deviance might be both positive and negative. According to Peterson (2002, p. 48):

Negative workplace behavior has been referred to as antisocial behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), organizational misbehavior (Vardi & Wiener, 1966), non-compliant behavior (Puffer, 1987), workplace deviance (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998) and dysfunctional workplace behavior (Griffin et al., 1998), to name a few.

According to Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2003), cited by Appelbaum *et al.* (2007, p.587), positive deviance is defined as “intentional behaviors that depart from the norms of a referent group in honorable ways.” In other words, positive deviant behavior must be praiseworthy and must focus on actions with honorable intentions, irrespective of the outcomes. As this study focuses on negative aspects of deviant workplace behavior, positive deviance concept will not have a significant impact on the research and, therefore, will not be further discussed. Therefore, this paper will refer to negative workplace behavior as a direct synonym of deviant behavior; therefore, both expressions will be used in this paper.

Deviant workplace behavior is also often linked and alternately employed with the other concept: “unethical behavior”; hence a distinction between these two concepts must be discussed.

According to Victor and Cullen (1987), cited by Peterson (2002, p. 50), “the ethical climate of an organization refers to the shared perceptions of what is ethically correct behavior and how ethical issues should be handled in the organization”. It has been suggested that the ethical climate of an organization may be linked not only to the ethical behavior of employees, but also to a range of behaviors including counterproductive behaviors such as tardiness, absenteeism, and lax performance. The support for this notion is that several of the behaviors that are considered deviant may also be considered unethical (Peterson, 2002; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The distinction between the two types of behavior was most lucidly determined by Peterson (2002, p.50):

Ethics focuses on behavior that is right or wrong when judged in terms of justice, law, or other societal guidelines determining the morality of behavior whereas **deviance** focuses on behavior that violates significant organizational norms.

Hence deviance is defined in terms of departure from organizational norms. Organizational norms are a grouping of “expected behaviors, languages, principles and postulations that allow the workplace to perform at a suitable pace” (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007, p. 587). To summarize, the rules and norms of the organizations are the core variable in all the deviant behavior definitions. These behaviors usually fall within the constructs of the norms of the organization.

3.1.2 Classification and dimensions

As mentioned above, workplace deviance is very multidimensional and comprises many forms. In order to achieve more accurate results of the research and find the linkages with cultural diversity theories, it is important to identify deviant workplace behavior dimensions and typology.

Very roughly, as it was mentioned above, it is possible to divide workplace deviance into positive and negative behavior. As mentioned in the limitations, this research will focus on negative deviance; therefore, the typology of positive workplace behavior will not be determined. Negative deviant behaviors include employee delinquencies such as not following the manager's instructions, intentionally slowing down the work cycle, arriving late, committing petty theft, as well as, not treating co-workers with respect and/or acting rudely towards co-workers (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007). Negative workplace behavior typology is based on two dimensional configurations of workplace behaviors. This empirically derived typology of workplace deviance has been developed using the multidimensional scaling procedure (Peterson, 2002). Robinson and Bennett developed a list of 45 deviant workplace behaviors. Participants then rated the similarity of these behaviors to each of the other 44 behaviors. Bolin and Heatherly (2001, p. 407) have briefly summarized their findings:

Using multidimensional scaling techniques to analyze these similarity ratings, the authors concluded that deviant workplace behaviors vary along two dimensions: (1) the minor/serious dimension identified by Boye and Slora (1993) and (2) a dimension that differentiates between behaviors that harm the organization and those that harm the individual. As an example,

employee theft is a serious offense and harms the organization, while gossiping about a co-worker is a minor offense that harms an individual.

The multidimensional scaling described above is summarized in Figure 3.2. One axis of the perceptual map was labeled the organizational-interpersonal dimension. This dimension represented the target of the deviant behavior. The second dimension represented the severity of the deviant behavior. Deviant behavior on this dimension varied on a continuum from minor forms of deviance (e.g., gossiping) to serious forms of deviant behavior (e.g., physical abuse). The perceptual configuration based on the two dimensions is displayed in four quadrants, or four classifications of deviant behavior. Robinson and Bennett (1995) refer to the four classes of deviant behavior as (1) Production Deviance, (2) Political Deviance, (3) Property Deviance, and (4) Personal Aggression.

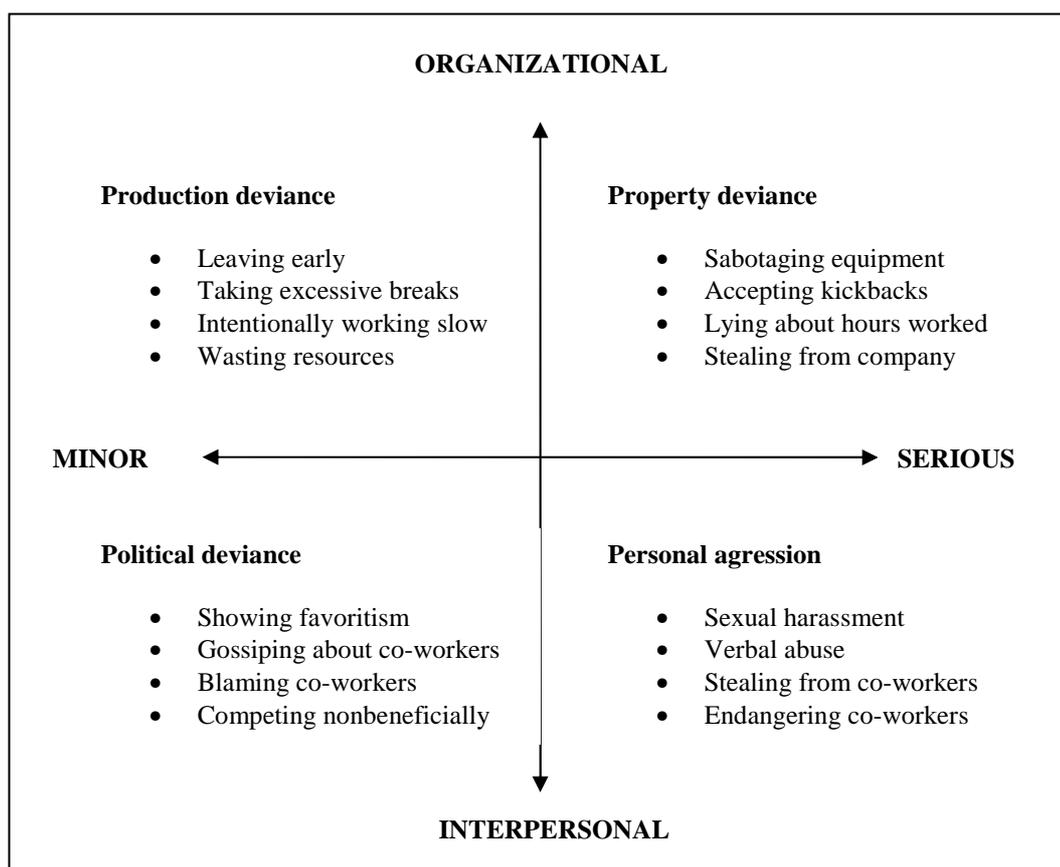


Figure 3.2 Typology of deviant workplace behavior (based on: Roberts and Bennett, 1995, p. 558)

Most studies on negative deviant workplace behavior prior to Robinson's and Bennett's findings were mostly concerned with isolated attempts to answer

specific questions about specific deviant acts such as theft, sexual harassment and unethical decision making. Their research focused on negative behaviors that may also be considered deviant such as absenteeism, withdrawal, withholding effort, and behaviors that lead to corporate inequality; therefore, it is of high importance for our research. Robinson and Bennett (1995) integrated the various deviant workplace behaviors into a single framework in order to gather the increasingly scattered research available on the subject into one comprehensive chart. In this way, the researchers were able to integrate numerous deviant workplace behaviors into a single framework.

This type of classification was widely used in many researches (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007; Bolin and Heatherly, 2001; Peterson, 2002; Thau *et al.*, 2008 and others), and it proved to be a convenient form of mapping multidimensionality of workplace deviances. Therefore, this classification is also employed in our study to reflect deviance diversity in different cultures.

3.1.3 Reasons and factors

There are a number of studies conducted in order to find out the reasons and factors that could possibly predict employees' deviance. According to Appelbaum *et al.* (2005, p.47), "It is important to understand the reasons for deviant behavior (as well as having established valid quantifiable measurements) as it intended to assist researchers in finding better ways to promote an ethical and safe climate". In this part we will try to group various factors and identify the main reasons of employee's deviance referring to the findings of different researchers. In this study deviant workplace behavior factors play an important role as they are used later in our research (Chapter 3.3) to identify connections between cultural diversity and workplace deviance. The review of the literature will end up in total of 21 factors which are all summarised in Table 3.1.

Peterson (2002) proposes three groups of reasons for possible explanations of workplace deviance: individual factors, social and interpersonal factors, and organizational factors. Peterson (2002) claims that it is more likely that deviant

behavior may be best predicted based on a combination of personality variables and the nature of the workplace situation. However, due to the high degree of interrelations between workplace deviance factors, when exploring the perspectives of reasons the way Peterson explained them, it is difficult to find distinction between social and interpersonal factors and organizational factors. Thus, a more simple approach of grouping predictors of workplace deviance is needed. Appelbaum *et al.* (2007) claim that there are two main perspectives of workplace deviance indicators: person-based and situation-based. As it is more clear way of classifying factors of deviance, in this study we refer Appelbaum *et al.*'s (2007) approach.

Both authors (Peterson and Appelbaum *et al.*) underline the high importance of the organization exploring reasons of the workplace deviance. Therefore, the situation-based perspective provides more extensive information about the causes of deviance and encompasses more factors arousing deviant behavior than person-based approach. Traditionally, situation-based and person-based predictors of employees' deviance are considered mutually exclusive. Therefore, there is a strong interaction between the person-based and situation-based types of deviance. As a consequence, it is important to explore both perspectives.

3.1.3.1 Person-based perspective

Personality characteristics of the employee may provide an explanation for workplace deviance. In accordance with this view, persons with a predisposition to deviance will likely be risk-takers and have a negative affectivity which could lead to workplace deviance (Henle *et al.*, 2005). Even though there are not so many studies about person-based reasons of deviance, few are worth to mention.

Demographic factors

One of the person-based indicators of workplace deviance is linked to demographic variables, developed by Frank, 1989; Hollinger & Clark, 1983, and discussed by Appelbaum *et al.* (2005), Appelbaum *et al.* (2007), Peterson (2002).

According to these authors, demographic variables' studies have reported that some forms of production deviance and property deviance are more likely to involve employees who are young, are new to their job, work part-time, and have low-paying positions. There are four main demographic factors that may affect ethical behavior in an organization. The first factor is *gender*, due to the fact that males tend to engage in more aggressive behavior than females at work. KPMG research (Ramoneda, 2007) showed that 85 percent of perpetrators of workplace deviance are males. *Tenure* is an additional factor to consider, as employees with less tenure are more likely to commit property deviance (aside from other instances of destructive workplace deviance). Third, it has been shown that the more *educated* the employee is, the less likely they will be involved in unethical behavior. The same goes with *age*, older employees are likely to be more honest than younger employees (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007).

Attitudes of the employees

Attitudes of the employees might also be a reason of deviance. Referring to the research of Bolin and Heatherly (2001), attitudes can be used effectively to predict employee deviance and screen out job applicants with a propensity toward deviant behavior. Attitudes such as *theft approval* and *intent to quit* were shown to predict at least one type of employee deviance. Bolins and Heatherly's (2001) study showed the relative strength of each attitude in predicting specific types of deviance and revealed that theft approval is a good predictor of property deviance (especially theft) while intent to quit also made significant contributions to the prediction of organizational deviance (absenteeism, privilege abuse and theft). Overall, these findings suggest that these two attitudes (theft approval and intent to quit) predict employee deviance in a consistent manner.

Psychological state of employee

Robinson and Bennett (2000) have conducted a research about the psychological state of employee, *frustration*. Frustration was predicted to be associated with various forms of interpersonal deviance (in e.g., spreading rumors or acts of aggression) as well as organizational deviance (i.e. vandalism, theft and sabotage). Results of their experimentation show that frustration is in fact not

correlated with organizational deviance, as it is simply associated (albeit significantly) to interpersonal deviance.

3.1.3.2 Situation-based perspective

According to Henle (2005), another view that has gained recognition as a reliable predictor of workplace deviance is called situation-based behavior, and it proposes that certain conditions of the organizational environment predispose employees to deviance. Situation-based perspective of workplace deviance indicators provides a more explicate reasoning of deviant behavior; in order to make it more lucid, different theories were grouped in this study according to prevailing causes.

Group behaviors

It is important to stress the influence of groups in the workplace when assessing the reasons of deviant behavior within organizational structure. According to LeBlanc and Kelloway (2002), cited by Appelbaum *et al.*, (2005, p.47):

Groups play a large role in influencing their members and their organizations. Aggressors have lasting effects on personal (e.g. emotional well-being and psychosomatic well-being) and organizational (affective commitment) outcomes due to the close proximity the aggressor may share with the victim.

Research in social learning theory suggests that *deviant role models* within a group setting will significantly influence others within the group to commit acts of deviance as well. The degrees of this influence, and the similarities between levels of group anti-social behaviors, are consistent among members of the group (though the tendency to exert influence will still depend on the tenured individual within the group) (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007).

It was also demonstrated that the *multitude of ethnic differences* between workers in an organization was inversely related with the likelihood of deviance (Liao *et al.*, 2004). It was shown that ethnic similarity actually increases the likelihood of workplace deviance, possibly due to the fact that ethnically-different employees

feel they have the need to conform to organizational norms in order to avoid any negative connotations with not abiding by such rules (Liao *et al.*, 2004).

Ethical climate in an organization

Appelbaum *et al.* (2005, p.47), has suggested that “the ethical climate of an organization could be used to predict not only unethical behavior, but counterproductive behavior as well”. Ethical climate in the organization might be influenced by individual-level *intra-organizational competition*. According to Kulik *et al.* (2008, p.3), internal competition “can set stage for the diffusion of widespread unethical behavior“. He also claims that internal competition may also establish conditions for the spread of unethical behavior across social networks. Therefore, win-at-all-costs individuals may promote the emergence of corruption through the spread of unethical practices that he may have adopted as a result of competitive interactions with other win-at-all-cost individuals in his own workgroup (Kulik *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, competitive environment might lead to both organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Peterson (2002) conducted a study to determine whether deviant workplace behavior could possibly be predicted from the ethical climate of an organization. The results that Peterson (2002) obtained indicated correlations between the type of deviance and the climate identified in the organization. The clearest relationship was between political deviance and a *caring climate*. The implication is that when employees feel that the organization is concerned with the welfare of its workers, they are less likely to experience, or engage in, political deviance (Peterson, 2002). This could also be confirmed by Sims’ (2002) research. He explained that due to job satisfaction individuals have grown more attached to their jobs and organizations and as a whole are more likely to follow the rules set forth by their workplace, which preside over ethical decision making (Sims, 2002). A second correlation developed by Peterson (2002) was between property deviance and *climates of rules and professionalism*. This would indicate that organizations that do not emphasize the strict adherence to company rules and laws are more vulnerable to property deviance. Peterson (2002) also discovered that *instrumental climate* is positively correlated to production deviance. It means

that organizations in which individuals are primarily concerned with protecting their own interests are more likely to suffer from production deviance.

Appelbaum *et al.* (2005), referring to Sims (1992), noticed that organizations often reward behavior that is counter to what is generally accepted as ethical; these are referred to as *counter norms*. A possible reason for these counter norms is referred to as the “*bottom-line mentality*”. This mentality encourages financial success at the expense of other values. It “promotes short-term solutions that are financially sound, despite the fact that they cause problems for others within the organization or the organization as a whole” (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005, p.48). The mentality encourages employees to view ethics as an obstacle to profit. (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007) In addition, there is the “*Madison Avenue mentality*” that is a perspective suggesting that anything is right if the public can be convinced that it is right. Instead of relying on legitimate morals, individuals within organizations are concerned with whether they can manage to appear ethical (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005). A possible result of a counter norm within the deviant workplace behavior context would be the “effect/danger” ratio. The aggressor generally seeks behaviors that are effective in harming the victim (whether the victim is the organization or another individual) while incurring as little danger to themselves as possible. This ratio is influenced by a few factors: repeated contact with the victim and surrounding workforce-“highly-interested” observers (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005). Thus in this case the reason of deviance in the organizations depends on companies’ mentality.

Operational environment

According to Appelbaum *et al.* (2007), operational environment is also a good predictor of negative deviant workplace behavior. In his earlier study, Appelbaum *et al.* (2005) referred to Baucus and Near (1991) who postulated that *larger firms*, operating in a dynamic environment, possessing unlimited resources are most likely to engage in illegal behavior. According to Ernst & Young research (2008), deviant practices are prevalent mostly in mining, utilities and insurance sectors. Therefore, it is recognized that many organizations can wield a significant influence on their employees, even if such employees tend to have solid ethical values (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007).

Supervisory behavior and justice

The management and its supervision have a significant impact on organizations "health". Several studies have concluded that the basis of continuing unethical behavior in the workplace is most likely linked to the lack of moral leadership in an organization. According to Trevino and Brown (2005), leaders who engage in unethical practices often create an atmosphere of allowance within the organization that is conducive to deviant employee behavior that parallels that of the leader.

When leaders exercise *discipline on wrongful acts* within an organization, a powerful signal about the value of organizational norms is sent to others (Trevino and Brown, 2005). If the same employees notice a colleague acting unacceptably and subsequently going unpunished, they will rightly feel disappointed with the justice served to those breaking the intra-organizational norms (Trevino and Brown, 2005). Therefore, if an employee is caught committing a deviant act and is terminated as a result of his actions, colleagues will clearly perceive the message that such behavior will not be condoned within the workplace and punishment will be harsh and fitting for the act (Trevino and Brown, 2005). This theory could also be complemented by Henle's (2005) *Equity Theory*. Many researchers assert that workplace deviance occurs as a response to being treated inequitably in the workplace. Equity Theory supports these researchers' claims, since this theory hypothesizes that employees compare their ration of outcomes (i.e. pay, raises, and promotions) to inputs (i.e. skill, training, education, and effort) (Henle, 2005). When employees experience similar outcomes in response to similar inputs as compared to other coworkers, employees experience equity. Conversely, when there is a discrepancy between their input versus output ratio and others, the employees experience inequity. In order to restore their sense of inequity, employees will often turn to resorting to acts of deviance (Henle, 2005). In addition, Robinson and Bennett's (2000) research shows that *perceived injustice* (perceived fairness and justice to the employee) are negatively associated with interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Not only justice, but also *task structure* might be a reason behind deviant behavior. According to Osgood *et al.* (1996), cited by Appelbaum *et al.*, (2007), company task structure is a major determinant for the likelihood of workplace deviance taking place. First, activities within the workplace that are well organized and allotted to specific individuals will often place these individuals in roles that make them responsible for their own social control within that task. In addition to this, structured activities will seldom offer opportunities to engage in deviant activities. Therefore, it may be postulated that keeping workers occupied with tasks that they will be asked to take responsibility for, will often lead to a lower likelihood that such employees engage in deviant behaviors. Norms also play an important role in task structure. *Normlessness* is the lack of acceptance of social expectations about behavior; thus, when individuals feel “bonded” to a social environment, employees are less inclined to commit deviant acts. As a consequence, normlessness is strongly correlated to interpersonal deviance and moderately correlated to organizational deviance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007).

Thau *et al.* (2008) conducted a research about whether situational uncertainty represented in perceptions of management style moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and various forms of workplace deviance. According to Thau *et al.* (2008), when employees are abused by authorities, they are more likely to exhibit behaviors that harm the organization and its members due to the social exchange theory (subordinates seek to rectify imbalance by engaging in negative activities). Thau *et al.* (2008) tested whether *a management style* depicting situational uncertainty moderates the relationship between *abusive supervision* and workplace deviance. This study discovered positive relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor- directed and organizational deviance was stronger for employees who perceived high rather than low levels of uncertainty with respect to management style.

In conclusion, among the different types of negative deviances there are many variables within the workplace that may accommodate such deviant behaviors or limit them; therefore, it is important to explore both person-based and situation-based perspectives. The most significant person-based factors include demographic variables, attitudes, psychological state of employee. The most

prevalent predictors of situation-based approach are group behaviors, ethical climate in an organization, operational environment and supervisory behavior and justice. The summary of deviance factors and their relations to deviant workplace behavior together with the original authors is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Factors and their relationship to workplace deviance

Factor	Relationship to workplace deviance	Author
Person-based Perspective		
Demographic Factors		
Gender	Males tend to engage in more aggressive behavior than females	Appelbaum <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Tenure	Employees with less tenure are more likely to commit property deviance	
Education	Higher education indicates a lower tendency for deviant behavior	
Age	Older employees are likely to be more honest than younger employees	
Attitudes of Employees		
Theft approval	Predictor of property deviance (especially theft)	Bolin and Heatherly, 2001
Intent to quit	Predictor of organizational deviance (theft, absenteeism and privilege abuse).	
Psychological state of employee		
Frustration	Predictor of interpersonal deviance	Robinson and Bennett, 2000
Situation-based Perspective		
Group Behaviors		
Deviant role models	Influence others in the group to commit acts of deviance as well	Robinson and O'Leary, 1998
Multitude of ethnic differences between workers	Inversely related with the likelihood of deviance (ethnic similarity increases the likelihood of workplace deviance)	Liao <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Ethical Climate In the Organization		
Competitive Environment: intra-organizational competition	Predictor of both organizational (corruption) and interpersonal deviance	Kulik <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Caring climate	Predictors of political deviance. In this climate, there is lower probability of deviance.	Peterson, 2002.

Climates of rules and professionalism	Predictors of property deviance. High adherence to company policies are at the lowest risk for property deviance	
Instrumental climates	Predictors of production deviance.	
Presence of Counter Norms (“bottom-line mentality”) and “Effect/danger” ratio	Financial success in the organization is encouraged at the expense of other values.	Sims, 1992.
Operational Environment		
Size of the Company	Larger firms with greater resources are related to increased occurrence of workplace deviance	Baucus and Near, 1991
Supervisory behavior and justice		
Discipline on Wrongful Acts	Inversely related to deviance. Due to Social Learning Theory, discipline encourages to act undeviating.	Trevino and Brown, 2005
Inequitable treatment	Direct relationship to deviance.	Henle, 2005
Perceived Injustice	Negatively related with interpersonal and organizational deviance	Robinson and Bennett, 2000
Company Task Structure	Well organized task structure indicate a lower likelihood of deviant behaviors	Osgood <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Normlessness	Strongly related to interpersonal deviance and moderately related to organizational deviance	
Abusive supervision and employee’s perceptions of management style in terms of uncertainty	A positive relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed and organizational deviance was stronger when employees’ perceptions of their organization’s management style reflected high rather than low situational uncertainty.	Thau <i>et al.</i> , 2008

3.2 Country’s cultural differences and similarities between Eastern (Poland) and Western (France) Europe

This part of the dissertation will present the cultural differences and similarities between two countries, Poland and France, according to Hofstede’s five

dimensions. We will analyze both countries, referring to Hofstede (2005), Mole (2003) and Kolman *et al.* (2003).

3.2.1 Hofstede's 5 dimensions: Poland and France perspective

Hofstede's (2005) studies show the existence of national and regional cultural groupings that affect the behavior of societies and organizations. He proves that these cultural groupings are very persistent across time. Hofstede (2005) makes the difference between the term culture and country culture. He mentions that culture itself can regroup different countries within it, and country culture deals with the culture of a precise nation. As a consequence, the term country culture is used as we make the comparison between two countries.

The concept of five dimensions created by Hofstede (2005) aims to assist in differentiating these country cultures. We will try to find the differences and similarities between the country cultures of France and Poland with the help of Hofstede's (2005), Mole's (2003) and Kolman *et al.*'s (2003) findings and we will classify these differences and similarities according to Hofstede's (2005) five dimensions.

The five dimensions are:

- *Power Distance (PDI)*
- *Individualism and Collectivism (IDV)*
- *Masculinity and Femininity (MAS)*
- *Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)*
- *Long and short term orientation (LTO)*

3.2.2 Explanation of scores and ranks according to dimensions' index

Explanation of scores and ranks are presented in the table below:

Table 3.2 Explanation of scores and ranks according to dimensions' index

Dimension index	Low score	High score	Low rank	High rank
PDI	Small PDI	Large PDI	Small PDI	Large PDI
IDV	Collectivism	Individualism	Collectivism	Individualism
MAS	Femininity	Masculinity	Femininity	Masculinity
UAI	Weak UAI	Strong UAI	Weak UAI	Strong UAI
LTO	Short-term orientation	Long-term orientation	Short-term orientation	Long-term orientation

3.2.3 Power distance

According to Hofstede (2005), “*Power distance* can be defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally.” (p.46)

In the country cultures with large PDI the hierarchy in organizations reflects existential inequality between higher and lower levels; we can observe the centralized system in the majority of companies. There is also more supervisory of personal, subordinates expect to be told what to do. Managers rely on superiors and on formal rules, and the top management is perceived as autocratic or paternalistic. The difference between employees and managers is also seen through the wide salary range between the top and bottom of organizations, in societies with large PDI, white-collar jobs are valued more than blue-collar jobs, and privileges and status symbols are normal and popular (Hofstede, 2005).

In the country cultures with small PDI the hierarchy in organizations means an inequality of roles, established for convenience; we can observe the decentralized system in the majority of companies concerned. There are less supervisory of personal and subordinates expect to be consulted. Managers rely on their own experience and subordinates, and the top management is perceived as a resourceful democrat. There is a narrow salary range between top and bottom of the organization. In societies with small PDI, manual work has the same status as office work, and privileges and status symbols are frowned upon (Hofstede, 2005).

France and Poland both rank on 27th to 29th position out of 74 countries, as described in Figure 3.3, and they both score the same amount of points, 68. That is higher than average which means that both countries belong to the large PDI societies and should have the characteristics of large PDI countries described above.

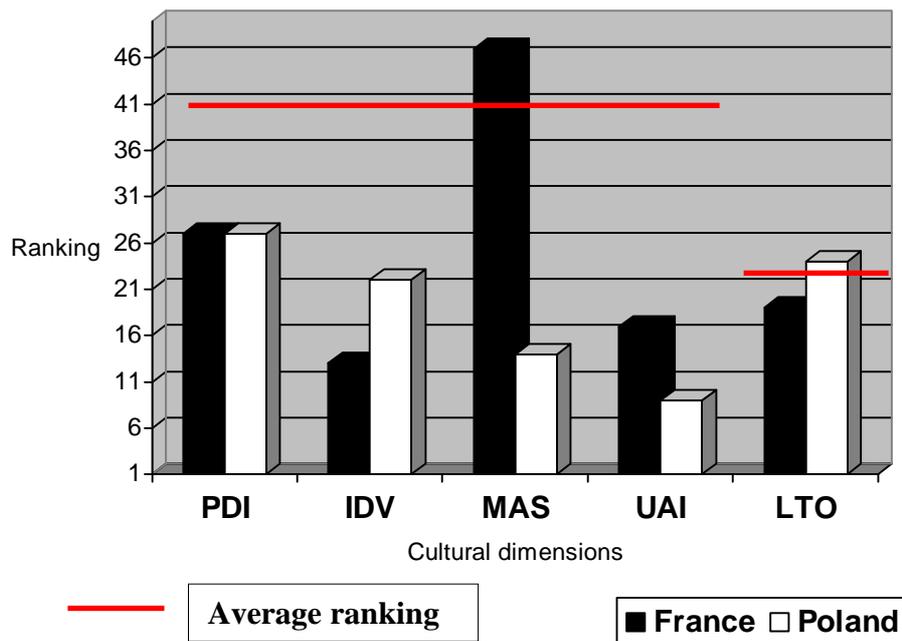


Figure 3.3 Results for Poland and France (based on: Hofstede, Cultures and Organizations: Software of the mind, 2005)

Kolman *et al.* (2003) describes Poland as having one of the smallest PDI in comparison to other central European country cultures. The reason is that Poles attach much value to having a good working relationship with their direct superior, and to being consulted by him or her. But at the same time Polish managers have a tendency to adopt an autocratic management style and to resist everything that could dilute managerial authority, which is sign of a quite large PDI society (Kolman *et al.*, 2003).

Mole (2003) shows that the French are quite similar to Poles according to PDI as both of them have centralized organizations where paternalistic or dictatorial

bosses and status are respected. Thus, according to Mole (2003), both Poles and the French belong to the large PDI country cultures.

After analysis of the points of view of different authors we can consider Poland and France as equal according to the PDI. As a result, they both belong to the large PDI societies.

3.2.4 Individualism and Collectivism

Hofstede (2005) defines the difference between individualism and collectivism as follows: “*Individualism* pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. *Collectivism* as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetimes continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (p.76).

On the one hand, in individualistic organizations occupational mobility is quite high; employees are considered as “economic men” who will pursue the employer’s interest if it coincides with their self-interest. The employer-employee relationship is a contract between parties on a labor market and hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on skills and rules only. The management of the organization is a management of individuals and the management training teaches the honest sharing of feelings. Relating to customers in individualistic companies every customer should get the same treatment (universalism) and task will prevail over relationship (Hofstede, 2005).

On the other hand, in collectivistic organizations occupational mobility is lower; employees are members of in-group’s interest. The employer-employee relationship is basically moral, like a family link, and hiring and promotion decisions take an employee’s in-group into account. The management of the organization is a management of groups and in comparison to individualistic countries direct appraisal of subordinates spoils harmony. Relating to customers

in collectivistic companies, in-group customers get better treatment (particularism) and the relationship will prevail over task (Hofstede, 2005).

France ranks 13th and scores quite high (71), and Poland ranks 24th and scores 60 which is also considered as a high score. In this case, the high score and high rank shows that the country is individualistic. Thus, both France and Poland belong to the individualistic type of societies.

Mole (2003) confirms this fact by explaining that in French companies competition prevails over collaboration which is according to Hofstede (2005) related to the individualistic societies' characteristics. Kolman *et al.* (2003), contradicts Hofstede (2005), by showing that Poland is much more collectivistic than a Western country culture, which is also reflected in the management literature. Poles are more inclined to form a group with strong trust relations, and work together in "beating the enemy", individual responsibility is often avoided. The ethic of shared responsibility of the socialist days may have promoted this tendency. But it is likely that relatively strong collectivist values are more deeply rooted in the Polish culture (Kolman *et al.*, 2003).

Despite the fact that Kolman *et al.* (2003) claim that Poland is a collectivistic country, we refer to Hofstede (2005) who claims that Poland is individualistic because since Kolman *et al.*'s research was done the differences between business environments in France and Poland became less visible; thus, both France and Poland became less different in conducting business. Consequently, the results of Hofstede's classification (2005, p. 78) are followed.

3.2.5 Masculinity and Femininity

Hofstede (2005) defines the difference between masculine and feminine society as follows: "A society is called *masculine* when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. A society is called *feminine* when emotional gender roles overlap:

both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life” (p.120).

Masculine societies are described in the following way in the organizations: the management is decisive and aggressive. Thus, the resolution of conflicts occurs by letting the strongest win. In these societies people live in order to work, as more money is preferred over more leisure time. Rewards are based on equity. Careers are compulsory for men and optional for women, as a result there is a lower share of working women in professional jobs. In general, there is a preference for larger organizations in masculine societies and, finally, humanization of work is expressed by job content enrichment (Hofstede, 2005).

Feminine societies are described in the following way in the organizations: the management is based on intuition and consensus. Thus the resolution of conflicts occurs by compromise and negotiation. In these societies people work in order to live, as more leisure time is preferred over more money. Rewards are based on equality. Careers are optional for both genders, and as a result there is a higher share of working women in professional jobs. In general, there is a preference for smaller organizations in feminine societies and, finally, humanization of work is expressed by contact and cooperation (Hofstede, 2005).

If we consider the descriptions of feminine and masculine societies above we can say that France is a feminine society with a score equal to 43, rank 47, and Poland is a masculine society with a score equal to 64, rank 14. That means that French organizations are more intuitive, diplomatic, and accord more importance to cooperation, equality and contact than Polish organizations. The French prefer to work in order to live rather than live in order to work. Poles, on the other hand, are more aggressive in taking decisions, and accord more importance to work itself. Men in Poland still have higher status than women in the workplace environment.

Mole (2003) agrees with Hofstede (2005) about most of the characteristics of both countries by mentioning that Poland has a male dominated workplace, while in France one can find women as managers of the organizations. The author also

notices preference of French for life than for work (p.194, 2003), also mentioned by Hofstede (2005). Kolman *et al.*'s (2003) findings suggest that the Polish culture is strongly masculine. The high score of Poland on masculinity is mainly caused by their agreeing more with the statement that "when people have failed in life it is often their own fault" (Kolman *et al.*, 2003). Consequently, referring to all the authors, France is a Feminine society and Poland is a Masculine one.

3.2.6 Avoidance of uncertainty

According to Hofstede (2005) "*Uncertainty avoidance* can be defined as the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations (Hofstede, 2005). The author mentions that "this feeling is, among other things, expressed through nervous stress and in a need for predictability: a need for written and unwritten rules". (p. 167)

Societies with strong uncertainty avoidance (UAI) observe fewer changes of employer and longer service in their organizations. There is an emotional need for rules, even if these will not work; a need to be busy and an inner urge to work hard. There is also a need for precision and formalization, and for these types of organizations time is money. Top managers are concerned with daily operations and entrepreneurs are constrained by existing rules. There are more self-employed people in strong UAI societies. Workers in these country cultures are not very good at invention, but better at implementation. They believe in experts and technical solutions and focus on decision content rather than in decision process (Hofstede, 2005).

Societies with weak uncertainty avoidance (UAI) observe more changes of employer and shorter service in their organizations. There should be no more rules than strictly necessary; these societies are hard-working only when it is needed and they are tolerant for ambiguity and chaos. For these types of organizations time is framework for orientation. Top managers are concerned with strategy and entrepreneurs are relatively free from rules. There are fewer self-employed people in weak UAI societies, they are worse at implementation

but better at invention; they believe in generalists and common sense and focus on decision process rather than in decision content (Hofstede, 2005).

Poland and France both have quite strong UAI, according to Hofstede (2005); especially Poland which scores 93 and is in top ten strongest UAI country cultures, while France scores 86 and ranks 22nd, which is lower than Poland. However, both country cultures believe in rules and are motivated by security. For them, time is money and there is a need to be busy, to be precise and formalized. In this case, they are good at implementation but not at invention.

After a survey about punctuality Mole (2003) noticed that Poles are usually up to 15 minutes late, and French workers are over 15 minutes late. The author underlines that the punctuality depends on the nature of the organization, which can be organic or systematic. The more punctual the people are, the more they will tend toward the systematic end of the dimension and its mechanistic view of organizations. This means that French organizations belong to the organic type of companies and that Polish organizations belong to the more systematic type of companies. The difference between the two types of organizations is that toward the systematic end there is a belief that the basic elements of an organization are functions that are coordinated by well-defined, logical relationships. Toward the organic end of the dimension, the belief is that organizations are like living organisms growing out of the needs of their members, their environment, and the circumstances of the moment. Thus, systematic organizations are more likely to follow the rules than the organic ones; as a consequence French workers should be less formal than Polish ones. In addition, Mole (2003) describes Poles as preferring formal communication and in general being comfortable with formality.

Kolman *et al.* (2003) describe a relatively high score on uncertainty avoidance of Poland. The observed strong uncertainty avoidance is in conformity with casual observations, like the strong reference for experts in Poland. Signs of strong uncertainty avoidance can also be seen in the Polish attitude towards authority. “Legitimate power”, or “position power”, is very important in the Polish context (Kolman *et al.*, 2003).

Mole (2003) claims that there is a bigger difference between France and Poland according to uncertainty avoidance dimension. However, lack of punctuality and formality in communication of the French is not sufficient to explain the weak UAI of the French. Thus, Hofstede's classification (p. 168, 2005) of the country cultures is taken into account.

3.2.7 Uncertainty avoidance effects on anxiety and happiness

Anxiety is a term taken from psychology and psychiatry that expresses a diffuse "state of being uneasy or worried about what may happen" (Hofstede, 2005). The factors like alcoholism and the rate of prisoners in a country are usually considered as outcomes of anxiety. According to Hofstede (2005), the uncertainty avoidance dimension is positively correlated with anxiety in a way that in weak UAI societies anxiety levels are relatively low (Hofstede, 2005). Both Poles and the French belong to strong UAI societies, thus, they should be more exposed to anxiety at workplace.

Mole (2003) mentions humor as widely used way to create a relaxed atmosphere. It lightens tedium, and defuses tension when things get difficult. It is also employed to disguise aggression. Mole's (2003) findings about country humor rating show that both Poles and the French use humor quite seldom during the formal meetings, as a result the chances to create a relaxed atmosphere and defuse tension are lower in both countries.

Happiness is negatively correlated with UAI. A stronger UAI goes together with less subjective well-being. So in country cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance people feel less happy. Consequently, according to Hofstede (2005), both Poles and the French, should be more anxious and less happy.

3.2.8 Long and short term orientation

According to Hofstede (2005) “*long-term orientation* stands for the fostering of virtues oriented toward future rewards - in particular, perseverance and thrift. Its opposite pole, *short-term orientation*, stands for the fostering of virtues related to the past and present – in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of “face”, and fulfilling social obligations” (p. 210).

In the societies with long-term orientation main work values include learning, honesty, adaptiveness, accountability and self-discipline. The focus is on market position and leisure time is not important. These organizations pay attention to long term profits and owner-managers and workers share the same aspirations. In these societies wide social and economic differences are not desirable (Hofstede, 2005).

In the societies with short-term orientation main work values include freedom, rights, achievement and thinking for oneself. The focus is on bottom line and leisure time is important for them. These organizations pay attention to short term profits and owner-managers and workers are psychologically in two camps. In these societies meritocracy is rewarded by abilities (Hofstede, 2005).

France is 19th in Hofstede’s classification (p.211, 2005), and it scores 39, it is a long-term society. This means that French workers should have long-term views about the future; they should be more self-disciplined and should have better adaptability skills. French employees and employers should generally share the same aspirations between co-workers and managers. Poland is 24th and scores 32, it is a short-term society. This means that Poles should have short-term views about the future; they should be less self-disciplined and should have achievement as a strong value of work. In general, Polish managers and workers should be in two different psychological camps.

3.2.9 Summary

If we generalize the five dimensions in perspective of both countries, France and Poland, we can say that:

- France has a similar *Power distance index* to Poland.
- France and Poland belong to *Individualistic* society.
- France belongs to *Feminine* society and Poland to *Masculine* society.
- France and Poland belong both to strong *Uncertainty avoidance index*.
- France belongs to *Long-term orientation* societies and Poland to *Short-term orientation* societies.

In this chapter (3.2) we have identified cultural likenesses and differences between France and Poland (they are summarized in the table below). However, in our research we concentrate on similarities between Poland and France. There are three dimensions according to which the French and Poles are similar: Power distance, Individualism-collectivism and Uncertainty avoidance. Consequently, our hypotheses will also be focusing on similarities.

Table 3.3 Country cultural differences and similarities between France and Poland

	FRANCE	POLAND
PDI <i>Hofstede</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inequality in the hierarchy of an organization - Centralized system in the majority of companies - Supervisory of personal - Managers rely on superiors and on formal rules - Top management perceived as autocratic or paternalistic - Significant difference between the salaries of the top and bottom of organizations - White-collar jobs are valued more than blue-collar jobs - Privileges and status symbols are normal and popular 	
PDI <i>Mole</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Centralized system in the majority of companies - Top management perceived as autocratic or paternalistic - Privileges and status symbols are normal and popular - Senior person dominates in decisions and meetings 	
PDI <i>Kolman et al.</i>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better working relationship with superiors - Subordinates like to be consulted - Autocratic management style at the same time

<p>IDV <i>Hofstede</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low occupational mobility - Employees pursue the employer's interest if it coincides with their self-interest - Hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on skills and rules - The management of the organization is a management of individuals - Every customer should get the same treatment (universalism) - Task prevails over relationship 	
<p>IDV <i>Mole</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individualistic society - Competition prevails over collaboration 	
<p>IDV <i>Kolman et al.</i></p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Collectivistic society - Individual responsibility is often avoided - More inclined to form a group
<p>MAS <i>Hofstede</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management is based on intuition and consensus - Resolution of conflicts occurs by compromise and negotiation - People work in order to live - More leisure time is preferred over more money - Rewards are based on equality - Careers are optional for both genders - Higher share of working women in professional jobs - Preference for smaller organizations - Humanization of work is expressed by contact and cooperation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management is decisive and aggressive - Resolution of conflicts occurs by letting the strongest win - People live in order to work - More money is preferred over more leisure time - Rewards are based on equity - Careers are compulsory for men and optional for women - Lower share of working women in professional jobs - Preference for larger organizations - Humanization of work is expressed by job content enrichment
<p>MAS <i>Mole</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Women can be managers - Preference for life than job 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Male domination at workplace
<p>MAS <i>Kolman et al.</i></p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strongly masculine society - Less empathic

<p>UAI <i>Hofstede</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fewer changes of employer and longer service in the organizations - Emotional need for rules, even if these will not work - Need to be busy and an inner urge to work hard - Need for precision and formalization - Time is money - Top managers are concerned with daily operations - Self-employed people - Better at implementation - Belief in experts and technical solutions - Focus on decision content 	
<p>UAI <i>Mole</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Less punctual - Organic companies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More punctual - Systematic companies - Preference for formal communication
<p>UAI <i>Kolman et al.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strong uncertainty index - Strong reference for experts - Importance of “position power” 	
<p>UAI – Happiness and Anxiety</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More anxious - Fewer use of humor during the formal meetings - People feel less happy - Motivated by security and esteem 	
<p>LTO <i>Hofstede</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Main work values include learning, honesty, adaptiveness, accountability and self-discipline. - Long term profit orientation. - Owner-managers and workers share the same aspirations. - Wide social and economic differences are not desirable. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Main work values include freedom, rights, achievement and thinking for oneself. - Short term profit orientation. - Owner-managers and workers are psychologically in two camps - Meritocracy is rewarded by abilities.
<p>LTO <i>Mole</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management and subordinates are in two different camps 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management is a part of the work team - Positive responds to volatile circumstances

3.3 Cross-analysis of cultural dimensions and deviant work place behavior theories

In this sub-chapter we will discuss how country cultural theories could be linked with deviant workplace behavior theories. Therefore, we will discuss the factors (presented in Table 3.1 of the Chapter 3.1) which indicate the four different types of deviant behaviour (described in Chapter 3.1 and illustrated in Figure 3.2) and cultural dimensions (discussed in Chapter 3.2 and summarized in Table 3.3). The discussion will lead to the link *between the types of deviance, arisen from the factors stated above, and cultural dimensions*. Factors', types of deviance and cultural dimensions' connections are summarized in the end of this chapter in Table 3.4.

3.3.1 Person-based perspective

3.3.1.1 Demographic factors

Appelbaum *et al.* (2007) found that there is a correlation between several person-based factors and the deviant workplace behavior. The most important of them are:

- Gender
- Tenure
- Education
- Age

The connections of these factors to the cultural diversity theories will be discussed bellow.

Gender

According to Appelbaum *et al.*, males tend to engage in more aggressive behavior than females (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007); this means that masculine country cultures should be more tended to apply the negative deviant behavior. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between MAS and deviance. Thus, if we refer to Hofstede

(2005), Poland, as a masculine society, should be more tended to the negative deviant behavior as their management is described as decisive and aggressive, while in France, feminine country culture, the management is based on intuition and consensus; thus, referring to gender factor, the French should be less tended to commit deviance than Poles.

Tenure

Tenure is defined as length of time a position of an employee lasts. Appelbaum *et al.*'s (2007) research proves that employees with less tenure are more likely to commit property deviance. Tenure can be explained by the level of loyalty of an employee. The loyalty could be predicted by the PDI of a country culture in a following way: a country culture with large PDI shows significant difference between salaries and status of employees and employers. Thus, organization is less concerned with the welfare of its all employees. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between PDI and property deviance. As a result, both Poles and the French should be more tended to commit property deviance according to power distance dimension. According to Hofstede (2005), there should be fewer changes of employers and longer service in the countries with stronger UAI than in the cultures with weaker UAI. This means that employees in strong UAI country cultures have relatively long tenure; thus, they are less tended to commit property deviance. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance. As mentioned in Chapter 3.2, both France and Poland have quite strong UAI. As a result, both Poles and the French are less tended to commit property deviance.

Referring to Hofstede's (2005) power distance dimension analysis, both Poles and the French are more tended to commit property deviance. Nevertheless, according to uncertainty avoidance dimension both Poles and the French are less tended to commit property deviance. As a result, there is no lucid explanation for tenure in terms of cultural dimensions. Therefore, it is not relevant for our research.

Education

More educated employees are less likely to be involved in deviant behavior (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007). According to governmental statistics in Poland

(Olenski, 2007) and a survey of French national institute of statistics (Insee, 2007), described in Figure 3.4, it is noticed that the proportions of educated people in France are higher than in Poland. It means that France should have more educated employees. As a consequence, referring to Appelbaum *et al.* (2007), French should be less tended to negative deviant behavior than Poles. Moreover, according to Mole (2003) in France education is considered as the most important factor in hiring employees while in Poland the most important factor is charisma (2003, p. 64). As a result, Polish employees should be more tended to commit a deviance than French due to educational factor.

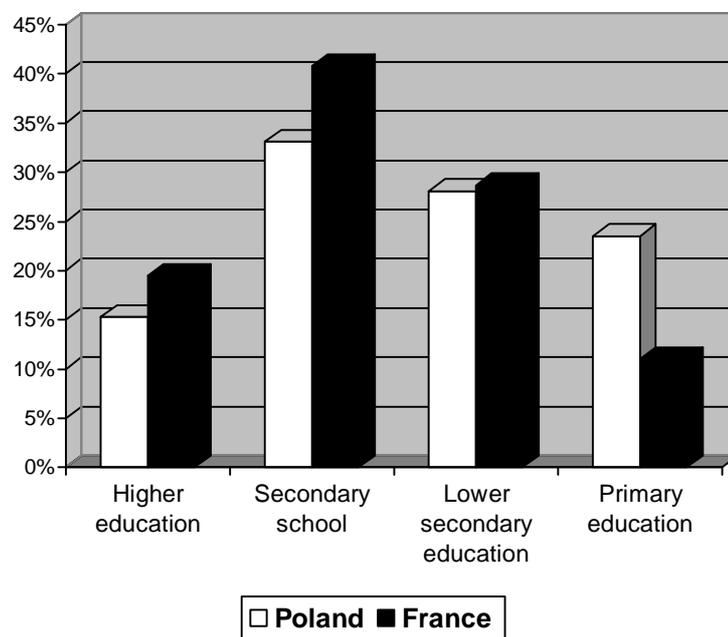


Figure 3.4 Education in France and Poland (based on: Insee, Niveau général de formation selon l'âge, 2007 and Olenski, Demographic year book of Poland 2007, p. 159, 2007)

However, this factor cannot be explained by any of dimensions; thus, we do not consider it for the further research.

Age

Appelbaum *et al.*'s (2007) research shows that older employees are likely to be more honest than younger employees. This means that in a country with older employees negative deviant behavior should be less common. According to OECD survey, French employees are older than Polish ones, described in Figure

3.5; which means that in Polish organizations there should be a higher risk of negative deviant behavior than in French ones.

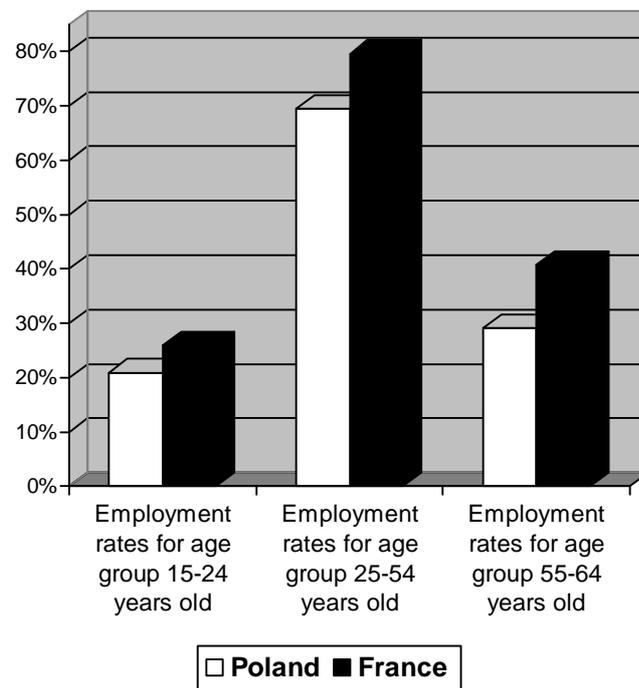


Figure 3.5 Employment rates by age group (based on: OECD, OECD Factbook 2007, p. 124, 2007)²

However, this factor, as well as age factor, cannot be explained by any of dimensions; thus, we do not consider it for the further research.

3.3.1.2 Attitudes of employees

There are two most relevant attitudes of employees related to negative deviant workplace behavior described by Bolin and Heatherly (2001). These attitudes are Theft approval and Intent to quit.

Theft approval

Theft approval is the best predictor of property deviance, especially theft (Bolin and Heatherly, 2001). In the majority of cases, this factor can be predicted by the lack of rules and regulations within a society. A person, who does not have the

² The employment rates in this figure show the percentage of persons of working age who are in employment, broken down into three age groups.

habit of following rules, could step over other regulations. In the country cultures with stronger UAI there is an emotional need for rules. Thus, the employees in these country cultures are used to follow the regulations and are more familiar with formality (Hofstede, 2005). Therefore, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance. Consequently, both Poles and the French, belonging to strong UAI country cultures, have lower tendency to approve the theft.

Intent to quit

Intent to quit is a predictor of absenteeism, privilege abuse and theft (Bolin and Heatherly, 2001). This factor can be predicted by loyalty of an employee. The loyalty itself can be predicted by PDI of a country culture. The societies with large PDI show significant difference between salaries and status of employees and employers. Thus, there is lower attachment to the companies in this type of societies. Consequently, employees feel less attached to the company and more often intend to quit the job and commit organizational deviance related to this factor. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between PDI and organizational deviance. As a result, both Poles and the French should be more tended to commit organizational deviance.

3.3.1.3 Psychological state of employee

Frustration

Frustration is associated with various forms of interpersonal deviance (Robinson and Bennett, 2000). Frustration of employees can be also associated with anxiety. A more anxious population is related to the country cultures with strong UAI. This means that anxiety is more common in country culture with strong UAI; thus, the risk of deviance is higher. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between UAI and interpersonal deviance. Both France and Poland belong to strong UAI societies (Hofstede, 2005); as a consequence, both French and Polish employees are more exposed to the risk of interpersonal deviance. In addition, according to Mole (2003), another way of avoiding frustration is the use of humor inside the companies. Referring to his survey, both French and Polish companies

use humor quite seldom during the formal meetings. The use of humor reduces tension and relaxes atmosphere. As a consequence, both French and Polish employees are more frustrated; thus, more tended to commit interpersonal deviance.

To summarize both Hofstede (2005) and Mole (2003) claim that French and Polish employees are exposed to anxiety and consequently tended to commit interpersonal deviance.

3.3.2 Situation-based perspective

Groups play an important role in influencing their members and their organizations. Therefore, it is important to identify how deviance could be predicted in different cultures referring to the patterns of group behaviors in these countries.

3.3.2.1 Group behaviors

Deviant role models

Research in Social Learning Theory suggests that deviant role models within a group setting will significantly influence others within the group to commit acts of deviance as well (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005, Appelbaum *et al.*, 2007). This can happen in the companies with collectivistic views about the business environment as in these societies in-group solidarity prevails. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between IDV and deviance. According to Hofstede (2005), both Poland and France belong to the group of individualistic societies, which means that they both have individualistic traits. As a result, both country cultures are less tended to commit acts of deviance within the group.

Multitude of ethnic differences between workers

Findings of Liao *et al.* (2004) about multitude of ethnic differences between workers show that ethnic similarity increases the likelihood of deviant workplace

behavior. Hofstede (2005) found that in long-term orientation country cultures wide social and economic differences are not desirable. However, it is quite difficult to associate ethnic difference to social difference as ethnic difference understands racial, national, religious, linguistic or cultural heritage while social difference means different economic and political positions of individuals within the same society, group or culture. Thus, multitude of ethnic differences between workers factor could be considered as irrelevant for our further research.

3.3.2.2 Ethical climate in the organization

The ethical climate of an organization could be used to predict not only unethical behavior, but counterproductive behavior as well (Wimbush and Shepard, 1994).

There are five main factors of ethical climate in the organizations:

- Competitive environment: intra organizational competition
- Caring climate
- Climates of rules and professionalism
- Instrumental climates
- Presence of counter norms and “effect/danger” ratio

Competitive environment: intra organizational competition

This factor is a predictor of both organizational (corruption) and interpersonal deviance. Kulik *et al.* explained that the competition inside an organization increases the risk of deviant behavior (Kulik *et al.*, 2008). Referring to Hofstede’s (2005) individualism-collectivism dimension, individualistic societies should be more tended to deviant behavior than collectivistic ones, because in collectivistic firms the in-group task prevails; thus, there is less competition between employees of the same company. Self-interest is a key feature in individualistic cultures; as a result, there is more competition between employees; thus, higher risk of deviance. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between IDV and deviance. Thus, both French and Polish employees should be more tended to commit both organizational (corruption) and interpersonal deviance.

Caring climate

Sims (2002) and Peterson (2002) mention that high levels of caring climate relate to lower levels of likelihood of workplace deviance within the organization. According to Hofstede (2005) caring climate is more common in feminine country cultures than in masculine ones. Feminine societies are based on compromise, consensus and humanization of work in these country cultures is expressed by cooperation. Thus, there is a lower risk of deviance in the feminine country cultures. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between MAS and political deviance. Thus, Poland belongs to the masculine country cultures, while France belongs to the feminine ones. Thus, Poles should be more tended to commit political deviance than the French.

Climates of rules and professionalism

According to Peterson (2002), companies that do not emphasize the strict adherence to company rules and laws, are more vulnerable to property deviance. Hofstede (2005), Kolman *et al.* (2003) and Mole (2003) described the companies of the cultures belonging to strong UAI societies as organizations which accord high importance to the rules; thus, there is lower risk of deviance in strong UAI country cultures. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance. Both Polish and French employees have an emotional need for rules: they feel comfortable with precision, formalization and feel the need to be leaded. As a consequence, Polish and French workers are less tended to commit property deviance.

Instrumental climates

In the organizations with an instrumental climate, the individuals are concerned with protecting their own interests, thus they are more likely to commit production deviance (Peterson, 2002). In individualistic societies employees pursue the employer's interest only if it coincides with their self-interest (Hofstede, 2005). It means that in individualistic country cultures employees and employers protect at first their own interest; thus, there is a higher risk of production deviance in these societies. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between IDV and production deviance. Thus, France and Poland, as individualistic country cultures, have higher tendency of production deviance.

Presence of counter norms and “effect/danger” ratio

As it was mentioned in Chapter 3.1.3.2 part of this work, the bottom-line mentality encourages financial success at the expense of other values. Hofstede (2005) claims that masculine society, has decisive and aggressive behavior in business environment; thus, the resolution of conflicts occurs by letting the strongest win. This kind of behavior can encourage the bottom-line mentality; thus, it increases the risk of deviance. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between MAS and deviant workplace behavior. Consequently, Poles should be more tended to reach financial success at the expense of other values than the French, as Poles belong to masculine society and the French to feminine one. However, it does not clearly indicate which of the countries is more tended to presence of counter norms and “effect/danger” ratio. As a consequence, it is difficult to explain the effect/danger ratio referring to cultural factors explained by Hofstede (2005). Thus, we will consider it meaningless in our research.

3.3.2.3 Operational environment

Size of the company

Larger firms with greater resources are related to increased occurrence of workplace deviance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005). Hofstede (2005) mentioned that in masculine societies there is a preference for larger organizations. Thus, there is a higher risk of deviance in masculine country cultures. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between MAS and deviance in general. As a consequence, in Poland (masculine country culture) larger companies should prevail. Thus, there is a higher risk of deviance inside Polish firms. In France (feminine country culture) preference for smaller firms should prevail, thus a risk of deviance is lower.

3.3.2.4 Supervisory behavior and justice

Discipline on wrongful acts

When leaders exercise discipline on wrongful acts within an organization, a powerful signal about the value of organizational norms is sent to others (Trevino and Brown, 2005). Discipline on wrongful acts could occur in country cultures with small PDI, as the top management in these societies is perceived as less autocratic and paternalistic than in societies with large PDI. This means that management in small PDI countries could be less tended to reprimand culpable employees. Thus, the societies with small PDI should be more tended to commit deviance. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between PDI and deviance in general. France and Poland have similarly large PDI; this means that their management should be more autocratic and paternalistic; thus, the French and Poles should be similarly less tended to commit deviance.

In feminine societies management is based on intuition and consensus, resolution of conflicts occurs by compromise and negotiation and the management appears less strict (Hofstede, 2005). In these societies culpable employees could be left unpunished and the co-workers could take it as an example of injustice and commit deviance in their turn. Thus, in feminine country cultures employees should be more tended to commit deviance. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between MAS and workplace deviance. As a result, France should have a higher risk of deviance than Poland, as the latter is a masculine country culture.

Finally, in countries with weaker UAI there are fewer rules, employees are hard-working when needed and they are less bounded to the rules, thus, enjoy more freedom (Hofstede, 2005). As a result, there should be a higher risk to break company's rules (commit deviance) in weaker UAI country cultures. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between UAI and workplace deviance. Thus, both the French and Poles should be less tended to commit deviance due to stronger UAI.

To sum up, two dimensions (power distance and uncertainty avoidance) out of three described in this part, show that both French and Polish employees are less tended to commit deviance. As a result, there is no lucid explanation for tenure in terms of cultural dimensions. Therefore, it is not relevant for our research.

Inequitable treatment

Inequitable treatment indicates workplace deviance as a response to being treated inequitably (Henle, 2005; Robinson and Bennett, 2000). According to Hofstede (2005) collectivistic societies are considered as more egalitarian than individualistic country cultures. Therefore, inequitable treatment causes stronger employees' reactions in the collectivistic countries as they are not used to inequitable treatment. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance. As a result, both the French and Poles are less tended to commit deviance.

Perceived injustice

Perceived injustice is very closely related to inequitable treatment factor, as both indicate the same conditions to commit deviance; thus, perceived injustice can be explained the same way as inequitable treatment (through IDV).

Company task structure

Keeping workers occupied with tasks that they will be asked to take responsibility for will often lead to a lower likelihood that such employees engage in deviant behaviors (Osgood *et al.*, 1996). In masculine societies people live in order to work and in feminine societies they work in order to live, this means that the degree of occupation in masculine societies should be higher than in feminine societies. As a result, there should be higher risk of deviance in feminine country cultures than in masculine ones. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between MAS and workplace deviance. In addition, according to Hofstede (2005), in the societies with strong UAI "time is money". Moreover, there is a need to be busy and an inner urge to work hard. As a consequence, the societies with strong UAI should be less tended to commit deviance than country cultures with weaker UAI. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between UAI and workplace deviance. Consequently, both Poland and France are less tended to deviance.

According to masculinity-femininity dimension analysis, Poles are more tended to commit deviance than the French, while according to uncertainty avoidance

analysis both Poles and the French are less tended to commit deviance. Therefore, it could be assumed that actual deviance level could depend on the dimension which prevails in the company. As a result, there is no single explanation for this factor in terms of cultural dimensions.

Normlessness

Normlessness is the lack of acceptance of social expectations about behavior, thus when individuals feel “bonded” to a social environment they will be less inclined to commit deviant acts. The companies in which the business has more respect for norms and the organizations which are more formally organized should have a lower risk of deviance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005). As mentioned above, a society with stronger UAI (Hofstede, 2005) has an emotional need for rules; thus, the risk of deviance is lower in this type of country culture. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between UAI and workplace deviance. As a consequence, both Poland and France are less tended to deviance.

Abusive supervision and employee’s perceptions of management style in terms of uncertainty

According to Thau *et al.* (2008), positive relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor- directed and organizational deviance is stronger for employees who perceived high rather than low levels of uncertainty with respect to management style. This means that when the employees perceive certain type of uncertainty and hesitation arising from their management, they should be more tended to deviant behavior.

In the country cultures with weaker UAI the management is closer to its employees, less formal and tolerant for ambiguity (Hofstede, 2005). The intra organizational climate seems more relaxed than in societies with stronger UAI. The level of uncertainty is higher in less formal country cultures, which means that the risk of deviant workplace behavior should be higher in weaker UAI societies. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between UAI and organizational deviance. Both France and Poland have strong UAI; as a consequence, both the French and Poles are less tended to commit deviance.

3.3.3 Summary

In this chapter we have discussed types of deviant behaviour for separate factors and its relation to culture. This lead to the theoretical assumptions about the cultural dimensions' impacts on deviant workplace behavior. In the table below the summary of the cross-disciplinary analysis is provided. The table is divided into five columns: 1) Factor 2) Types of deviance 3) Dimensions explaining the factor 4) France 5) Poland. Column (1) shows the factors (described in Chapter 3.1). Column (2) indicates the types of deviance which arise from the factors (this relationship is also explained in Chapter 3.1). Column (3) shows cultural dimensions which correspond to factors conditions and can explain deviances triggered by these factors. "+" or "-" in front of the dimension index in column (3) indicates the direction of relationship between deviance and dimension (positive or negative). Columns (4) and (5) indicate cultural dimensions influence on deviant workplace behavior in France and Poland in accordance with country cultural specific features described in Chapter 3.2. In e.g., gender might be a reason of all types of deviance. Gender factor conditions are closely linked with masculinity-femininity dimension. Thus, when deviance arises from gender factor, masculinity-femininity dimension is positively related with deviance; consequently, high MAS indicates high risk of deviance. As a result, France, as feminine society, is less tended to deviance than Poland, which is masculine society. The references and arguments for the assumed relations have been presented in Chapter 3.3.1.1.

Table 3.4 Summary

Factors (1)	Types of deviance (2)	Dimensions explaining the factor (3)	France (4)	Poland (5)
Person-based Perspective				
Demographic Factors				
Gender	All types of deviance	+MAS	Less tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Tenure	Property deviance	+PDI -UAI	Ambiguous connections	Ambiguous connections

			to deviance	to deviance
Education	All types of deviance	xxx	Less tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Age	All types of deviance	xxx	Less tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Attitudes of Employees				
Theft approval	Property deviance	-UAI	Less tended to deviance	Less tended to deviance
Intent to quit	Organizational deviance	+PDI	More tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Psychological state of employee				
Frustration	Interpersonal deviance	+UAI	More tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Situation-based Perspective				
Group behaviors				
Deviant role models	All types of deviance	-IDV	Less tended to deviance	Less tended to deviance
Multitude of ethnic differences between workers	All types of deviance	xxx	xxx	xxx
Ethical Climate In the Organization				
Competitive Environment: intra-organizational competition	All types of deviance	+IDV	More tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Caring climate	Political deviance	+MAS	Less tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Climates of rules and professionalism	Property deviance	-UAI	Less tended to deviance	Less tended to deviance
Instrumental climates	Production deviance	+IDV	More tended to deviance	More tended to deviance
Presence of Counter Norms	All types of deviance	xxx	xxx	xxx
Operational environment				
Size of the company	All types of deviance	+MAS	Less tended to deviance	More tended to

				deviance
Supervisory behavior and justice				
Discipline on Wrongful Acts	All types of deviance	-PDI -MAS -UAI	Ambiguous connections to deviance	Ambiguous connections to deviance
Inequitable Treatment	All types of deviance	-IDV	Less tended to deviance	Less tended to deviance
Perceived Injustice	All types of deviance	-IDV	Less tended to deviance	Less tended to deviance
Company Task Structure	All types of deviance	-UAI -MAS	Ambiguous connections to deviance	Ambiguous connections to deviance
Normlessness	All types of deviance	-UAI	Less tended to deviance	Less tended to deviance
Abusive supervision and employee's perceptions of management style in terms of uncertainty	Organizational deviance	-UAI	Less tended to deviance	Less tended to deviance

3.4 Hypotheses establishment

In total we have identified 21 factor of deviant workplace behavior. Four of them (*Age, Education, Multitude of ethnic differences between workers and Presence of counter norms*) could not be explained by cultural dimensions; however, not all the rest 18 factor-dimension connections are appropriate to identify the country culture influence on deviant workplace behavior. Thus, to verify the hypothesis, we needed to reject the factor-dimension links which are irrelevant for our research. Therefore, factor-dimension connections had to satisfy certain criteria:

- One of the criteria for not rejecting certain factors was lucidity of connections to the cultural dimensions. This means that the factor has to be linked only to one cultural dimension. The factors linked to more than one dimension have to be excluded because they provide ambiguous results; thus, we cannot define the relationship between types of deviance and cultural dimensions. As it is summarized in the table 3.4, *Tenure, Company task structure* and *Discipline on wrongful acts* factors can be

explained by more than one dimension; thus, we have rejected them from further research.

- We wanted to conduct our research referring to the cultural similarities, not differences between French and Polish societies. Thus, in order to be relevant factor must be explained by one of three cultural dimensions PDI, IDV and UAI, because both countries are similar according to these dimensions. Due to this limitation, we exclude *Gender*, *Multitude of ethnic differences between workers*, *Effect/Danger ratio*, *Caring climate* and *Size of the company* factors.

Finally, from the remained factors we have identified the mainstream factors that cover principal predictors of deviant workplace behavior and all types of deviance (interpersonal and organizational) described in the Chapter 3.1. Hence, some of the predictors were incorporated into one main factor. In this way eleven factors were incorporated into nine mainstream factors. The factor *Normlessness* was grouped with *Climates of rules and professionalism* as they both deal with the rules inside the organization. The factor *Perceived injustice* is also incorporated as justice inside organizations is closely related to *Inequitable treatment* factor. Thus, the factors that will be used when deriving hypotheses are:

1. Theft approval
2. Intent to quit
3. Frustration
4. Deviant role models
5. Competitive Environment: intra-organizational competition
6. Climates of rules and professionalism (+ normlessness)
7. Instrumental climates
8. Inequitable treatment (+ perceived injustice)
9. Abusive supervision and employee's perceptions of management style in terms of uncertainty

After rejection of irrelevant factors and compilation of very closely related predictors of deviance, referring to summary chart 3.4, we can develop the hypotheses.

According to Bolin and Heatherly (2001), *theft approval*, which is linked to the lack of rules and regulations within a society, is a predictor of *property deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.1.2, is explained by uncertainty avoidance dimension as, according to Hofstede (2005), strong UAI societies have an emotional need for rules and are used to follow the regulations; thus, they are not tended to *theft approval* and, consequently, to *property deviance*. Hence, strong UAI should indicate low risk of property deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 1: *When the deviance arises from theft approval factor, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance.*

According to Bolin and Heatherly (2001), *intent to quit*, which is linked to the lack of loyalty of an employee, is a predictor of *organizational deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.1.2, is explained by power distance dimension as, according to Hofstede (2005), employees of large PDI societies are less loyal; thus, more often *intend to quit* job and consequently are more tended to commit *organizational deviance*. Hence, large PDI should indicate high risk of organizational deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 2: *When the deviance arises due to intent to quit factor, there is a positive relationship between PDI and organizational deviance.*

According to Robinson and Bennett (2000), *frustration*, which occurs due to the anxiety of an employee, is a predictor of *interpersonal deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.1.3, is explained by uncertainty avoidance dimension as, according to Hofstede (2005), strong UAI societies are more anxious; thus, they are more tended to *frustration* and, consequently, to *interpersonal deviance*. Hence, high UAI should indicate high risk of interpersonal deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 3: *When the deviance arises from frustration factor, there is a positive relationship between UAI and interpersonal deviance.*

According to Appelbaum *et al.* (2005, 2007), *deviant role models*, which are linked to an in-group commitment of an employee, predict *all types of deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.2.1, is explained by individualism-collectivism

dimension because, according to Hofstede (2005), in collectivistic societies co-workers have a bigger influence on each other; thus, employees induce others within the group to commit acts of deviance. Hence, high IDV should indicate low risk of all types of deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 4: *When the deviance arises from deviant role models factor, there is a negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

According to Kulik *et al.* (2008), *competition* is a predictor of *all types of deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.2.2, is explained by individualism-collectivism dimension as, according to Hofstede (2005), in collectivistic societies there is less competition between employees of the same company; consequently, collectivistic countries should be less tended to deviance. Hence, high IDV should indicate high risk of all types of deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 5: *When the deviance arises from competition factor, there is a positive relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

According to Peterson (2002), *instrumental climate*, which is linked with a degree of self-interest while accomplishing the tasks, is a predictor of *production deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.2.2, is explained by individualism-collectivism dimension as, according to Hofstede (2005), in individualistic country cultures employees and employers protect at first their own interest; thus, organizations of individualistic countries are more likely to suffer from production deviance. Hence, high IDV should indicate high risk of production deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 6: *When the deviance arises from instrumental climate factor, there is a positive relationship between IDV and production deviance.*

According to Peterson (2002), *inequitable treatment* is a predictor of *all types of deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.2.4, is explained by individualism-collectivism dimension because, according to Hofstede (2005), employees in collectivistic societies are less used to be treated unfair; thus, *inequitable treatment* in collectivistic countries causes stronger reactions and, consequently, deviant behavior. Hence, high IDV should indicate low risk of all types of deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 7: *When the deviance arises from inequitable treatment and perceived injustice factor, there is a negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

According to Peterson (2002), *climate of rules* is a predictor of *property deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.2.2, is explained by uncertainty avoidance dimension as, according to Hofstede (2005), Kolman *et al.* (2003) and Mole (2003) strong UAI societies accord high importance to the rules; thus, in these societies climate of rules is strict and consequently employees should have limited possibilities to commit *property deviance*. Hence, high UAI should indicate low risk of property deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 8: *When the deviance arises from climates of rules factor, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance.*

According to Thau *et al.* (2008), *perceived management uncertainty* is a predictor of *organizational deviance*. This factor, described in part 3.3.2.4, is explained by uncertainty avoidance dimension as, according to Hofstede (2005), in weaker UAI societies the level of uncertainty is higher and consequently employees should be more tended to *organizational deviance*. Hence, high UAI should indicate low risk of organizational deviance. Thus, we assume:

Hypothesis 9: *When the deviance arises from perceived management uncertainty factor, there is a negative relationship between UAI and organizational deviance.*

To conclude, within theoretical framework we have discussed different connections: the relations between factors and types of deviance (presented in Chapter 3.1), the interconnection between cultural dimensions and factor conditions (evolved in Chapter 3.3) which lead to the link between cultural dimensions and types of deviance. Through these connections we have developed nine hypotheses that will be tested in Chapter 5.

4. Empirical method

In this chapter alternative approaches are discussed to collect information referring to the problem and aim of our research. Motivated decisions about what, why and how the data has been collected are provided. The chapter ends with the summary of empirical method used in the research.

According to Jankowicz (2000, p.209), “empirical method is a systematic and orderly approach taken towards the collection and analysis of data so that information can be obtained from those data.” Our empirical research consists of a survey of business students from different countries which should reflect the problem on the individual level. Hence, our study is based on primary data which was analyzed using quantitative techniques. The motivation for empirical method choice is provided below.

4.1 Research strategy

There are several kinds of research strategies: experiment, survey, case study, grounded theory, ethnography, action research, cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, as well as explanatory, descriptive and exploratory studies (Saunders *et al.*, 2007; p. 135). In this research we needed a primary data; thus, we chose to use the survey strategy.

There were different reasons for choosing survey strategy. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), a survey strategy is usually associated with a deductive approach. As our research is basically deductive, a survey strategy was the most suitable. In addition, as our research is quantitative, we needed a large number of respondents and survey strategy enabled us to have a sufficient number of responses within a short time frame and low costs. The choice to conduct survey is also based on the need to easily reach our respondents as they are situated abroad (Poland and France). Therefore, data was obtained through e-mail questionnaires. As we were unable to conduct interviews with our respondents, data collected through a

survey strategy is unlikely to be as wide-ranging as data collected by other research strategies. However, even though survey cannot provide in-depth look of the situation, in our study the data collected via survey was sufficient as we aimed at quantitative research.

4.2 Data Collection Method

To answer our research aim, we needed information about the patterns of deviance arising from cultural traits. This information could be identified from the individual's general perceptions about the deviance not connected to certain workplace. As there were no secondary data available, primary data research had to be conducted. Hence, primary data was used to retrieve the information concerning deviance on the individual, and not on the organizational level.

We have considered two options to collect primary data, using questionnaire or interview. Out of these two types we have chosen questionnaire type of data collection because it was the only way (also the easiest and cheapest) to reach our respondents within the time frame, as they are all abroad. Moreover, a questionnaire requires less skills and sensitivity to administer than semi-structured or in depth interviews. In addition, the questions were standardized and close-ended; therefore, we considered questionnaire more suitable as data collection method than interviews.

Primary data was collected by **self-administered internet-mediated questionnaire**³ which can be found in Appendix 1. "Self-administered internet-mediated questionnaire" means that it was completed and administrated electronically using the internet. We have chosen this type of questionnaire in order to reach larger and geographically dispersed sample (French and Polish students). Moreover, the likelihood of contamination and distortion of respondents answers is low since it is not biased by the interviewers (us). Also it takes less time for the respondents to answer than filling in a "Word document";

³ The questionnaire could be retrieved on this website: <http://www.publika.lt/lt/apklausa-15-26e0b9d63fec68473e9c049061fc2749.html>

therefore, the response rate was expected to be higher than using other techniques. Moreover, we think that the chance that right person has answered is high since it was sent by email to existing contacts (e-mail addresses were found using sources of the International Office at Kristianstad University College).

4.3 Population

According to Hussey (1997, p. 55), “population is any precisely set of people or collection of items which is under consideration.” Our population consists of Polish and French business students. We chose these countries due to their link with different prejudices about Eastern/Western European blocks described in Chapter 1.1. However, even though both countries are different referring to their historical and economic backgrounds, culturally they are quite similar if we refer to Hofstede (2005). Thus, focus on cultural resemblance could challenge the prejudice and provide more interesting and unexpected results. The reason of choosing French and Polish business students is that, in order to trace the patterns of deviance in France and Poland arising from cultural traits, we needed a population which is not affected by workplace environment, but which is aware about the situation in business; thus, business students were the best choice in this case.

To sum up, in this research the population could be identified as all business students in France and Poland. As the total population is big, it was impossible to collect data from every student. Therefore, we have chosen to use sampling procedure instead of census.

4.4 Samples

As it was mentioned above, to collect the data about population, we have chosen sampling procedure which, according to Hussey (1997, p.224), “is the study of relationships existing between population and samples drawn from it”. Referring to the same author (1997, p. 55), a sample “is a subset of a population and should

represent the main interest of the study.” Referring to this definition and description of the population, we have two unrelated samples: Polish and French business students samples. In this part we will discuss how the samples were selected and provide their description.

4.4.1 Samples selection

As mentioned above, in order to achieve higher response rate and avoid distortion of respondents, the questionnaire was sent to existing contacts. Therefore, non-probability self-selection sampling technique was used for both samples. Non-probability sampling means that probability of each case being selected from total population is not known. For conclusions of sampling theory to be valid, the chosen samples must be achieved through random sampling. However, we were still able to make generalizations from our non-probability samples about the population, but not on statistical grounds. Self-selection sampling occurs when “we allow each case, usually individuals, to identify their desire to take part in the research” (Saunders et al., 2007, p. 233). In our case, the survey was conducted using internet based tool of collecting data. The link to the questionnaire was sent by email; therefore, if the students wanted to participate in this survey, they could retrieve the questionnaire webpage.

4.4.2 Samples description

In total we had 54 respondents. 56% of respondents are females and 44% males. As you can see in Table 4.1, their age ranges from 20 to 26 years. The Average age is 22. They are in their second to sixth year of studies. Most of students (72.2 %) had professional work experience.

Table 4.1 Main characteristics of the sample

Characteristics	France	Poland	Total
Number of respondents	29	25	54
Gender composition:			
<i>Female</i>	51.7%	64%	56 %
<i>Male</i>	48.3%	36 %	44 %

Average age	21 years	23 years	22 years
Average year of studies	3rd year	5th year	3rd year
Professional experience	82,8%	60 %	72,2 %
Average length of experience	4 months	4 months	5 months

France

The French sample consists of 29 respondents with almost equal gender proportions. Their age ranges from 20 to 26 years. The average age is 21. They are in their second to fifth year of studies. Majority (65 %) of them study business in the third year. Most of the French students (82.8 %) had professional work experience which on average lasted for four months. The longest work experience was more than one year.

Poland

The Polish sample consists of 25 respondents with 64% females and 36 % males. Their age ranges from 21 to 26 years. The average age is 23. They are in their third to sixth year of studies. The majority (52 %) of them study business in the fifth year. More than half of the Polish students (60 %) had professional work experience which on average lasted for four months.

To compare the French and Polish samples, the French sample is bigger than Polish by four respondents. Polish sample has slightly more females than the French. However, gender dimension should not affect the final result because none of the genders was obviously dominating. The Polish respondents are a little bit older than the French; therefore, they are also further in their studies than French. Paradoxically, even though French students are earlier in their studies, more French than Polish respondents had professional work experience. This could be explained by different educational systems. Most likely in Poland practical placements are not incorporated in study programs. However, the average length of professional work experience is equal and in general both samples are not much affected by business environment as work experiences were not long. Therefore, we can predict that their inclinations to deviant behavior arise from cultural background, not from the business environment they are in.

To conclude, even though there are slight differences between the Polish and French samples characteristics, the differences are not big. Therefore, both samples could be considered relatively homogeneous and the characteristic which mostly influences the result should be country of origin.

4.5 Operationalization

According to Saunders (2007, p. 605), operationalization is the “translation of concepts into tangible indicators of their existence”. Thus, in this part we will explain what we measured in each question of the survey and how it was used to evaluate the hypotheses.

In order to verify the hypotheses, in each question of the survey we have measured different types of data variable. According to Saunders (2007), there are three types of data variable that can be collected through questionnaire: opinion, behavior or attribute. **Opinion** variables record how respondents feel about something or they think or believe is true or false (in our questionnaire questions 6, 10, 12 and 13 provide data on opinions). **Behavior** variables record concrete experiences and these variables contain data on what people did in the past, are doing now or will do in the future (in our case questions 7, 8, 9, 11 and 14 record data on behaviors). By contrast, **attribute** variables contain data about respondents’ characteristics. They are used to explore how opinions or behavior differ between respondents as well as to check that the data collected are representative of the total population (first five questions of our questionnaire are attribute questions and they were used just for sample description). To sum up, in our questionnaire we used all three types of data variable; however only opinion and behavior types of data variable contribute to hypotheses testing as attribute data variable were used just as background information, thus, we have not discussed them more in this part (types of data variable revealed in different questions are summarized in the Table 4.2).

In our research each hypothesis derived in Chapter 3.4 is examined by one question which was tested by both samples. Therefore, in our empirical research culture is measured by belongingness (country of origin of the sample), thus, each hypotheses is evaluated based on the comparison of the samples' (Poles and the French) responses. Questions for these two samples measure a tendency to commit a certain type of deviance arising from a specific factor. The questions themselves describe the situations which reflect the conditions of the factor (in e.g., question 6 inclines *theft approval* factor). We have nine hypotheses assessed in nine questions (the answers to every question are segmented into two different groups: France and Poland) that are described below in the same order as established in questionnaire which is presented in Appendix 1.

Hypothesis 1

When the deviance arises from theft approval factor, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance

The sixth question, which reflects *theft approval* factor, analyzes the tendency of both, Poles and the French, to commit property deviance. This question is built as a statement and the answers were expressed in Likert-style rating scale. Thus, the respondents had to choose between strongly agreeing and strongly disagreeing with proposition. The answer "strongly agree" shows that respondent approves theft and is strongly tended to commit property deviance, while "strongly disagree" inclined honesty, thus no tendency to commit property deviance. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are **not** tended to property deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 2

The seventh question of our questionnaire analyzes the tendency of both Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance arising from *intent to quit* factor. The question is built as a scenario and the variants of answers represent different types of organizational deviance. The first answer indicates the tendency to commit a theft, the second answer - absenteeism, the third answer - privilege abuse, and finally, the fourth answer shows that individuals are not tended to commit deviance. Respondents were allowed to choose more than one answer;

thus, in addition to general review of answers, we analyzed every answer variant as a separate question as each of the variants represents different types of organizational deviance. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are tended to organizational deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 3

Via *frustration* factor perspective the eighth question analyzes the tendency of the French and Poles to commit interpersonal deviance. This question is built as a scenario and the variants of answers represent both types of interpersonal deviance (political deviance and personal aggression). First two answers show the tendency to commit political deviance (gossiping (first variant) and favoritism (second variant) within a company); the two following answers show the tendency to commit personal aggression (verbal abuse (third variant) and harassment (fourth variant) within a firm). The last answer indicates that respondent is not tended to deviance. As students were allowed to choose more than one answer, in addition to general review of answers, we analyzed every answer variant as a separate question as each of the variants represent different types of interpersonal deviance. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are tended to interpersonal deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 4

The ninth question of our questionnaire analyzes the tendency of both, Poles and Frenchmen, to commit all types of deviance in connection with in-group behaviors (*deviant role models factor*). The question was built as a scenario and the answers were expressed in an ordinal manner. The sample had to choose between three different answers which indicate if they would deviate, and how likely it is to happen. Answer one means that respondent disagrees with deviant behavior within a group (consequently, this indicates no tendency to commit deviant acts). Second answer is analogous to “neither agree nor disagree” in Likert-style rating scale. Third answer shows that respondent would join the group committing deviance (in-group solidarity). This indicates high possibility to act deviantly. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country

cultures are **not** tended to deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 5

The tenth question of our questionnaire analyzes the tendency of both, Poles and Frenchmen, to commit interpersonal and organizational deviance which arises from *competition*. The answers to this question represent different opinions concerning perceptions about world of business. According to Kulik *et al.* (2008), high level of competitiveness indicates high possibility to commit deviance. First answer indicates high competitiveness (high possibility for organizational and interpersonal deviances), second answer shows high tendency to commit bribery and corruption (organizational deviance), third answer indicates lower competitiveness (lower possibility for deviance) and the last answer means that individual is not tended to deviance arising from competition. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are tended to deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 6

The eleventh question of our questionnaire analyzes the tendency of both, Poles and Frenchmen, to commit production deviance which arises due to *instrumental climate*. The question was made as a scenario and respondents had to choose between four different answers which indicate different types of production deviance. Answer one, two and three show inclination to production deviance while last answer shows no tendency to commit production deviance. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are tended to production deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 7

The twelfth question of our questionnaire analyzes the tendency of both, Poles and Frenchmen, to commit *all types of deviance* as a response to *inequitable treatment*. This question was made as a scenario externalized by the statement and the answers were expressed in Likert-style rating scale. Thus, the respondents had

to choose between strongly agreeing and strongly disagreeing with proposition. It is ordinal type of question in which answer “strongly agree” shows that respondent is strongly tended to commit workplace deviance, while “strongly disagree” inclined honesty, thus no tendency to commit workplace deviance arising from inequitable and unjust treatment. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are **not** tended to deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 8

The thirteenth question of our questionnaire analyzes the tendency of Poles and Frenchmen to commit property deviance which arises due to *climate of rules*. The question is formed as a statement and the sample had to choose between agreeing and disagreeing to this statement which means that answers were expressed in Likert-style rating scale. It is an ordinal type of question in which answer “strongly agree” indicates that a respondent is strongly tended to property deviance while “strongly disagree” inclined honesty, thus no tendency to commit property deviance. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are **not** tended to property deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

Hypothesis 9

The fourteenth question of our questionnaire analyzes the tendency of both Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance which arises from *perceived management uncertainty* factor. The question was built as a scenario. The respondents had to choose between five different answers which show if and how they would deviate. First answer embodies hard property deviance and the second one purports production deviance. Third answer does not show any tendency of deviance and, if it was Likert-style rating scale answer, it would correspond to “Neither agree, nor disagree” variant. The last two answers indicate that respondent is not inclined to commit organizational deviance when he/she perceives management’ uncertainty. According to our theoretical assumptions (Table 3.4), both country cultures are **not** tended to organizational deviance. Thus, the hypothesis will be accepted if empirical research indicates similar results.

The procedure how these hypotheses were verified will be explained in detail in Chapter 5.

4.6 Questionnaire

As our research topic is quite sensitive (it requires caution and tact because respondents are not willing to reveal this part of their personality), the questionnaire was formed not by asking direct questions concerning deviance but by giving scenarios. Regardless of the country the questionnaire was sent to, it was written in English in order to reduce translation mistakes. Together with the questionnaire, a personal cover letter was delivered. In this cover letter a short presentation of the research was provided, however, the real research topic (workplace deviance) was not revealed in order to get less biased answers. Confidentiality and anonymity were promised to all participants. Five days after since the questionnaire was sent out, a follow-up email was written to thank the respondents and remind about the questionnaire. On average, our respondents needed around eight minutes to answer the questionnaire which consisted of 14 questions. More detailed explanation of the composition will follow below.

4.6.1 Types of questions

This questionnaire included a combination of open and closed questions; however, closed questions dominated as out of 14 questions only one was open (question 3). Open questions allow respondents to give answers in their own way. Closed questions provide a number of alternative answers from which the respondent is instructed to choose (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). We have chosen to have a majority of closed questions as they are best suited for quantitative type of research, because it is easier and faster to answer closed questions and responses are easier to compare as they are predetermined. We have used list, category and rating types of closed questions. List questions (questions 7, 8) offered respondents a list of responses, any of which they could choose. In contrast, category questions (questions 1, 2, 4, 5, 10, 11) are designed so that each

respondent's answers can fit only one category. Rating questions (questions 6, 9, 12, 13, 14) were used to collect opinion data. In our questionnaire we have used Likert-style rating scale (in questions 6, 12, 13) in which the respondent was asked how strongly he or she agrees or disagrees with a statement. In order to have a true view about the situation, in Likert-style rating questions an odd number of points (five) were used so that the respondents would not be forced to have an opinion. We consider questions 9, 14 rating questions, as well, even though Likert-style rating scale was not used; however, answers also show ascending or descending tendency to deviance.

To generalize, in our questionnaire we have mostly used list or rating type questions because in these type of questions it is easy to reverse qualitative answers into quantitative data and which can than be analyzed.

4.6.2 Data types

According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), there are different levels of numerical measurement which dictate the range of techniques available for the analysis of data; therefore, before choosing data analysis techniques it is essential to identify what data types different questionnaire questions provide. Quantitative data can be divided into two distinct groups: **quantifiable** and **categorical**.

Quantifiable data are those whose values are measured numerically as quantities. Only question 3 corresponded to quantifiable data, but it was only background question; thus, quantifiable data will not be discussed further. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.409), **categorical data** refer to “data whose values cannot be measured numerically but can be either classified into categories according to the characteristics that identify or describe the variables or placed in rank order”. It can be further subdivided into **descriptive** and **ranked**. According to Hussey (1997, p.183), **descriptive (nominal)** data is “a measure which only permits data to be classified into named categories.” **Ranked (ordinal)** data is “a measure which permits nominal data to be ordered or ranked” (Hussey, 1997, p.183).

In our research values could not be measured as quantities, thus our data are categorical. In this survey all list and category questions provide nominal data while all rank questions provide ordinal data. The questionnaire composition is summarized in the table below.

Table 4.2 Composition of the questionnaire

Question	Types of data variable	Types of questions	Data types
1	Attribute	Category	Nominal
2	Attribute	Category	Nominal
3	Attribute	Open	Quantifiable
4	Attribute	Category	Nominal
5	Attribute	Category	Nominal
6	Opinions	Rating	Ordinal
7	Behavior	List	Nominal
8	Behavior	List	Nominal
9	Behavior	Rating	Ordinal
10	Opinions	Category	Nominal
11	Behavior	Category	Nominal
12	Opinions	Rating	Ordinal
13	Opinions	Rating	Ordinal
14	Behavior	Rating	Ordinal

4.7 Response rate

In total we have sent 30 e-mails to Polish and French business students with the link to questionnaire. As we personally knew these students, we asked to forward the link to the questionnaire to their classmates. Thus, we do not know how many students exactly have received our covering letter and questionnaire. Therefore, we counted response rate as a ratio between the responses to questionnaire and total number of questionnaire visitors. In total 130 business students from France and Poland visited the questionnaire website and we received 54 (25 Poles and 29 French) responses. Thus, the response rate was 41.5%. This is a very approximate count; however, more accurate calculations are not possible. In general, the number of responses was sufficient for quantitative analysis.

4.8 Data analysis

The survey data were analyzed using quantitative data analysis techniques. According to Hussey (1997), there are two main ways to analyze quantitative data-**exploratory data analysis** and **confirmatory data analysis**. We have employed both types of analysis.

Exploratory data analysis was used to summarize and display survey data (initial analysis) and it displays how countries tend to deviate. We have chosen to use this type of analysis because it allows drawing some conclusions even if the data do not justify statistical rigor in confirmatory data analysis. In the exploratory analysis we use tables and graphical forms techniques to present frequencies of the answers. In order to have more sophisticated and accurate results, we tested survey data using confirmatory data analysis.

According to Hussey (1997, p.187), **confirmatory data analysis** is an analysis which “involves using quantitative data collected from a sample about complete population.” The aim of this confirmatory data analysis was to verify if the difference between the French and Polish answers is statistically significant and not merely due to random variables. We would like to underline that in confirmatory data analysis we test Hypothesis 0 (H0) and Hypothesis 1 (H1) which should not be mixed with our main nine hypotheses derived from theoretical analysis. Confirmatory data analysis (with H0 and H1) is just a part of our hypotheses testing procedure which were described in detail in part “Operationalization”. Thus, H1 (which means that there is a significant difference between Poles and the French answers) and H0 (which means that there is no significant difference between Poles and the French answers) are used in all of the nine main hypotheses testing procedures.

There are different tests that can be employed in a confirmatory data analysis. The choice of the test mainly depends on the nature of the data and samples. Our samples (French and Polish respondents) were independent; therefore, our hypotheses could predict difference. As our data were categorical, there is not a very big choice of tests that could be employed. Consequently, we decided to use

the cross tab Chi squared test for nominal data and the Mann-Whitney U test for ordinal data, as these techniques are most commonly used for these types of data in independent samples analysis.

After the exploratory and confirmatory data analysis, common exploratory and confirmatory data analyses conclusions are made which enabled us to identify if country culture influences deviant behavior and how.

4.9 Credibility of research findings

Problems of empirical evaluations arise when developed theory is transferred through empirical testing into the reality. Some questions in the theory are difficult to operationalize and it is possible to get wrong answers showing a distorted picture of the reality. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007) “reducing the possibility of getting the answer wrong means that attention has to be paid to two particular emphases on research design: reliability and validity” (p.149). Generalisability which also called “external validity” (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p. 151) is also has to be considered in the process of the research. Hence, reliability, validity and generaliability are crucial parts of credibility discussion and will be presented below.

4.9.1. Reliability

Reliability refers to extent to which the data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p. 149). Reliability is given every time the operationalization for the same research topic gives similar results and concerns with the robustness of the research and should provide consistent findings under different conditions. It could be predicted that repeated survey of this research should provide similar results because the questionnaire is standardized and the focus group of respondents is quite homogeneous. As re-test should still be done with business students (focus group), their age, educational background, professional experience length

variables would not significantly differ from the primary sample; therefore, we could expect similar results. Moreover, since the survey was mediated via internet, there was no bias between respondents and operators of the research (us) as it could be in the case of interview; therefore, respondents could not be influenced by us and they would not respond differently if there was another operator. Due to the factors mentioned above, we predict that this research is reliable. Nevertheless, to prove reliability, a re-test under equivalent conditions would be necessary; however, due to the time limitations such a test could not be conducted.

4.9.2 Validity

“Validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about” (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p.151). This means that the operationalization must be correct and the intended variables are measured.

In our research we expect a high validity because theoretical and empirical parts are strongly connected. The hypotheses derived from the theoretical part were used as bases for the empirical research. These hypotheses were developed referring to in the theoretical framework discussed variables which include the factors of deviance (summarized in Table 3.1), types of deviance (described in Figure 3.2), three cultural dimensions (UAI, IDV, PDI) (described in Table 3.2) that underline similarities between France and Poland and the interconnection between types of deviance and dimensions presented in Table 3.4. Hence, hypotheses reflect the theoretical assumptions which were tested in empirics. The questionnaire of our survey was built referring to the hypotheses (as it was explained in the “Operationalization”, each question corresponds to one hypothesis). Thus, questions represented the most important deviance factors in relation to types of deviance which were analyzed from cultural dimensions perspective. As a consequence, empirical conclusions of the research were made referring to the conclusions of the theoretical framework provided in the Table 3.4. To summarize the research process, theoretical framework was used to establish hypotheses which were tested in empirical research and paralleled to

theoretical findings. Thus, the research process could be compared to closed circle. Therefore, research findings correspond to our hypotheses and reflect how country culture affects deviant workplace behavior. Consequently, this indicates high validity.

4.9.3 Generalisability

Generalisability expresses the extent to which research results are generalisable: that is, whether your findings may be equally applicable to other research settings, such as other organizations. (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p.151). It could also refer to external validity. Hussey (1997, p.58) also explains it as “an extent to which you can come to conclusions about population based about the information about sample”. As our samples were not chosen randomly, probability of each case being selected from total population is not known. Therefore, even though we are still able to make generalizations from our non-probability sample, they do not have statistical averment. Moreover, the sample is still relatively small. Hence, we consider this research to have limited generalisability.

4.10 Critique

This research is very complex in general since it deals with a very delicate problem. Even though we tried to avoid bigger mistakes, some improvements could be made. Possible problems of the research are listed below:

- The response rate referred to an approximate estimation; however, a more accurate number was not possible to retrieve.
- Even though the sample size was sufficient for statistical analysis, a bigger sample could provide more accurate results and increase the level of significance.

- To prove reliability, a re-test is needed. It was not conducted due to the lack of time.
- The generalisability is limited. For conclusions of sampling theory to be valid, the chosen samples must be achieved not through non-probability but through random sampling.
- There might have been problems with language interpretation since the respondents were not native speakers. However, we wanted to avoid translation mistakes. Moreover, most of the respondents had studied abroad, thus, we assumed that their language skills should be sufficient to fill in this questionnaire.

4.11 Summary

In our quantitative research the survey strategy was used for primary data collection. This data was collected by self-administered internet-mediated questionnaire. The questionnaire was built referring to the hypotheses derived from theoretical review. To select the respondents we have used non-probability self-selection sampling technique. Approximate response rate was 42%. This survey represented an individual level approach of the problem since the samples consisted of Polish and French business students. As they are not affected by organizational culture, the survey results should represent an outcome related only to cultural background as an organizational influence was eliminated. Validity of the research is high, while reliability can only be predicted to be relatively high as a re-test is needed to prove it. Generalisability is limited because it does not have the statistic proof; nevertheless, generalizations not on the statistical basis can be done.

5. Analysis

In this chapter the analysis of the survey data about the workplace deviance in Poland and France are discussed. First of all, data analysis which led to empirical results is presented. After that, hypotheses evaluation and explanations of the results are discussed. In the end of this chapter summary of the findings and critical reflections are provided.

5.1 Introduction to analysis

The main goal of this research is to evaluate the hypotheses established in chapter 3.4 and consequently to identify the interconnection between cultural dimensions and certain types of deviance. As we have discussed before, we have generated nine questions (that correspond to our hypotheses) which have provided data for the analysis of Polish and French samples tendencies towards certain types of deviance.

In our research hypotheses testing and evaluation procedure contained several steps. Firstly, we have checked the tendencies of both countries to commit certain types of deviance referring to the exploratory data analysis outcome. Secondly, we have tested the significance of difference between Poles and the French tendencies to deviant behavior referring to confirmatory data analysis. As in our study we focused on cultural similarities and the hypotheses contained only cultural dimensions according to which France and Poland are similar, according to the theory, the responses to the questions could not be significantly different. It means that the significance level which indicates how significantly different are Polish and French answers had to be higher than 10% ($p\text{-value} > 0.1$), according to our theoretical findings. Otherwise, the hypothesis had to be rejected. The next steps in hypothesis evaluation procedure were to identify general tendency which indicates if and how Poles and the French are tended to deviant workplace behavior and to compare these results with theoretical outcome (provided in Table 3.4). It means that if it has been identified that there is no significant difference between the French and Poles answers (significance level was higher than 10%),

then we have identified the general tendency for both countries (in e.g., both tended or both not tended to deviance). This common tendency has been identified referring to exploratory analysis results. Finally, empirically derived general tendency to deviance had to be compared with theoretical assumptions which were suggested after linking various theoretical parts. If theoretical and empirical conclusions were not the same, (in e.g., theoretically they both, France and Poland, are not tended to deviance but empirical results show that they are) the hypothesis could not be confirmed. Hence, there two main conditions that had to be satisfied in order not to reject the hypothesis: the French and Poles responses could not be significantly different and both countries' common empirical tendency to deviant workplace behavior had to comply with theoretical assumptions developed in theoretical analysis (Chapter 3.3) and provided in Table 3.4.

The structure of the analysis is visualized in Figure 5.1. First of all referring to the exploratory and confirmatory data analysis we have identified empirical patterns of deviant workplace behavior in Poland and France (Chapter 5.2). After that, we compared empirical and theoretical findings in order to evaluate hypotheses (Chapter 5.3). Then we provided the summary of findings (Chapter 5.4) and discussed the drawbacks of the study (Chapter 5.5).

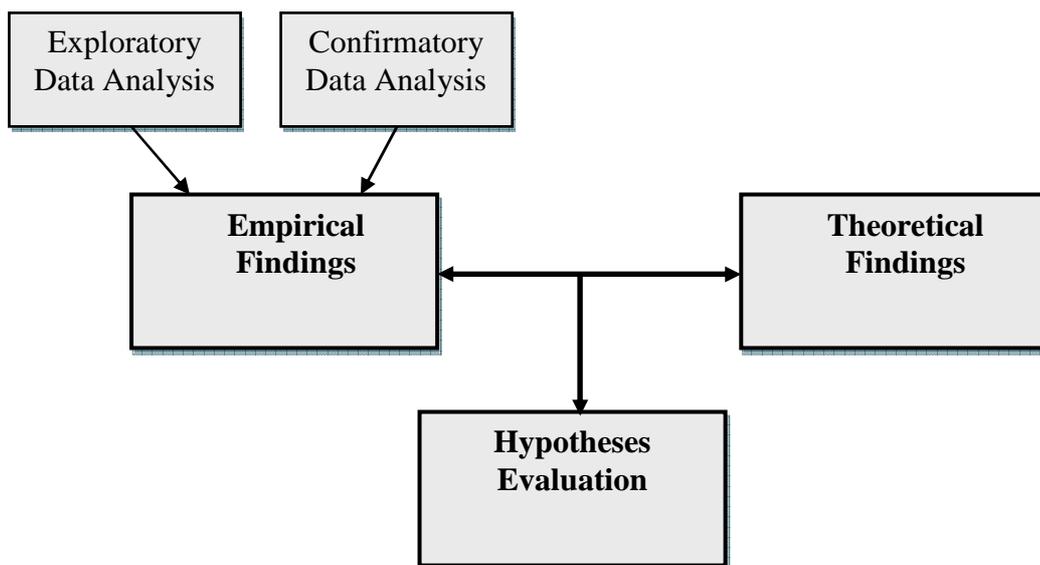


Figure 5.1 Structure of the analysis

5.2 Data analysis

In this part, referring to Poles and French samples exploratory and confirmatory data analyses results, empirical findings of the research will be presented. These results are the core part of our study and they will be used to evaluate the hypotheses in Chapter 5.3.

5.2.1 Hypothesis 1

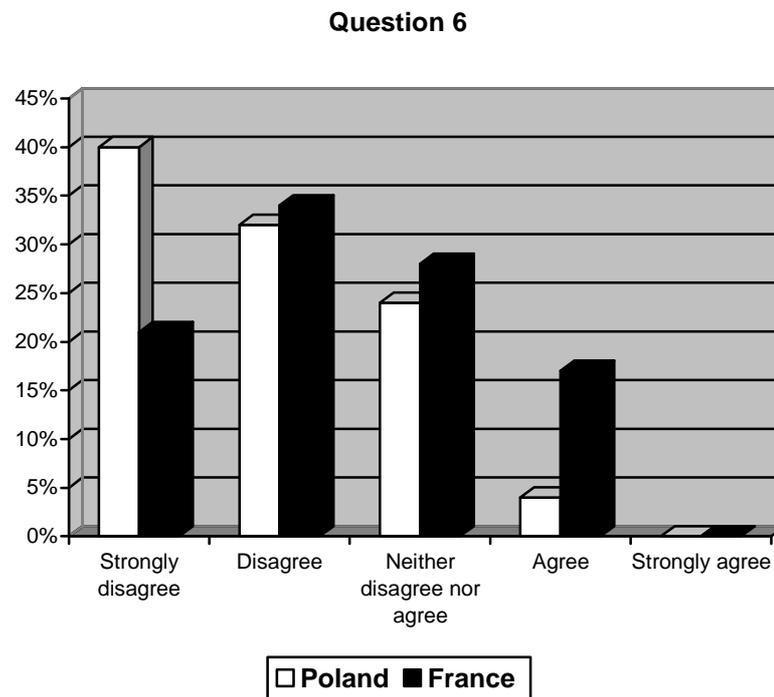


Figure 5.2 Results of question 6

Exploratory data analysis

Referring to Figure 5.2, a majority of Poles and 21% of the French chose to answer strongly disagree with the statement, which means that 40% of Polish and only one fifth of French respondents have very low possibility to commit property deviance. In total 72% of Poles and only 55 % of the French show the theft disapproval. We also see that Frenchmen are more tended to take company's property because 17% of them agree with the statement; only 4% of Poles chose this answer. Consequently, according to the exploratory analysis the French are

more tended to commit property deviance than Poles; however, in general both samples are not predisposed to property deviance.

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is an ordinal type of question we used Mann-Whitney test to make confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance arisen from theft approval factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance.

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance in connection to theft approval.

The two-tailed significance shows $p\text{-value} < 0.1$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.076$) (see Appendix 3, Table 1). This means that there is an indication to significant difference between Polish and the French tendencies to commit property deviance. As a result, we accept **H1** which states that there is significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance. Thus, in order to find out which of two samples is relatively more tended to deviance, we compared the mean rank values (see Appendix 3, Table 2). French sample's mean value (30.88) is higher than Poles (23.58). As in our case higher rank indicated higher tendency to deviance, we can claim that Poles are less tended to property deviance than the French.

Conclusion

Exploratory analyses shows that the French are relatively more tended to commit property deviance than Poles; however, in general both samples are not predisposed to property deviance. Nevertheless, confirmatory data analysis shows that there is an indication to significant difference between French and Polish samples. Hence, confirmatory analyses shows that the French are relatively more

predisposed to property deviance then Poles even though in general they are both not tended to deviance.

5.2.2 Hypothesis 2

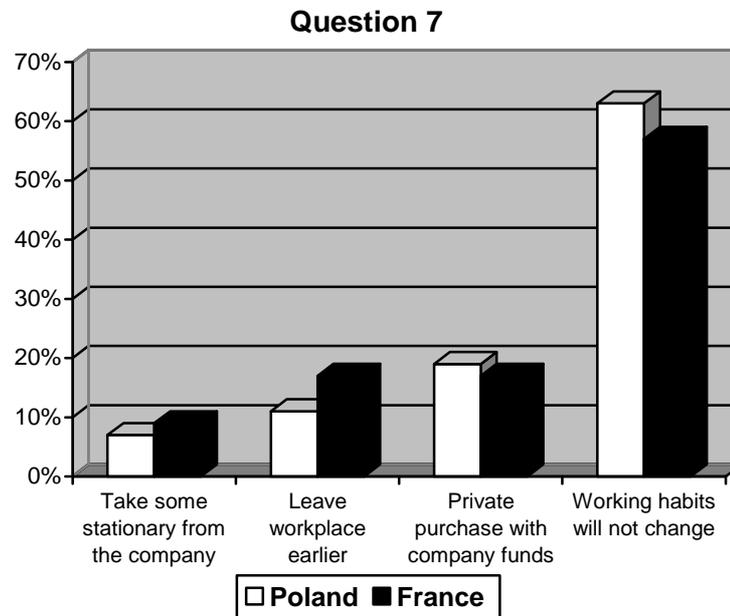


Figure 5.3 Results of question 7

Exploratory data analysis

A majority answered that their working habits will not change (57% of Frenchmen, 63% of Poles). Consequently, the general tendency is that both Poles and the French are not tended to commit organizational deviance. Concerning theft, there is a very small difference between Poles and the French. 9% of the French and 7% of Poles seem to be tended to this type of deviance. As a result, the French should be more tended to commit a theft than Poles. Concerning absenteeism, we can see that 17% of the French and 11% of Poles are tended to leave workplace earlier. As a consequence, the French answers indicate that they are more inclined to absenteeism than Poles. The result concerning privilege abuse shows that 19% of Poles and 17% of the French chose this answer. Thus, Polish should be slightly more tended to commit privilege abuse than the French. To sum up, the French and Poles have very similar attitudes. Exploratory analysis shows that neither Poles nor the French are tended to deviance which could arise from intent to quit factor. The clearest difference is that the French are more

tended to leave workplace earlier than Poles when they intend to quit the job. However, the mainstream is that they are not tended to deviance.

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is a nominal type of question we used a Cross tables Chi-Square test to do a confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance (theft, absenteeism, privilege abuse) arisen from intent to quit factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance.

Theft

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit theft when they intend to quit the job.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit theft when they intend to quit the job.

The result shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.76$) (see Appendix 3, Table 3). As a consequence, we accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit theft when they intend to quit the job. It means that Poles and Frenchmen are both similarly **not** tended to commit theft when they intend to quit job.

Absenteeism

H0: There is no significant difference between Poles and the French tendencies of absenteeism when they intend to quit the job.

H1: There is a significant difference between Poles and the French tendencies of absenteeism when they intend to quit the job.

The result shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.393$) (see Appendix 3, Table 4). As a consequence, we accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between Poles and the French tendencies of absenteeism when they intend to quit the job. It means that Poles and Frenchmen are both similarly **not** tended to commit absenteeism when they intend to quit the job.

Privilege abuse

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to abuse privileges when they intend to quit the job.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to abuse privileges when they intend to quit the job.

The result shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.950$) (see Appendix 3, Table 5). P-value is very high; therefore, with 95% possibility we can claim that these results were obtained by chance. Therefore, we firmly accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to abuse privileges when they intend to quit the job. It means that neither Poles nor Frenchmen are tended to abuse privileges when they intend to quit the job.

No organizational deviance

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to **not** commit organizational deviance when they intend to quite the job.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to **not** commit organizational deviance when they intend to quite the job.

The result shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.939$) (see Appendix 3, Table 6). P-value is very high; therefore, it is a big possibility that these results were obtained by chance. Therefore, we firmly accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to **not** commit organizational deviance when they intend to quit the job. It means that neither Poles nor Frenchmen are tended commit organizational deviance when they intend to quit the job.

Conclusion

According to the exploratory data analysis neither the French nor Poles are tended to commit organizational deviance. The results are approved by the confirmatory data analysis. Thus, the general tendency is that neither Frenchmen nor Poles are tended to commit organizational deviance arisen from the intent to quit factor. The summary of analysis of this question is presented in the table below.

Table 5.1 Summary of question 7 analysis

Type of deviance	Conclusion
Theft	The results of exploratory data analysis show a very slight difference between both Poles and the French and the confirmatory data analysis shows no difference between them. Thus, both Poles and the French are not tended to commit theft when they intend to quit job.
Absenteeism	The results of exploratory data analysis and the percentage of answers within the country of respondents indicate that French are more tended to commit this deviance than Poles. But the confirmatory data analysis shows no difference between the tendencies of both Poles and the French.
Privilege abuse	The results of exploratory data analysis show a very slight difference between both Poles and the French and the confirmatory data analysis shows no difference between them. Thus, both Poles and the French are not tended to commit this deviance.
No deviance	Exploratory data analysis demonstrates that Poles answered that they are not tended to deviance more than the French. The confirmatory data show that there is no difference between the tendencies of both Poles and the French, thus both Poles and the French are not tended to commit organizational deviance.

5.2.3 Hypothesis 3

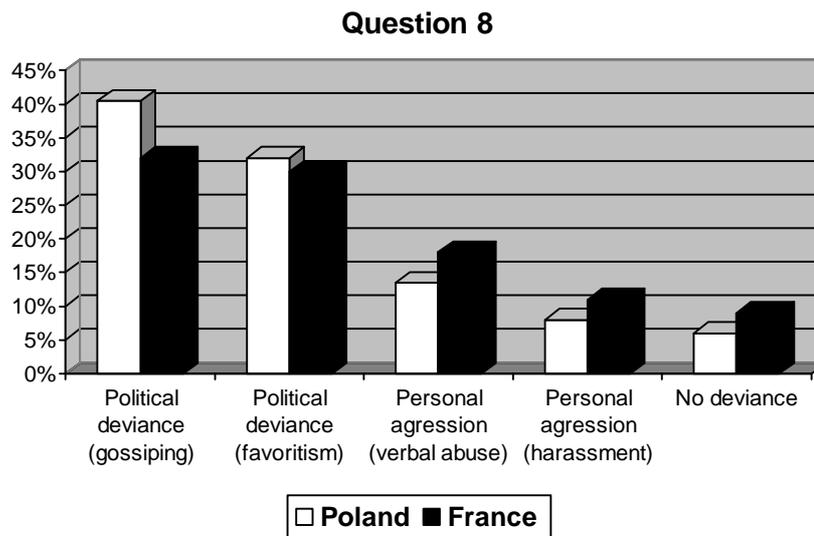


Figure 5.4 Results of question 8

Exploratory data analysis

72.5% of Poles and 62% of the French chose first two answers which show the tendency to commit political deviance. Thus, both Poles and the French appear to be inclined to commit political deviance, but Poles indicate a stronger tendency to this type of deviance than the French. 21.5% of Poles and 29% of the French chose the third and fourth answers which underline the tendency to commit personal aggression. Thus, the French are more inclined to commit personal aggression than Poles. Finally, only few respondents chose the last answer which purports that they are not tended to commit interpersonal deviance. To summarize, a majority of Poles and the French are inclined to commit political deviance, especially gossiping; but Poles have a stronger tendency than the French in this case. Concerning personal aggression, the French are more disposed to commit this deviance, especially verbal abuse, than Poles. However, in general Polish and French answers indicate that they are both tended to commit interpersonal deviance arisen from frustration at workplace.

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is a nominal type of question we used Cross tables Chi-square test to make confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit interpersonal deviance (political deviance or personal aggression) arisen from frustration factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit interpersonal deviance.

Political deviance

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit political deviance arisen from frustration at workplace.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit political deviance arisen from frustration at workplace.

The result indicates $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ for both answers ($p\text{-value} = 0.389$ for answer 1 and $p\text{-value} = 0.816$ for answer 2) (see Appendix 3, Tables 7 and 8). Therefore, we accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between tendencies

of Poles and the French to commit political deviance arisen from frustration at workplace. It means that Poles and Frenchmen are both very similarly inclined to commit political deviance; however, the difference is bigger concerning gossiping because $p\text{-value}=0.389$ is lower than the one regarding favoritism ($p\text{-value}=0.816$).

Personal aggression

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit personal aggression arisen from frustration at workplace.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit personal aggression arisen from frustration at workplace.

The result shows $p\text{-value}>0.05$ for both answers ($p\text{-value}=0.516$ for answer 3 and $p\text{-value}=0.589$ for answer 4) (see Appendix 3, Tables 9 and 10). Therefore, we accept **H0** which stipulates that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit personal aggression arisen from frustration at workplace. It means that Poles and Frenchmen are both very similarly inclined to commit personal aggression arisen from frustration at workplace.

No interpersonal deviance

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to **not** commit interpersonal deviance arisen from frustration at workplace.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to **not** commit interpersonal deviance arisen from frustration at workplace.

The result shows $p\text{-value}>0.05$ ($p\text{-value}=0.499$) (see Appendix 3, Table 11). Therefore, we accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to **not** commit interpersonal deviance in case of dissatisfaction and frustration at workplace. However, earlier analysis showed that in fact both Poles and the French are tended to commit interpersonal deviance.

Conclusion

According to the exploratory data analysis both the French and Poles are tended to commit interpersonal deviance (especially political deviance). Referring to confirmatory data analysis there is no significant difference between both the French and Poles tendencies to commit interpersonal deviance. Thus, the general tendency is that Frenchmen and Poles are tended to commit interpersonal deviance (especially political deviance) arisen from frustration factor. The summary of analysis of this question is presented in the table below.

Table 5.2 Summary of question 8 analysis

Type of deviance	Conclusion
Political deviance	The results of the exploratory data analysis show that Poles are more tended to commit political deviance than the French. The confirmatory data analysis shows no difference between them.
Personal aggression	The results of the exploratory data analysis show that the French are more tended to commit personal aggression than Poles. The confirmatory data analysis shows no difference between them.
No deviance	The exploratory data analysis shows that both Poles and the French are tended to commit interpersonal deviance. The confirmatory data shows that there is no difference between the tendencies of both Poles and the French. Thus, Poles and the French are tended to commit interpersonal deviance.

5.2.4 Hypothesis 4

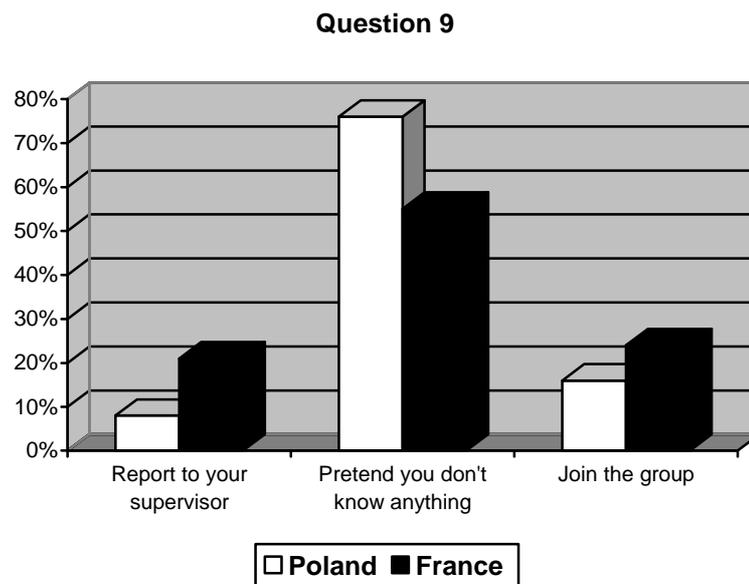


Figure 5.5 Results of question 9

Exploratory data analysis

The figure above shows that both Poles and the French would protect their colleagues and would not report the deviance (76% of Poles and 55% of the French). It means that they indirectly would support group behavior and balance between in-group solidarity and individualistic inclination of deviance. Only 8% of Poles and 21% of the French would report the deviance of their co-workers to their superiors. 24% of the French and 16% of Poles would join the in-group deviance. As a result, the general tendency is that both Poles and the French are tended to commit deviance arisen from deviant role models factor; however, Poles have a slightly stronger tendency for workplace deviance arisen from deviant role models factor than Frenchmen.

Confirmatory data analysis

Even though this question is not expressed in Likert-style rating scale, it is an ordinal type of question. Therefore, we used Mann-Whitney test to conduct confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from deviant role models factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance.

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from deviant role models factor.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from deviant role models factor.

Two-tailed significance shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.814$) (see Appendix 3, Table 12). As a result, we accept **H0** which states that Poles and Frenchmen are both similarly tended to commit deviance arisen from deviant role models factor.

Conclusion

Exploratory data shows both Poles and the French are tended to commit deviance arisen from deviant roles models factor. Confirmatory data analysis showed that

there is no proof for statistically significant difference between Poles and the French. Consequently, both Poles and the French are tended to commit deviance.

5.2.5 Hypothesis 5

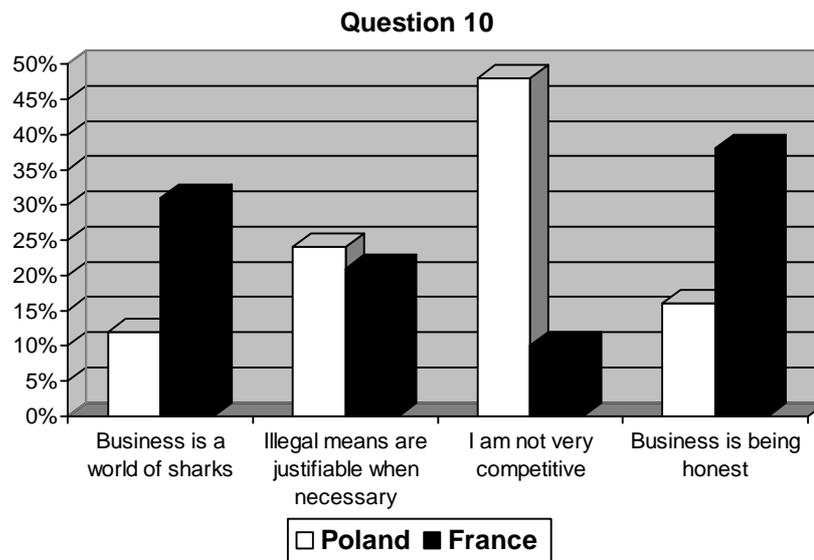


Figure 5.6 Results of question 10

Exploratory data analysis

As described above higher competitiveness leads to stronger tendency to commit deviance. 12% of Poles and 31% of Frenchmen answered to be very competitive. In this case the French should be more tended to commit deviance than Poles. In addition, 48% of Poles and 10% of the French answered to be not very competitive, it still confirms that the French are more competitive than Poles. As a result, French should be more tended to commit deviance. But on the other hand, 16% of Poles and 38% of the French are not competitive at all. To make the clearer conclusion, we divided answers into two groups. First group is composed of first two answers, which show a higher competitiveness, and second group is composed of last two answers, which indicate lower competitiveness, thus, lower possibility of deviance. In total 36% of Poles and 52% of the French chose first two answers. Thus, the French are more tended to deviance, in this case.

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is a nominal question we used Cross tables Chi-square test to make confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from competition factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance.

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from competition factor.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from competition factor.

The result shows $p\text{-value} < 0,05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0,010$) (see Appendix 3, Table 13). As a consequence, we confirm **H1** which states that there is a significant difference between Poles and the French answers concerning deviance arisen from competition factor. It means that Frenchmen are significantly more tended to commit deviance arisen from competition factor than Poles.

Conclusion

Exploratory data shows that the French are more tended to commit deviance than Poles because the French are more competitive and they justify all means, also deviant elements of behavior, to cope with competition. This attitude can be explained by individualistic features of French society. The confirmatory data analysis indicates that there is a significant difference between answers of this question. Thus, we can conclude that Frenchmen are more tended to commit deviance arisen from competition factor than Poles.

5.2.6 Hypothesis 6

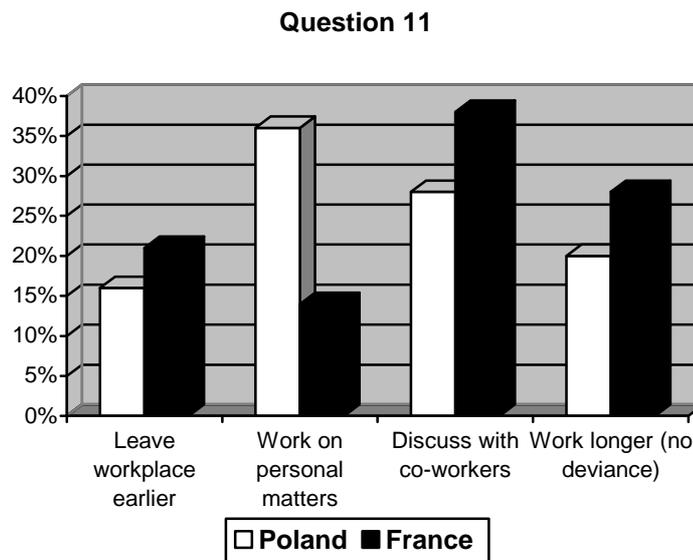


Figure 5.7 Results of question 11

Exploratory data analysis

In the figure above we can see that 36% of Poles and 14% of the French would work on their personal matters if they finished the tasks of the day. Consequently, Poles are more inclined to commit production deviance than the French. 38% of the French and 28% of Poles would discuss some matters with their colleagues. This answer indicated mild production deviance. The last answer describes how many respondents would strictly not commit the production deviance; we can see that 28% of the French and 20% of Poles chose this answer. As a result, Poles are more tended to commit production deviance than the French. In addition, 52% of Poles and 35% of the French chose first two answers which indicate a higher tendency to commit production deviance. Consequently, according to this question data Poles are relatively more tended to commit production deviance than the French, however, the general tendency of both Poles and the French is that they are tended to production deviance.

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is a nominal type of question we used Cross tables Chi-square test to make confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the

French to commit production deviance arisen from instrumental climate factor. H₀ assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit production deviance.

H₀: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit production deviance arisen from instrumental climate factor.

H₁: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit production deviance arisen from instrumental climate factor.

The result shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.305$) (see Appendix 3, Table 14). As a consequence, we accept **H₀** which states that there is no significant difference between Polish and French tendencies to commit production deviance arisen from instrumental climate factor. It means that Poles and Frenchmen are both similarly tended to commit production deviance.

Conclusion

Exploratory data analysis shows that the general tendency of both groups of students is that they are tended to commit production deviance arisen from instrumental climate. Confirmatory data analysis does not indicate significant difference between answers. Thus, the general tendency is that both the French and Poles are tended to commit production deviance arisen from instrumental climate factor.

5.2.7 Hypothesis 7

Exploratory data analysis

In the figure below we can see that there are similar answers for both Poles and the French. But there is still a visible difference in one of the answers; 40% of Poles and 31% of French disagree with the question 12 statement. This fact shows that the French are more tended to commit deviance than Poles when they perceive that they are treated unfairly. But to have a more clear understanding of the situation we had to regroup the answers. First two answers indicate lower tendency to deviance and last two answers show higher tendency to deviance. The

result shows that 48% of the French and 56% of Poles chose first two answers. Consequently, Poles are less tended to commit deviance arisen from inequitable treatment factor than the French. If we look at the general tendency we can notice that both the French and Poles are less tended to deviance.

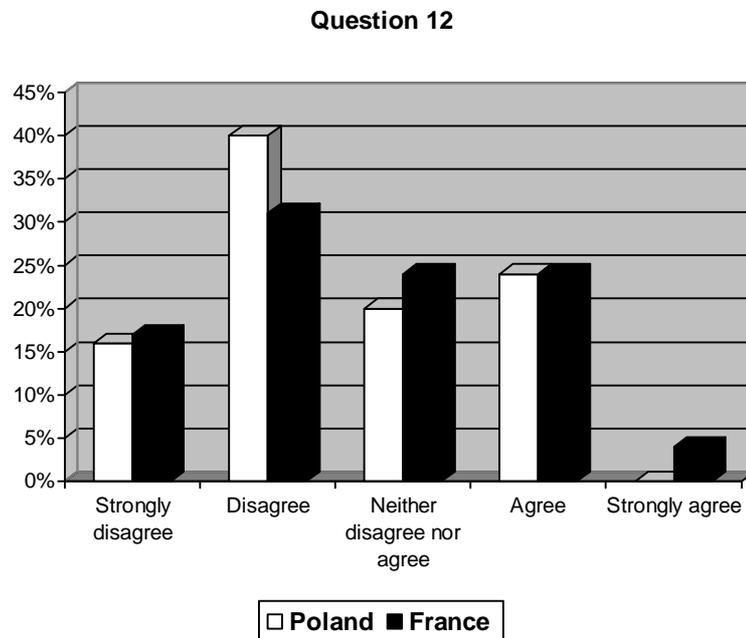


Figure 5.8 Results of question 12

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is an ordinal type of question we used Mann-Whitney U test to make confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from inequitable treatment factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance.

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from inequitable treatment factor.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from inequitable treatment factor.

Two-tailed significance shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.679$) (see Appendix 3, Table 15). As a result, we accept **H0** which states that there is no significant

difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit deviance arisen from inequitable treatment factor.

Conclusion

Exploratory data analysis shows that Poles are less tended to commit deviance than the French when they perceive that they are treated inequitably. However, confirmatory data analysis indicates that difference between Poles and the French answers is not statistically significant. Therefore, the relative conclusion is that Poles are less exposed to deviance than the French when they feel treated unfair does not have statistical proof. Thus, we refer to the general tendency which shows that neither Poles nor French are inclined to workplace deviance which arises from inequitable treatment.

5.2.8 Hypothesis 8

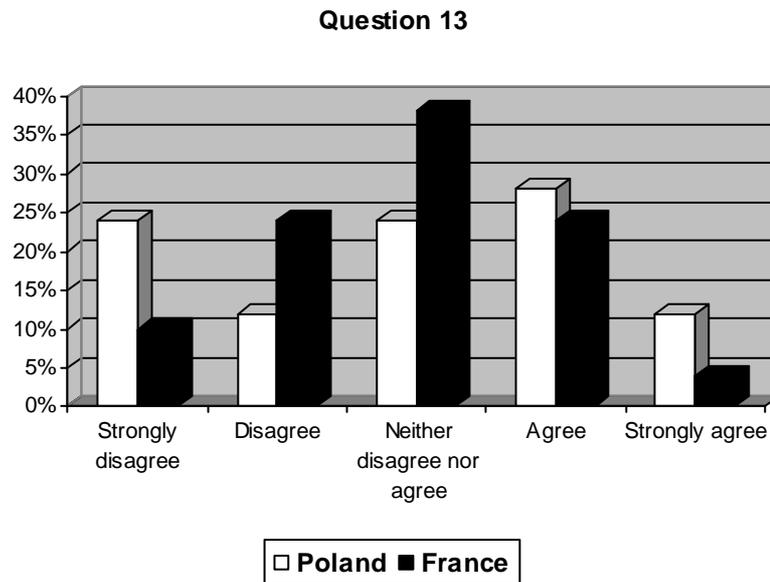


Figure 5.9 Results of question 13

Exploratory data analysis

To analyze this question we grouped the first and last two answers; first two answers show a lower tendency to commit property deviance and last two answers display higher tendency to commit property deviance. We can notice that 36% of Poles and 34% of the French chose the first two answers. It indicates that Poles

prefer to work in formalized companies and are not tended to commit property deviance. 28% of the French and 40% of Poles chose last two answers. Consequently, Poles prefer to work in a formalized company, so they are more inclined to commit property deviance than the French, in this case. To conclude, there are contradictory results as the answers are much spread, thus, it is difficult to see tendencies.

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is an ordinal type of question we used Mann-Whitney test to make confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance arisen from climates of rules factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance.

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance arisen from the climates of rules.

H1: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance arisen from the climates of rules.

Two-tailed significance shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.775$) (see Appendix 3, Table 16). As a result, we accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit property deviance arisen from the climates of rules.

Conclusion

Exploratory data showed ambiguous results while confirmatory data analysis indicates that difference between Poles and the French answers is not statistically significant. Thus, it is complicated to identify general tendency for both Poles and the French because the results are spread.

5.2.9 Hypothesis 9

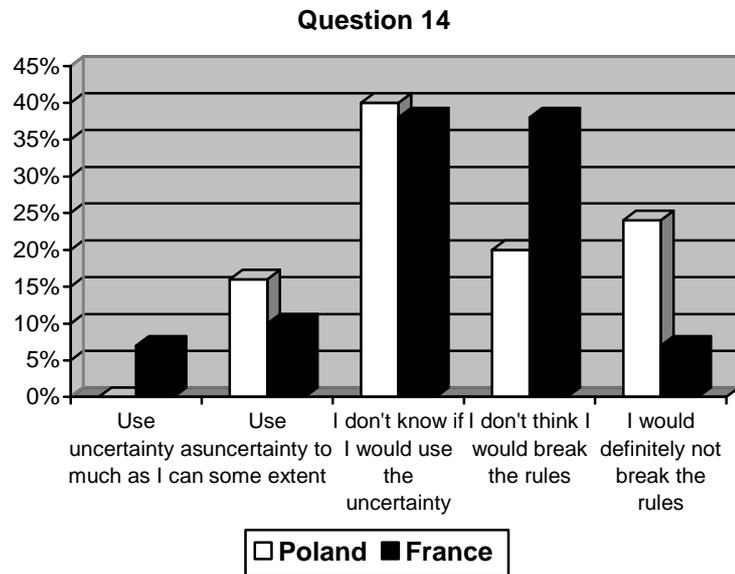


Figure 5.10 Results of question 14

Exploratory data analysis

If we combine two first answers which indicate very high possibility of deviance, the results are that only 16% of Poles and 17% of the French would use uncertainty situation to commit deviance. If we look at the last two answers which show a very low tendency to commit deviance we notice that 44% of Poles and 45% of the French chose these answers. To sum up both Poles and the French have a very low tendency to commit organizational deviance when they perceive management's uncertainty.

Confirmatory data analysis

As it is an ordinal type of question we used Mann-Whitney test to make confirmatory data analysis. We established a two-tailed hypothesis: H1 which indicates that there is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance arisen from perceived management uncertainty factor. H0 assumed that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance.

H0: There is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance arisen from perceived management uncertainty factor.

H1: There is a significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance arisen from perceived management uncertainty factor.

Two-tailed significance shows $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.561$) (see Appendix 3, Table 17). As a result, we accept **H0** which states that there is no significant difference between tendencies of Poles and the French to commit organizational deviance when management's uncertainty is perceived. It means that Poles and Frenchmen are both similarly tended to commit organizational deviance.

Conclusion

Exploratory data analysis shows that both Polish and French respondents are not tended to commit organizational deviance. Confirmatory data analysis indicates that Poles and Frenchmen are both similarly tended to commit organizational deviance. Consequently, the common conclusion of exploratory and confirmatory data analyses is that both French and Polish respondents are not tended to commit organizational deviance arisen from perceived management uncertainty.

The summary of data analysis results is displayed in the table below.

Table 5.3 Summary of data analysis results

Hypotheses	Exploratory data general tendency	Confirmatory data conclusion	Empirical findings
1	Both not tended to commit deviance	Significant difference	The French are relatively more tended to commit property deviance than Poles
2	Both not tended to commit deviance	No significant difference	Both not tended to commit organizational deviance
3	Both tended to commit deviance (especially political)	No significant difference	Both tended to commit interpersonal deviance (especially political)
4	Both tended to commit deviance	No significant difference	Both tended to commit deviance
5	The French are more tended to commit deviance	Significant difference	The French are significantly more tended to commit deviance
6	Both tended to commit deviance	No significant difference	Both tended to commit production deviance
7	Both not tended to commit deviance	No significant difference	Both not tended to commit deviance
8	Ambiguous results	No significant difference	Ambiguous results
9	Both not tended to commit deviance	No significant difference	Both not tended to commit organizational deviance

5.3 Hypotheses evaluation

In this part the outcome of the survey analysis is discussed in accordance with their conformity to theoretical assumptions. This discussion allowed to verify the hypotheses and to deduce conclusions.

5.3.1 Hypothesis 1 evaluation

Hypothesis 1: *When the deviance arises from theft approval factor, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance.*

In the theoretical part theft approval and consequently property deviance is explained by UAI. Theoretical analysis shows that in weak UAI country cultures there is a lack of rules and regulations within society. Thus, individuals of these societies do not have the habit to follow the rules and regulations and, consequently, feel lower risk to approve theft and are more predisposed to property deviance. As a result, weak UAI predicts property deviance. As the French and Poles are both strong UAI societies, theoretical analysis assumes they are less predisposed to the risk of property deviance which arises from theft approval. Empirical research of theft approval factor shows that The French are relatively more tended to commit property deviance than Poles even though none of the samples is strongly predisposed to deviance.

To summarize, theoretical framework and empirical analysis do not both indicate that Poles and the French are equally predisposed to property deviance which is explained by theft approval factor. Even though exploratory analysis shows that none of the samples is predisposed to property deviance (this matches with theoretical findings), there is an indication of significant difference between both samples' answers which shows that the French are relatively more tended to property deviance than Poles. It means that not both conditions described in the introductory part of this chapter were satisfied. Thus, we cannot support the **Hypothesis 1.**

This result could be explained by comparing the UAI scores of both country cultures. In Chapter 3.2.6 we can see that France has a lower UAI (86) score than Poland (93) and according to the theoretical framework strong UAI indicates low risk of deviance, arisen from theft approval factor. Consequently, according to theory, the French should have a higher risk of property deviance than Poles. This explains why hypothesis could be partly supported because empirics also show that French are relatively more tended to property deviance. However, there is an

indication to significant difference between these two samples answers which is hard to explain since their UAI indexes are quite similar. Therefore, it would be interesting to test this hypothesis with other respondents.

5.3.2 Hypothesis 2 evaluation

Hypothesis 2: *When the deviance arises due to intent to quit factor, there is a positive relationship between PDI and organizational deviance.*

In the theoretical framework intent to quit factor and to it related organizational deviance is explained by PDI. Theoretical framework shows that intent to quit can be explained by loyalty of an employee. Due to power distance, climate in the large PDI societies' companies is less caring; thus, employees feel less attached to the company and more often intend to quit the job and commit organizational deviance related to this factor. Consequently, as the French and Poles belong to large PDI societies, theoretical analysis assumes that they are predisposed to organizational deviance. However, empirical analysis shows that neither French nor Poles are tended to organizational deviance.

To summarize, as the theoretical and empirical research revealed contradictory results, theory about positive relationship between PDI and organizational deviance was not supported. In conclusion, as theoretical assumptions were not verified by empirical findings, **Hypothesis 2** is not supported. There might be few explanations why this theory was not confirmed. Possibly intent to quite cannot be explained only by PDI as their might various reasons why people want to quit the job and not necessarily all these reasons are connected to deviant acts. Thus, explanation of this factor requires to include more variables (not only the ones that are linked to cultural dimensions). In addition, the theory about intent to quit and organizational deviance was tested in the companies and as our sample consists of students, they could not fully reflect the actual situation as students do not have a lot of work experience and, thus, majority never intended to quit job. Therefore, it is difficult for them to imagine how they would behave in that case.

5.3.3 Hypothesis 3 evaluation

Hypothesis 3: *When the deviance arises from frustration factor, there is a positive relationship between UAI and interpersonal deviance.*

In the theoretical framework frustration, which is a reason of interpersonal deviance, is explained by UAI. The theoretical findings indicate that societies which have weaker UAI are happier and less anxious than the ones with strong UAI. Both, France and Poland, have a strong UAI; thus, both are less “happy” and more anxious at their workplace. Thus, referring to theoretical assumptions, Poles and the French are more often frustrated inside the organizations and, consequently, are tended to commit interpersonal deviance. Empirical analysis of interpersonal deviance arising from frustration factor shows that both, Poles and the French, are tended to commit interpersonal (especially political) deviance.

Theoretical framework and empirical analysis show that both, Poles and the French, are tended to commit interpersonal deviance which arises from frustration. As theory was confirmed by empirical findings, we can claim that that there is a positive relationship between UAI and interpersonal deviance. It means that individualism indicates tendency to commit interpersonal deviance. In conclusion, as theoretical assumptions were verified by empirical findings, we cannot reject **Hypothesis 3**.

5.3.4 Hypothesis 4 evaluation

Hypothesis 4: *When the deviance arises from deviant role models factor, there is a negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

In theoretical framework deviant role models and to them related deviant behavior is explained by IDV. Theoretical analysis shows that collectivistic societies have a stronger tendency to commit deviance which arises due to deviant role models factor than individualistic ones because in collectivistic societies employees support and join their colleagues, also when it comes to deviant workplace

behavior. Both, the French and Poles, belong to individualistic country cultures; consequently, referring to theoretical assumptions, they have a weaker tendency to commit deviance arising from group behavior. However, empirical analysis showed that both, French and Poles, are tended to deviant workplace behavior which arises due to deviant role models.

To summarize, as the theoretical and empirical research revealed contradictory results, theory about negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance arising due to deviant role models was not supported. There are several explanations why this relationship was not confirmed. It might have happened because deviant role models theory does not specify to which type of deviance it leads and is very closely related to the situation in certain company; thus, this factor also cannot be explained only by one cultural dimension (IDV) and most likely explanation of this factor requires to include more variables. In addition, perhaps if the structure of the question was expressed in Likert-style rating scale, this would enable to reach more accurate results and lead to different outcome.

5.3.5 Hypothesis 5 evaluation

Hypothesis 5: *When the deviance arises from competition factor, there is a positive relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

In the theoretical framework competition factor is linked with both interpersonal and organizational deviance and is explained by IDV. Theoretical outcome shows that individualistic societies are more tended to deviant behavior than collectivistic because in firms of collectivistic country cultures the in-group task prevails; thus, there is less competition which leads to deviant workplace behavior in between employees of the same company. Consequently, as Poles and the French have strong IDV, referring to theoretical assumptions, they should be similarly tended to commit both organizational (especially corruption) and interpersonal deviance. Empirical research of competition factor indicates that the French are significantly more inclined to commit deviance than Poles.

To summarize, theoretical framework shows that both, the French and Poles, are tended to commit deviance, while empirical analysis reveals that the French and Poles are not equally predisposed to commit deviance (French are significantly more tended to commit deviance than Poles). As it was explained in the “Operationalization” part, since both French and Poles have similar IDV, they should be equally tended to deviance. In our case empirical findings indicate significant difference. Thus, the conclusion is that theoretical assumptions were not verified by empirical findings and we cannot accept **Hypothesis 5**.

This conclusion reflects the fact some authors describe IDV in France and Poland differently (in e.g., Kolman *et al.* (2003) claimed that Poland is collectivistic society). However, our main reference (also mostly recognized by other researchers) is Hofstede’s *Five Dimensions Model*; thus, we consider that both, Poland and France, are individualistic societies. In this case, we could explain the situation that French are more tended to deviance than Poles because of the fact that Poles are less individualistic than French; therefore, French are more inclined to deviance which arises from competition than Poles.

5.3.6 Hypothesis 6 evaluation

Hypothesis 6: *When the deviance arises from instrumental climate factor, there is a positive relationship between IDV and production deviance.*

In the theoretical framework production deviance which arises due to instrumental climate in the organization is explained by IDV. The theoretical analysis purport that in individualistic societies employees pursue the employer’s interest only if it coincides with their self-interest. Therefore, individualistic cultures are predisposed to production deviance. Hence, referring to theoretical analysis, the French and Poles have a tendency to commit production deviance. Empirical analysis confirmed that both, the French and Poles, are inclined to commit production deviance.

Theoretical framework and empirical analysis indicate that both Poles and the French are tended to commit production deviance due to the instrumental climate factor. As theory was confirmed by empirical findings, we can claim that there is a positive relationship between IDV and production deviance. Hence, individualistic country culture indicates stronger tendency to commit production deviance which is explained by instrumental climate. In conclusion, as theoretical assumptions were verified by empirical findings, we cannot reject **Hypothesis 6**.

5.3.7 Hypothesis 7 evaluation

Hypothesis 7: *When the deviance arises from inequitable treatment and perceived injustice factor, there is a negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

In the theoretical framework inequitable treatment and injustice factor indicate workplace deviance which is explained by IDV. Theoretical analysis predicates that collectivistic societies are considered as more egalitarian than individualistic cultures. Therefore, inequitable treatment and perceived injustice causes stronger employees' reactions (which lead to workplace deviance) in the collectivistic countries as they are not used to inequitable treatment. As both, the French and Poles, are individualistic societies, referring to theoretical analysis, they should be less predisposed to the risk of workplace deviance in case of inequitable treatment. According to empirical analysis, both, Poles and the French, are not tended to workplace deviance when they perceive that they are treated inequitably and unjust.

Theoretical framework and empirical analysis show that both, Poles and the French, are similarly not tended to deviant workplace behavior which arises from inequitable treatment and perceived injustice factor. We can conclude that more individualistic country culture indicates lower tendency to commit deviance which arises due to the unjust behavior. As theory was confirmed by empirical findings, we can claim that there is a negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance in case of inequitable treatment and perceived injustice. In

conclusion, as theoretical assumptions were verified by empirical findings, we cannot reject **Hypothesis 7**.

5.3.8 Hypothesis 8 evaluation

Hypothesis 8: *When the deviance arises from climates of rules factor, there is a negative relationship between UAI and property deviance.*

In theoretical framework climates of rules factor is related to property deviance and is explained by UAI. Theoretical outcome shows that companies which do not emphasize the strict adherence to company rules and laws are more vulnerable to property deviance. Organizations from the countries belonging to strong UAI societies accord high importance to the rules. Consequently, they are less tended to commit property deviance. Both Poles and the French have strong UAI; as a result, they are less tended to commit property deviance. Empirical analysis of climates of rules factor provided ambiguous results. It means that even though confirmatory analysis showed that French and Poland have similar inclination to deviance, we could not see the direction of tendency.

Theoretical framework and empirical analysis did not provide sufficient information. Thus, we cannot confirm theoretical assumption that strong UAI indicates lower possibility of property deviance which is affected by climates of rules. In conclusion, **Hypothesis 8** cannot be accepted due to ambiguous empirical results. It might be that interpretation of UAI connection to property deviance could be incorrect or property deviance which arises from climates of rules factor cannot be explained by one dimension or culture in general. Mostly likely property deviance which arises due to climates of rules is affected by other variables. It is also possible that some of the answers were not honest and it led to ambiguous empirical results.

5.3.9 Hypothesis 9 evaluation

Hypothesis 9: *When the deviance arises from perceived management uncertainty factor, there is a negative relationship between UAI and organizational deviance.*

In the theoretical analysis perceived management's uncertainty factor is related to organizational deviance and is explained by UAI. Theoretical framework describes that in the societies with weak UAI the management is closer to its employees, less formal and more tolerant for ambiguity; thus, employees perceive management's style as uncertain. In societies with strong UAI the risk of organizational deviance is lower as the management is more formal and strict with employees. Both, Poles and the French, have quite strong UAI; consequently, referring to theoretical analysis, they should be less tended to commit organizational deviance. Empirical analysis of perceived management's uncertainty factor revealed that France and Poland are not tended to organizational deviance which arises from management's uncertainty.

Theoretical framework and empirical analysis indicate that neither Poles nor French are tended to commit organizational deviance which is explained by perceived management's uncertainty. As theory was confirmed by empirical findings, we can claim that there is a negative relationship between UAI and organizational deviance which arises from perceived management's uncertainty. It means that employees from societies with high UAI would not use management uncertainty situation to commit organizational deviance. In conclusion, as theoretical assumptions were verified by empirical findings, we cannot reject **Hypothesis 9**.

The summary of hypotheses evaluation is provided below. This table illustrates the final step of analyses procedure in which supreme conclusion to accept or to reject the hypotheses was made. As you can see the hypothesis was supported only if empirical results verified theoretical findings.

Table 5.4 Summary of hypotheses evaluation

Hypothesis	Empirical findings	Theoretical findings	Conclusion
1	French are relatively more tended to property deviance	Both are not tended to property deviance	Hypothesis not supported
2	Both are not tended to organizational deviance	Both are tended to organizational deviance	Hypothesis not supported
3	Both are tended to interpersonal deviance	Both are tended to interpersonal deviance	Hypothesis supported
4	Both are tended to deviance	Both are not tended to deviance	Hypothesis not supported
5	French are significantly more tended to deviance	Both are tended to deviance	Hypothesis not supported
6	Both are tended to production deviance	Both are tended to production deviance	Hypothesis supported
7	Both are not tended to deviance	Both are not tended to deviance	Hypothesis supported
8	Ambiguous results	Both are not tended to property deviance	Hypothesis not supported
9	Both are not tended to organizational deviance	Both are not tended to organizational deviance	Hypothesis supported

5.4 Summary of findings

The analysis of the research described in this chapter reflects our whole research progress from theoretical research to findings confirmed by empirical conclusions. The analysis revealed that four out of nine hypotheses were supported and that there are two main dimensions, UAI and IDV, which can explain deviant workplace behavior. The research results show that UAI is negatively related to organizational deviance which arises due to perceived management uncertainty factor but positively to interpersonal deviance which is caused by frustration. The study revealed that IDV can also have both positive and negative relationship to deviance depending on the reason of deviant workplace behavior. The analysis results show that there is a positive relationship between IDV and production deviance (which is an organizational type of deviance) which originates from instrumental climate. However, IDV also indicates negative relationship to any

type of workplace deviance which arises from inequitable treatment and perceived injustice.

5.5 Critical reflections

Cultural diversity and deviant workplace behavior are very complicated and multi-perspective research areas; thus, the combination of them is very challenging. The study process consists of many procedures and mistakes in any of them could affect the whole result. We present some of the problems that could have impacted the results:

- There could be problems with language and interpretations of concepts since the respondents were not native English speakers. However, they all have studied abroad in English; therefore, we consider that their knowledge of the language was sufficient for this simple questionnaire. Thus, language and interpretation of concepts should not dramatically impact the results.
- Honesty of respondents. This problem could be avoided by testing the same hypotheses in several questions (not only in one) or finding new structure for questions.
- Perhaps qualitative analysis would enable to get more elaborate results and deeper view of the research problem. However, quantitative research allowed us to prove the hypotheses statistically and to establish the relationship between cultural dimensions and deviant workplace behavior. Thus, main research purpose was reached. Nevertheless, in the future qualitative research could notice and display new in-sights of this relationship.
- Probably some factors (in e.g., deviant role models) and to them related workplace deviance cannot be explained only by cultural effects but other variables must also be taken into account. Thus, social factors (in e.g., age, gender, work experience and etc.) could also have been taken into account in hypotheses evaluation procedure.

- More strict questions structure could provide more accurate results and avoid ambiguities. Thus, ordinal questions expressed by Liker-style rating scale could have been used instead.
- Each of the hypotheses could be tested by more questions, however in that case the recommended number of questions (usually not more than 20) would be exceeded. Therefore, it would be hard to attain high response rate and also it would be difficult to implement this research within the time frame as the research would be even more extensive.

6. Conclusions

In this chapter final conclusions are presented. The final part of this research contains a summary of the research, answers to the research questions, overview of research findings and recommendations how to solve the problem. In addition, critical reflections about the research are discussed. The chapter ends with the presentation of practical implications and suggestions for further research.

6.1 Summary of the research

Deviant behavior remains underestimated risk and the consequences of workplace deviance has both financial impacts and social and psychological effects on the organization and its' employees. Thus, the need of information about the tendencies of workplace deviances in different countries has a growing demand. Due to the lack of information about the nature of deviant behavior in terms of country culture, the aim of this study is to investigate how country culture influences deviant workplace behavior.

In order to implement this exploratory study we combined the literature review with the empirically based studies relating to the implications of how the country culture can affect the patterns of deviant workplace behavior. Firstly, we established the link between the cultural diversity and deviant workplace behavior theories referring to the literature review, which enabled us to evolve nine hypotheses. In order to verify these hypotheses, we have conducted the survey of business students from Poland and France and compared our theoretical and empirical findings. The result led to the conclusions and solutions of the research problem.

In order to provide more extensive explanation of the problem, we have limited our research to two countries, Poland and France, which represent two different parts of Europe, Eastern and Western. These countries were chosen because they are linked with different prejudices in terms of deviant workplace behavior. However, as culturally they are quite similar. Thus, the focus on cultural

resemblance could challenge the prejudice and provide more interesting and unexpected results.

The research revealed that country culture similarities can explain deviant workplace behavior patterns. Compilation of literature and empirical analyses discovered how cultural dimensions affect tendencies of workplace deviance. We have also identified the comparative patterns of deviance in Poland and France on the individual level and have contradicted the prejudice about the deviance inclinations in Western (France) and Eastern (Poland) Europe. Empirical findings revealed that even though France and Poland are historically and geographically very different, both (the French and Poles) are very similarly predisposed to deviance.

6.2 Answers to research questions

What are the attributes of deviant workplace behavior?

In order to find out the attributes of deviant workplace behavior, we have discussed definitions of workplace deviance and alternative deviant workplace behavior concepts, dimensions and classification of workplace deviance and reasons and factors which might predict deviant workplace behavior in business environment. These attributes were used to connect workplace deviance and cultural dimensions theories; thus, they were crucial for our research.

Literature review revealed that there are many similar and alternatively employed conceptions of deviant workplace behavior. We decided to refer to Robert's and Bennett's (1995, p.556) definition of the deviant behavior: "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both". We have also discovered that there are two main dimensions of deviance: organizational-interpersonal and minor-serious. The first dimension (organizational-interpersonal) represents the target of deviant behavior. The second dimension (minor-serious) represents the severity of deviant behavior. Deviant behavior on this dimension varies on a continuum from minor forms of deviance (e.g., gossiping) to serious forms of

deviance (e.g., physical abuse). The perceptual configuration based on these two dimensions results in four classifications of deviant behavior: 1) Production Deviance; 2) Political Deviance; 3) Property Deviance; 4) Personal Aggression. We have also identified that reasons for deviance might be person-based and situation-based. The most significant person-based factors include demographic variables, attitudes and psychological state of employee. The most prevalent predictors of situation-based approach are group behaviors, ethical climate in an organization, operational environment and supervisory behavior and justice.

What are the cultural differences and similarities between Poland and France?

We have discussed the cultural differences and similarities between Poland and France referring to Hofstede's, Mole's, Kolman *et al.*'s cultural diversity theories. The differences and similarities of both nations are classified according to Power Distance Index (PDI), Masculinity/Femininity Index (MAS), Individualism/Collectivism Index (IDV), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) and Long and Short-term Orientation Index (LTO).

Review of cultural diversity theories showed that there are differences and similarities between both countries. France and Poland have similar large *Power distance index*, which means that the level of inequalities is quite high in both country cultures. France belongs to feminine and long-term orientation societies while Poland belongs to masculine and short-term orientation society. As a result, the French society is more intuitive and more tended to consensus while the Polish society is more aggressive in its decisions. Both France and Poland are individualistic according to Hofstede, and, as a result, self-interest prevails on in-group interest. Finally, both France and Poland have similar uncertainty avoidance index. As a consequence, French and Polish firms have a need for rules and are strict within organizations. As a result, both France and Poland are considered individualistic, large PDI and strong UAI countries, thus, share many common cultural features.

How French and Polish cultural similarities could explain deviant workplace behavior referring to the literature?

To answer this research question we have conducted a cross analysis of the deviant workplace behavior and the cultural diversity theories which were identified in the questions above. Referring to the findings of this cross-analysis we have established nine hypotheses explaining the relationship between types of deviance and cultural dimensions. These hypotheses reflect how country cultural similarities affect deviant workplace behavior as they were based on dimensions according to which both Poland and France are similar. In addition, they show positive or negative relationship between types of deviance and cultural dimensions. Below are presented the hypotheses of the theoretical framework which also summarize how French and Polish cultural similarities could explain deviant workplace behavior referring to the literature:

Hypothesis 1: When the deviance arises from theft approval factor, there is a *negative relationship between UAI and property deviance.*

Hypothesis 2: When the deviance arises due to intent to quit factor, there is a *positive relationship between PDI and organizational deviance.*

Hypothesis 3: When the deviance arises from frustration factor, there is a *positive relationship between UAI and interpersonal deviance.*

Hypothesis 4: When the deviance arises from deviant role models factor, there is a *negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

Hypothesis 5: When the deviance arises from competition factor, there is a *positive relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

Hypothesis 6: When the deviance arises from instrumental climate factor, there is a *positive relationship between IDV and production deviance.*

Hypothesis 7: When the deviance arises from inequitable treatment and perceived injustice factor, there is a *negative relationship between IDV and workplace deviance.*

Hypothesis 8: When the deviance arises from climates of rules factor, there is a *negative relationship between UAI and property deviance.*

Hypothesis 9: When the deviance arises from perceived management uncertainty factor, there is a *negative relationship between UAI and organizational deviance.*

How does country culture influence deviant workplace behavior in practice?

The survey data analysis revealed that four hypotheses were supported (3, 6, 7, 9) and five were not supported (1, 2, 4, 5, 8). Hypotheses 3, 6, 7 and 9 are supported as theoretical and empirical findings correspond and it indicates that theories were proved by empirics. However, hypotheses 1, 2, 4 and 5 are not supported because there is a discrepancy between theoretical and empirical findings. Finally, hypothesis 8 is not supported due to the ambiguous results of the empirical research concerning this proposition. Hypotheses analysis discovered that there are two dimensions (UAI and IDV) which can explain workplace deviance. In practice, country culture can have twofold influence on deviant workplace behavior. Empirical research revealed that UAI and IDV can have both positive and negative relationships with different types of deviance depending on the reason of deviant workplace behavior. These relationships will be discussed in detail in “Findings of the research” part.

6.3 Findings of the research

Our research revealed that country culture can influence deviant workplace behavior. We have revealed that cultural similarities can explain the tendencies of deviant behavior. Poland and France, representatives of Eastern and Western Europe, initially thought to be culturally distant societies due to different historical backgrounds, in fact are similar even in three cultural dimensions: power distance, individualism/collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. Theoretical analysis of deviant behavior factors revealed that these cultural dimensions indicate different inclinations to deviance. Empirical research discovered that the cultural dimension can have twofold directions (positive and negative) effects on the workplace deviance depending on the factor of deviant behavior.

The study shows that the country cultures with strong UAI are exposed to the low risk of organizational deviance when employees perceive that management is uncertain; thus, there is a negative relationship between UAI and organizational deviance. However, weak UAI country cultures are exposed to the high risk of interpersonal deviance arisen from frustration factor; thus, there is a positive

relationship between UAI and interpersonal deviance. Moreover, the results show that IDV can also have both positive and negative relationship to deviance depending on the reason (factor) of deviant workplace behavior. The country cultures with high IDV are exposed to the low risk of deviance which occurs as a response to being treated inequitably in the workplace. However, they are also exposed to the high risk of production deviance which arises when individuals are primarily concerned with protecting their own interests in the organization (instrumental climates factor). Thus, there is a negative relationship between IDV and deviance in general, while there is a positive relationship between IDV and production deviance. All these examples show that culture can have positive or negative influence on the deviance depending on the cause (factor) of deviant workplace behavior.

We have also discovered that prejudice that people from Eastern (Poland) Europe are more tended to exercise deviant behavior than Western (France) Europeans does not have scientific proof. The theoretical review and empirical research showed that Poland and France are very similarly predisposed to deviant workplace behavior. In fact, France is even more predisposed to deviance than Poland due to the competition and theft approval factors. Thus, the prejudice about different Eastern and Western cultures can be contradicted and it means that former Eastern and Western blocks become homogeneous Europe.

6.4 Suggestions

Consideration of “cultural diversity-workplace deviance” connections and adherence to actual situation in the company when solving deviant workplace behavior problem should lead to the decrease of workplace deviance extent, and consequently assure “healthy” climate in the organization. The survey analysis showed that country culture affects deviant behavior. We discovered that there are two cultural dimensions (individualism-collectivism and uncertainty avoidance) which significantly effect deviant behavior of an employee. Therefore, the suggestions are:

Solutions arising from uncertainty avoidance dimension

- The study showed that strong uncertainty avoidance indicates lower tendency to organizational deviance. In this case, if the country culture has low uncertainty avoidance, the solution for management could be to adapt the characteristics of strong uncertainty avoidance country culture in the organization. For example, establishing more formal rules, having structured work schedule, staying concerned with daily operations and not showing uncertainty in decision making and implementation process.
- However, if there is a tendency to interpersonal deviance that management could recognize from growing frustration, then it is advisable to demonstrate low uncertainty avoidance societies features, where top managers should be concerned with strategy and entrepreneurs should be relatively free from rules.

Solutions arising from individualism-collectivism dimension

- Individualism positively influences production deviance. In order to avoid production deviance in individualistic societies, the solutions could be to establish a moral relationship between managers and their employees in order to establish mutual trust and create “collectivistic” environment. Second, to focus on management of groups, by establishing a common goal for employees in order to make them feel part of the same team.
- Managers working in collectivistic societies should be especially careful not to treat employees inequitably because employees of collectivistic societies are tended to overreact to inequitable and injustice management behavior. Thus, this behavior can result in strong any type workplace deviance.

6.5 Theoretical value

Theoretical value of this work was created by connecting two research areas: deviant workplace behavior and cultural diversity theories by empirically verifying hypotheses about the connections between cultural dimensions and types of deviance. In order to achieve more generalisable and elaborate results in this research area, further research must be done. Therefore, this study could be used as a starting point for new researches.

6.6 Practical implications

The practical value of developed “Cultural dimensions-deviant behavior” connection and the need for this information can be explained by an increasing number of multinational enterprises and growing extent of globalization in business environment. Thus, knowledge about possible trickery and its patterns in different cultures has increasing demand and value for companies. Moreover, there are different prejudices about the tendencies of deviance in different countries. Our initiative survey revealed that half out of eighty three respondents think that deviant behavior is more common in Poland than in France and only one third suppose that these countries are equally tended to deviance. However, empirical research showed that both the French and Poles are similarly tended to commit deviance, and that the French are more tended to commit deviance than Poles arisen from intra-organizational competition. Thus, our empirically confirmed theories are also useful in practice because managers will be able to make business decisions based on proved hypotheses, not prejudices.

In addition, in our research we did not only develop cultural dimensions-deviant behavior link, but also suggested how extent of deviant workplace behavior problem could be reduced without big costs for the company in different countries. This could be a guideline for managers dealing with this problem.

6.7 Critical reflections

In any research there are elements that could be improved. As our research topic is very delicate and complex, even though we tried to avoid critical mistakes, some improvements could be done in the future research:

- One of the problems of this work is that it is too extensive; however, as it is a new research area, detailed descriptions were needed to explain how theories were developed and tested.
- The limitation of this study is that hypotheses are valid under certain conditions (factors); thus, the reasons of workplace deviance must be considered before making conclusions about workplace deviance in terms of country culture. However, as it is the first study about the impact of country culture on deviant workplace behavior, factors' influence could not be avoided.
- Another restraint of this study is that long-short term orientation and femininity-masculinity dimensions were not tested because we were focusing on similarities between France and Poland. Therefore, we did not reflect these dimensions' relations to workplace deviance as it would have been contradictory to our plan to challenge the prejudice. However, it would also be interesting to explore how long-short term orientation and femininity-masculinity dimensions could affect workplace deviance.
- In some cases cultural dimensions could be interpreted incorrectly since they are presented from many perspectives. Therefore, some of the results were ambiguous.
- It would be interesting to involve more variables into this research as it is based on the comparison of only two countries and their cultural similarities.
- Moreover, perhaps qualitative research would be even more useful in this research as it could provide a deeper understanding of deviant workplace behavior problem and not always human behavior can be explained by digits.
- Moreover, psychology specialist's assistance would be useful in creation of a questionnaire. This could help to extract honest answers and obtain more trustworthy results.

6.8 Further research

Our actual research could be a base for the further research in which all critical remarks could be re-considered. Stepwise suggestions for the further research are:

- To retest the hypothesis 1 (because it was partly supported) and hypothesis 8 (because it showed ambiguous results and could not be correctly analyzed).

- The research showed that both Poles and the French are similar in the tendency to commit certain types of deviance. In order to test other cultural dimensions, the research should be tested with cultures which have different cultural dimensions combinations.

- The research did not take into account impacts of other factors than cultural dimensions. Consequently, our suggestion for further research could be to include more social variables in the work in order to test the influence of other background effects on deviant workplace behavior.

- Finally, a similar research on the employees, instead of business students, could be done. The aim of this research would be to compare the results of both surveys and evaluate the difference between organizational and individual approaches. This research could be of qualitative type and reflect new in-sights of the problem.

6.9 Final thoughts

There is no universal recipe how to deal with workplace deviance. Thus, to solve the problem of deviant behavior in the companies of different cultures, many different aspects of deviant workplace behavior must be contemplated in order to find the best solutions. Literature review shows that there are many different factors that could predict deviant workplace behavior. Therefore, research which analyzes the nature of deviance from cultural perspective cannot have one strict explanation. As many different aspects of culture must be adhered in terms of

different deviance factors, cultural dimensions cannot explain the nature of deviance in “one way”. That is why the same dimension can indicate various tendencies of deviance depending on the factors. This study should provide a wider perspective of the workplace deviance problem in global environment, and, thus, lead to development of deviance control mechanism.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire about the deviance

1*. Which country are you from?

- France Poland

2*. What is your gender?

- Male Female

3*. How old are you?

4*. In which year of studies are you?

- First Second Third Fourth Fifth More than 5

5*. Have you had a work experience in your field of studies?

- No
 Yes (Please specify how long)

6*. It's nothing wrong to take company's property (without permission).

- Strongly disagree
 Disagree
 Neither agree nor disagree
 Agree
 Strongly agree

7*. Imagine that you were planning to quit your job as you found a better one. How will you behave? You can choose more than one answer.

- You will feel more free to take paper, pens, printer ink or other stationary home or to the new workplace
- You will start leaving the workplace earlier than usual or take some days off pretending you are sick
- You will go to the petrol station where your company has discount and fill in the tank of your private car at discounted rate
- Your working habits will not change.

8*. Imagine that you are not satisfied with your workplace; you feel that your organization does not pay enough attention to you, the ethical climate is bad thus you feel frustrated. To express your frustration you will (you can choose more than one answer):

- Complain to your co-workers about supervision
- Try to create a new circle of friends at the workplace and support each other
- Make everybody understand that they cannot walk on your head, you will probably curse somebody to protect yourself
- Try to defend yourself making harassing remarks or jokes at work
- Handle it without any complains and without any help

9*. Imagine that in the company where you work your colleagues are lying about working hours to the boss. You will:

- Report to your superior
- Pretend that you do not know anything about it
- Do the same as your colleagues as it is generally accepted (in-group solidarity)

10*. To which group of following opinions do you think you belong in terms of your competitiveness?

- Business is a world of sharks, everybody is eating each other at all costs
- Sometimes you have to make some sacrifice to reach your goal, therefore occasionally illegal means (in e.g. corruption, bribery) are justifiable when necessary
- I am not very competitive; therefore I could step over the rules in order to reach my personal goals only when it's a question of survival
- Business is being honest and following all the necessary regulations and norms and competition could not force me to break them

11*. Imagine that you are at work and you finished all your tasks of the day. What will you do?

- Leave workplace a bit earlier, since my main tasks were accomplished
- Will work on my personal matter instead of finding some other things to do
- I will discuss some matters with my colleagues to be aware about last changes inside the company (intra organizational information exchange)
- I can find something to do, even if it makes me work longer

12*. My boss has raised my colleague who has less experience and lower educational level than me therefore I don't see anything wrong if I intentionally work less efficient, take longer breaks or feel more free to break other rules of the company. Anyway, I am not judged on my competence.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree

- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

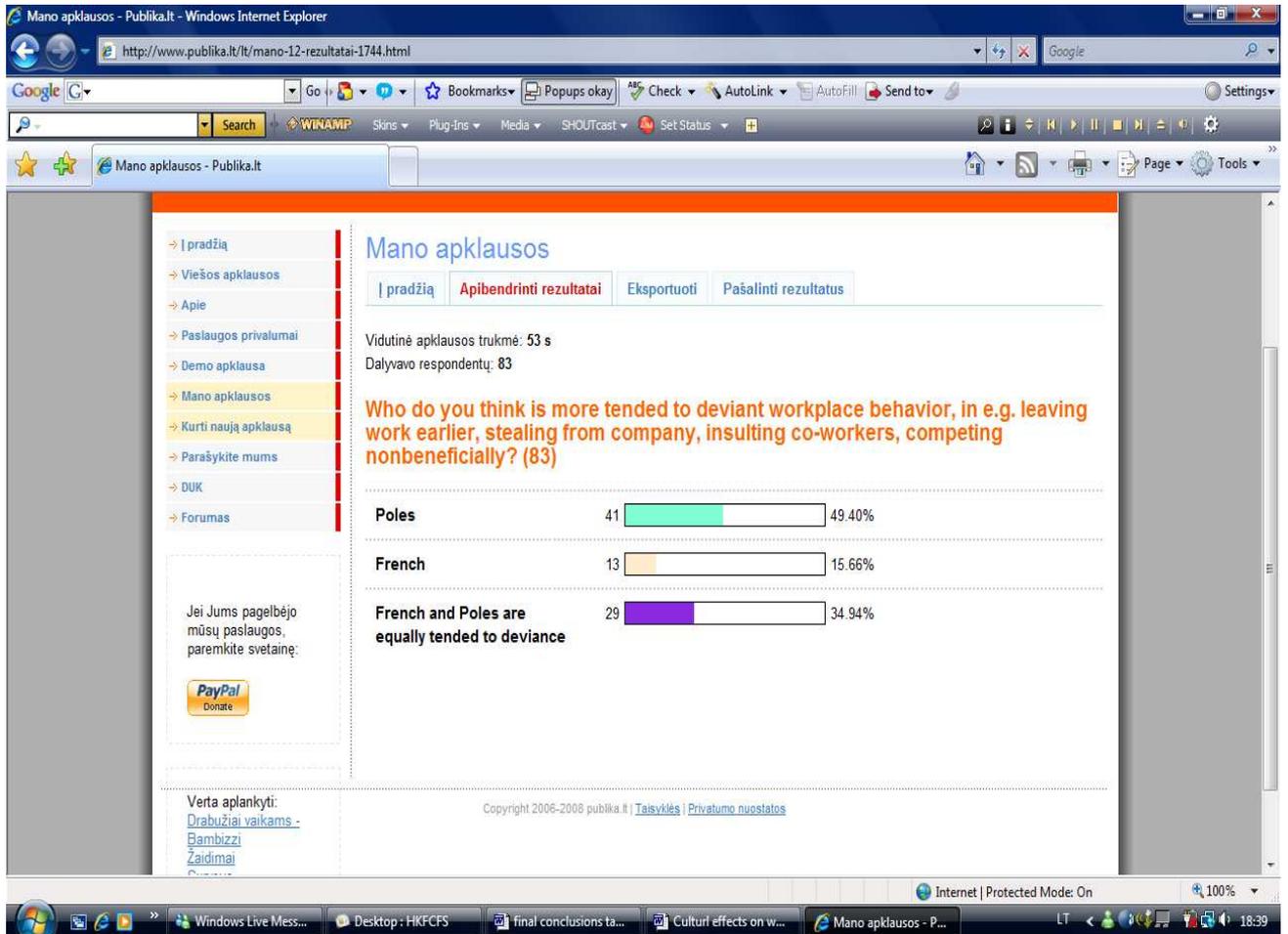
13*. I wouldn't like to work in a company with quite formalized work structure, big emphasis on norms and regulations because I would have to give the detailed reports about the hours worked, money spent on business trips and so on.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

14*. Imagine that you work in a company in which you do not feel that management is certain about situation and decision making and is not sure what they are doing. Would you then break company's rules more often?

- Yes, I would try to use the uncertainty situation as much as possible (for example I would exaggerate expenses account to get more reimbursement for money than I spent on business expenses) since management doesn't really understand anything
- Yes, I would try to use uncertainty situation to some extent, for example to take additional or longer breaks than acceptable, work on personal matters instead of working for my employer.
- I am not sure if I would or wouldn't use uncertainty situation to break the rules.
- I don't think I would break the rules more often as I don't feel any discomfort about management uncertainty.
- I would definitely not break the rules or act unethically at any case.

Appendix 2: Research about the prejudice of deviance



Appendix 3: SPSS tables used in the analysis

Table 1 Mann-Whitney U test of question 6

Test Statistics^a

	Q6Property
Mann-Whitney U	264.500
Wilcoxon W	589.500
Z	-1.774
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.076

a. Grouping Variable: Country of respondents

Table 2 Mann-Whitney U test Mean rank value for question 6

Ranks

Country of respondents	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Q6Property France	29	30.88	895.50
Poland	25	23.58	589.50
Total	54		

Table 3 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 7, answer variant: theft

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.088 ^a	1	.767		
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.089	1	.766		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.572
Linear-by-Linear Association	.086	1	.769		

N of Valid Cases ^b	54			
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a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.31.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 4 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 7, answer variant: absenteeism

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.730 ^a	1	.393		
Continuity Correction ^b	.238	1	.625		
Likelihood Ratio	.745	1	.388		
Fisher's Exact Test				.480	.316
Linear-by-Linear Association	.716	1	.397		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.17.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 5 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 7, answer variant: privilege abuse

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.004 ^a	1	.950		
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.004	1	.950		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.610
Linear-by-Linear Association	.004	1	.950		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.09.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 6 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 7, answer variant: no organizational deviance

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.006 ^a	1	.939		
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.006	1	.939		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.585
Linear-by-Linear Association	.006	1	.940		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.87.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 7 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 8, answer variant: gossiping

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.742 ^a	1	.389		
Continuity Correction ^b	.346	1	.557		
Likelihood Ratio	.745	1	.388		
Fisher's Exact Test				.425	.279
Linear-by-Linear Association	.729	1	.393		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.57.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 8 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 8, answer variant: favoritism

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.054 ^a	1	.816		

Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.054	1	.816		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.516
Linear-by-Linear Association	.053	1	.817		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.57.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 9 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 8, answer variant: verbal abuse

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.423 ^a	1	.516		
Continuity Correction ^b	.110	1	.741		
Likelihood Ratio	.426	1	.514		
Fisher's Exact Test				.545	.372
Linear-by-Linear Association	.415	1	.519		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.02.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 10 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 8, answer variant: harassment

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.292 ^a	1	.589		
Continuity Correction ^b	.024	1	.876		
Likelihood Ratio	.296	1	.587		
Fisher's Exact Test				.711	.441
Linear-by-Linear Association	.287	1	.592		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.70.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 11 Cross tables Chi-Square test of question 8, answer variant: no interpersonal deviance

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.456 ^a	1	.499		
Continuity Correction ^b	.058	1	.809		
Likelihood Ratio	.466	1	.495		
Fisher's Exact Test				.675	.409
Linear-by-Linear Association	.448	1	.503		
N of Valid Cases ^b	54				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.78.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 12 Mann-Whitney U test of question 9

Test Statistics^a

	Q9GroupBehavior
Mann-Whitney U	351.000
Wilcoxon W	786.000
Z	-.236
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.814

a. Grouping Variable: Country of respondents

Table 13 Cross tables Chi-square test for question 10

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.433 ^a	3	.010
Likelihood Ratio	12.022	3	.007
Linear-by-Linear Association	.175	1	.676

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.433 ^a	3	.010
Likelihood Ratio	12.022	3	.007
Linear-by-Linear Association	.175	1	.676
N of Valid Cases	54		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.56.

Table 14 Cross tables Chi-square for question 11

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.628 ^a	3	.305
Likelihood Ratio	3.675	3	.299
Linear-by-Linear Association	.506	1	.477
N of Valid Cases	54		

a. 1 cells (12.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.63.

Table 15 Mann-Whitney U test for question 12

Test Statistics^a

	Q12Inequitability
Mann-Whitney U	339.500
Wilcoxon W	664.500
Z	-.414
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.679

a. Grouping Variable: Country of respondents

Table 16 Mann-Whitney U test for question 13

Test Statistics^a

	Q13Formalizatio n
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Mann-Whitney U	346.500
Wilcoxon W	781.500
Z	-.286
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.775

a. Grouping Variable: Country of respondents

Table 17 Mann-Whitney U test for question 14

Test Statistics^a

	Q14Managemen tUncer
Mann-Whitney U	330.500
Wilcoxon W	655.500
Z	-.582
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.561

a. Grouping Variable: Country of respondents