

TEACHERS' OPENNESS TO VIOLATION OF ETHICAL DECISIONS

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ABSTRACT

TEACHERS' OPENNESS TO VIOLATION OF ETHICAL DECISIONS

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The purpose of this study was to understand if teachers in Turkish public school violate their ethical decisions for the sake of stakeholders; namely, students, colleagues, parents and managers. Additionally, the impact of the demographic variables, gender, years of employment, and the level of the organization was investigated after controlling for the effect of the personal moral philosophy orientations.

A pilot study with 176 teachers from all level of the public schools was conducted to understand the validity and reliability of the Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ) scale (Forsyth, 1980) and Openness to Violation of Ethical Decisions scale (OVED). After removing eight items of EPQ scale, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses revealed satisfactory results for reliability and validity of the scale. After conducting exploratory factor analysis for OVED scale in the pilot study, partial least squares-structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used for the evaluation of the OVED scale. Both of the results supported the validity and reliability for OVED scale for further analysis.

The main study was designed as causal-comparative study, and the participants were comprised of 540 teachers from 111 public schools from nine different districts of Ankara Turkey. Yet, 508 of the completed inventories were suitable for the analysis.

In order to collect the data, an inventory consisting of two scales plus a section consisting of questions for gathering demographic information from the teachers were used. The first scale, the openness to violation of ethical decisions for the sake of the stakeholders scale (OVED) was developed for this study. The second scale, Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ), which was developed by Forsyth (1980) and was translated into Turkish by Marta, Singhapakdi, Lee, Burnaz, Topcu, Atakan, and Ozkaracalar (2012) for measuring the teachers' idealism and relativism levels.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics techniques were used for the data analysis. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were used for EPQ. For the OVED scale exploratory factor analysis and PLS-SEM were conducted. IBM SPSS Statistics 22 was used for descriptive and inferential statistics techniques and for exploratory factor analysis. For confirmatory factor analysis of EPQ, AMOS 18 was used. Finally, for the OVED scale measurement model evaluation SMART PLS 2.0 was used.

Results of main study revealed that teachers may violate their own ethical decision for the sake of the stakeholders, both in morally high and low intense conditions. After controlling for the impact of ethical positions, no significant change was found for the OVED scale scores with regard to gender, years of employment, and level of the organizations. However, idealism and relativism levels of teachers showed significant effect on teachers' openness to violation of their ethical decisions. These findings suggest that in rare conditions, teachers may perform something unethical for the stakeholders even if they feel that the act in question involves high degree of moral intensity. It is advisable for decision makers in educational system to be aware that teachers may behave very differently than what they actually believe right.

Key words: Violation of ethical decisions, stakeholder impact, moral intensity dimensions, ethical orientation.

ÖZ

ÖĞRETMENLERİN KENDİ AHLAKİ KARARLARINA AYKIRI DAVRANMAYA AÇIKLIKLARI

ÖNEN, Özgür

Doktora, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi, Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı ilk ve orta dereceli devlet okullarında çalışan öğretmenlerin okul paydaşları, öğrenci, iş arkadaşı, veli ve okul yöneticileri, için kendi ahlaki kararlarından vazgeçip geçmeyeceklerini anlamaktır. Bununla beraber öğretmenlerin kişisel ahlaki pozisyonları kontrol edilerek, demografik değişkenlerin, cinsiyet, mesleki hizmet süresi ve çalıştığı okul seviyesi, öğretmenlerin ahlaki kararlarından vazgeçmelerinde bir etkisinin olup olmadığını incelemektir.

Öncelikle, her okul düzeyinden 176 öğretmenin katılımıyla Etik Pozisyon Anketi (Forsyth, 1980) ve Ahlaki Kararlara Aykırı Davranmaya Açıklık (AKADA) ölçeğinin geçerlilik ve güvenilirliklerini anlamaya yönelik bir pilot çalışma gerçekleştirilmiştir. Etik Pozisyon ölçeğinden sekiz maddenin çıkarılması ile hem açıklayıcı hem de doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri, geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik açısından destekleyici sonuçlar göstermiştir. AKADA ölçeğinin açıklayıcı faktör analizinden sonra, ölçme modelinin değerlendirilmesi Partial Least Square – yapısal eşitlik modelleme tekniği ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Her iki analiz sonuçları da AKADA ölçeği geçerliliği ve güvenilirliği için destekleyici niteliktedir.

Betimsel karşılaştırma araştırması deseni şeklinde tasarlanmış olan asıl çalışmaya Ankara ilinde dokuz farklı ilçede ve 111 devlet okulda görev yapan 540 öğretmen katılmıştır, ancak elde edilen anketlerin 508 tanesinin kullanılabilir düzeyde

olduđu deęerlendirilmiřtir. Verilerin elde edilmesinde, iki farklı ölçekten ve demografik deęiřkenler hakkında bilgi edinmeye yönelik bir bölümden oluřan envanter kullanılmıřtır. İlk ölçek, ahlaki kararlara aykırı davranmaya açıklığı (AKADA) ölçmek amacı ile bu çalıřmada geliřtirilmiřtir. Öğretmenlerin idealizm ve rölativizm düzeylerini ölçmek için kullanılan Etik Pozisyon Ölçeęi (EPÖ) ise Forsyth (1980) tarafından geliřtirilirmiř olup Marta v.d. (2012) tarafından Türkıçeye çevrilmiřtir.

Veri analizinde, hem betimsel hem de çıkarımsal istatistik teknikleri kullanılmıřtır. Etik pozisyon ölçeęi için hem açıklayıcı faktör analizi hem de doęrulamayı faktör analizi yapılmıřtır. AKADA ölçeęi içinse hem açıklayıcı faktör analizi hem de PLS-SEM kullanılmıřtır. Betimsel ve çıkarımsal istatistikler ile açıklayıcı faktör analizi için IBM SPSS 22 istatistiksel paket programı kullanılmıřtır. EPÖ ölçeęinin doęrulamayı faktör analizi için AMOS 18 istatistiksel paket programı kullanılmıřtır. Son olarak AKADA ölçeęinin ölçüm modelinin deęerlendirilmesi için ise SMART PLS 2.0 istatistik programı kullanılmıřtır.

Asıl çalıřmanın sonuçları, her ne kadar çok yüksek olmasa da, hem ahlaki anlamda yüksek yoğunluklu hem de düşük yoğunluklu durumlarda bile öğretmenlerin, paydařlar için, kendi ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket edebileceklerini göstermiřtir. Öğretmenlerin idealizm ve rölativizm deęerleri kontrol edilerek, cinsiyet, hizmet süresi ve okul düzeyine göre AKADA düzeylerinde anlamlı bir farkla karşılařılmamıřtır. Bununla beraber, öğretmenlerin idealizm ve rölativizm düzeylerinin ahlaki deęerlerine aykırı davranmaya açıklıkları üzerinde etkisi olduęu görölmüřtür. Bu bulgu, ahlaki anlamda ciddi derecede tartıřmaya açık davranıřların bile öğretmenler tarafından nadir durumlarda gösterilebileceęine iřaret etmektedir. Eęitim sisteminde karar verici pozisyonda bulunanların, öğretmenlerin aslında düřündüklerinden çok daha farklı davranabileceklerinin farkında olmaları tavsiye edilebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ahlaki kararlara aykırı davranma, paydař etkisi, ahlaki yoğunluk, etik yönelim

To my son,

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

RAA	: Reasoned Action Approach
USA	: United States of America
TOEFL	: Test of English as a Foreign Language
IELTS	: International English Language Testing System
ODTÜ	: Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi
EPQ	: Ethical Position Questionnaire
MONE	: Ministry of National Education
TPB	: Theory of Planned Behavior
TRA	: Theory of Reasoned Action
ANCOVA	: Analysis of Covariance
MANCOVA	: Multivariate Analysis of Covariance
PIE	: Perceived Importance of an Ethical Issue
OVED	: Openness to Violation of Ethical Decisions
KMO	: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
SEM	: Structural Equation Modeling
PLS	: Partial Least Squares
CB	: Covariance Based
AVE	: Average Variance Explained
RMSEA	: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
CFI	: Comparative Fit Index
NNFI	: Non-Normed Fit Index
CFA	: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

METU : Middle East Technical University

ÖSYM : Öğrenci Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Business ethics has increasingly attracted a wide scholarly interest since the early years of 1980s. The increased scholarly interest is evident in the number of publications (McMahon, 2002; O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005) and courses delivered on the topic. Business leaders and organizational researchers are interested in how managers give decision on issues containing ethical consideration (Bass, Barnett, & Brown, 1999). This is not only because the effects of the news on media but also the human and financial cost associated with unethical behaviors in organizations (McMahon, 2002).

Studies report that unethical practices occur frequently both in business organizations and in public organizations (e.g. Detert, Trevino, & Sweitzer, 2008; Reynolds, Schultz, & Hekman, 2006). Educational organizations are not exceptional, and educators are faced with many incidents involving ethical dilemmas (Beninga, 2013). Since judgment factors such as fairness or justice, discipline, evaluation, confidentiality, and advising which usually contain ethical dilemmas (Gifford, 1992) are almost daily routines of educators, falling into a false choice is quite possible.

In addition, teachers in the schools may sometimes face with ethical dilemmas because of the stakeholders. Stakeholders may ask teachers to get engaged in unethical acts. One simple example may be the wishes of the students, their parents, colleagues or managers to increase the grades which are used for changing schools or university entrance. This is why public is interested in the increase of the importance of teacher grading. As they do not believe that teachers can always resist to such kind of unethical wishes from other stakeholders, they are generally against to increase the importance of teacher grading.

Contrary to public interest and the numerous studies present in the field, the nature of the ethical decision making is still unclear and more research is needed on the issue. This could be explained with the complex nature of ethical decision making and ethics itself. There have been several ethical decision making models proposed by researchers (e.g. Jones, 1991; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Trevino, 1986; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; 2006), in which numerous variables are identified as antecedents or consequences of ethical decision making. Some of these variables are intensity of the given act, group dynamics, authority factors, socialization processes (Jones, 1991), individual attributes, religious values, humanistic values, cultural values, societal values, corporate goals, stated policy, corporate culture, legislation, administrative agencies, judicial system, peer group and family (Bommer, Gratto, Gravander, & Tuttle, 1987), and to the moral philosophy orientations (Ferrell, Gresham & Fredrich, 1989). Therefore, finding a commonly agreed explanation for ethical dilemmas faced in organizations and decision making is a challenging topic. In other words, research evidence is still limited to developing a commonly agreed model or practice in the analysis and conduct of ethical decision making. In addition, it is a very challenging task to test these variables for evaluation of the models in a study.

Although it is difficult to test the complex sets of variables related to ethical decision making in a single study, researchers have been trying to test the models to gain insight on ethical decision and ethical behavior. Studies about the ethical decision making and possibly affecting variables are abundant in the field; however, it is rare to find studies regarding ethical behavioral intentions with regard to influence of significant others. Yet, stakeholders may have an impact on ethical decision making to get benefit. In fact, some theories emphasize the importance of significant others (e.g. Ferrel & Gresham, 1985; Hunt & Vitell, 2006). But, the literature lacks research relating to the importance of the all stakeholders in ethical decision making. In another words, stakeholders' influence on individuals' (teachers specific to this study) engaging in unethical acts has not been widely studied. A study conducted by Westerman, Beekun, Stedham, & Yamamura, (2007) attempted to understand the influence of important others (e.g., peers, managers etc.) on ethical behavioral intention. However, their study was focusing on whether decision makers accept

peers as a reference and did not indicate any information if they did something unethical for the sake of their peers.

In addition, some studies aimed to predict the ethical decision making particularly within the organizational context by carrying some restrictions and obstacles (e.g. Kılıç & Önen, 2009; Moore, Detert, Treviño, Baker, Mayer, 2012). Most of these predictive studies measure the intention as a predictor of actual behavior, parallel to “Reasoned Action Approach” (RAA). As Ajzen (1985; 1991) argued intentions, beliefs and general attitudes are the predictors of the actual behavior. However, while measuring the participants’ intentions as predictors of ethical behavior, researchers usually pre-describe the “ethical or unethical behavior” (e.g., Moore et. al, 2012). This may raise questions about the nature of ethical conducts. For example, it can be argued that behaviors are ethical or unethical within a specific context, society or in an organization, as there is no commonly agreed answer to the question “What is ethical?” Although some scholars argue that ethical principles, at least some of them, are universal that is “*normative*” point of view; others argue that “what is ethical?” may change in a given context, which is “*descriptive*” point of view.

Studies also have some limitations due to the selection of sample. Most of the studies which were conducted among professionals are generally from other business sectors, rather than educational sector. The issue has not been investigated in public organizations or educational organizations widely. In addition, some of the studies have been conducted among students who do not have work experiences or have limited work experiences (e.g., Westerman et al., 2007) and contain some degree of bias whether they can reflect actual work settings and employee behavior. O’Fallon and Butterfield (2005) indicated that in their empirical ethical decision making review which cover the years between 1996 and 2003, 40 per cent of the studies were conducted among students. Besides, Craft (2013) stressed the increase on the use students as a participant in her ethical decision making literature review, where the 53 per cent of the studies were conducted among students, and only 31 per cent of the studies conducted among only professionals. Hence, conducting studies among

real practitioners is necessary, specifically doing research among teachers is needed in the educational administration field.

Another issue to consider is the usage of vignettes. In many cases, as stated above, people's perception about ethics differs. However, given statements or stories in questionnaires may cause awareness on the participant and for that reason, participants consciously or unconsciously, may indicate and determine the ethical issue as accepted by the majority of the society, or the researcher. As a result, giving a situation and or a statement that contain some degrees of ethical dilemma and trying to measure the one's "morality" may contain some bias about "what is ethical".

Because of the reasons mentioned up to now such as sample selection or data collection methods used, findings of the previous research are contradictory. For example, while some studies found significant gender effect (e.g. Cohen, Pant and Sharp 2001; Singhapakdi, 1999) others (e.g. Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Ketchand, 2001) did not find any significant result. This situation is also valid for ethical orientation, years of experience. While Valentine and Bateman (2011) and Singhapakdi, Salyachivin, Virakul and Veerayangkur (2000) found significant effect on ethical behavioral intention with regard to ethical orientation, Bass, Barnett and Brown (1998) found no significant effect of ethical orientation on ethical behavioral intention. Similarly, Dubinsky and Ingriam (1984) and Serwinek (1992) reported no significant effect of years of experience but, Kidwell, Stevens and Bethke (1987) and Eweje and Brunton (2010) found significant effect on ethical considerations. For that reason, examining these variables in a different work context and culture, public organizations in Turkey for this study may contribute to our understanding.

There is a lack of studies investigating the type of organization, or level of the organization. But, it can be thought that work environment may have an effect on ethical decision making. Jones (1991), Bommer et al. (1987), Ferrell, Gresaham and Freadrich (1989), Hunt and Vitell (2006) and Trevino (1986) emphasize the importance of social or work culture. However, literature is quite limited for different

types of organizations. In Turkish educational system, schools are arranged according to students' age, similar to the ones in different countries. In social or work-related settings, teachers are generally asked what level they teach rather than their specialization. In addition, the students they teach in each level have different needs and expectations from teachers, and their attitudes, acts socialization levels are different in each school level. So, it is very likely for teachers to form different beliefs and to have different values according to the school levels they work. By considering all, the insufficient research on the impact of school level on teachers' ethical decision making seems to offer a gap in the literature.

In this study, stakeholders' influence on "ethical decision makers" is examined with respect to some other variables; specifically, ethical philosophy orientations and some demographic variables; gender, years of experience in the profession and the level of the organization that teachers work.

The study aimed to understand more about ethical decision making by exploring the influence of stakeholders on engaging unethical acts in educational settings. Moral philosophy orientations of the decision makers, specifically teachers in this study, are handled as covariates as proposed by Ferrell, Gresham and Freadrich (1989) and Hunt and Vitel (2006) rather than directly measuring its influence on ethical behavioral intentions. In addition, it should be noted that teachers' ethical behavioral intentions, which is shaped with their own ethical judgments, is the focus of this study rather than the biased ethical norms as accepted by some researchers.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The aim of the present study is to examine the teachers' openness to stakeholders' influence on ethical issues with respect to their ethical philosophy orientations and demographic variables, specifically, gender, years of service in the profession, and the school level (primary, secondary and high school). Previous research has showed that these variables have an impact on ethical decision making, although the results were contradictory. Influences of these variables are not only seen in ethical

behavioral intentions, but also in ethical awareness, ethical judgment, and behavior. In a study conducted by Eweje and Brunton (2010), for example, gender was found to have an impact on ethical awareness, where females were more aware to ethical dilemmas. Similarly Krambia-Kapardis and Zopiatis (2008) also found that females have more ethical awareness. However, Chan and Leung (2006) reported that gender has no effect on awareness of ethical dilemmas. McCullough and Faught (2005) and O'Leary and Stewart (2007), on the other hand, found that experience has an effect on being more moralistic. Hayibor and Wasielesk (2009) found that having people around who think the act in question is morally acceptable has an effect on perceptions. Pflugrath, Martinov-Bennie, and Chen (2007) report that experience has an impact on ethical judgment quality. Nguyen, Basuray, Smith, Kopka and McCulloh (2008), on the other hand, indicate that gender has an impact on ethical judgment; but when moral intensity is taken into consideration this effect is not statistically significant. These findings suggest contradictory results. But, Beekun, Hamdy, Westerman, and HassabElnaby (2008) suggest that national culture has an impact on ethical decision making. For these reasons, it can be thought that conducting studies in different cultures may have different results. This may also be seen in Turkish school context, while examining the effect of stakeholders on ethical behavioral intentions.

In this study, it is expected to reveal whether male or female teachers in Turkish school context are more prone to violate their own ethical values for the sake of key stakeholders; managers, students, colleagues, and parents namely; or whether teachers differ according to level of the organization they work in. Experience is also another factor that will be checked. In addition, possible interaction effect among these variables will be examined by controlling the effect of the personal moral philosophy orientations of the teachers.

1.2.1 Research questions

In this study the following research questions are answered

- 1) What are the ethical orientation positions (relativism and idealism scores) of the participants?
- 2) Do teachers' ethical positions (relativism and idealism scores) change with regard to gender, level of the school they work and years of experience?
- 3) What are the levels of teachers' openness to engage unethical acts for the sake of the key stakeholders?
- 4) Is there any relation between teachers' ethical orientations and openness to stakeholders' influence on teachers' moral disengagement?
- 5) Does teachers' openness to influence of stakeholders on ethical issues change with regards to age, gender, and years of service in profession, after controlling for teachers' ethical orientations?
 - a) Does teachers' openness to influence of stakeholders on ethical issues change with regards to age, gender, and years of service in profession, after controlling for teachers' ethical orientations in high morally intense conditions?
 - b) Does teachers' openness to influence of stakeholders on ethical issues change with regards to age, gender, and years of service in profession, after controlling for teachers' ethical orientations in low morally intense conditions?

1.3 Significance of the Study

Ethical issues are significant topics for educational organizations and educational administration field. Teachers as the initial and the most important employees of the educational organizations have important influence on the children's daily life and the future (Tucker & Stronge, 2005). As employees are regarded to be faced with ethical dilemmas in their work settings (Fudge & Schlacter, 1999), their values may sometimes conflict with their organizations' goals which may cause pressure on the

employee (Carroll, 1975). Additionally, their decision making style may affect the organizational performance (Rehman, Khalid, & Khan, 2012). By considering their critical importance for the future of children, “understanding the way how teachers behave” when faced with ethical issues is a significant topic for the educational organizations and educational administration field. Moreover, in Turkish educational system teachers may have some degree of responsibility on the distribution and expenses of the resources and even, they may get the managerial positions in the schools even in the first years of their professional life.

Besides, it is very possible to encounter incidents that are considered as “scandal” by public in both public organizations and private enterprises (e.g. Enron Scandal, the Sponsorship Scandal of Canada, and Watergate Scandal) which involve ethical considerations. Educational organizations are not exceptional. Visual, online and printed media have announced events in schools as “scandal” too, where sometimes teachers, administrators or students involved in. For example, Atlanta Public Schools cheating scandal, Nursery School Scandal in U.S.A. (Nursery School, 2006) and Stolen Exam Paper Scandal in a nationwide examination (Merkezi Sınavda Skandal, 2013) and forged document scandal where fake TOEFL and IELTS papers were drawn up incidents took place in Turkey (ODTÜ’deki Skandal Derinleşiyor, 2013). Understanding the stakeholders influence on ethical behavioral intentions may be helpful for guessing and preventing unethical practices which can be seen as scandals.

It should be noted that sometimes a person can be refused to be recognized for his/her unethical act. In an extreme example, a police officer who committed burglary in his jurisdiction is protected by one of his colleagues (Wilson 1963, cited in Sherman, 1978, p. 31). Some may argue that the colleague’s act as is also unethical in addition to the officer’s act. Therefore, people can be claimed acting unethically in indirect ways not for their own sake but for the important others. This is not surprising; as decision makers in organizations try to optimize the shareholders’ interests (Reynolds, Schultz, & Hekman, 2006) and there is no guarantee that all of the stakeholders’ wishes will be ethical.

Although it is possible to see some studies regarding the influence of stakeholders (e.g. Westerman et al., 2007, Zhuang et al., 2005, Barnett, Bass, & Brown, 1996, Jones & Kavanagh, 1996, Grover & Hui, 1994, Bruce, 1994, Zabid & Alsagoff, 1993, Dubinsky & Loken, 1989) they usually failed on identification of the stakeholder or omit the possibility of doing something unethical for the stakeholder sake, rather they emphasis on the effect of the stakeholder on giving decision for acting unethically. Moreover, some follow the normative ways in which “what is ethical” is predetermined by the researcher or the measurement tool. However, research regarding the ethical disengagement for the sake of important others is limited. But, it should be noted that people may perform an unethical act that they would not normally perform for their own benefits but realize it for the important others. Sometimes this may be even considered as sacrifice. One of the main purposes of this research is to fill this gap by investigating the influence of important others on teachers for conducting such behaviors.

In this study, teachers were selected as the sample group. In most of the studies university students from various departments (Loe, Ferrell, & Mansfield, 2000; Craft, 2013) but especially from business department were selected. Although some students as in the study of Elango, Paul, Kundu and Paudel’s study (2010) have some degree of work experiences or some amount of them have a job too besides their educational life, it is limited indeed. In addition, as Loe, Ferrell and Mansfield (2000) argued they are younger than actual organizational samples and consequently, they have limited experience both in their private and social life and work life. For understanding ethical decision making in organizations, selection of actual employees rather than prospective workers-students- is very important (Loe et al. 2000; Craft, 2013). This study specified teachers who works in public schools as participants rather than involving university students or teacher candidates, and it is thought that understanding the effect of the stakeholders on teachers’ ethical behavioral intention by conducting a study among actual practitioners is very important for the fields of educational administration and for the ethical decision making literature.

By this study, it is expected to gain insight through ethical decision making in actual work settings. There are lots of theories about ethical decision making. There are also many studies that partially test these theories. However the impact of the stakeholders is not examined adequately. As mentioned above, there is no study encountered during the literature review that is trying to understand the influence of stakeholder for acting unethically for sake of stakeholder where teachers are not direct benefiter of the act performed.

In addition, a questionnaire for measuring the teachers' openness to stakeholders' influence on ethical issues will be developed in this study. Although there exists a scale for measuring the importance of stakeholders (Lu, Rose, & Blodgett, 1999), it has some restrictions. First, it does only cover customers, colleagues and company as an entity, in which upper level managers are ignored; instead, company's values took place. Second, it does not take into consideration the moral intensity dimensions. Finally, statements were designed for comparing of the values of the decision maker and other stakeholders' values; therefore, it is impossible to guess in which way the decision maker intents to act. Giving priority to one's own values does not guarantee that s/he will act accordingly to those values. Decision makers may think their or others' values are important but may act in a different way because of the influence of the stakeholders. In addition, the role of the benefit is not considered.

By developing a new questionnaire, it was expected to develop an initial measure to examine the influence of stakeholders on teachers which may be improved later on or adopted to different work settings. Development of new scales based on this one may help researchers to examine the influence of stakeholders on employees in various kinds of work settings. As it is important for the administrators to understand the effect of stakeholders for predicting and preventing possible "unethical behaviors" that can be exhibited by employees or for controlling the influence of stakeholders on employees.

1. 4 Definitions of the Terms

Ethics: The term ethics derives from the Greek word “ethos” which means “character” (Toffler, 1986). The term now stand for the branch of philosophy that try to answer what is moral, how morality and moral values are conceptualized by people, where moral values come from and so on (Haynes, 2002). On the other hand, moral stands for the codes or rules that people should behave accordingly with in a society (Contemporary Turkish Dictionary, 2014). From this point of view, it is understood that ethics and moral is totally different concepts (Haynes, 2002). However for simplicity, many authors and researchers used this term interchangeably (Jones, 1991) since in daily life people also used these terms alternately. In this thesis, these terms were also used interchangeably.

Ethical decision making: Miner and Dowson (2010, p. 91) defines ethical decision making “as the identification of a problem as ethical in nature, generating and evaluating ethical action choices, and implementing virtuously motivated ethical action based on these choices”. Following this definition, ethical decision making does not only involve judgment but also the action regarding the ethical situation. Ethical decision making models also cover the intention and implementation phases.

Ethical orientation: Schlenker and Forsyth (1977) argued that two differing moral philosophies affect ones ethical judgments; namely deontology and teleology. They suggested that one’s position on these philosophies can be used for predicting his/her ethical judgments. One who is in favor of deontology that Forsyth (1980) later labeled as idealist, try to follow universally accepted rules when judging an issue containing ethical consideration. In contrast, one who rejects universal rules but concerned with the possible consequences of the action can be defined as following theological point of view and labeled as relativist by Forsyth (1980). Both of these

philosophies together constitute ethical orientations or positions. In this study, participants' ethical orientations are measured according to scores they get from Ethical Position Questionnaire (EPQ) developed by Forsyth (1980) and consisted of two scales, idealism and relativism.

Stakeholder: A stakeholder can be defined as a person and organization that have an interest on the organization. In this study, only personal identities were chosen as stakeholder, as it is very difficult to assess the unethical wishes of institutions. In addition, it is very rare to see an unethical wish from an institution. For these reasons, managers, students, parents and the colleagues were chosen as key stakeholders for the teachers.

Level of the organization: Educational organizations can be categorized according to the grade levels of the students that they have. In this study, levels of the organizations were divided into three categories, preschool/primary school, secondary school and high school by considering the Ministry of the National Education (MONE) organizational schema. Preschools and primary schools were handled as one group, because many preschool teachers work in primary schools as schooling in this stage is both inadequate and mostly come together with primary schools.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Models

In this chapter, existing ethical decision making theories most relevant to the purposes of this study were reviewed. Firstly, the existing models of the ethical decision making models was summarized. Then, reasoned action approach was discussed. Finally, how these theories were related with this study was discussed.

2.1.1 Ethical decision making models

In order to conceptualize ethical decision making in organizations, as the main concern of this study is to understanding the influence of key stakeholders for engaging unethical act, already existing ethical decision making models are reviewed in this part.

Ethical decision making is an attractive topic in management field (McMahon, 2002; Ford & Richardson, 1994). For that reason, the literature on ethical decision making is so rapidly growing. Several scholars conducted different review studies on the issue (e.g.; Craft, 2011; O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005; Cotton & Claus, 2000; Loe, Ferrel & Mansfield, 2000, Ford& Richardson, 1994). Accordingly, there are several ethical decision making models in the literature (e.g. Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Jones, 1991; Trevino, 1986). Most of these ethical decision making models based on the Rest's ethical decision making models.

2.1.1.1 Rest's Four Steps Ethical Decision Making Model

Rest's ethical decision making model bases Kohlberg's moral development theory (Seymen & Bolat, 2007) and basically consists of four components (Rest, 1994); Moral sensitivity, Moral Judgment, Moral Motivation, Moral character.

Moral Sensitivity refers to being aware of that the situation containing some degree of moral consideration. If a person is not aware of the possibility of harming others due to the action he/she took, he/she may not engage in ethical decision making. People should firstly, notice that a situation consists of an ethical dilemma.

Moral Judgment occurs after noticing that his/her action may cause some degree of harm to others. In this stage, one makes judgments on what is right or wrong. One with higher levels of moral maturity will probably give better decisions on what is ethically right at this stage.

Moral Motivation at this stage one compares the other values, if any, with ethical ones. Sometimes other values may get ahead the ethical values. People may be good at distinguishing between what is right or wrong; however, they may consciously want to act unethically for obtaining benefits.

Moral Character this component refers to having ego strength, perseverance, toughness, strength of conviction and courage. One may be good at noticing ethical issues, and good at moral judgment; at the same time may put ethical values forward. But if he/she feels under pressure for not acting ethically, he/she may disregard ethically right actions.

Rest (1994) argues that one may behave unethically if he falls into failure in any of these components. According to Rest's model (1994) ethical decision making may only occur if one first realize that the situation consist some degree of ethical concern. This means that if one cannot realize an ethical concern, this should not be considered as actual ethical decision making. In addition, one may behave ethically even if s/he

does not notice the ethical importance of the situation. If the realization of ethical content occurs than actual ethical decision making occurs passing through the moral judgment, motivation and character steps.

2.1.1.2 Trevino's integrationist ethical decision making model

Trevino's integrationist ethical decision making model (1986) is more revealing for understanding the ethical behavior in organizations when compared to Rest's four steps ethical decision making model (see Figure 2.1). According this model, ethical decision making starts with an introduction of ethical dilemma; then goes toward cognition stage where one judges the situation and decides what is right or wrong. However, this stage is affected by three "situational moderators," namely immediate job context, organizational culture and characteristics of the work. These moderators also affect the end action after making judgment about the dilemma, along with individual moderators; ego strength, field dependence and locus of control. According to model these moderators are effective for the actual behavior. This means that one may be good at making judgments on the ethical issues and stand on higher stages of moral reasoning; however, situational and individual moderators may force him/her to act unethically.

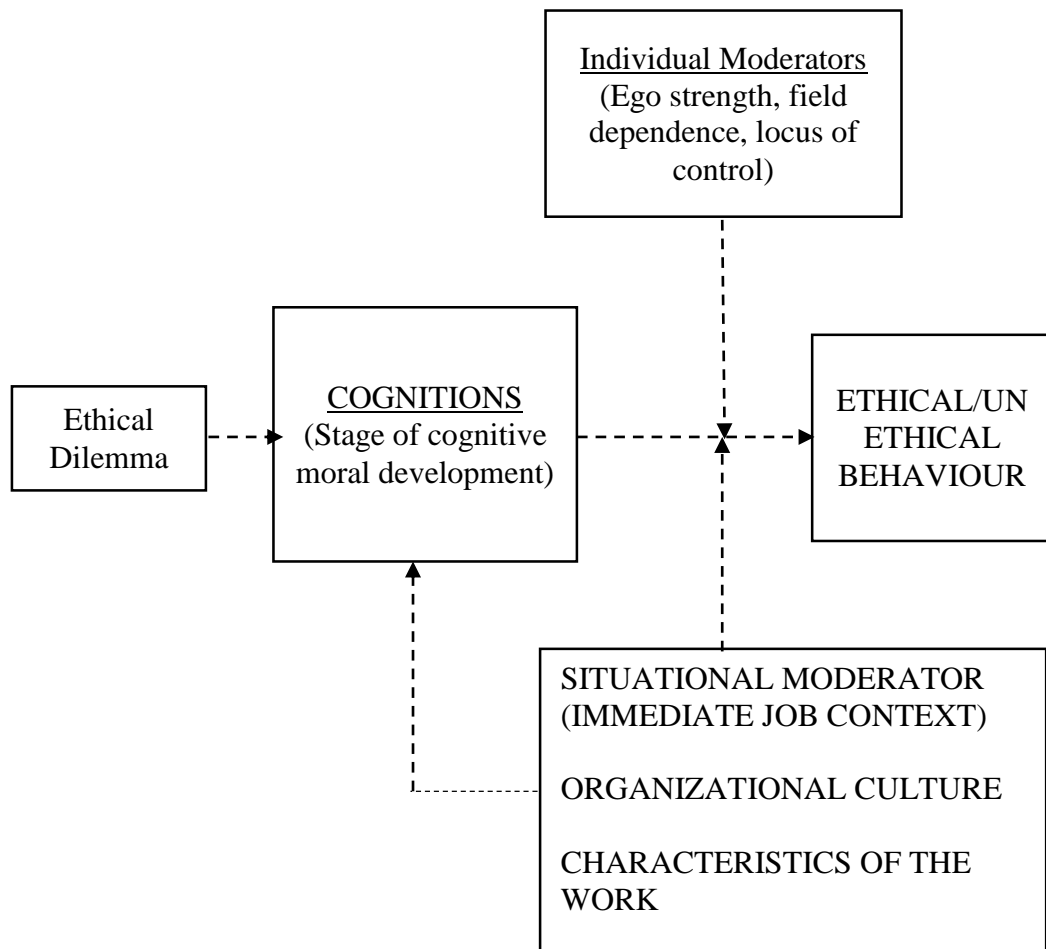


Figure 2.1 Trevino's (1986) ethical decision making model

2.1.1.3 Ferrell and Gresham's Contingency Model of Ethical Decision Making in Marketing Organizations

Ferrell and Gresham's (1985) ethical decision making behavioral model consists of stages that describe first-order interaction between the nature of the ethical situation and the characteristics associated with the individual, significant others, and the opportunity to engage in unethical behavior (Ferrell, Gresham, & Fraedrich, 1989). As can be seen in Figure 2.2 their model ethical decision making process occurs in the social and cultural

environment where ethical issue or dilemma revealed with an evaluation of normative ethics norms either deontological or teleological (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). At the same time, decision maker is affected by individual factors (e.g., knowledge, values, and intentions attitudes) and organizational factors (e.g., professional codes, rewards/punishments and etc.). Ferrell and Gresham (1985) divide organizational factors into two basic groups; significant others such as; peers and supervisors as intra-organizational factors and opportunity; professional codes, corporate policy and reward system as effecting variables. There is also a feedback loop after evaluating the consequences of the actual behavior towards to both individual and organizational factors.

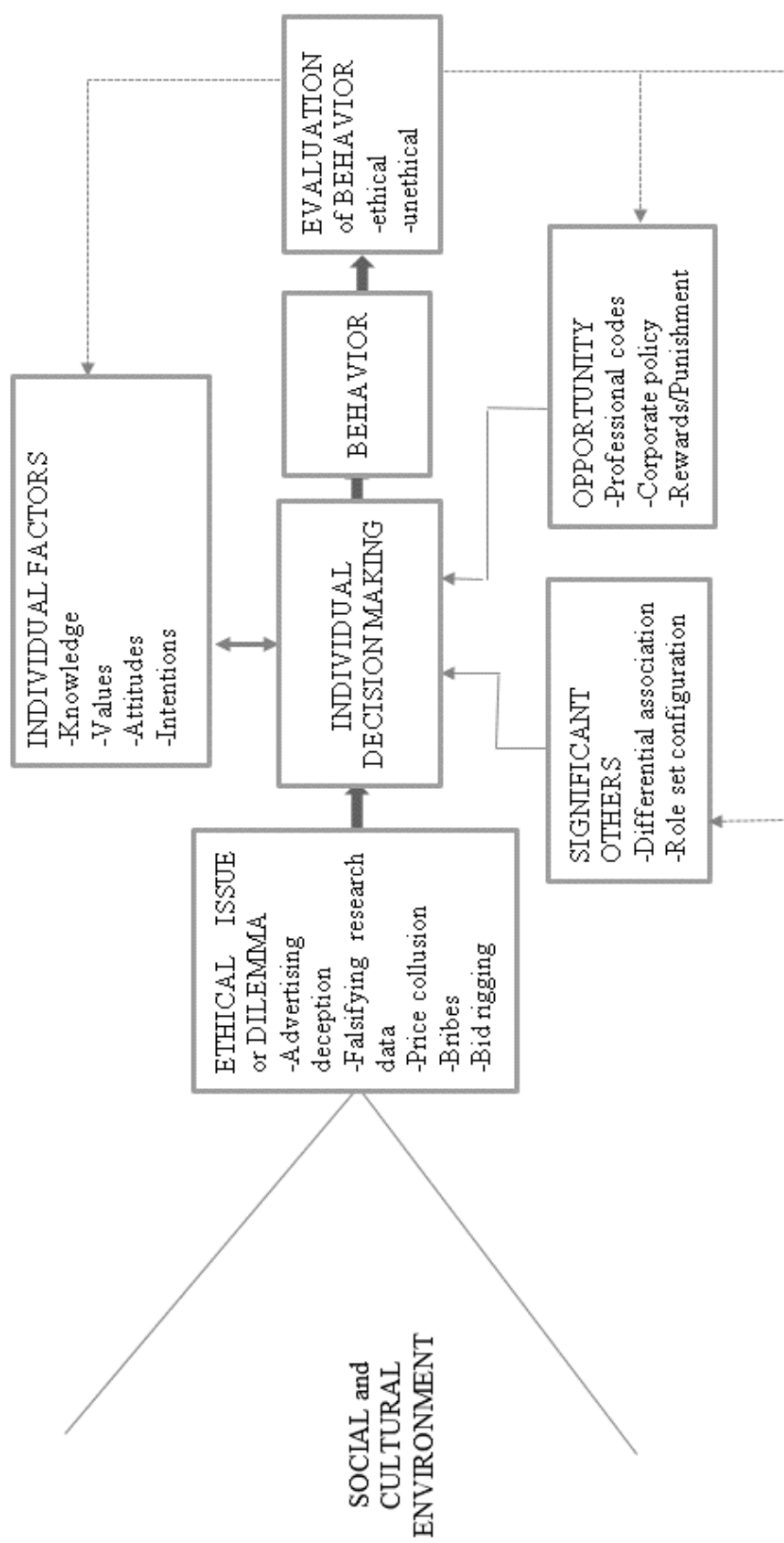


Figure 2.2 Ferrel and Gresham Ethical Decision Making Model (1985)

2.1.1.4 Hunt and Vitell Ethical Decision Making Model

In Hunt and Vitell ethical decision making model (Hunt & Vitell, 1986; 2006), ethical decision making process begins with environmental factors; informal norms, formal codes and code enforcement factors of industrial, organizational and professional environments and, religion, legal system and political system factors of cultural environment. In addition to the environmental factors, personal factors stand just at the beginning of the ethical decision making process, namely religion, value system, belief system, strength of moral character, cognitive moral development and ethical sensitivity. Factors related to industrial, organizational and professional environment affects employees; so they are expected to be effective for work settings. On the other hand, cultural environment and personal characteristics exist in all situations where ethical decision making is needed.

All of these factors have direct influence on perceived ethical problem (dilemma), perceived alternatives and perceived consequences (see Figure 2.3). At the same time, these factors have direct effect on deontological norms, probabilities of consequences, desirability of consequences and importance of stakeholders. Finally decision makers come to teleological and deontological evaluation that both affect the ethical judgment (Hunt & Vitell, 1986). This can be interpreted as integration of the decision maker's philosophical evaluation (McMahon, 2002). Both teleological and deontological philosophies are naturally normative that dictates "what ought to be", while deontologists emphasize behavior itself and set rules those are determined as the best to live accordingly, teleologists consider the consequences and behave to get more desirable goods.

Deontological and teleological evaluations that have direct influence on ethical judgment occur on some degree (Hunt & Vitell, 2006). They argue that some people do not engage in teleological evaluation as they think it is better to live according to accepted rules; so on their ethical judgment teleological evaluation do not take place. They also note that similar situation is also valid for deontological evaluation.

After ethical judgment, the model looks like Rest's model (1984), with addition of the direct effect of teleological evaluation on intention and feedback from actual behavior to the personal characteristics (Hunt & Vitell, 2006).

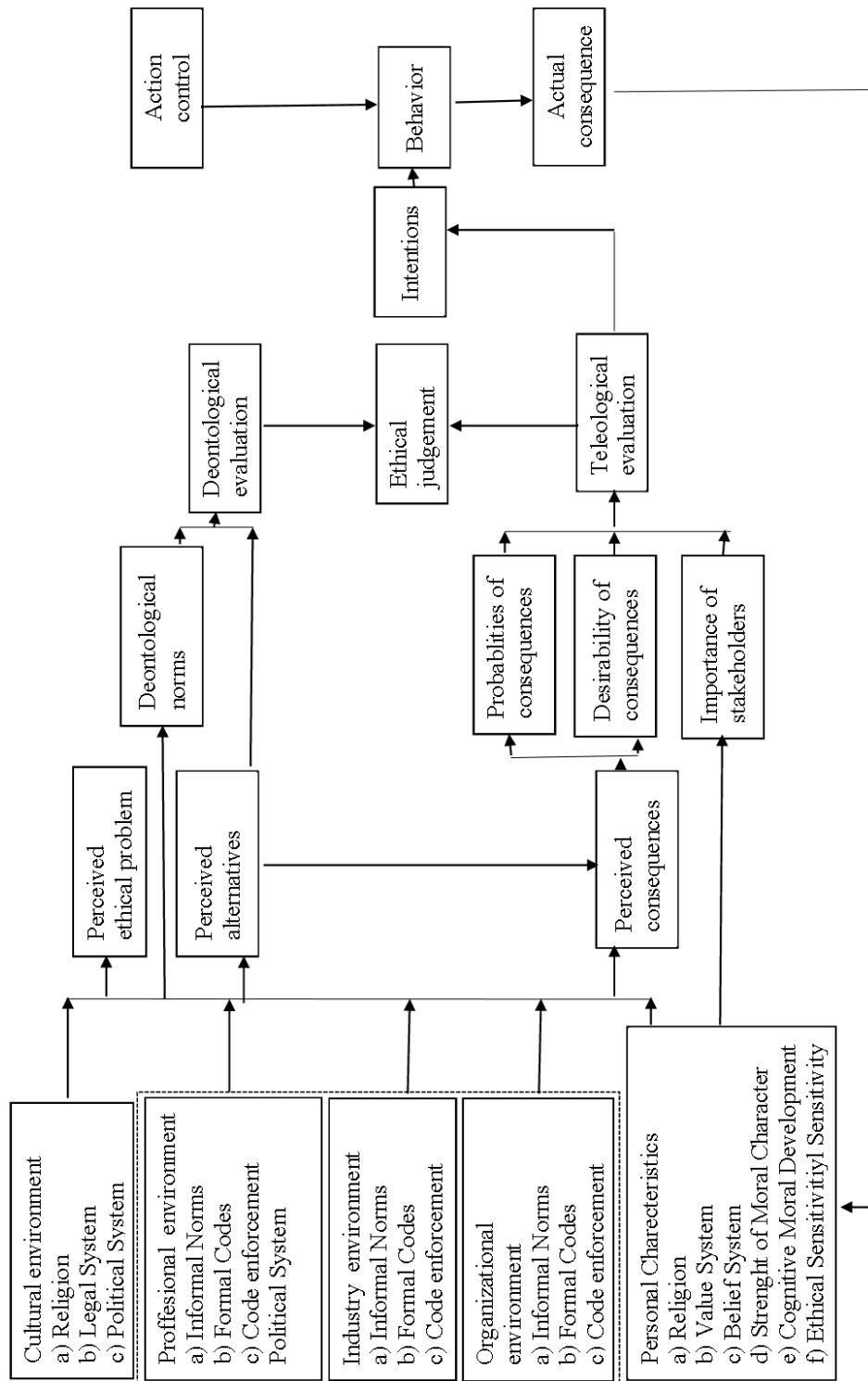


Figure 2.3 Hunt-Vitell Ethical Decision Making Model

2.1.1.5 Ferrell, Gresham and Fraedrich's Synthesis Integrated Model of Ethical Decision Making in Business

Ferrell, Gresham and Fraedrich (1989) after indicating the pros and cons of the Kohlberg's (1969) model of cognitive moral development, Ferrell and Gresham's (1985) contingency model of ethical decision making and the Hunt and Vitell's (1986) general theory of marketing ethics, proposed a synthesized model (see Figure 2.4). Their model begins with the identification of ethical dilemma that is the result of unsettled element of social and economic environment has caused (Ferrell et al., 1989). The process follows awareness, cognitions, moral evaluation, determination and finally action stages (Ferrell et al. 1989). Organizational culture, opportunity and individual factors affect the first four stages which are, at the same time, affected by the behavioral evaluation of the consequences of the actual behavior (Ferrell et al., 1989). It should be noted that while Rest (1984) combines cognitive moral development stage of the decision maker to moral judgment stage, Ferrell et al. (1989) put priority to moral evaluation where individuals make choice.

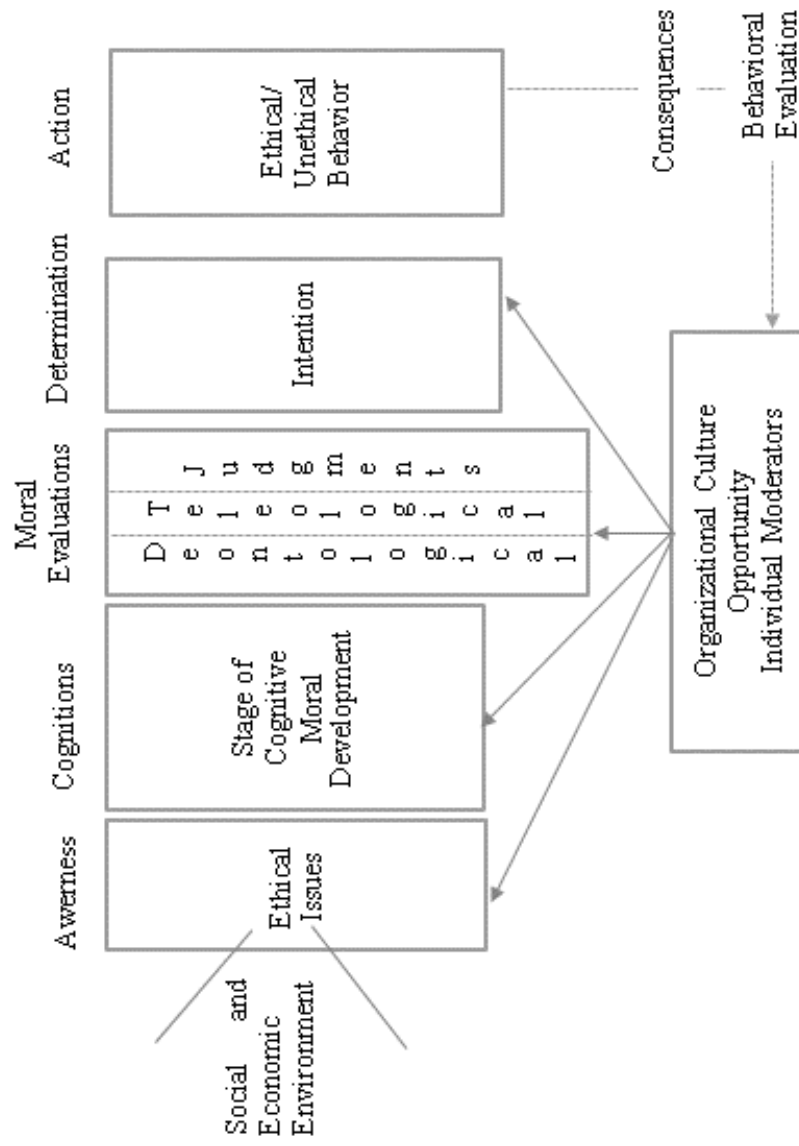


Figure 2.4 Ferrell, Gresham and Fraedrich's Synthesis Integrated Model of Ethical Decision Making (1989)

2.1.1.6 Boomer, Gratto, Gravander and Tuttle's Behavioral Model of Ethical and Unethical Decision Making

Boomer et al. (1987), put the ethical decision making process into the environmental factors in which decision making process is affected by the various environments, namely work environment, professional environment, personal environment, government/legal environment, social environment (see figure 2.5). They (1987) also include individual attributes factor. They argue when ethical dilemma is faced by considering the these environmental factors, decision maker construct a conceptual model of the situation and engage in a cognitive process to evaluate the situation with regard the individual attributes, after selecting the related information (1987). Decision maker can fall into mistake while choosing the most relevant information which can affect his decision making process in turn (Hogarth, 1980 cited in Boomer et al., 1987)

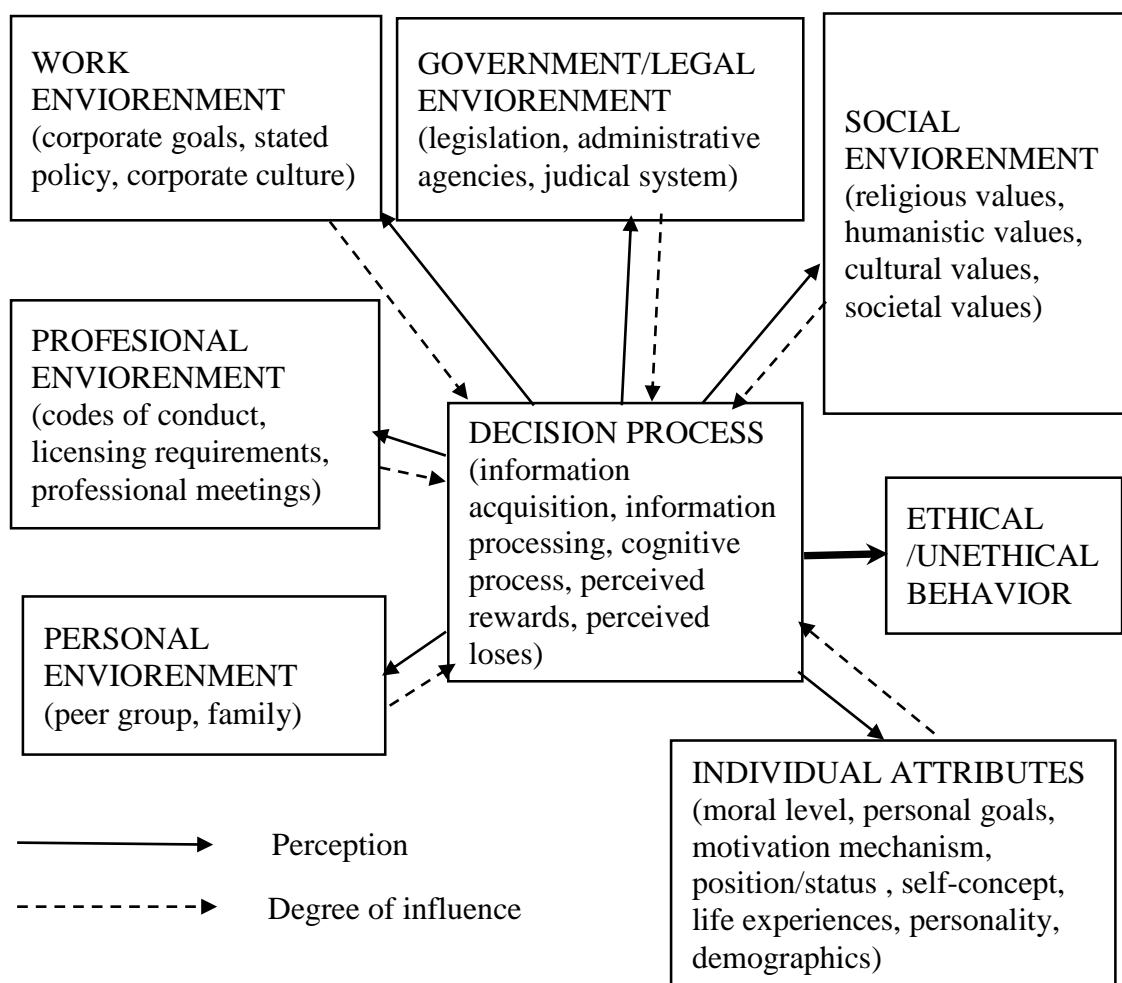


Figure 2.5 Boomer, Gratto, Gravander and Tuttle's Behavioral Model of Ethical and Unethical Decision Making (1987)

2.1.1.7 Jones's Issue-Contingent Model of Ethical Decision Making in Organizations

Jones's (1991) issue-contingent model of ethical decision making is also based on Rest (1984) model (see Figure 2.6). However, he has added organizational factors; group dynamics, authority factors and socialization processes which affect the moral intension and actual behavior. He also added another component, moral intensity, which affects all of the four stages (Jones, 1991). He also proposed six factors that constitute moral intensity component, namely magnitude of consequences, social consensus, probability of effect, temporal immediacy, proximity and concentration of

effect (Jones, 1991). Moral intensity reveals just because of the ethical issue itself (1991).

Magnitude of consequences is the total harm or benefits of the ethical issue to the victims or beneficiaries accordingly to chosen action. Jones (1991) exemplify this factor, as “An act that causes 1, 000 people to suffer a particular injury is of greater magnitude of consequence than an act that causes 10 people to suffer the same injury”

Social consensus is the level of the social agreement on the ethical issue. Jones (1991) proposes that social consensus decrease the ambiguity in ethical issue. He exemplifies this factor, as “bribing in Texas involves greater evil than bribing in Mexico in the perceptions of the given societies” (Jones, 1991).

Probability of effect refers to possibility of the ethically criticized act to harm others. Jones (1991) proposes that perceived increase on the probability of harming others due to the given act will reduce the possibility of engagement the act. One of his examples is “selling a gun to a known armed robber has greater probability of harm than selling a gun to a law-abiding citizen” (Jones, 1991).

Temporal immediacy is the time that the consequences of the ethically questionable act emerge. Shorter time indicates greater immediacy (Jones, 1991). Jones (1991) exemplifies this factor, “releasing a drug which has a side effect that emerges just after taking it has greater temporal immediacy, than the drug which side effect emerge after tens of years”.

Proximity of the ethical issue is the perception of the nearness of the evil in the act (Jones, 1991). Closeness of the affected people from the ethical issue includes greater proximity. His example for this factor is “selling a dangerous good to a U.S. citizens has greater proximity than exporting it to a Latin American markets for a U.S. seller”.

Concentration of effect is the change in perception of the ethical issue with regard the inversed relation with the given magnitude and the affected people (Jones, 1991). Jones (1991) exemplifies this “a change in a warranty policy denying coverage to 10 people with claims of \$10,000 has a more concentrated effect than a change denying coverage to 10,000 people with claims of \$10.00”.

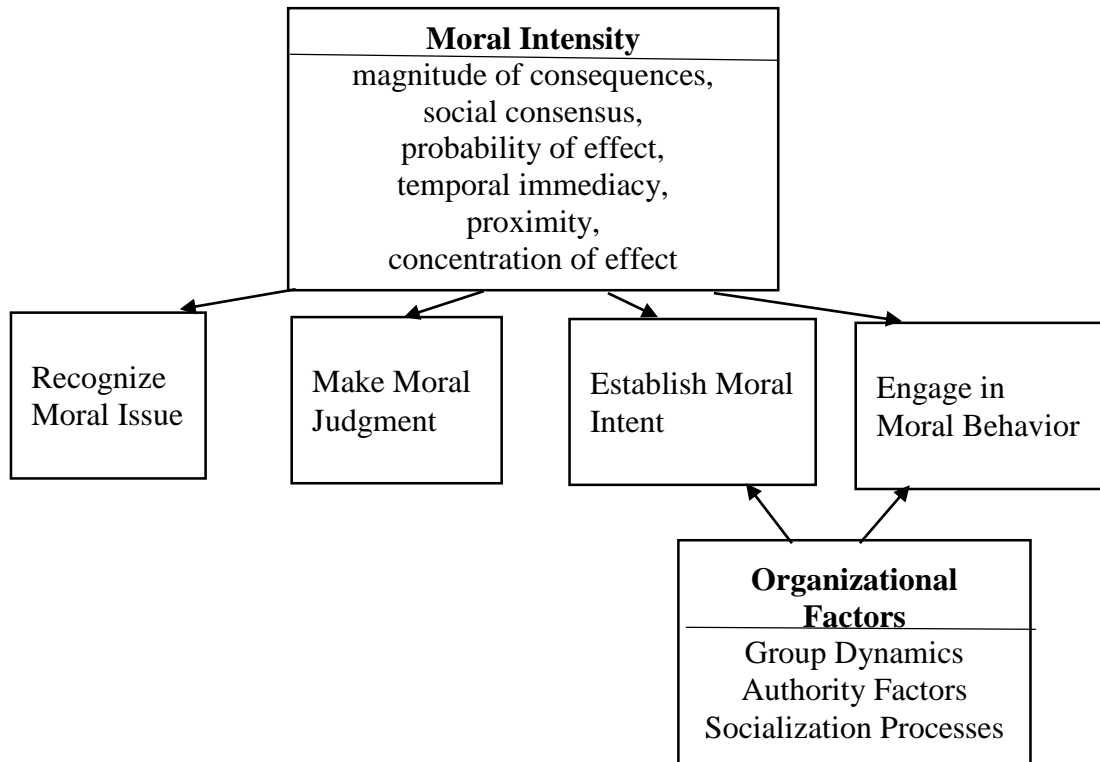


Figure 2.6 Jones’s Ethical Decision Making Model

As can be seen above, models introduced have some similarities and differences. Trevino (1986) and Bommer et al. (1987) both suggest a direct link to behavior from ethical judgment or decision process. But, Jones (1991) Ferrell, Gresham and Freadrich (1989), Hunt and Vitell (1986) and, Rest (1994) put an intention establishment phase to the ethical decision making. This is coherent with the reasoned action approach discussed below. Addition of this phase seems logical, as Rest (1994) suggests, sometimes other values may go ahead the ethical values. One may judge the situation and have an idea of the ethicality of the possible act, but benefits for decision maker or for the important others may direct him/her against the previous judgments.

Ethical decision making models of Ferrell, Gresham and Fredrich (1989), Hunt and Vitell (1986) and the early model of Ferrell and Gresham (1985) have feedback loops in their models. Although this loops seems to be important as people shape their future acts according to previous experiences, other models seems to neglect this important factor. While rewards or punishments can be accepted as feedbacks, seeing the results of the act on the ones affected by the act can also be considered as feedback.

It should also be noted that ethical decision making model of Jones (1991) is the only model that gives emphasis on the issue contingencies. All of the phases in the Rest's (1994) ethical decision making model are open the impact of the characteristics of the moral dilemma in Jones (1991) proposition. By considering all one may argue that present models can be integrated to shape a more comprehensive ethical decision making model.

2.1.2 Reasoned Action Approach

The main purpose of this study is to understand if the teachers may engage in an unethical act for the sake of the key stakeholders, for that reason, understanding of how people's beliefs or attitudes affect their intentions and so their behavior is important. Indeed in IT contexts theory of reasoned action is generally used for understanding ethical decision making (Yoon, 2011). In this section Reasoned action approach (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) is discussed as a model for predicting behavior.

Reasoned action approach is a refined form and a new label for the theoretical framework purposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010). The approach was first labelled as "theory of reasoned action" (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980, Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Initial theory has two important constructs; subjective norms and attitude. These two constructs, together, constitute intention which, in turn, is the best predictor of behavior. Later, Ajzen (1985, 1991) added perceived behavioral control for improving the model and relabeled as "The Theory of Planned Behavior" (TPB). Later on, they have begun to use the term "Reasoned Action Approach" (RAA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

The reasoned action approach proposes that behavioral intentions are best predictors of the behavior. Intentions, on the other hand, are constructed by attitude toward the behavior, normative norms, and perceived control. Attitudes are the beliefs about the results of the possible consequences; if the interested act is carried out, they can be either negative or positive. Perceived norms on the other hand, are the normative beliefs, about the acceptability of the behavior by the significant others or the possibility of the performing the action by the significant other. Finally, perceived control is beliefs about personal and environmental factors that may support or hinder the actualization of the behavior. In addition, these three constructs are assumed to be likely affected by the background factors, such as; personality, mood, values, perceived risk, age, gender, income, religion and so on (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

Models or approaches discussed above form this study. However, models, as can be expected, try to explain how ethical or unethical behavior carried out when faced with an ethical dilemma. Although some models, make some emphasis on significant others, none of them explain an introduction of unethical act by a significant other, or as in this study a stakeholder. Indeed, sometimes, an important one or a group may want something unethical and the consequences of this act may be beneficial for them rather than the decision maker who actualized the behavior.

However, reasoned action approach may give an explanation for these kinds of situations. Introduction of an unethical act wish by a significant other can be asserted as background factor. But, reasoned action approach, on the other hand, is not designed for circumstances that includes ethical dilemma; therefore, it does not recognize the importance of the ethical judgment. In addition, the introduced ethical dilemma may be issue-contingent as proposed by Jones (1991). Carrying out an unethical act may depend on the moral intensity that the issue involves.

However, Jones' (1991) model also consists of some issues to consider. First, the validity studies did not support the proposed six dimensions (e.g. Barnett, 1996; McMahan, 2002; 2006). Barnett et al. (1996) proposed four dimensional factor

solution for moral intensity. Singhapakdi, Vitell and Kraft (1996) however found support to two factor solution, where magnitude of consequences, the probability of effect, the temporal immediacy, and the concentration of effect components loaded in a one factor which labeled as perceived potential harm, and social consensus and the proximity components loaded in another factor labeled as "perceived social pressure". Leitsch (2006) also, suggested two factor solution; 'perceived corporate concern' which covered magnitude of consequences, social consensus, probability of effect, temporal immediacy, and proximity, and 'perceived involvement effect' which only covered the concentration of effect. In her dissertation, where a comprehensive dimensionality study was carried out, McMahan (2002) found support for the three dimensional solution for the moral intensity construct; and re-labeled these dimensions as; probable magnitude of consequences, proximity, and social consensus. Moreover, *Social consensus* dimension of moral intensity was handled both social and legal considerations together in Jones' model. His examples discussed in social consensus dimension, indeed, come from two distinct events in one of which a legality of the act is the main concern. But, it can be arguable that socially accepted norms may not always be legal. As an example, marriages under the age of 16 for females and 18 for males are forbidden by law in Turkey. However, some cliques in Turkish society can regard such marriages normal. McMahan (2000, 2006) also do not mention about this issue. Indeed, some models (e.g. Bommer et al. 1987) recognize the importance of legal environment. In this study, legality of the action is added to McMahons' three factor solution as a distinct factor of moral intensity.

For those reasons, engaging in an unethical act for the sake of stakeholder is thought to be explained by an integration of both ethical decision making models and the reasoned action approach by considering the moral intensity factors.

2.2 Research on Ethical Behavioral Intention

In this part, previous research findings regarding to ethical behavioral intentions are presented. Firstly findings of previous research on the effect of independent variables; namely; years of employment, gender and level of the organization is discussed. Later, the effect of ethical orientation and moral intensity is discussed.

2.2.1 Years of employment

Research regarding the impact of the years of employment showed contradictory results. Dubinsky and Ingriam (1984) found no significant correlation between ethical conflict and the variables such as years in the current position and the years in the sector among sales managers. Serwinek (1992) also found no significant correlation between years in the profession and ethical attitudes among the insurance agency employees. Callan (1992) similarly found no relation between years of experience and the ethical values among officials. Roozen, De Pelsmacker and Bosty (2001) found that years in the profession has no significant effect on the perception of ethical issues; however, they also indicated that years of experience had negative effect on the ethical attitudes. Forte (2004) found no significant relation between work experience and moral reasoning abilities of managers who works in the Fortune 500 companies.

On the other hand, Kidwell, Stevens and Bethke (1987), found that higher years of experience in the work yielded more ethical responses. Similarly, Larkin (2000) found that experienced employees had a tendency to be more conservative in ethical interpretations in his study where vignettes were used for assessing the ethicality of a situation. McCullough and Faught (2005) also found similar results that experience was significantly related with the tendency to be more conservative or moralistic among the students (2005). Eweje and Brunton (2010) argued that experience caused to be more ethically oriented among students; however, it should be noticed that students may have limited work experience. Pflugrath, Martinov-Bennie, and Chen (2007) found that years of experience increase the quality of ethical judgments in their study where professional accountants and auditing students were their sample.

Valentine, and Rittenburg's (2007) study also indicated ethical judgments and intentions were positively related with work experience which was conducted among professionals working in Spanish and American organizations. Weeks, Moore, McKinney and Longenecker (1999) similarly found that business people who were in the higher stages of their career had significantly higher ethical judgment scores. Cohen et al. (2001) found significant differences between students starting business studies, senior students and professional accountants for the three of the eight vignettes used in the study for measuring the intention, where the professionals showed least willingness to act unethically compared to two student groups. Latif (2001) found that years of experience had a significant negative effect on moral reasoning abilities of the pharmacists. Armstrong, Williams, and Barrett, (2004) also found that a management team's tenure increased their possibility of committing and unethical act also increased. Similarly, Chaves, Wiggins and Yolas (2001) found that CEOs' tenure was negatively correlated with ethical decision making, where data were gathered from CEOs according to Forbes magazine List of year 1996. These results were contradictory with Kidwell et al.'s (1987), Larkin's (2000), Eweje and Brunton's (2010) and McCullough and Faught's (2005) studies where experience seems to result a more conservative ethical judgments.

Differently, Pierce and Sweeney (2010) found that least experienced group and the group which had more than two years showed higher levels of ethical decision making where the group which had an experience of 1 to 2 years has shown lower levels of ethical decision making among trainee accountants.

By considering the results discussed above it can be said that years of experience had different impact on the selected sample. None of the studies above included employees from public sector and more specifically the teachers. Examining the years of the employment, after controlling for the moral philosophy orientation, among teachers who works in public schools can be helpful for the management literature. Studies mentioned above did not control the mediating effect of the moral philosophy orientations of the participants while examining the impact of the years of experience.

2.2.2 Gender

Gender has been one of the most reported variables in the existing studies (Craft, 2013; Ford, & Richardson, 1994). Although O'Fallon and Butterfield (2005) reported only four findings regarding the relationship between gender and intent, Craft's review (2013) indicated an increase on this aspect where 14 findings were cited. However, gender was also examined in relation with other dimensions of ethical decision making. In this part, findings with regard to gender and ethical decision making were discussed not only considering the intend dimension, but also three other basic ethical decision making constructs primarily proposed by Rest (1986) and the findings regarding the gender and moral philosophy orientation were also discussed.

In their study conducted with undergraduate students, Jones and Kavanagh (1996) found that gender was not related with unethical behavioral intention. Shafer, Morris and Ketchand (2001) also found similar findings that gender was not related with both ethical intentions and ethical judgment in their study among auditors in which vignettes were used for measuring the ethical judgments and intentions. Street and Street (2006) found that gender was not a significant predictor of unethical act intention in their study conducted among graduate students. On the other hand, Sweeney, Arnold and Pierce (2010) found that in their scenario based study that was conducted among auditors females were better at evaluation of act's ethicality on one of the scenario which was less unethical; however, females also were found to have more propensity to act unethically. In addition, females were found to be responding more to unethical pressure although there were no differences between genders with regard to perceived unethical pressure.

Singhapakdi (1999), on the other hand, found that there was a significant gender difference on ethical intentions among marketing professionals in all three scenarios, where females seemed to be more disagreeing with unethical act. But, there were no gender differences on ethical perceptions. Cohen et al. (2001) also found that females were less willing to act for unethical act in their studies in most of the vignettes.

Beekun, Stedham, Westerman and Yamamura (2010) in their comprehensive cross-cultural study regarding the effect of gender on ethical decision making, found that women were affected by the culture and tradition while giving ethical decisions, and they seemed to be more particularistic and utilitarian in contrast to men who seemed to be more universalistic. In other words, women seemed to consider more contextual situations whereas men relied on more universal rules while giving decisions on ethical issues. However, women's ethical considerations affected more by uncertainty avoidance than their men counterparts. In addition, men seemed to be considering the justice only on the other hand women relied on both justice and utilitarianism. Elango, Paul, Kundu and Paudel (2010) also found that gender was significantly related with ethical intentions, where women's score was higher in their study conducted among graduate students with work experience; however, they also added that this was not very strong and indicating a slight difference. Marta, Singhapakdi and Kraft (2008) found that female managers who were working in small companies with 500 or fewer employees had a more tendency to act ethically when compared to their male counterparts. Oumlil and Balloun (2009) found that female managers were more likely to behave ethically for both American and Moroccan samples. Valentine and Rittenburg (2007) also reported similar findings that female participants' intention to behave ethically was higher than male participants. Eweje and Brunton (2010) found that female students were more sensitive to ethical issues.

The impact of gender as in the case of years of experience has contradictory results. Similarly, sample selection the studies in general based on students and employees from primarily private business sectors. Although this study's sample selection is thought to be important for the literature, there is no prediction could be done for the impact of the gender. In addition, mediating effect of the moral philosophy orientation was not taken into consideration in the previous studies.

2.2.3 Level of the organization

No specific research examining the relationship between organizational level and the ethical behavioral intentions could be detected. However, Forte (2004) examined the relationship between management levels of the decision makers and their ethical reasoning abilities. The results indicated no significant differences for management levels in terms of ethical reasoning. In parallel with Forte (2004), this research looks for the differences among teachers by considering their organizational levels; primary secondary and high school. Although there is a clear ranking nature in Forte's categorization (top, middle and first-line managers), categorization of this study is not clearly based on a natural ranking. In other words, MONE does not formally rank the teachers according to the levels they teach. Nevertheless teachers' rights and responsibilities are determined with different laws according to their branches and level of the organization, for this reason there may be an informal ranking perception among teachers working at different school levels.

2.2.4 Ethical orientation

Previous research has contradictory results on the relationship between ethical orientation and ethical behavioral intentions. For example, Valentine and Bateman (2011) found that individuals who were using less realistic ethical ideologies were more likely to have a tendency to act ethically in their study conducted among students that had some degree of work experience and used scenarios for measuring the ethical intention. On the other hand, Bass, Barnett and Brown (1998) found that both relativism and idealism scores of sales managers did not significantly differ from other marketers. They also suggested that idealism and relativism were affected by gender and educational level in an overall ANCOVA model where age was entered as a covariate. They indicated that as the age got older the idealism scores also increased while the situation was contrariwise to relativism. They added that relativism scores of female managers were somewhat higher but not statistically significant. In addition, they proposed that idealism was the key dimension of moral philosophy that was related to ethical judgment of their sample rather than the relativism dimension. Yet,

they also suggested that personal moral philosophy orientation of the sales managers was not related with the ethical behavioral intentions. Similarly, Marta et al. (2008) found that personal moral philosophy orientations of small business managers were not a significant predictor of their ethical intentions. Bass et al (1999) in an another article which seemed that using same sample or data above but using path analysis, found that idealism was negatively related with ethical judgments whereas, no significant findings were found between idealism and ethical behavioral intention. However relativism scores were not significantly correlated with both ethical judgments and behavioral intentions. In their study, Eastman, Eastman and Tolson (2001) found no relation between patient care intention and moral philosophy orientation dimensions which is conducted among doctors.

In contrast, Rallapalli, Vitell and Barnes (1998) found that marketers ethical judgment was influenced both by their deontological and teleological evaluations. In addition, they found support for the relation between their ethical behavioral intentions and teleological evaluations. Akaah (1997) also found that deontological evaluations of marketing professionals were the primary predictor of their ethical judgment whereas teleological evaluation was the secondary. Singhapakdi, Salyachivin, Virakul and Veerayangkur (2000), in their scenario based study, similarly found support for the positive relation between idealism and ethical intention in three of four scenarios. In contrast, they also found evidence that relativism was negatively correlated with ethical behavioral intention. Shapeero, Koh and Killuogh (2003) also found that accountants preferred the consequences based approach for the ethical issues that did not contain great considerations whereas changed their approach for the ethical issues containing that needed higher considerations. Sivadis, Kleiser, Kellaris and Dahstrom (2003) found that relativism scores of managers were associated with their hiring a sales person intention who did ethically problematic act; however their idealism scores were not significantly related with their ethical judgment and hiring intention. Singhapakdi, Vitell and Franke (1999) found that personal moral philosophies had an impact on the perceived moral intensity (PMI). While idealism, which is one of the dimensions of the personal moral philosophies, increases PMI, relativism decreases PMI (Singhapakdi et al, 1999). Özyer and Azizoglu (2010) found that relativism scores

of employees differs according to gender while there were no significant differences found on idealism scores. In addition, Özyer and Azizoğlu (2010) found that age is not related with both idealism and relativism as well as their educational level. Finally, they (2010) stated that religiosity of people was not related with their idealism while relativism scores differ significantly, as relativism scores decrease, religiosity increases.

As can be understood from the previous study findings, effect of the ethical philosophy orientations on ethical behavioral intentions is, also, not clear or may have different impact on different samples or cultures. However in general findings suggest no relation or positive relation between idealism and ethical behavioral intention while the situation is contradictory for relativism.

2.2.5 Moral intensity

Karacaer, Gohar, Aygün and Sayın (2009) found that personal value preferences had an influence on auditors' perceptions of moral intensity among accountants from Turkey and Pakistan, and they also suggested that strong organizational and professional norms had a significant effect on behavior as a standardizer. Leitsch (2004) found that proximity, magnitude of consequences, concentration of effect, and probability of effect were perceived as more important among accounting students. In addition, Leitsch (2004) reported that ethical intentions were affected by moral intensity components. In another study conducted by Leitsch (2006) where the initial six dimensional moral intensity construct was divided into two categories as mentioned above, "perceived corporate concern" and "perceived involvement effect", the first dimension perceived corporate concern found to be a predictor of ethical behavioral intentions for two of four scenarios. However, the effect of the second dimension to ethical behavioral intentions was not mentioned. The author also warned the readers as their sample was consisted of students with no or limited work experience.

Shafer and Simmons (2011) found that in a low moral intensity situation, unethical behavioral intentions were significantly higher if managers in their organizations were unethical and they rewarded unethical act in a study conducted among Chinese tax specialists. Valentine and Bateman (2011) also found that ethical behavioral intentions were positively related with moral intensity and the social consensus among undergraduate students. Robin, Reidenbach and Forrest (1996) in their study conducted among the managers in advertising sector, measured the moral intensity as the perceived importance of an ethical issue (PIE), and they have found that PIE was significantly and highly related with ethical intentions. PIE also found to be related with the moral judgment. Singhapakdi (1996) also found support that dimensions of moral intensity except the proximity were strongly related with the ethical behavioral intentions. Karande, Shankarmahesh, Rao, and Rahsid (2000) found that American managers perceived higher levels of moral intensity than their Malaysian counterparts which indicated cultural differences on the perception of the moral intensity. Harrington (1997) also found that social consensus was related with the participants' ethical behavioral intentions in a positive way, however it should be noted that Harrington did not included all the components of moral intensity as postulated by the Jones (1991). Barnett (2001) also found that university students' perception of the seriousness of the consequences was weakly related with their ethical behavioral intentions, while seriousness of the consequences had a strong relation with their judgment. In addition, their perceived social consensus levels were related with their ethical awareness, judgment and intentions. Proximity levels were also found to be related with ethical intentions and judgments; however, perceived temporal immediacy did not show any relation with other ethical decision making dimensions. Paolillo and Vitell (2002) also found that moral intensity was related with ethical behavioral intentions of the business managers while ethical intentions were not related with organizational and personal factor in their study. However, Valentine and Hollingworth (2012) found that, after controlling for the effects of social desirability and perceived importance of moral ethical issue, the four measured components of moral intensity were not related with ethical behavioral intention of the business professionals.

2.3 Summary of the Literature Review

Results of previous studies on the factors discussed above imply that their impact on ethical behavioral intention differs according to sample selected or possibly the culture that sample was drawn. Studies discussed above were conducted by very distinct samples; students, accountants, doctors, managers and so on. So, it is very likely to have different results from different samples. In addition, samples live in different countries that have possibly different cultural characteristics. Another possible factor that causes different results, may be the methodological differences applied in the studies. It is understood from the studies that different data collection methods applied. It is possible to see studies using vignettes and self-report questionnaires.

Additionally, it can also be said that the literature is still developing. Except from having contradictory results, there also needs some consideration regarding the ethical decision making model. As discussed before, none of the models fully cover the all possible factors. As an example, Jones (1991) issue contingent model do not indicate a feedback loop for the overall decision making process. However, this model (Jones, 1991) is the single model that gives emphasis to moral intensity factor. But it should also be noticed that dimensionality of the moral intensity still not clear. Although McMahon (2000) conducted a comprehensive study on this issue, it is good to consider that McMahon followed the Jones (1991) suggestion where social acceptance and legality of the given act is combined in a single factor while Bommer et al. (1987) handle legality as a distinct factor that have an impact on ethical decision making. It can be concluded that more research is needed that may be conducted among different work settings, cultures and among different samples in order to get more clear understanding on ethical decision making.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

In this chapter, the method followed for addressing the research question is presented. First of all, overall design of the study was introduced; then population and sample, data collection instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures and the limitations were discussed.

3.1 Design of the Study

The causal-comparative study design from the quantitative studies was suggested as potent design alternatives when the purpose is to compare and contrast groups on certain constructs (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). This study aims to describe the characteristics of the target group, teachers working in public schools and to determine possible differences among teachers on ethical positions and the openness to influence of stakeholders. This study was designed as two fold. Firstly it was aimed to describe the influence of the key stakeholders on teachers' intention to violate their ethical decisions for the sake of the stakeholders and to describe the moral philosophy orientations of teachers. Second, it was aimed to investigate the possible impact of the stakeholders on teachers' ethical behavioral intentions after controlling for the moral philosophy orientations of the teachers; (namely years of experience, gender and the level of the organization). In Figure 3.1 proposed investigation of the possible relations are presented, where two direct arrow lines are the main concern of this study.

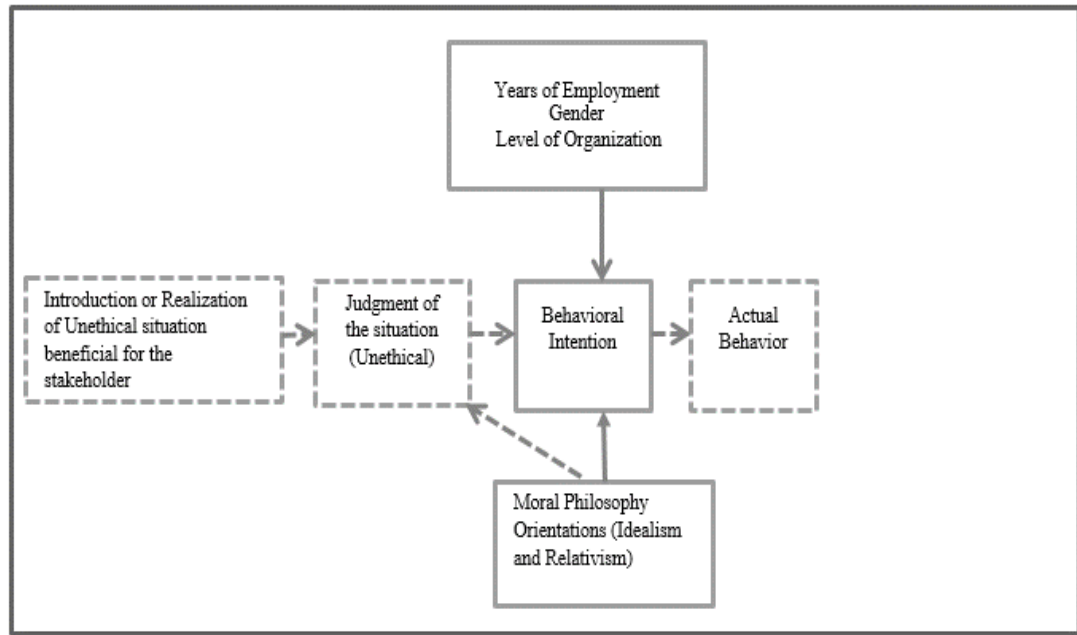


Figure 3.1 Proposed possible relations

3.2 Population and Sample

The population of the study consists of the teachers who work in public schools in Ankara, Turkey. The population was restricted by central districts of the Ankara Province for several reasons. First of all, the instrument needs to be applied by a qualified researcher; in addition, approximate filling time of the questionnaire takes nearly 25 to 35 minutes which obstruct the response rate and willingness to participate. Second, it was difficult for the researcher to travel to randomly selected provinces of Turkey and reach teachers to participate the study. In addition, recruitment and teacher mobility policy of MONE, causes Ankara to have a good pool of teachers for representing teachers in Turkey, as any teacher who works in a province of Turkey may start to work in a public school in Ankara due to his/her special excuses such as; marriage, graduate education, health problems etc. almost any time. Third, a stratified cluster sampling was used as a sampling procedure since it was impossible to gather all the teachers' contact information from authorities, rather whole list of the schools grouped into nine districts was obtained from the Ankara Provincial Directorate of

National Education; namely Altındağ, Çankaya, Etimesgut, Gölbaşı, Keçiören, Mamak, Pursaklar, Sincan, and Yenimahalle districts.

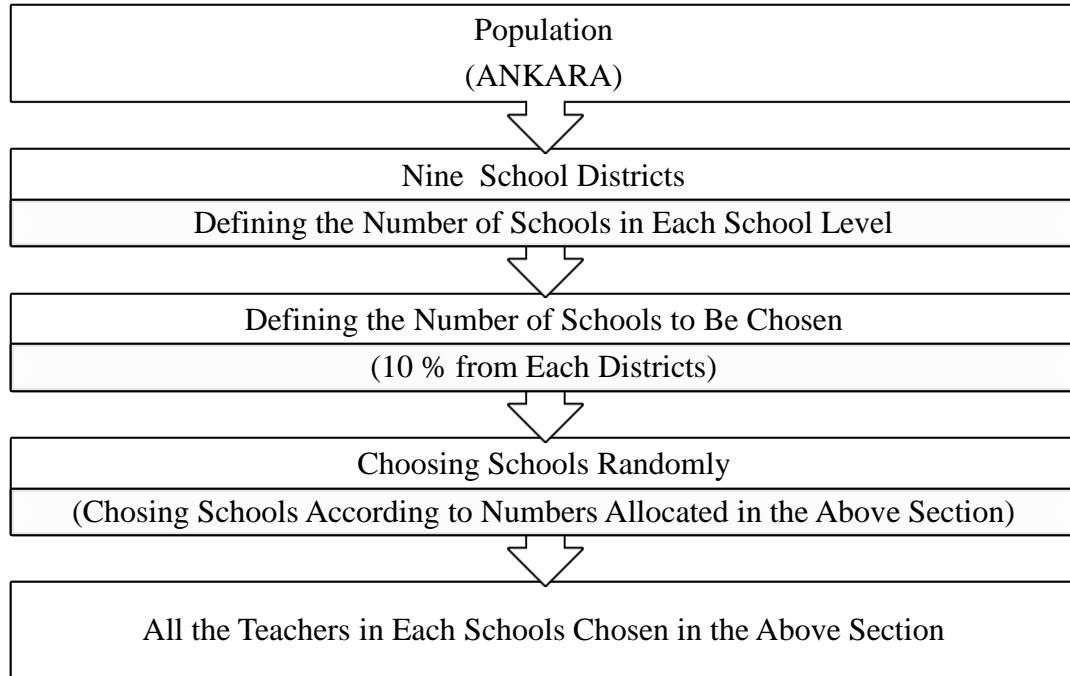


Figure 3.2 Sample Selection Steps

Some educational organizations were excluded from the study, such as adult education centers, guidance and counseling centers or special education centers since they offer education for diverse age groups for special aims. As can be seen in Table 3.1, there were 1102 schools in these districts in total. Equal proportions of schools were chosen from each district. Later, again same proportions of schools were chosen randomly from each level of schools. By this way, ten per cent of schools from each district were chosen by considering the school numbers in each level. In total, 111 schools were chosen for the main study. Numbers of the schools chosen from each district can be seen in Table 3.1. However, each school was visited once, and the teachers who were present were asked to participate in the study. Therefore, there was no control over the absent teachers for demanding their participation. In addition, numbers of teachers in schools were showing great variability; from six to eighties. In total, 540 questionnaires were collected. However, 32 of them were with missing data and some

other problems; e.g. unclear questionnaire to understand, forgetting to complete some pages etc. Analyses were conducted on 508 questionnaires.

Table 3.1

Number of schools and sampled schools in each district according to level of the organization

Name of The District	Preschools and Primary Schools		Secondary Schools		High Schools	
	Total	Selected	Total	Selected	Total	Selected
Altındağ	68	7	40	4	28	3
Çankaya	79	8	52	5	52	5
Etimesgut	45	5	28	3	17	2
Gölbaşı,	36	4	23	2	13	1
Keçiören	65	7	49	5	30	3
Mamak	78	8	49	5	31	3
Pursaklar	16	2	12	1	10	1
Sincan	50	5	41	4	22	2
Yenimahalle	83	8	43	4	42	4
Totals	520	54	337	33	245	24

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

An inventory consisting of two different scales and a demographic information form were used to collect data both for pilot and main study. The inventory consisted of these three parts as can be seen in Appendix A. The first scale, the openness to violation of ethical decisions for the sake of the stakeholders scale (OVED), was developed for this study. In the second scale, Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ), which was developed by Forsyth (1980) and translated into Turkish by Marta et al. (2012) was used to measure the teachers' idealism and relativism levels. Although this questionnaire was also used by Özyer and Azizoglu (2010), they did not give any information about adaptation process and about reliability and validity evidence in Turkish context. Lastly, questions related to demographic information were included. In addition, a separate informed consent form was given to participants at the beginning and a debriefing form was given after the completion of the inventory (see

Appendix B and C). Each part of the inventory was explained further below with regards to reliability and validity considerations.

3.3.1 OVED scale

The items in this scale were created by considering McMahon's (2006; 2002) study on dimensionality of moral intensity and the Bommer et al. (1987) propositions with regard to key stakeholders. As indicated above, McMahon (2006; 2002) suggested moral intensity has three dimensions; magnitude of consequences, proximity and the social consensus. Accordingly, items were constructed to reflect these dimensions for both in high moral intensity and low moral intensity conditions by also considering the legality of the situation as proposed by Bommer et al. A total of 32 items were developed; 16 items included high moral intensity by considering the four key stakeholders; colleagues, management, parents and students; and the other 16 items included low moral intensity, also, by considering the key stakeholders. Items were developed as 9 point Likert type, similar to other scales in ethics literature (e.g., Forsthy, 1980). Validity and reliability studies of the scale were discussed below.

3.3.1.1 Content and face validity of OVED scale

Content validity refers the appropriateness of the content, adequacy of the items for representing the target content, and appropriateness of the format and content with the definition of the variable and the sample of subjects (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Gay et al. (2006) handle content validity as item validity and sampling validity. Item validity is concerned if the items in the instrument are related with the intended content area, whereas sampling validity is about the how well the instrument arranged to reflect the total content area to be measured. On the other hand, face validity refers the format of instrument in terms of clarity of printing, font size, adequacy of workspace, comprehensibility of the language, and clarity of the direction (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

In order to provide content and face validity of the scale, first relevant literature was reviewed. All of the items were developed according to the previous theoretical and

empirical studies. Initially, two forms were developed; in the first form items were written independently from each other; however, in the second form, by considering that the basic parts of the items were the same for the four stakeholders, only the basic parts of the items were written and under the items stakeholders were located for rating. In the second form, 32 items were grouped into eight for rating. Sample items of the two forms were given in Table 3.2. Later both forms were sent to three experts for getting opinion on content coverage and face validity for the first time. At the same time five interviews were conducted with teachers to get their opinions. After getting both experts' and teachers' opinions, the second form was chosen for the study. According to the feedback received from the experts and the teachers, some minor changes were made, and the second form was sent again to seven experts and to ten teachers for a second review. After getting their opinions, the final corrections were made.

Table 3.2
Sample Items from the OVED scale

Sample items from First Form
To what extent do you perform an unethical act for the happiness, wellbeing or the demand of your <u>students</u> even if someone you know might be affected negatively?
To what extent do you perform an unethical act for the happiness, wellbeing or the demand of your <u>colleagues</u> even if someone you know might be affected negatively?
Sample Items from the Second Form
To what extent do you perform an unethical act for the happiness, wellbeing or the demand of the people or groups below, even if someone you know might be affected negatively?
For My Student (s)
For my Manager/Vice manager
For my Students' Parents
For my colleagues

3.3.1.2. Construct validity of OVED scale

Construct validity is the ability of the instrument for measuring the hypothetical psychological construct to be tested, non-observable traits such as; intelligence, attitude, anxiety and so on (Gay, et al., 2006; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). For the OVED scale, factor analysis was conducted in the pilot study with a sample of 176 teachers. Since the items were constructed to consist of high and Low moral intensity, two separate factor analyses were conducted for both of them.

3.3.1.2.1. Factor analysis on OVED scale

Kaiser - Meyer - Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Before conducting explanatory factor analysis, Kaiser - Meyer - Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test results were checked by dividing the measure into two dependent parts. KMO results for items that include high levels of moral intensity was .79 and .80 for morally low intense items (Table 3.3). Results of Barlett's Test of Sphericity which tests the null hypothesis that the item to item correlation matrix was an identity matrix indicated Chi-Square values 2539.039 for items that include high moral intensity and 2752.329 for items that include low moral intensity, both of the results were significant ($p < .00$) indicating that item to item correlation matrixes were not identity matrixes and hence suitable for conducting factor analysis (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3

KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

			High	Low
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin	Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.79	.80
Bartlett's	Test of Approx. Chi-Square		2539.04	2752.33
Sphericity	df		120	120
	Sig.		.00	.00

Principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation and Kaiser Normalization were used since the data did not show normal distribution properties. Results showed that, although initial eigenvalues indicated five factor solutions for both high moral intensity items and the low moral intensity items, rotated results indicated only four factor solutions for both of the high moral intensity items; and low moral intensity items where eigenvalues had values greater than 1. In addition, when factor loadings were inspected, items that created the fifth factors on both the high and low moral intensity situations were also loaded in other factors. Moreover, when four factor solutions were forced it was seen that primary four factor solutions were coherent with forced four factor analysis results. Inspection of the items that were loaded into two different factors yielded that those items were all about one stakeholder, students, however with lower loading values. For those reasons four factor solutions were found appropriate, with a caution that some stakeholder may have an impact on the intensity of the moral situation.

As can be seen in Table 3.4, eigenvalues of the factors were, for the high moral intensity items, 6.73 for the first factor that explain 42.07 of the total variance, 2.84 for the second factor that explained the 17.75 of the total variance, 1.42 for the third factor that explained 8.85 of the total variance, and 1.39 for the last factor that explained 8.68 of the total variance. In total four factors seemed to be explaining the 77.35 per cent of the variance. Factor loadings and factor correlation matrix can be seen in Appendix D and E.

Table 3.4

Total Variance Explained for High Moral Intense Conditions

Facto	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total
1	6.73	42.07	42.07	6.51	40.69	40.69	4.80
2	2.84	17.75	59.82	2.61	16.29	56.98	3.79
3	1.42	8.85	68.67	1.20	7.51	64.49	4.43
4	1.39	8.68	77.35	1.14	7.12	71.61	3.92
5	1.02	6.38	83.73	0.77	4.80	76.41	0.82
6	0.57	3.58	87.32				
7	0.52	3.25	90.57				
8	0.35	2.20	92.77				
9	0.27	1.71	94.48				
10	0.19	1.18	95.66				
11	0.17	1.08	96.74				
12	0.16	1.03	97.76				
13	0.13	0.81	98.57				
14	0.10	0.60	99.16				
15	0.09	0.55	99.71				
16	0.05	0.29	100.00				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Eigenvalues of the factors were, for the low moral intensity items, 6.65 for the first factor that explain 41.56 of the total variance, 2.71 for the second factor that explained the 16.94 of the total variance, 1.77 for the third factor that explained 11.08 of the total variance, and 1.60 for the last factor that explained 10.03 of the total variance (Table 3.5). In total, four factors seemed to be explaining the 79.61 per cent of the variance. Factor loadings and factor correlation matrix can be seen in Appendix F and G.

Table 3.5

Total Variance Explained for Low Moral Intense Conditions

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction	Sums of Squared	Rotation
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative % Total			
1	6.65	41.56	41.56	6.46	40.36	4.17
2	2.71	16.94	58.50	2.53	15.80	4.12
3	1.77	11.08	69.58	1.60	10.00	4.27
4	1.60	10.03	79.61	1.38	8.64	3.91
5	1.11	6.94	86.55	.92	5.74	.99
6	.53	3.28	89.84			
7	.38	2.39	92.23			
8	.27	1.71	93.93			
9	.20	1.22	95.15			
10	.18	1.09	96.24			
11	.16	.99	97.24			
12	.12	.73	97.97			
13	.10	.61	98.57			
14	.09	.54	99.11			
15	.08	.48	99.58			
16	.07	.42	100.00			

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Factors were named similar to McMahon's labeling (2000) by considering the additional factor legality which was not focus of the McMahon, and considered as whole with social acceptance in Jones's (1991) proposition. However, legality of the moral act seemed to be a distinct factor in this study, rather than a characteristic of social acceptance compatible with Bommer et al.'s (1987) propositions. Factors emerged in the factor analysis named as possible magnitude of consequences, social acceptance, proximity and legality which have both high and low conditions parallel to modifications of items.

3.3.1.3 Reliability and measurement model evaluation of OVED scale

It is commonly agreed that the distribution of the data set determines the specific type of SEM. Hair (2010) suggest that skewed data sets are appropriate for Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) rather than conventional covariance based structural equation model (CB-SEM). Since the data set of this study is skewed, PLS-SEM was conducted for confirmatory factor analysis. Parallel to this suggestion, Hair (2010) also suggests using PLS SEM for evaluating the measurement model when assumptions of Covariance Based Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM) were not met. In this study, Smart PLS 2.0 was used for carrying out the PLS-SEM analysis (Ringle, Wende & Will, 2005). Analysis was conducted by using data gathered at main study.

In PLS-SEM measurement model evaluations, first the internal consistency reliability is checked. Cronbach's α values of the each factor were above .90 except high proximity which also considerably high .88 (Table 3.6). However, PLS-SEM gives more importance to indicators' reliability (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). In PLS-SEM, it is advised to look at a different measure which can be interpretable similarly as Cronbach's α ; Composite reliability (Hair et al. 2006). Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) suggest .70 and above can be considered as evidence to internal consistency. In this study, for both the high morally intense OVED scale factors and morally low intense factors, all composite reliability values were above .90, and concluded as scale show high internal consistency (Table 3.6). In addition, factor loadings of the each indicator (items of the scale) should be higher than .50 (Hulland, 1999). All the indicators loadings in the models were higher than .50 as suggested by Hulland (1999) (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6

Factor Loadings, Cronbach's α , Composite Reliability and AVE values of the OVED scale factors

	Factor	Cronbach's	Composite	AVE
Magnitude of Consequences High		0.91	0.94	0.80
1. Item	0.85			
2. Item	0.93			
3. Item	0.91			
4. Item	0.88			
Social Acceptance		0.93	0.95	0.82
1. Item	0.86			
2. Item	0.90			
3. Item	0.91			
4. Item	0.94			
Legality High		0.91	0.94	0.79
1. Item	0.82			
2. Item	0.92			
3. Item	0.91			
4. Item	0.92			
Proximity High		0.88	0.92	0.74
1. Item	0.82			
2. Item	0.87			
3. Item	0.83			
4. Item	0.92			
Magnitude of Consequences Low		0.94	0.96	0.85
1. Item	0.87			
2. Item	0.95			
3. Item	0.93			
4. Item	0.94			
Social Acceptance		0.94	0.96	0.86
1. Item	0.90			
2. Item	0.95			
3. Item	0.91			
4. Item	0.95			
Legality Low		0.94	0.96	0.86
1. Item	0.89			
2. Item	0.94			
3. Item	0.92			
4. Item	0.95			
Proximity Low		0.92	0.94	0.81
1. Item	0.85			
2. Item	0.92			
3. Item	0.90			
4. Item	0.93			

In order to assess the convergent validity of the scale, which can be explained as representation of one and same underlying construct by a set of indicators (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009) AVE (average variance explained) values were checked. AVE value of .50 and above considered as sufficient evidence for convergent validity which can be interpreted as latent variable is able to explain more than half of the variance of its indicators (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). For both high and low morally intense OVED scale factors AVE values were all above .50 which was considered as sufficient evidence for convergent validity (Table 3.6).

In addition, discriminant validity, which refers to differentiability of any single construct from other constructs in the measurement model, was checked by both cross-loading inspection and Fornell and Lacker (1981) criterion. According the Fornell-Lacker criterion, a latent variable shares more variance with its assigned indicators than with other latent variables. For that reason, AVE value of the each variable should be greater than the latent variable's highest squared correlation with other latent variables. In table 3.7 and Table 3.8, highest squared correlations of the constructs were given. As can be seen in the table, any of the squared correlation values are lower than each constructs AVE values.

Table 3.7
Discriminant Validity Results of High Morally Intense Conditions

	Legality H	Magnitude H	Proximity H	Social Acceptance H
Legality H				
Magnitude H	0.41			
Proximity H	0.22	0.48		
Social Acceptance H	0.46	0.37	0.30	

Table 3.8

Discriminant Validity Results of Low Morally Intense Conditions

	Legality L	Magnitude L	Proximity L	Social Acceptance L
Legality L	1.00			
Magnitude L	0.34	1.00		
Proximity L	0.30	0.51	1.00	
Social acceptance L	0.52	0.39	0.31	1.00

In addition, cross-loading of the each indicator were checked. The loading of the each indicator variable should be greater than its any other cross-loadings (Hair 2010) Cross loadings of the OVED scale indicators is given in table 3.9 and 3.10. As can be seen in the table, none of the indicators has greater loadings in other constructs. By considering both the Fornell and Lacker criterion values and the cross-loading of the indicators, it was considered as sufficient evidence was found for discriminant validity. Proposed PLS SEM models can be seen in Figure 3.3 and 3.4

Table 3.9

Cross Loadings of High Morally Intense Items

	Legality H	Magnitude H	Proximity H	Social Acceptance H
Acch1	0.39	0.39	0.31	0.86
Acch2	0.41	0.29	0.24	0.90
Acch3	0.43	0.27	0.22	0.91
Acch4	0.42	0.36	0.31	0.94
Closeh1	0.15	0.4	0.82	0.23
Closeh2	0.23	0.44	0.87	0.28
Closeh3	0.17	0.37	0.83	0.25
Closeh4	0.21	0.43	0.92	0.28
Legh1	0.82	0.45	0.27	0.45
Legh2	0.92	0.33	0.15	0.36
Legh3	0.91	0.28	0.12	0.34
Legh4	0.92	0.36	0.22	0.43
Magh1	0.32	0.85	0.4	0.31
Magh2	0.39	0.93	0.46	0.34
Magh3	0.38	0.91	0.4	0.33
Magh4	0.36	0.88	0.44	0.34

Table 3.10

Cross Loadings of Low Morally Intense Items

	Legality L	Magnitude L	Proximity L	Social acceptance L
Accl1	0.46	0.35	0.35	0.90
Accl2	0.5	0.38	0.32	0.95
Accl3	0.48	0.33	0.19	0.91
Accl4	0.5	0.39	0.28	0.95
Cloسل1	0.22	0.4	0.85	0.24
Cloسل2	0.33	0.53	0.92	0.32
Cloسل3	0.24	0.42	0.90	0.28
Cloسل4	0.28	0.46	0.93	0.26
Legl1	0.89	0.31	0.34	0.49
Legl2	0.94	0.32	0.24	0.46
Legl3	0.92	0.28	0.18	0.44
Legl4	0.95	0.33	0.34	0.52
Magl1	0.28	0.87	0.48	0.33
Magl2	0.33	0.95	0.48	0.38
Magl3	0.31	0.93	0.46	0.39
Magl4	0.33	0.94	0.46	0.35

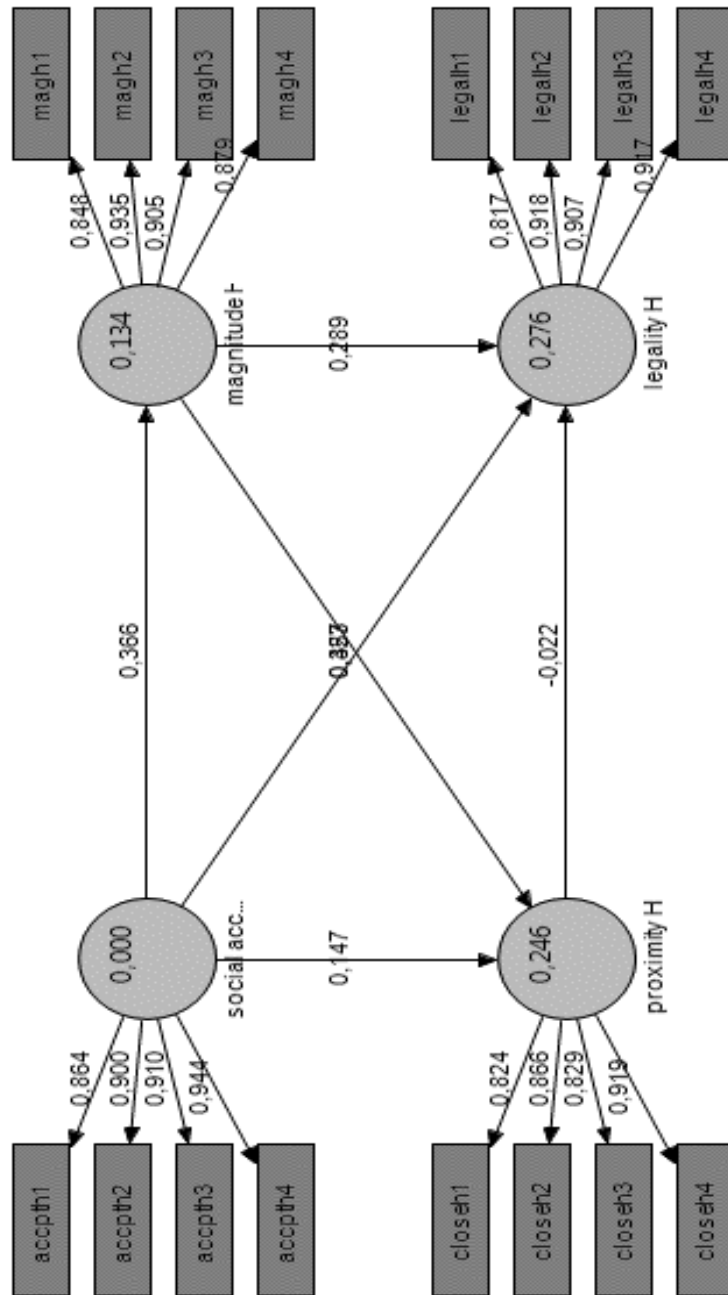


Figure 3.3 Proposed PLS SEM model for high morally intense conditions

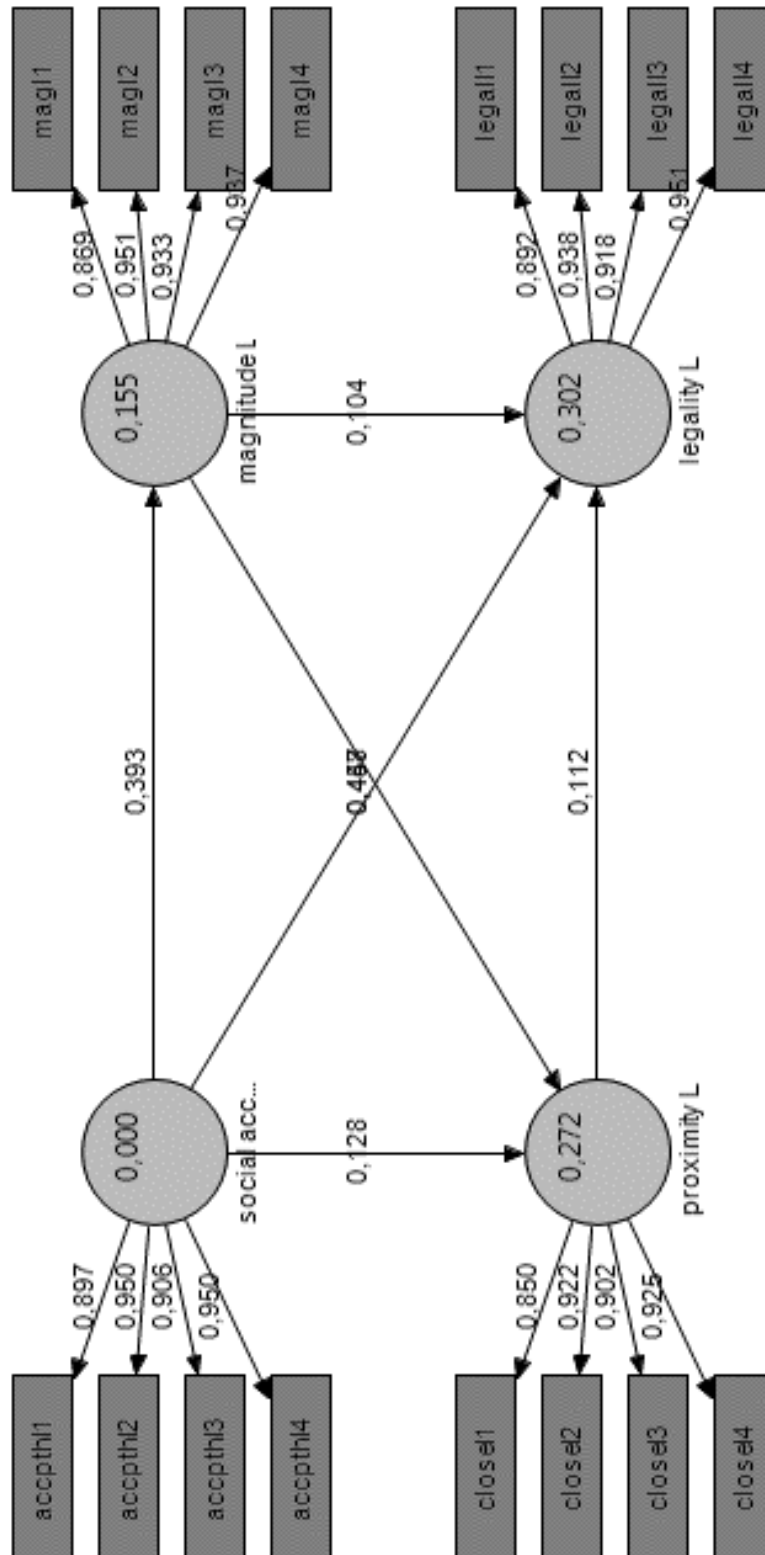


Figure 3.4 Proposed PLS SEM model for low morally intense conditions

3.3.2 Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ)

In order to understand the teachers' general attitude to the ethical issues Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ) developed by Forsyth (1980) was used. EPQ consists of two scales; idealism and relativism. In his official web site Forsyth (web page) indicates that EPQ scales were orthogonal to each other, which means they are not correlated constructs. EPQ aims to understand ones' general preferences, whether the individual prefers deontological approach or theological approach while judging the appropriateness of the given ethical dilemmas. In this study, adapted form of the EPQ to Turkish was used by getting permission from co-author Burnaz (Marta et al., 2012) (See Appendix I). Although the original form is designed as 9 point Likert type, the adapted form was in 5 point Likert type. Forsyth in his web site indicates that EPQ was used by researchers in this manner. Since Marta et al. (2012), do not indicate any validity and reliability evidence for EPQ's adapted form, both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis procedures were followed.

3.3.2.1 Content and face validity of EPQ scales

In this study translated form of the EPQ was used. Since EPQ was widely used in several studies and even used in a Turkish business sample no content validity procedure was followed. In addition, there was no comment both from teachers and the experts about readability and direction, for that reason, the EPQ thought to have sufficient face validity. However, other validity evidences were checked in the parts below.

3.3.2.2 Construct validity of the EPQ Scales

As mentioned before construct validity is the ability of the instrument for measuring the hypothetical psychological construct to be tested, non-observable traits intelligence, attitude, anxiety and so on (Gay, et al., 2006; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). For the EPQ scales factor analysis was conducted, since there was no evidence mentioned in the previous study in which EPQ was translated into Turkish.

3.3.2.2.1. *Factor Analysis results of EPQ Scales*

Kaiser - Meyer - Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: KMO results for EPQ was .80. Results of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity which tests the null hypothesis that the item to item correlation matrix was an identity matrix indicated Chi-Square values for the items and 675.463. In addition, the result was significant ($p < .00$) indicating that item to item correlation matrices were not identity matrices and hence suitable for conducting factor analysis.

Exploratory factor analysis of the EPQ was conducted on the first pilot data with a sample of 176 teachers. Principal axis factoring technique was used for the extraction of the factors, as it is a more robust factor extraction technique against the violation of the assumption of multivariate normality by considering the suggestion of Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan's (1999). Varimax rotation technique was preferred, since no correlation between the purposed two dimensions was expected as suggested by Forsyth (new web). In addition, primary factor analysis results also supported that factors are orthogonal.

Initial factor analysis results indicated six factors based on eigenvalue criteria. However scree plot showed a two factor solution (Appendix H). Investigation of the pattern matrix indicated that item seven was not loading in any factor, so that it is removed from the analysis. In addition, item eight and eighteen constituted two factors by their own and these items were also removed, as they were not interpretable. Moreover, items nineteen and twelve formed a factor; however, they were considered not a unique interpretable factor. These items were removed. Similarly, items nine, ten and eleven also constituted a factor and removed from the scale for the sake of interpretability.

At the final factor analysis, results showed a two factor solution in which items were loading as proposed by Forsyth (1980). First factor included six items, explaining 27.401 % of the total variance. Second factor also included six items explaining

23.915% of the total variance (Table 3.11). In total, EPQ was explaining the 51.316 % of the variance and factors was orthogonal to each other (Table 3.11). Factor loading of values of the items can be seen in table 3.12. Further investigation was conducted by doing separate factor analyses on EPQ scales. Results indicated that total variance explained by the items of idealism scale was 45.04 and 40.15 % for the items of relativism scale.

Table 3.11
Factor Analysis Results for EPQ

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	Variance	Cumulative %	Total	Variance	Cumulative %	Total	Variance	Cumulative %
1.00	3.29	27.40	27.40	2.79	23.23	23.23	2.72	22.64	22.64
2.00	2.87	23.92	51.32	2.36	19.70	42.93	2.44	20.29	42.93
3.00	0.98	8.16	59.48						
4.00	0.87	7.22	66.70						
5.00	0.75	6.26	72.96						
6.00	0.66	5.51	78.47						
7.00	0.58	4.81	83.27						
8.00	0.55	4.59	87.86						
9.00	0.49	4.04	91.90						
10.00	0.45	3.71	95.61						
11.00	0.26	2.20	97.82						
12.00	0.26	2.18	100.00						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table 3.12

Factor Loadings EPQ scales

	Factor	
	1	2
Fel5	0.81	
Fel4	0.77	
Fel3	0.69	
Fel6	0.65	
Fel2	0.54	
Fel1	0.50	
Fel13		0.86
Fel15		0.82
Fel14		0.54
Fel17		0.51
Fel12		0.49
Fel16		0.45

Notes: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring,
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

3.3.2.3 Reliability of EPQ scales

In order to test the internal consistency of the scale, Cronbach's alpha values were estimated. For the first scale, Cronbach's alpha was .82 and deletion of the items did not improve the alpha value which implies that each item was consistent with the overall scale. Cronbach's alpha value for the second dimension was .78 and similarly deletion of the items did not improve the Cronbach's alpha value. It was concluded that scales have sufficient internal consistency level.

3.3.2.4 Confirmatory factor analysis of EPQ

In order to test the measurement model fit, CB-SEM was conducted by using IBM-AMOS statistical packet program. Although, Hair (2010) suggests using PLS-SEM for data set that does not meet the normal distribution properties, it was not possible to test the measurement model by PLS-SEM, as it requires the two construct to be related. However, for a remedy of non-normality, bootstrapping was conducted in the analysis. For that reason, one should be cautious while evaluating the results.

On construction of the model, covariance value was set to be 0 as the scales were orthogonal to each other. While evaluating the model fit Brown's (2006) recommendations were followed. Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were considered while evaluating the fit for the EPQ scales. As chi-square is a very sensitive test for the sample size that gives significant results when the sample size is large (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and this problem with model fit was encountered during the evaluation of the model, other fit indices of RMSEA, NNFI and CFI were used to make up for the limitations by the chi-square test (Byrne, 2013).

The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2= 210.913$, $df= 54$, $p= .00$) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of 0.94, nonnormed fit index (NNFI) value of .93, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .08. As the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated moderate or poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). For that reason, modification indices of errors (error covariance) were checked and those with highest values were identified as suggested by Arbuckle (1999). Item pair 1 and 2 of the idealism scale was the highest. First item was about intentionally causing harm to someone, while second item was about causing risk, which could be interpreted as harm, to someone regardless of its magnitude. As they were in the same scale and have similar meanings, they were connected in the model and CFA was re-run.

The CFA results of the final model (see Figure 3.5) indicated significant chi-square value ($\chi^2= 152.835$, $df= 53$, $p= .00$) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .96, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .95, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .06, as presented in Table 3.13. By considering Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommendation as .95 and above is critical value for CFI and NNFI for a good-fitting model and .06 RMSEA value of that can be considered as mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), the final CFA model could be said to show satisfactory result.

Table 3.13

Results Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Scale	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
EPQ	152.84	53	2.88	.06	.96	.95

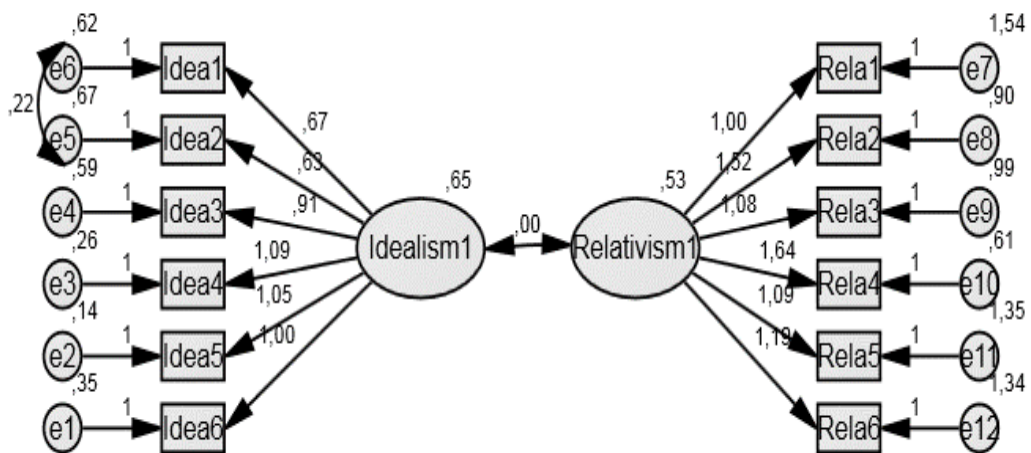


Figure 3.5 Proposed CFA model of EPQ

3.4 Data Analysis Procedure

Before conducting descriptive and inferential analysis data cleaning and screening process were initially performed. After completing data screening 32 participants' data were removed from the study due to missing values, or double marking and etc. prior to validity and reliability analysis of the scales. Then, descriptive statistics were estimated by using IBM SPSS Statistics 22 software program. Later, series of MANCOVAs were conducted.

3.4.1 Protection of Human Subjects

This study was conducted ethically by getting permission from Middle East Technical University (METU), Ethic Committee. The policies and procedures of Ethic Committee in METU were utilized. Together with the Application Form for Human Research, Project Information Form, Volunteer Participation Form and Data Collection Instrument were given to the Committee for further review of whether the study was in line with the ethical guideline of the human researches. Additionally, an approval from the statistics desk of Directorate of National Education of Ankara was obtained which can be accessible after getting permission from University's Ethic commissions (see Appendix J)

3.5 Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations within this study. These limitations are about the adequate number of the participants, sampling, and administration process. In the below sections, these limitations were discussed in detail as threats to external and internal validity.

3.5.1 External validity threats

External validity can be defined as the degree that the study results can be generalized to the population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In order to make generalization to the population, sample should be a good representative of the population. In this study, there were some restrictions that can be considered as threats to the generalizability of the study to the whole population of the teachers. In this study, data were collected from the 111 schools from nine central districts of the Ankara province at equal amounts in order to increase the external validity. However, not all the teachers were reached in the days of questionnaire administrations, since some of the teachers were not present at the school as they had not any course in the day of administration. In addition, some teachers were too busy to be asked to participate in the study. Some were given tasks to complete by the school management. Moreover, there were great differences in the number of the teachers of each school. While some schools had more

than fifty teachers, some had only three teachers. Moreover, the study was conducted only in nine central districts of Ankara as mentioned before in 2013. Although, Ankara has wide variety of teachers coming from different regions of the Turkey, it may still have some restrictions to be a good representative of all teachers in Turkey. In addition, country side districts of Ankara may carry some different characteristics. For these reasons, the results of the study cannot be generalized to the teachers who work out side of the nine central districts of the Ankara province. In addition, it is better to be cautious for generalizing the results to the teachers who work in the central districts of Ankara.

3.5.2 Internal validity threats

Internal validity can be explained as relationship between variables in the focus is not unambiguous due to possible effect of uncontrolled factors such as location or subject characteristics (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Possible factors that may have an effect on the internal validity of this study were subject characteristics, loss of subjects, location, instrumentation, and history. Gender could be considered as having possible impact; however by including gender as a factor in this study it was controlled. Age may have an effect on the study too as a subject characteristic. However, age and years of experiences had strong relationship. As an increase in age also results in increase in the years of experiments; so, possible effect of age was also controlled by means of years of employment. Another possible factor that occurs from the subject characteristics may have been their attitudes about the ethical dilemmas. This factor was also a part of the study. Their already existing attitudes were measured by means of EPQ, and included in the study as a covariate, and by this way, its possible effect was controlled. However, another aspect of the attitude of subjects may have been their views on participation such a study where they were asked whether they could do something unethical which in-turn may create social desirability problem. For that reason, all the participants were given consent forms where they were informed that they can leave the study in any phase. They were strongly assured that data would not be shared with anyone in any condition; in addition their names will not be asked in questionnaire. Also, it was stated that other information that may possibly reveal their

identity would not be shared with anyone. In order to increase the anonymity, questionnaires were submitted by the participants by putting their questionnaires into a mass of previous participants' questionnaires by themselves, and they were informed about submission before starting to questionnaire in order to make them feel secure.

Loss of subject was another concern for internal validity as it happens for external validity. As mentioned before not all the teachers were present at the days of administration, or they were too busy to participate to study. However, neither the management nor the teachers had known that teachers were asked to participate in the study. Day of the administration was chosen for each school without following any plan known by administrators of the schools. For these reason, absenteeism from the school should not be considered as a reason for not participating in the study. Location was also another concern for internal validity, as the location of the administration may have an impact on the participant sides. It was impossible to administer the questionnaire in the same location and time. Rooms that were allocated to use by teachers in the breaks and free times had some different physical characteristics in different schools. However, most of those rooms have also same conditions; usually one or two computers a photocopy machine a table and chairs. Nearly all teachers had participated in the study in those rooms in similar day time, except some physical education teachers who generally do not visit those rooms instead they prefer their special rooms or the gardens; unfortunately, there were no control option for this factor. But teachers who wanted to complete the questionnaire at home were not allowed but kindly requested to complete at schools. In addition, school management was kindly requested not to stay in the room while teachers were completing the questionnaire in order not to affect teachers as there were questions regarding them.

In this study, instrumentation might have created internal validity threat due to the data collector characteristics. But, all the data were gathered by just one researcher who had experience in data collection from different samples including teachers, by which way possible effect of different data collectors were controlled.

Another possible threat for internal validity was history. During this study there were not any events that might have an effect on participants. In addition, schools that had special events such as school festivals or trips with only some participants of teachers were not visited at the planned day rather they were visited in other days.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter, a brief description of the participants and the results of the study were presented. Results were given in two separate sections. First, preliminary analyses results such as demographics and descriptive statistics were given. The data regarding demographic characteristics of the sample were given in descriptive manner with frequencies and percentages. Later findings pertaining to two main and further sub-questions were reported. The results were presented in the same sequence as the research questions were stated in the introduction part.

4.1 Characteristics of the Sample

Data were collected from 540 teachers who work in public schools in nine central districts of Ankara province in Turkey; however 32 of them were removed from the study. As presented in table 4.1, majority of the participants were females which constitute the 72.4 % (n= 368) of the participants, where male teachers constituted the 27.6 of the participants (n= 140). Mean years of experience of the participants were 14.17 (*SD*= 7.99). Majority of the teachers had 6 to 15 years of experience which constituted the 45.5 % of the total participants (n= 231), teachers who had experience 16 to 25 years constituted the 31.1 % of the participants (n= 158), teachers who had 1 to 5 years of experience constituted the 13.6 % of the participants (n= 69), finally, teachers who had 25 years and above experience constituted the 9.8 % of the participants (n= 50). Teachers who work in pre-schools and primary schools constituted the 33.3 % of the participants (n= 169), while 40.6 of them work in secondary schools (n= 206) and lastly, teachers who work in high schools constituted the 26.2 percent of the participants (n= 133). Mean age of the participants were 37.96, while the youngest teachers were 23 and oldest teachers were 63 indicating 40 years range.

Table 4.1
Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variables	Level	<i>f</i>	(%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Gender	Male	140	27.6				
	Female	368	72.4				
Years of Employment				14.17	7.99	1	36
	1-5	69	13.6				
	6-15	231	45.5				
	16-25	158	31.1				
	25+	50	9.8				
Level of Organization	Primary and Preschool	169	33.3				
	Secondary school	206	40.6				
	High School	133	26.2				
Age				37.96	8.20	23	63

4.2 Descriptive Statistics Results of OVED Scale Factors

Overall mean scores for conditions where high magnitude of consequences exists was 1.95 with a standard deviation of 1.39 (see Table 4.2). While female teachers' mean score was 1.98 with a standard deviation of 1.48, male teachers' mean score was 1.89 with a standard deviation of 1.10. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 2.03 (*SD*= 1.44), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 1.99 (*SD*= 1.50) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 1.84 (*SD*= 1.25), finally teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 2.06 (*SD*= 1.23). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 1.66

with a standard deviation of .97. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 2.20 ($SD= 1.70$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 1.95 ($SD= 1.23$).

Overall mean scores for conditions where high proximity exists with the possible victim and teachers were 2.71 with a standard deviation of 1.69. While female teachers' mean score was 2.66 with a standard deviation of 1.72, male teachers' mean score was 2.85 with a standard deviation of 1.59. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 2.70 ($SD= 1.46$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 2.69 ($SD= 1.70$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 2.67 ($SD= 1.79$), finally teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 2.97 ($SD= 1.60$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 1.36 with a standard deviation of 1.51. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 2.95 ($SD= 1.77$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 2.80 ($SD= 1.71$).

Overall mean scores for conditions where unethical wish of stakeholders socially not accepted around the teachers was 1.78 with a standard deviation of 1.26. While female teachers' mean score was 1.68 with a standard deviation of 1.07, male teachers' mean score was 2.05 with a standard deviation of 1.64. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 1.75 ($SD= 1.21$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 1.75 ($SD= 1.12$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 1.67 ($SD= 1.11$). Finally teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 2.31 ($SD= 2.09$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 1.75 with a standard deviation of 1.38. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 1.87 ($SD= 1.22$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 1.68 ($SD= 1.17$).

Overall mean scores for conditions where unethical wish of stakeholders was legally forbidden was 1.37 with a standard deviation of .82. While female teachers' mean score was 1.32 with a standard deviation of .72, male teachers' mean score was 1.51 with a standard deviation of 1.01. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 1.34 ($SD= 1.02$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 1.33 ($SD= .73$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 1.41 ($SD= .78$), finally teacher who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 1.47 ($SD= 1.00$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 1.26 with a standard deviation of .58. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 1.42 ($SD= .82$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 1.43 ($SD= 1.04$).

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics on High Morally Intense Conditions with Regard to Gender, Level of Organization and Years of Employment

Factor	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
High Magnitude of Consequences	1.95	1.39	0.06	2.08	5.29
Gender					
Male	1.89	1.10	0.09	1.28	0.75
Female	1.98	1.48	0.08	2.14	5.28
Years of Experience					
1-5	2.03	1.44	0.17	2.36	7.12
6-15	1.99	1.50	0.10	2.14	5.53
16-25	1.84	1.25	0.10	1.96	4.02
25+	2.06	1.23	0.17	1.13	0.37
Type of Organization					
Preschool and Primary School	1.66	0.97	0.08	1.86	3.64
Secondary School	2.20	1.70	0.12	1.91	0.39
High School	1.95	1.23	0.11	1.37	1.20

Table 4.2 Continued

High Proximity	2.71	1.69	0.08	0.92	0.16
Gender					
Male	2.85	1.59	0.14	0.68	-0.21
Female	2.66	1.72	0.09	1.01	0.32
Years of Experience					
1-5	2.70	1.46	0.18	0.93	0.61
6-15	2.69	1.70	0.11	0.90	0.07
16-25	2.67	1.79	0.14	1.05	0.36
25+	2.97	1.60	0.23	0.59	-0.40
Type of Organization					
Preschool and Primary School	2.36	1.51	0.12	1.34	2.05
Secondary School	2.95	1.77	0.12	0.74	-0.32
High School	2.80	1.72	0.15	0.78	-0.35
High Social Acceptance	1.78	1.26	0.06	2.39	7.29
Gender					
Male	2.05	1.64	0.14	2.17	5.18
Female	1.68	1.07	0.06	2.09	5.28
Years of Experience					
1-5	1.75	1.21	0.15	3.09	13.63
6-15	1.75	1.12	0.07	1.69	2.56
16-25	1.67	1.11	0.09	2.17	5.13
25+	2.31	2.09	0.30	1.92	3.20
Type of Organization					
Preschool and Primary School	1.75	1.38	0.11	2.86	9.81
Secondary School	1.87	1.22	0.09	1.69	2.97
High School	1.68	1.17	0.10	2.68	9.70

Table 4.2 Continued					
High Legal	1.37	0.82	0.04	4.10	24.65
Gender					
Male	1.51	1.01	0.09	3.92	22.59
Female	1.32	0.72	0.04	3.92	20.90
Years of Experience					
1-5	1.34	1.02	0.12	6.56	49.11
6-15	1.33	0.73	0.05	3.58	18.37
16-25	1.41	0.78	0.06	2.68	8.55
25+	1.47	1.00	0.14	3.31	13.18
Type of Organization					
Preschool and Primary School	1.26	0.58	0.04	2.88	9.08
Secondary School	1.42	0.82	0.06	3.01	12.79
High School	1.43	1.04	0.09	4.63	26.61

As can be seen in Table 4.3, overall mean scores for conditions where low magnitude of consequences exists was 3.21 with a standard deviation of 2.03. While female teachers' mean score was 3.29 with a standard deviation of 2.11, male teachers' mean score was 2.07 with a standard deviation of .99. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 3.54 ($SD= 2.14$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 3.09 ($SD= 2.00$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 3.21 ($SD= 2.07$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 3.30 ($SD= 1.88$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 2.91 with a standard deviation of 1.87. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 3.52 ($SD= 2.24$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 3.11 ($SD= 1.82$).

Overall mean scores for conditions where proximity was not high with the possible victim and teachers were 2.34 with a standard deviation of 1.61. While female teachers' mean score was 2.32 with a standard deviation of 1.64, male teachers' mean score was 2.39 with a standard deviation of 1.53. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 2.19 ($SD= 1.32$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 2.42 ($SD= 1.71$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 2.24 ($SD= 1.61$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 2.47 ($SD= 1.50$). In addition, teachers who work in preschools and primary schools had a mean score of 2.08 with a standard deviation of 1.42. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 2.55 ($SD= 1.81$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 2.33 ($SD= 1.45$).

Overall mean scores for conditions where unethical wish of stakeholders was disregarded socially around the teachers was 2.76 with a standard deviation of 1.82. While female teachers' mean score was 2.74 with a standard deviation of 1.83, male teachers' mean score was 2.80 with a standard deviation of 1.80. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 3.32 ($SD= 2.23$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 2.71 ($SD= 1.78$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 2.56 ($SD= 1.67$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 2.82 ($SD= 1.74$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 2.72 with a standard deviation of 1.387. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 2.95 ($SD= 1.96$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 2.51 ($SD= 1.49$).

Overall mean scores for conditions where unethical wish of stakeholders was legally not forbidden was 3.31 with a standard deviation of 2.08. While female teachers' mean score was 3.29 with a standard deviation of 2.06, male teachers' mean score was 3.36 with a standard deviation of 2.13. When the mean scores were checked according to

the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 3.38 ($SD= 2.16$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 3.36 ($SD= 2.11$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 3.2 ($SD= 2.04$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 3.31 ($SD= 1.93$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 3.22 with a standard deviation of 2.00. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 3.41 ($SD= 2.13$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 3.26 ($SD= 2.08$).

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics on Low Morally Intense Conditions with Regard to Gender, Level of Organization and Years of Employment

Factor		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Low Magnitude of consequences		3.21	2.03	0.09	0.88	-0.01
<u>Gender</u>						
	Male	2.07	0.99	0.08	0.92	0.27
	Female	3.29	2.11	0.11	0.86	-0.11
<u>Years of Experience</u>						
	1-5	3.54	2.14	0.26	0.62	-0.61
	6-15	3.09	2.00	0.13	1.00	0.33
	16-25	3.21	2.07	0.17	0.86	-0.08
	25+	3.30	1.88	0.27	0.86	0.34
<u>Type of Organization</u>						
	Preschool and Primary School	2.91	1.87	0.14	0.98	0.22
	Secondary School	3.52	2.24	0.16	0.74	-0.44
	High School	3.11	1.82	0.16	0.84	0.25

Table 4.3 Continued

Low Proximity	2.34	1.61	0.07	1.46	1.70
Gender					
Male	2.39	1.53	0.13	1.03	0.17
Female	2.32	1.64	0.09	1.60	2.18
Years of Experience					
1-5	2.19	1.32	0.16	1.06	0.37
6-15	2.42	1.71	0.11	1.48	1.71
16-25	2.24	1.61	0.13	1.58	1.92
25+	2.47	1.50	0.21	1.06	0.65
Type of Organization					
Preschool and Primary School	2.08	1.42	0.11	1.71	3.11
Secondary School	2.55	1.81	0.13	1.34	1.05
High School	2.33	1.45	0.13	1.14	0.59
Low Social Acceptance	2.76	1.82	0.08	1.31	1.42
Gender					
Male	2.80	1.80	0.15	1.51	2.61
Female	2.74	1.83	0.10	1.24	1.04
Years of Experience					
1-5	3.32	2.23	0.27	1.05	0.10
6-15	2.71	1.78	0.12	1.06	0.52
16-25	2.56	1.67	0.13	1.54	2.69
25+	2.82	1.74	0.25	2.04	4.99
Type of Organization					
Preschool and Primary School	2.72	1.87	0.14	1.55	2.27
Secondary School	2.95	1.96	0.14	1.13	0.67
High School	2.51	1.49	0.13	1.00	0.43

Table 4.3 Continued
Low Legal

	3.31	2.08	0.09	0.94	0.14
<hr/>					
<u>Gender</u>					
Male	3.36	2.13	0.18	0.94	0.09
Female	3.29	2.06	0.11	0.94	0.17
<u>Years of Experience</u>					
1-5	3.38	2.16	0.26	0.96	-0.02
6-15	3.36	2.11	0.14	0.91	0.12
16-25	3.20	2.04	0.16	0.95	0.24
25+	3.31	1.93	0.27	1.09	0.46
<u>Type of Organization</u>					
Preschool and Primary School	3.22	2.00	0.15	0.96	0.39
Secondary School	3.41	2.13	0.15	0.83	-0.13
High School	3.26	2.08	0.18	1.09	0.40

4.3 Descriptive Statistics Results of Dependent Variables

As transformation was conducted for the later analysis, descriptive statistics were given to consist the values after transformation. As can be seen in Table 4.4, overall mean of the scores in high moral condition was 1.95 with a standard deviation of .95. While female teachers' mean score was 1.91 with a standard deviation of .93 male teachers mean score was 2.07 with a standard deviation of .99. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 1.96 ($SD= .88$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 1.94 ($SD= .95$), and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 1.9 ($SD= .94$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 2.2 ($SD= 1.04$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 1.76 with a standard deviation of .78. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 2.11 ($SD= 1.01$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 1.96 ($SD= 1.00$).

Besides, overall mean of the scores in low moral condition was 2.9 with a standard deviation 1.39. While female teachers' mean score was 2.91 with a standard deviation of 1.40, male teachers mean score was 2.89 with a standard deviation of 1.38. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 3.11 ($SD= 1.44$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 2.89 ($SD= 1.45$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 2.81 ($SD= .1.31$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 2.97 ($SD= 1.29$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 2.73 with a standard deviation of 1.28. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 3.11 ($SD= 1.49$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 2.80 ($SD= 1.34$).

Table 4.4

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables by considering the Gender, Years of Experience, and Type of the Organization

	Results Before Data Transformation				Results After transformation					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender	1.95	0.95	0.04	1.06	0.44	0.25	0.20	0.01	0.38	-0.97
Male	2.07	0.99	0.08	0.92	0.27	0.27	0.20	0.02	0.24	-1.09
Female	1.91	0.93	0.05	1.11	0.53	0.24	0.19	0.01	0.44	-0.91
Years of Experience										
1-5	1.96	0.88	0.11	1.68	4.51	0.25	0.18	0.02	0.34	-0.25
6-15	1.94	0.95	0.06	0.93	-0.30	0.24	0.20	0.01	0.40	-1.08
16-25	1.90	0.94	0.08	1.07	0.37	0.23	0.20	0.02	0.47	-1.01
25+	2.20	1.04	0.15	0.96	0.21	0.30	0.20	0.03	0.20	-0.82

Table 4.4. Continued

Type of Organization	2.73	1.28	0.10	0.79	0.15	0.39	0.21	0.02	-0.09	-0.79
Preschool and Primary School	3.11	1.49	0.10	0.53	-0.71	0.44	0.22	0.02	-0.22	-0.86
Secondary School	2.80	1.34	0.12	0.81	0.07	0.40	0.21	0.02	-0.04	-0.78

4.4 Descriptive Statistics Results of Covariates

As can be seen in Table 4.5, overall mean of the scores in relativism scale was 3.33 with a standard deviation of .78. While female teachers' mean score was 3.30 with a standard deviation of 1.02 male teachers mean score was 3.41 with a standard deviation of .98. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 1.55 ($SD= .90$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 3.23 ($SD= 1.05$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 3.39 ($SD= .98$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 3.32 ($SD= 1.01$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 3.35 with a standard deviation of .95. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 3.33 ($SD= 1.02$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 3.31 ($SD= 1.02$).

In addition, overall mean of idealism scores was 4.41 with a standard deviation of .78. While female teachers' mean score was 4.42 with a standard deviation of .80, male teachers mean score was 4.34 with a standard deviation of .74. When the mean scores were checked according to the years of experience groups, it was seen that teachers who had an experience between 1 to five years had a mean score of 4.48 ($SD= .72$), while teachers with an experience from 6 to 15 years had a mean score of 4.32 ($SD= .86$) and teachers with an experience from 16 to 25 years had a mean score of 4.48 ($SD= .68$). Finally, teachers who had a 25 years of experience and above had a mean score of 4.48 ($SD= .72$). In addition, teachers who work in preschool and primary school had a mean score of 4.39 with a standard deviation of .81. On the other hand, mean score of teachers who work in secondary schools was 4.40 ($SD= .81$) while mean score of teachers who work in high schools was 4.45 ($SD= .69$).

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics of Covariates by considering the Gender, Years of Experience, and Type of the Organization

Covariates	Results Before Data Transformation				Results After transformation					
	M	SD	SE	Skewness	Kurtosis	M	SD	SE	Skewness	Kurtosis
Relativism	3.33	1.00	.04	-.39	-.56					
Gender										
Male	3.41	.98	.08	-.46	-.35					
Female	3.30	1.02	.05	-.37	-.62					
Years of Experience										
1-5	3.55	.90	.11	-.45	.12					
6-15	3.23	1.05	.07	-.34	-.74					
16-25	3.39	.98	.08	-.36	-.60					
25+	3.32	1.01	.14	-.49	-.33					
Type of Organization										
Preschool and Primary School	3.35	.95	.07	-.36	-.51					
Secondary School	3.33	1.02	.07	-.39	-.61					
High School	3.31	1.05	.09	-.42	-.55					

Table 4.5 Continued

Idealism	4.41	.78	.03	-2.22	5.40					
Gender										
Male	4.34	.74	.06	-2.36	7	.71	.23	.02	-.45	.12
Female	4.42	.80	.04	-2.18	5	.74	.23	.01	-.47	-.82
Years of Experience										
1-5	4.48	.72	.09	-3.18	12.94	.75	.22	.03	-.38	-.68
6-15	4.32	.86	.06	-1.80	3.05	.71	.25	.02	-.33	-1.1
16-25	4.48	.68	.05	-2.66	8.94	.74	.22	.02	-.36	-.81
25+	4.48	.72	.10	-2.46	6.10	.75	.22	.03	-.59	-.27
Type of Organization										
Preschool and Primary School	4.39	.81	.06	-2.11	4.73	.73	.24	.02	-.38	-.96
Secondary School	4.40	.81	.06	-2.12	4.75	.73	.24	.02	-.44	-.90
High School	4.45	.69	.06	-2.62	8.72	.73	.22	.02	-.30	-.75

4.5 Assumptions of MANCOVA

MANCOVA, as a statistical technique from the family of parametric methods, requires some assumptions to be met before conducting. Assumptions of MANCOVA are normality, absence of outliers, homogeneity of regression, equality of variances, multicollinearity, and independency of observations. Except independency of the observations, all other assumptions were checked by statistical procedures as explained below. For ensuring all of the individuals completed the questionnaire by themselves, researcher was present during the completions of the questionnaires. Therefore, the assumption of independency of observations could be accepted verified.

4.5.1 Multivariate normality

Before examining multivariate normality, univariate normality was checked by both Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk's normality test and by checking the Skewness and kurtosis values of each dependent variable at every level of independent variables and covariates. Both Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk's tests' results indicated significant deviations from normal distribution for each levels of dependent variables $p < .05$ except for low intensity conditions in first years of experience group (1-5 years) and years of experience groups 1 and 4 at relativism scores. As these tests of normality are very sensitive to deviations (Field, 2009), skewness and kurtosis values were checked. According to Kline (2011) skewness and kurtosis values should be between -3 and +3 if the sample size is over 200. Skewness and kurtosis values were between these values for both dependent variables and covariates, except for high moral intensity conditions in first years of experience group (1-5 years) and idealism in all levels of each independent variables in this data set. For those reasons, transformation was applied according to suggestion of Tabachnik and Fidell (2007) and Field (2009). After transformation, as can be seen in Table 4.4 and 4.5 all the skewness and kurtosis values were between -3 and +3. Box plots can also be seen in Appendix K. After checking the univariate normality, multivariate normality was checked via Mardia's test and omnibus test.

Mardia's test results indicated significant deviations from multivariate normality ($p < .05$) as the omnibus test ($p < .05$). However, MANCOVA is a robust test statistics for violations of multivariate normality assumption (Field, 2009; Tabachnik & Fidell (2007). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested using Pillai's Trace statistics when this assumption is not met.

4.5.2 Absence of outliers

Outliers are one of the limitations for conducting MANCOVA. In this study, univariate outliers were detected by checking box plots for each level of independent variables. As univariate outlier analysis indicated twenty-four outliers, as a solution transformation is used. After transformation of the variables, no univariate variables were detected. Later, Mahalanobis distance was used in order to detect for multivariate outliers. In this data set, there were no cases having a Mahalanobis D^2 value with a probability less than 0.001 which is considered as a conservative cutoff value by Tabachnik and Fidell (2007); in addition, the largest value for the Mahalanobis D^2 was 12.13. Additionally, most influential data points which were susceptible outliers (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007) were inspected by checking Cook's distance values. Stevens (2009) and Tabachnik and Fidell (2007) suggests 1 as cut point for "too" large scores. In this study, all the values were below 1.

4.5.3 Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices

Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices is another assumption that MANCOVA requires. This assumption was checked by Box's test. Box's test result was $p > .05$ indicating that homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption was met (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). In addition, univariate homogeneity of variance results were not significant ($p > .05$) (See table 4.6 and 4.7) supporting the homogeneity of variance assumption was met.

Table 4.6

Results of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	68.84
F	.91
df1	69
df2	11316.70
Sig.	.69

Table 4.7

Results of Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	<i>F</i>	df1	df2	<i>P</i>
LGHIGHS	.85	23	484	.67
LGLOWS	.74	23	484	.81

4.5.4 Homogeneity of regression slopes

One of the most important assumptions of MANCOVA is the homogeneity of regression slopes which requires the correlation between covariate and dependent variable not to be significantly different across the independent variables. A preliminary MANCOVA analysis was conducted by using a custom model design in order to test this assumption. As can be seen in Table 4.8, there were no interaction effects between independent variables and the covariates ($p > .05$) which indicates that homogeneity of regression slopes assumption was not violated.

Table 4.8

Custom Model Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Results For Testing Homogeneity of Regression Slopes Assumption

Source	Dependent Variable	SS	df	MS	F	P
Corrected Model	LGLows	5.99 ^a	20	.30	8.47	0.00
	LGHHighs	4.69 ^b	20	.23	7.69	0.00
Intercept	LGLows	2.76	1	2.76	78.17	0.00
	LGHHighs	1.54	1	1.54	50.38	0.00
Org	LGLows	.10	2	.05	1.42	0.24
	LGHHighs	.05	2	.03	0.84	0.43
Gender	LGLows	.11	1	.11	3.10	0.08
	LGHHighs	.01	1	.01	0.36	0.55
Experience	LGLows	.14	3	.05	1.31	0.27
	LGHHighs	.24	3	.08	2.57	0.05
experience * refinverideal	LGLows	.04	3	.01	0.35	0.79
	LGHHighs	.13	3	.04	1.39	0.24
Org * refinverideal	LGLows	.09	2	.04	1.21	0.30
	LGHHighs	.14	2	.07	2.28	0.10
Gender * refinverideal	LGLows	.03	1	.03	0.83	0.36
	LGHHighs	6.342 E-5	1	6.342E -5	0.00	0.96
experience * relativism	LGLows	.17	3	.06	1.56	0.20
	LGHHighs	.17	3	.06	1.89	0.13
Org * relativism	LGLows	.07	2	.03	0.92	0.40
	LGHHighs	.05	2	.02	0.74	0.48
Gender * relativism	LGLows	.10	1	.10	2.72	0.10
	LGHHighs	.04	1	.04	1.26	0.26
Error	LGLows	17.21	487	.04		
	LGHHighs	14.84	487	.03		
Total	LGLows	109.4	508			
	LGHHighs	49.96	508			
Corrected Total	LGLows	23.20	507			
	LGHHighs	19.52	507			

a. R Squared = .258 (Adjusted R Squared = .228)

b. R Squared = .240 (Adjusted R Squared = .209)

4.5.5 Multicollinearity

The last assumption of MANCOVA was multicollinearity. Correlation among covariates should not be high. The correlations between covariates were examined in order to check this assumption. These values can be seen in Table 4.9. Since the correlation coefficients were less than 0.80 among covariates, it was concluded that there is no multicollinearity.

Table 4.9

Correlation Coefficients among Dependent Variables and Covariates

		LGLows	LGHigs	relativism	refinverideal
LGLows	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
LGHigs	Pearson Correlation	.64**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00			
relativism	Pearson Correlation	.30**	.27**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.00		
refinverideal	Pearson Correlation	-.41**	-.37**	-.18**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.00	.00	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

N= 508

4.5.6 Absence of significant differences on covariates with regard to independent variables

In order to understand if the idealism and relativism scores of the teachers differ significantly according to gender, type of the organization and the years of experience, ANOVA analyses were conducted as a support for homogeneity of variance covariance matrices. According to results, idealism scores of the teachers did not significantly differ with regard the gender ($F(1, 506)= 136, p>.05$). Similarly, idealism scores did not significantly differ according to years of experience ($F(3, 504)= .996, p>.05$). Finally, idealism scores of teachers also did not significantly

differ according to type of organization ($F(2, 505) = .014, p > .05$). When the relativism scores of teachers were checked it was seen that teachers did not significantly differ on relativism scores according to gender ($F(1, 506) = 1.306, p > .05$). In addition, relativism scores did not significantly differ according to years of experience ($F(3, 504) = 2.136, p > .05$). Finally, relativism scores of teachers also did not significantly differ according to type of organization ($F(2, 505) = .061, p > .05$), tables can be seen in Appendix L.

4.6 MANCOVA results

MANCOVA analysis was conducted in order to address the research questions. MANCOVA analysis results indicated no significant main effects for the type of organization that teachers work (Pillai's Trace = .015, $F(4, 964) = 1.868, p > .05$) after controlling for idealism and relativism scores (See Table 4.10). In addition, no significant main effect was detected for the gender (Pillai's Trace = .005, $F(2, 481) = 1.289, p > .05$). Similarly years of experience, also, showed no significant main effect (Pillai's Trace = .015, $F(2, 964) = 1.222, p > .05$). Moreover, there was no significant interaction effect found between type of the organization and the gender (Pillai's Trace = .011, $F(4, 964) = .1379, p > .05$). Also, there was no significant interaction effect between type of organization and the years of experience (Pillai's Trace = .013, $F(12, 964) = .543, p > .05$). Similarly, there was no significant interaction effect found between gender and the years of experience (Pillai's Trace = .014, $F(6, 964) = 1.123, p > .05$). Lastly, overall interaction affect between gender, type of organization and years of experience was checked, but no significant effect was detected (Pillai's Trace = .021, $F(12, 964) = .849, p > .05$). However, both of the covariates were found to have significant effect as can be seen in Table 4.10 (Pillai's Trace = .067, $F(2, 481) = 17.209, p < .05$, for relativism and Pillai's Trace = .17, $F(2, 481) = 49.509, p < .05$ for idealism).

Table 4.10

Mancova Results For High and Low Violation Scores Controlling For Relativism and Idealism

Effect	Pillai's Trace	<i>F</i>	Hypothesis df	Error df	<i>P</i>	η_p^2	Observed Power ^b
Intercept	.209	63.61 ^a	2.00	481.00	.00	.21	1.00
relativism	.067	17.21 ^a	2.00	481.00	.00	.07	1.00
refinveridealism	.171	49.51 ^a	2.00	481.00	.00	.17	1.00
Org	.015	1.87	4.00	964.00	.11	.01	.57
Gender	.005	1.29 ^a	2.00	481.00	.28	.01	.28
experience	.015	1.22	6.00	964.00	.29	.01	.49
Org * Gender	.011	1.38	4.00	964.00	.24	.01	.43
Org * experience	.013	.54	12.00	964.00	.89	.01	.32
Gender * experience	.014	1.12	6.00	964.00	.35	.01	.45
Org * Gender * experience	.021	.85	12.00	964.00	.60	.01	.51

a. Exact statistic

$p < .05$

In order to understand the relationship between covariates and violation of ethical norms scores on both high and low ethical conditions, two separate ANCOVAs were conducted. Results seemed indicating significant effect of the type of the organizations on violation scores on high moral conditions; however, by considering the family wise error inflation, Bonferroni adjustment conducted; and it was seen that *p* value for type of the organization was above .025, indicating no significant effect ($p = .032$) (Table 4.11). However, as can be seen Table 4.11, both relativism and idealism scores had significant effect on violation of ethical norm on high morally

intense conditions ($F(1,482) = 25.68, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .05$ for relativism and $F(1,482) = 61.78, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .11$ for idealism).

Table 4.11

ANCOVA Results for High Morally Intense Condition

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Model	35.09 ^a	26	1.35	43.73	.00	.70
relativism	.79	1	.79	25.68	.00	.05
refinverideal	1.91	1	1.91	61.78	.00	.11
Org	.21	2	.11	3.47	.03	.01
Gender	.01	1	.01	.15	.70	.00
experience	.20	3	.07	2.15	.09	.01
Org * Gender	.06	2	.03	.99	.37	.00
Org * experience	.12	6	.02	.62	.71	.01
Gender * experience	.10	3	.03	1.06	.37	.01
Org * Gender * experience	.17	6	.03	.91	.49	.01
Error	14.88	482	.03			
Total	49.96	508				

R Squared = .70 (Adjusted R Squared = .69)

$p < .03$

In order to understand if there is a significant effect of covariates on violation of ethical decisions on low morally intense conditions, a second ANCOVA analysis was conducted. As can be seen Table 4.12, both relativism and idealism scores had significant effect on violation of ethical decision on low morally intense conditions ($F(1,482) = 27.54, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .054$ for relativism and $F(1,482) = 88.58, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .16$ for idealism).

Table 4.12

ANCOVA Results for Low Morally Intense Condition

Source	SS	df	MS	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
Model	92.44 ^a	26	3.56	100.74	.00	.85
relativism	.97	1	.97	27.54	.00	.05
refinverideal	3.13	1	3.13	88.58	.00	.16
Org	.15	2	.08	2.17	.12	.01
Gender	.04	1	.04	1.20	.28	.00
experience	.15	3	.05	1.43	.23	.01
Org * Gender	.07	2	.03	.95	.39	.00
Org *	.13	6	.02	.59	.74	.01
experience						
Gender *	.18	3	.06	1.68	.17	.01
experience						
Org * Gender	.16	6	.03	.77	.60	.01
* experience						
Error	17.01	482	.04			
Total	109.45	508				

a. R Squared = .85 (Adjusted R Squared = .84)

$p < .025$

4.7 Summary of the Results

Results indicated that in conditions where the intensity is high, the lowest possibility to engage in unethical act for stakeholders was detected among the preschool and primary school teachers when the act is illegal. Teachers with more than 25 years of experience showed the highest possibility to engage in an unethical act when the one who will be affected negatively is close to the teachers in other word proximity perception is high. In low intensity conditions, the least likely group to engage in unethical act was male teachers where the possible magnitude of the consequences was low. Teachers with one to five years of experience showed the highest possibility to engage in act for the sake of the stakeholders when the possible magnitude of the consequences was low.

In this study, total scores of the each condition were used in further analyses. For that reasons, descriptive statistic results on both high and low intensity conditions were

also checked. In high morally intense conditions, preschool and primary school teachers showed the lowest possibility of engaging in unethical act for the sake of stakeholders. Teachers with more than 25 years of experience, on the other hand, were the most likely group to engage in unethical act for the sake of stakeholders. In morally low intense conditions, preschool and primary school teachers again showed the lowest possibility of engaging in unethical act for the sake of stakeholders. Teachers with one to five years of experience and the secondary school teachers were the groups who indicated the highest possibility of engaging in unethical act for the sake of stakeholders.

Descriptive statistics results of the covariates were also checked. Teachers with one to five years of experience had the highest relativism scores while teachers with six to 15 years of experience had the lowest relativism scores. Teachers with one to five, 16 to 25 and more than 25 years of of experience showed the highest idealism scores. However, male teachers had the lowest idealism scores.

According to MANCOVA analysis, both the dependent variables and the covariates did not differ significantly according to gender, years of experience and level of the school. In addition, no significant interaction effect was detected. However, both idealism and relativism scores showed significant effects in high and low morally intense conditions. According to results of assumption tests, covariates did not differ significantly with regard to gender, years of experience and the level of the school.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this part of the study, the results of the analysis will be firstly discussed with regards to the previous studies in general. Later, implications for theory, research and practice will be discussed respectively.

The main concern of this study was whether teachers who work in public schools were open to violate their ethical decision or not. Results indicated that in highly moral intense conditions this was very difficult for a teacher to violate his/her ethical decision; but it was still possible as the mean score was slightly below two from a nine point Likert type scale. This finding suggests that in rare conditions teachers may do something unethical for the stakeholders even they feel that the act in question involves high degree of moral intensity. When the act was considered as low in moral intensity, results did not show great differences nearly a point higher than high morally intense conditions which slightly lower than three point.

Turkish teachers may consider the violation of the ethical decision for the sake of stakeholders as benevolence. Oğuz (2012) found that benevolence is one of the strongest values that teacher candidates gave importance after universalism. Özdemir and Koruklu (2011) and Bacanlı (1999) also found similar results where benevolence is among the important values. The results of this study revealed that Turkish teachers may violate their ethical decisions for the sake of stake holders. This finding can imply that Turkish teachers may consider violating ethical decisions as benevolence in the Turkish cultural context. Although it is possible to consider benevolence as a “desired value”, it may also consist some ethical consideration. For example, if a teacher performs an act that is good for one of his/her student, at first glance, it can be thought as a good example of benevolence. However, the act may be harmful to other students in his/her class or in another school.

In order to understand, whether gender has an effect on openness to stakeholders' influence for conducting unethical act, MANCOVA analysis was conducted. Results did not show any significant differences between males and females both in high and low moral intensity conditions. This result was parallel to the findings of some previous studies (e.g., Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Shafer et al., 2001; Street & Street, 2006). This may be due to the fact that teachers are in close relations in schools; even in Turkish school context they usually share the same room at breaks and free times. So, they may affect each other's' beliefs and they may show similar attitudes to the events by the time. But, it should also be noted that both Jones and Kavanagh (1996) and Shafer et al.'s (2006) studies which were conducted in work settings similar to this study had similar results; yet, the sample of this study consisted of teacher who were officials so this study may be supporting that the effect of gender differences do not change in private or public organization. In addition, Street and Street's study (2006) also showed no gender differences among graduate students by considering these findings, it may be argued that gender has no influence on ethical intentions even in unethical wishes of stakeholders and this may also be not related with having a job or working conditions.

Although this study seemed to be supporting the previous studies mentioned above, there are also studies which have contradictory results with this study. For example, Sweeney et al. (2010) found that females were better at evaluation of an act's ethicality and had a more propensity to act unethically. Although Singhapakdi (1999) found that there were no differences among genders by considering the ethical perceptions, there was a significant gender difference on ethical intentions in his study conducted among marketing professionals in all scenarios used. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2001) also found that in most of the vignettes used in their studies females had less willingness to act unethically. Marta et al. (2008), Oumlil and Balloun (2009), and Rittenburg (2007) also indicated significant similar results that female had a tendency to act more ethically. The study of Elango et al. had similar result but they also added that this difference was very small. However, one should notice that, in this study, the actual benefiter of the unethical act are the stakeholders rather than the actual decision

makers that was supposed to reveal unethical act. For that reason, results might have been different if the actual benefiter and the decision maker would be the same.

Another concern of this study was whether the years of employment have an effect on the decisions of teacher for engaging in an unethical act for the sake of the stakeholders. Results did not show any significant difference among teacher with regard to years of employment of the teachers. Dubinsky and Ingriam (1984) also found no relation between years in the current position and the years in the sector among sales managers and the ethical conflict. Serwinek (1992) also found no relation between years in the professional and the ethical attitudes of the insurance agency employees. While Roozen et al. (2001) found no significant effect of years in the profession on the perception of ethical issues, they also reported that years of experience had negative effect on the ethical attitudes. Finally, Forte (2004) similarly found no significant relation between work experience and moral reasoning abilities of managers who works in the Fortune 500 companies.

On the other hand, Kidwell et al. (1987) found that higher years of experience in the work yielded more ethical responses. Larkin (2000) also found that by the increase on the experience, employees had a tendency to be more conservative in ethical interpretations. McCullough and Faught (2005) and Eweje and Brunton (2010) reported that by the increase on experience students tendency to behave ethically also increases; but it should be noted that students possibly have limited experience, and socialization with the organization may cause to be getting similar to each other. Pflugrath et al. (2007), on the other hand, found that years of experience increase the quality of ethical judgments in their study where professional accountants and auditing students in his study, but increase in the quality of the judgments do not guarantee the ethical intention and behavior, as this study showed employees may behave different than what they think ethical. This is also valid for the study of Moore et al. (1999) where they found that business people who were in the higher stages of their career had significantly higher ethical judgment scores However, Valentine and Rittenburg's study (2007) showed that experience is positively linked with ethical intentions rather than ethical judgments which is contradictory to the findings of this study. But again

it should be noted that the benefiter in this study is not the decision maker. While Pflugrath et al.'s (2007), Valentine and Rittenburg's (2007), Kidwell et al.'s (1987), Larkin's (2000) McCullough and Faught's (2005) and Eweje and Brunton's (2010) studies seemed to be showing positive relation with the years of experience, this may be due to the fact that by the increase of the years of experience they may become more comfortable with the job. Or their possible needs are getting fulfilled more by the getting seniority. But, doing something unethical for the sake of others may be very different issue for them and indeed it is not directly related with their needs. So, increase may not be expected on ethical intentions for the sake of others. In addition, Cohen et al. (2001) reported significant differences between students starting business studies, senior students and professional accountants for the three of the eight vignettes used in the study for measuring the intention, where the professionals showed least willingness to act unethically compared to two student groups. However, this may not be a result of years of experience, since professionals have different responsibilities and worries than students, they are surrounded this legal and organizational norms which have sanctions if violated. Indeed, Latif (2001), Armstrong et al. (2004), and Chaves et al. (2001) found that experience has negative influence on moral reasoning. Different from the results discussed above, Pierce and Sweeney study (2010) showed that trainee accountants with one to two years of experience showed lower levels of ethical decision making when compared to lower level experience group and higher level experience group. By considering the results of previous studies and this study, it may be thought that years of experience may have differentiating effects in different populations or not have an effect at all. More specifically for this study, their ethical intention was tried to be investigated for the sake of stakeholders, their possible intention would perhaps change if the benefiter were themselves.

Another factor that is considered to be relevant with the teachers' openness to violation of their own ethical decisions was the type of, or in other words, the level of the organization they work. As mentioned before, Forte (2004) reported no significant differences among top, middle and first-line managers on ethical reasoning. Although it is difficult to compare the findings of this study and Forte's study, as concepts seemed to be different, there were also some similarities between them. In Turkish

educational system, all teachers have some responsibilities and rights by the law as of other officials. However, their responsibilities and duties also change in some aspects with some special laws and regulations. In addition, there are still clues of ranking perception in public which ranks the teachers according to level of the school they work. This perception may also be seen among teachers. If it is possible to make comparison on both Forte's study (2004) and this study, it may be said that findings of this study supports the Forte's study (2004), as there were no significant differences detected among teachers on doing something un ethical for the sake of stakeholders both in high and low ethically intense conditions with regard to school type they work in.

When the relativism and idealism scores of teachers were examined it was seen that teachers did not significantly differ according to gender, type of organization and the years of experience. While Özyer and Azizoglu (2010) also found similar results for gender on idealism and relativism, this finding is contradictory with the Bass et al.'s study's (1998) results, where they have detected gender has a significant effect on both idealism and relativism scores. But, it should be noted that Bass et al (1998) used age as control variable while in this study age was not included as it was highly correlated with years of experience. In addition, Bass et al. (1998) indicated that idealism and relativism scores of sales managers were not related with ethical behavioral intentions. However, in this study, it was found that both idealism and relativism had an effect on teachers' to do something unethical for the sake of stakeholders, while idealism score was explaining more variance than relativism. This finding is also contradictory with the Marta et al.'s study (2008) where they found that personal moral philosophy orientations of small business managers were not a significant predictor of their ethical intentions. Similarly, Eastman et al. (2001) also found no relation between patient care intention and moral philosophy orientation dimension among the in their study conducted among doctors. However, using patient care intention as an indicator of ethical intention may be considered as a restriction for understanding unethical intentions of doctors. Although Rallapalli et al. (1998) found support for the relation between their ethical behavioral intentions and teleological evaluations, findings of this study suggested that both relativism and idealism had relation with ethical

intentions. Singhapakdi et al. (2000) similar to findings of this study found positive relation between idealism and ethical intention in three of four scenarios they have used while relativism was negatively correlated with ethical behavioral intention. Results of this study may also be considered giving some support to Sivadis et al.'s study (2003) where relativism scores of managers were associated with their hiring intention of a sales person who did ethically problematic acts; however, idealism scores were not significantly related with their ethical judgment and hiring intention.

Although it was not the primary purpose of this study, it was found that on violating the ethical norms, dimensionality of the moral intensity showed different results when compared to previous studies (Barnett, 1996; Singhapakdi, et al. 1996; McMahon, 2002, 2006; Leitsch, 2006). In this study, the McMahon's factor solution was followed, however, as McMahon handled the social acceptance dimension similar to Jones (1991) proposition where social acceptance was handled as a combination of legality and social approval, Bommer et al.'s (1987) suggestion was taken into consideration as well. As Bommer et al. kept social environment and legal environment separated conditions that affect the decision process which in turn affects the ethical or unethical behavior, in this study items regarding the legality of an act was added to OVED scale. Results in both high and low moral intensity conditions indicated that these concepts are distinct from each other, which means that legality seems to be a separate dimension than being a part of social acceptance for at least the sample of this study. However, it should be noted that, sample of this study consisted of teachers who work in public schools of Turkey. For that reason, these results may be a natural cause of being an official where legal norms of the country and the organization was not very close to norms of the society in general. Therefore, one may argue that if there were not a discrepancy between the social norms of the society or teachers' community norms and the legal norms, these two dimensions would be identical. For that reason, results may change from country to country or even from sample to sample where different work clicks are involved.

Results also suggested some clues of different factors may be lying under moral intensity. In this study, OVED scale was constructed by considering the different

stakeholders. Factor analysis results of OVED scale indicated the possibility of the fifth dimension. Although in this study, it was not clearly established, the fifth factor had an eigenvalue slightly higher than one before the rotation. However, after rotation it was lower than one and items of the fifth factors were loading in other four factors with higher loading values. But all the items were about doing something unethical for the sake of students. These results seem to suggest that in some societies or communities the importance of stakeholder may go ahead the importance of the social norms, legal regulations and so on. A possible future study can be conducted among military or police organizations' members where the importance of the colleagues increases this may suggest a totally new factor that compromised from colleagues. For that reason, moral intensity may have a different factor that consists of importance of benefiter in some societies or communities while engaging in an unethical act. But in this study conducted among teachers this was not supported totally.

5.1 Implications for Theory

The most important finding of this study was that teachers may perform something that is considered unethical by themselves for the sake of stakeholders. In ethical decision making literature, the effect of stakeholders generally handled as the influence of stakeholder for guiding the decision maker while the decision maker is the actual and direct benefiter of the act. However, teachers indicated that they may do something unethical while they were not the actual benefiter, rather stakeholders gain direct positive benefits. This suggests that while constructing theory or conducting research on ethical decision making, the actual benefiter of the act should be more clearly defined. One's behavior may change according to position in the situation when faced with ethical dilemma. Although not examined in this study, this may affect the whole ethical decision making processes purposed by Rest (1994); "*Moral sensitivity, Moral Judgment, Moral Motivation, Moral character*". If the decision maker is actual benefiter s/he may not be as sensitive as the actual or direct benefiter, since it is much easier to look to events from outside. Similarly, in judgment phase s/he may try to find more reasons for conceptualizing the act as ethical. In moral motivation phase which is the phase of construction of ethical intentions, s/he may prefer doing something

unethical more willingly if the expected consequences of the act is more beneficial for her/him rather than significant others. Finally, in the last step, s/he may be more vulnerable to the negative effects of ego strength, perseverance, toughness, strength of conviction and courage. If s/he gets an opportunity in the last step for doing something unethical, s/he would possibly behave differently according to her/his position as a benefiter.

Findings about the possibility of the violation of ethical decisions may be explained by the findings of the studies conducted by Sezgin (2007) and Özdemir and Sezgin (2011). In both of these studies, empathy is found to be a value that is given one of the lowest importance by primary school teachers and teacher candidates in Turkey. Both Sezgin (2007) Özdemir and Sezgin (2011) report that empathy is the sixth in value importance ranking. As a natural consequence of a violation of ethical decision, decision maker is aware that someone other than the stakeholders gets harmed. In a society where the empathy value receives higher importance, violation of ethical decisions for the stakeholders should not be expected. As the empathic people do not only think about the wellbeing of the ones that they interact most, but also the other.

Another important finding of this study was about the dimensionality of moral intensity. While developing the OVED scale, it is thought that suggestion of Bommer et al. (1987) might have been a separate factor rather than being a part of social acceptance dimension as proposed by Jones (1991). Although Jones (1991) clearly described the possibility of legal situations as a factor of moral intensity, he did not mention it as separate issue. This may be a due to the perception that if something is not legal so it must be accepted as unethical by society or vice versa. However, in societies where ethical norms of sub-groups are different than the other groups in the society or the governors of the country this may create contradictions between social perceptions and legal situations. In addition, it should be noted that violation of legal norms of society may cost a lot for an employee or for an official, while violation of the ethical norms of society may not be so expensive. For that reason, at least in some societies legal environment may constitute as separate dimension. It should also be noted that in Sezgin's (2007) and Özdemir and Sezgin's (2011) studies risk taking had

the lowest score in a ranking of ten values that were given importance by teachers and teacher candidates. In this study, lowest scores for violation of ethical decision for the sake of stakeholders were obtained in legality dimension of high morally intense conditions where the act was illegal. Performing an unethical act for the sake of others when the act is illegal also means that decision makers get the risks and responsibilities of the given act. Hence, getting lowest scores on openness to violation of ethical decisions when the act is illegal is not surprising in a society where risk taking is least favoured value. On the other hand, it should be noted that both Sezgin's (2007) and Özdemir and Sezgin's (2011) studies only cover the ten values; honesty, trust, respect, tolerance, responsibility, empathy, risk taking, inclusiveness, sensibility and collaboration.

Although not supported clearly, there may be another underlying factor that affects the moral intensity. In validity studies of OVED scale it was seen that items related with doing something unethical for the sake of students were constituting a factor but with lower loading values and smaller eigenvalue which had fallen under one after rotation and omitted in this study. But this finding can also be thought as a clue for the dimensionality of moral intensity for doing unethical act for the sake of others in different samples where loyalty is important. As in police officer example, in which a police officer committed burglary in his jurisdiction and protected by one of his colleagues (Wilson 1963, cited in Sherman, 1978, p. 31), some professionals may require more obedience, loyalty or dependence to managers, colleagues and so on. In this type of situations, the proximity of these groups may create a separate function on engaging in unethical act. If this suggestion is supported in future research this can be an extension of the proximity dimension of moral intensity. While Jones (1991) described the proximity dimension, he has argued that proximity of the people who would suffer from the unethical act may affect the decision, intention and the behavior of the decision maker. However, this study implies that future research is need to understand the impact of the proximity of the benefiter as a factor affecting ethical decision making.

This study also suggests that both idealism and relativism is related with unethical behavioral intention, while idealism is a better predictor of unethical behavioral intention than relativism. But, variance explained by these two constructs is not so high. This suggests that there are still some other reasons that affect the teachers' intentions for doing something unethical for the beneficiaries rather than themselves. Although some demographic variables included in the study had no significant effect, some of these variables may be reexamined in further studies after overcoming the restrictions of this study. Type of organization, for example, was only examined according to levels of the schools that teachers work; however, how long they had been working at that level could not be controlled. In addition, organizational and some situational factors could not be examined in this study, but they may possibly affect the teachers' intentions.

5.2 Implications for Research

Several implications for research can be drawn by this study. Findings of this study suggest that ethical decision making in organizations still need to be investigated by considering different approaches and variables. First of all, the factor analysis results of this study indicates that dimensionality of the moral intensity at least for conducting unethical act should be reexamined in different cultures and among different professionals. Importance of any stakeholder group may be above the moral intensity dimensions defined up to now. Future studies need to be focused on this issue. It can be useful to cover this issue for ethics studies, as can be expected the intensity of the situation seemed to be affecting the possibility of engaging in unethical act. In this study, low moral intensity scale results were higher than high moral intensity scale, indicating that low moral intensity conditions may present a higher possibility of violation of one's own ethical decisions for the sake of stakeholders.

This study contributes to the moral disengagement research by offering a newer moral disengagement instrument which differs from the existing studies with its focus on morally less biased items (OVED). One's propensity to engage in unethical act where they are not the direct benefiter can be examined by less biased OVED scale. The items

of OVED scale ask the participant whether they can violate their own ethical decisions for the sake of stakeholders. By this way, researchers may avoid judging the ethicality of the act. As in Moore et al.'s study (2010), scale that are aimed to measure the possibility of conducting unethical act generally consist of items which are pre-defined as ethical or unethical. But this may cause problems for understanding the nature of ethical decision making. For example "*Taking personal credit for ideas that were not your own is no big deal.*" item, as one of the sample items of the scale that was used in Moore et al. study (2012), assumes that this is an ethical concern. Although this act can be considered by most of the academicians as an unethical act, this may not be a concern for some professionals. In this case, it is difficult to understand the ethical decision making process of that professional as s/he is not actually engaging in ethical decision making since it does not create an ethical dilemma for her/him. S/he may be considering the situation totally ethical. For these reasons, more bias free scales can be developed by adaptation of OVED scale for at least measuring the propensity of conducting unethical act for important others. The OVED scale whose items are specifically designed for teachers seems adoptable for different kinds of organizations and professions. Indeed, for understanding ethical decision making in educational organizations, it needs to be adapted to other stakeholders, for example, an adaptation of OVED scale for covering the managers in schools may also be very informative. In addition, conducting similar studies in different educational settings may be helpful, as the culture, regulations, responsibilities and many other variables may be different than the public schools. Furthermore, OVED scale may also be adopted for situations where decision makers are the actual benefiter of the unethical act, but in this case social desirability threat may have more impact on the results and so this issue should also be regarded.

Another issue that emerged in this study was about the factor structure of the EPQ scale. In this study, 20 item EPQ scale was not supported. This may be due to the fact that the sample comes from a different culture than it was originally developed in by Forsyth (1980). Indeed, 12 items with two factors solution consisting of six items in each scale was supported among Turkish public school teachers. For that reason, researchers that plan to use this scale should be aware of the possible differences in

factor solutions in different cultures. While considering the results of previous studies that used this questionnaire without giving information about validity and reliability evidences among the sample that represent their populations one should be cautious.

In a study conducted by Yılmaz and Dilmaç (2011), they found that all personal values were related with job satisfaction while benevolence was one of the values that showed one of the highest correlations with job satisfaction among Turkish teachers. In addition, Oğuz (2012), Özdemir and Koruklu (2011) and Bacanlı (1999) found benevolence as one of important values of teachers. However, as discussed above, benevolence may not always be a good for all, hence the possible relation between benevolence and openness to violation of ethical decisions should be examined both in qualitative and quantitative manner.

On the other hand, Özdemir and Koruklu (2011) also indicate that Triandis' (1995) classification of Turkish society as collectivist may be changing as hedonism was also found to be related with happiness. They propose that this change may be due to the influence of individualistic values of the Western societies. Hence, a longitudinal study that examines the openness to violation of ethical decision making and its' relation with preferred values may increase our understanding. By this way, possible changes on these factors can be detected. It should also be noted that Turkish society seems to be in a turbulence by means of cultural changes. Because, there is rapid economic development and change where Turkish people now have easy access to World Wide Web, and have interaction with people from different cultures. On the other hand, Turkey was has been ruled by a conservative party which favours traditional values that may contradict with modern values of globalization. As a consequence, there is an ongoing change on values of the Turkish society

In addition, teachers' professional values can be examined by considering the openness to violation of ethical desions and the ethical orientations of the teachers. In Turkish school context, respecting to differences, personal and societal responsibility, objecting to violence and openness to collobaration were found to be the factors of professional values among primary school teachers (Tunca & Sağlam, 2013). For

example, openness to collaboration may also be related with OVED scale factors, as collaboration sometimes may force teachers to sacrifice their personal values and decisions. Teachers' professional values and their openness to violation of ethical decision should also be examined by considering their ethical orientations, as this study results indicated that their ethical orientations are the predictors of the openness to violation of ethical decisions. By this way, possible professional values which may easily be violated by teachers can be investigated to understand the relationships between professional values and openness to violation of ethical decisions.

5.3 Implications for Practice

In this study, teachers indicated that they can violate their ethical decisions for the sake of stakeholders even in high morally intense conditions. In addition, relativism and idealism scores seemed to account for variance in high and low moral intensity conditions in a range between 5 per cent and 17 per cent. Though these values are not too high to consider as valuable in practical terms, it should be noted that the possible results of unethical acts cannot be comparable with anything in educational settings. In Turkish educational system for example, students are competing with each other, a change in a student's grade may let him/her get a chance to enter university or may cause another student to forget the university entrance dreams. This means that even a "simple" intervention may have an impact in peoples' lives. For these reasons, understanding teachers' openness to violate their ethical decisions and their idealism and relativism values may be helpful for decision makers in educational organizations for overcoming unethical acts. In addition, by exploring what is unethical for teachers and how they do perceive the intensity of the act decision makers may decide on educational policies such as grading system and entrance to higher educational organizations. Turkey has a long history for discussion, while some suggesting using teachers grading for entrance the higher educational organizations, some object to this view, as they think that teachers may give higher grades to some students for several reasons while these students do not deserve that marks. Results of this study show that at least some teachers for some of the stakeholders may do unethical behaviors even in high morally intense conditions, including grading practices. For these reasons,

increasing the load of school performance in access to higher education in Turkey is likely to cause some unethical practices, decision makers should be cautious at this point.

The results of Sezgin's (2007) and Özdemir and Sezgin's (2011) studies imply that teachers do not favour risk taking as other values such as; honesty, trust empathy and etc. Additionally, it is found in this study that the openness to violation of ethical decisions is lowest when the act is illegal. As discussed before, these results may be considered as parallel to each other, since conducting an illegal act means that decision maker gets the risks and responsibilities of the given act. As result, it can be taught that putting organizational ethical codes into the legal regulations may have an effect on teachers' side by not violating their ethical decision, since it will also be considered as an illegal act and they do not want to get the risks of conducting an unethical act.

When different sectors and professions are considered, it can be argued that the scales used in this study are applicable to other sectors and professional fields. Unethical acts of a responsible may damage to the financial and human profiles of private and public organizations. For example, stealing of an exam paper in Turkey in 1999 caused the Student Selection and Placement Centre (ÖSYM) to cancel a nationwide university entrance exam. All the expenses for preparations to exam was wasted. In total it caused 3.5 trillion former Turkish Liras (more than 2.5 billion USD) (Vatandaş Sağolsun, 1999). So by adaptation of the scales developed and used in this study, other organizations may also understand the most influential stakeholders for their organizations. Moreover, may understand the possible conditions that have an impact on their employees or managers to do unethical act. By this way, they get possible precautions to create an ethical climate in their organizations.

Personal values may be examined by considering the teachers' openness to stakeholders influence. By this way values may be identified that are more easily ignored by teachers. Understanding the possible values that can be ignored by teachers and the most likely groups that may perform unethical acts can help administrators to take precautions. But, it should be noted that, personal values and organizational

values may not match all the time (Taşdan, 2010; Sezgin, 2006). Taşdan (2010) and Sezgin (2006) report that there is a moderate positive relation between teachers' personal values and organizational values. These findings suggest that there may some disparity between teachers' values and organizational values. Hence, administrators should be cautious. If teachers do not strictly share the organizational values, but give some little importance to organizational values, they can easily behave differently than the ethical judgements.

Similar studies may also be conducted in different work settings and organizational levels. It should be noted that, by the increase in the positions, the responsibilities of the decision makers also increase and also the legitimate power of the decision makers also increase. However, by this way stakeholders also differs and their influence on the decision makers may also increase. For that reason, at each level of the organizations, it may be necessary to understand the openness to effect of the stakeholders. It should be noted that by the increase of the positions and power the possible effect of the decisions also increases and also society get more interested and affected.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE ITEMS FROM DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

I. BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki ölçeği doldurmadan önce lütfen örnek olayları ve açıklamaları okuyunuz,

Örnek Olay 1:

Bir öğretmen bir öğrencinin notunu, öğrencinin, okul yöneticilerinin, öğrenci velisinin ya da bir iş arkadaşının isteği üzerine ahlaki bulmasa da yükseltebilir (ahlaki buluyor da olabilirsiniz bu durumda, bu örnek size uygun değildir, diğer örnek olayı düşününüz). Öğretmen ahlaki bulmadığı bu davranışı doğrudan bu bireylerin istemesi üzerine yapabileceği gibi, onların mutlu olması için ya da bu davranışın onların çıkarları ve doğal olarak gelecekleri için çok önemli olduğunu düşünerek, istemeyerek de olsa yapabilir. Öğretmen bu davranışı ilgili kişilerle olan diyalogunun bozulmaması, iyi geçinmek için de yapıyor olabilir.

Örnek Olay 2:

Bir öğretmen öğrencilerinden birinin kendine ait olmayan bir eşyayı aldığını öğrenmiştir. Bu durumu yetkili birimlere yazılı olarak bildirebileceği gibi öğrencinin, okul yöneticilerinin, öğrenci velisinin ya da bir iş arkadaşının isteği üzerine ahlaki bulmasa da bildirmeyip kendi başına ve/veya ilgili bireylerle beraber çözmeye de çalışabilir. Yukarıdaki örnekte olduğu gibi öğretmen ahlaki bulmadığı bu davranışı doğrudan bu bireylerin istemesi üzerine yapabileceği gibi, onların mutlu olması için ya da bu davranışın onların çıkarları ve doğal olarak gelecekleri için çok önemli olduğunu düşünerek istemeyerek de olsa yapabilir. Öğretmen bu davranışı ilgili kişilerle olan diyalogunun bozulmaması, iyi geçinmek içinde yapıyor olabilir.

Bu tür durumlarda verilen kararlar tanıdığımız ya da tanımadığımız bir bireye olumsuz etki yaratabilir. Örneğin ilk olayda öğrencinin notunu yükseltmek bir üst kademe eğitim kurumuna girişte sınıf arkadaşlarının (tanıdığımız birisi) ya da başka okuldaki bir öğrencinin (tanımadığımız birisi) önüne geçmesine sebep olabilir. Bu durumda kararınızı olayın yaratması muhtemel etkinin büyüklüğü de etkileyebilir (örnek, notun ne derece de yükseltileceği (2'den 5'e yükseltmek sizin için 1 den 2 ye yükseltmekten daha farklı olabilir) ya da izin alınan eşyanın değeri gibi). Aynı şekilde bulunduğunuz ortamda bu davranışların (siz doğru bulmasanız da) normal kabul edilmesi ya da tam tersi normal kabul edilmemesi de bu davranışı gösterip göstermemenizde etkili olabilir. Not yükseltme gibi bir davranış birçok iş arkadaşınız tarafından hali hazırda yapılıyor olabilir. Böyle bir ortam da pek doğru bulmasanız da öğrencinin notunu öğrenciniz, okul yöneticileriniz, iş arkadaşlarınız veya velilerinizin isteği, iyiliği veya mutluluğu için doğru bulabilir ve yükseltebilirsiniz.

Aşağıdaki sorular sizin bu tür durumlardaki davranışlarınızı ve tutumunuzu araştırmaya yöneliktir. Lütfen tüm soruları içtenlikle ve üçüncü şahıslarla kesinlikle paylaşılmayacağını bilerek iç rahatlığı ile doldurunuz.

Yukarıdaki örnek olaylar size göre ahlaki bir durum içermemekte olabilir (her bireyin ahlaki değer algıları farklıdır). Bu durumda lütfen okulda yaşadığınız ve sizin ikilemde kalmanıza sebep olan ve sonucunda bu davranışı yaparsam ahlaki olmaz dediğiniz ancak yine de ahlaki bulmadığınız bu davranışı yapmak durumunda kaldığınız durumları düşününüz. **Bu çalışmanın amacı sizin ahlaki bir birey olup olmadığınız anlamaya yönelik değildir.** Sizin kendi ahlaki kararlarınıza aykırı hareket etmenize etki eden paydaşları belirlemeye yöneliktir.

Puanlama 1' den 9'a doğru derecelendirilmiştir. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi okuyarak, ifadenin **her bir grup yani; öğrenci, müdür, veli ve iş arkadaşı için** ne düzeyde geçerli olduğunu **1 kesinlikle yaparım, 9 kesinlikle yapmam arasında** olmak üzere size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen bütün ifadeleri **eksiksiz ve içtenlikle** cevaplandırınız, ankette vereceğiniz **cevaplarınız hiçbir kişi veya kurumla kesinlikle paylaşılmayacaktır!**

- 1) Ahlaki anlamda doğru bulmadığınız bir davranışı, sonucunda **tanıdığınız biri** (başka bir öğretmen arkadaşınız, bir öğrenciniz vb.) **olumsuz etkilenecek olsa da**, aşağıdaki kişi ve/veya grupların isteği, iyiliği veya mutluluğu için hangi oranda gerçekleştirebilirsiniz?

	Kesinlikle Yaparım								Kesinlikle Yapmam
Öğrencim/öğrencilerim için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Müdürüm/Müdür Yrd. için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Veli veya veliler için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
İş arkadaşlarım için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨

- 2) Ahlaki anlamda doğru bulmadığınız bir davranışı, sonucunda **tanımadığınız biri** (başka okuldan bir öğrenci, öğretmen veya veli vb.) **olumsuz etkilenecek olsa da**, aşağıdaki kişi ve/veya grupların isteği, iyiliği veya mutluluğu için hangi oranda gerçekleştirebilirsiniz?

	Kesinlikle Yaparım								Kesinlikle Yapmam
Öğrencim/öğrencilerim için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Müdürüm/Müdür Yrd. için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Veli veya veliler için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
İş arkadaşlarım için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨

3)

4)

- 5) Ahlaki bulmadığınız bir davranışı, **çevrenizdeki insanların da ahlaki bulmadığı bir durumda**, aşağıdaki kişi ve/veya grupların isteği, iyiliği veya mutluluğu için hangi oranda gerçekleştirebilirsiniz?

	Kesinlikle Yaparım								Kesinlikle Yapmam
Öğrencim/öğrencilerim için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Müdürüm/Müdür Yrd. için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Veli veya veliler için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
İş arkadaşlarım için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨

- 6) Sizin ahlaki bulmadığınız bir davranışı, **çevrenizdeki insanların gayet normal ve doğal bulduğu durumlarda**, aşağıdaki kişi ve/veya grupların isteği, iyiliği veya mutluluğu için, hangi oranda gerçekleştirebilirsiniz?

	Kesinlikle Yaparım								Kesinlikle Yapmam
Öğrencim/öğrencilerim için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Müdürüm/Müdür Yrd. için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
Veli veya veliler için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
İş arkadaşlarım için,	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨

7)

8)

II. BÖLÜM

Lütfen aşağıda yer alan her bir ifadeyi okuyarak “1 kesinlikle katılıyorum” ile “5 Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum” arasında olmak üzere size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen bütün ifadeleri eksiksiz cevaplandırdığınızdan emin olunuz.

		Kesinlikle Katılıyorum			Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	
		①	②	③	④	⑤
1	Bir kişi, davranışlarının kasıtlı olarak bir başkasına, az da olsa, zarar vermediğine emin olmalıdır	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	Riskin ne kadar küçük olduğuna bakılmaksızın, başkaları için risk oluşturmaya hiçbir zaman müsamaha edilmemelidir	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Bir başkası için potansiyel zarar taşıyan bir şey, getirisi ne olursa olsun her zaman yanlıştır	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Bir kimse hiçbir zaman bir başkasına psikolojik ya da fiziksel olarak zarar vermemelidir	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	Bir kimse hiçbir zaman başkasının saygınlığını ve esenliğini tehdit edecek bir davranışta bulunmamalıdır	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	Eğer bir davranış herhangi birisine zarar verecekse yapılmamalıdır	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	Etik olan, durumdan duruma ve toplumdaki topluma değişir	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	Ahlaki standartlar kişiseldir; birisinin “ahlaka uygun” olarak değerlendirdiğini bir diğeri “ahlaka aykırı” olarak değerlendirebilir	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	Farklı tip ahlak sistemleri arasından hiçbiri tam doğru olarak değerlendirilemez	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	Herkes için “ahlaka uygun” olanın ne olduğuna yönelik sorular çözülemez, çünkü ahlaka uygunluk kişiden kişiye değişir	①	②	③	④	⑤
11	Ahlaki standartlar sadece bir kişinin nasıl davranması gerektiğini belirten kişisel kurallardır; başkaları hakkında yargıda bulunurken asla kullanılmamalıdır	①	②	③	④	⑤
12	Kişiler arası ilişkilerde etik ile ilgili konular öylesine karmaşıktır ki, her birey kendi kişisel kurallarını oluşturmak konusunda özgür bırakılmalıdır	①	②	③	④	⑤

III. BÖLÜM

- 1) Cinsiyet : Kadın Erkek
- 2) Yaşınız (Lütfen yazınız) :
- 3) Öğretmenlik Hizmet Süreniz (Lütfen yazınız) :
- 4) Şu anki Kurumunuzdaki Hizmet Süreniz (Lütfen yazınız) :
- 5) Branşınız (Lütfen yazınız) :
- 6) Çalıştığınız Kurum : İlkokul Ortaokul

Lise Anket Bitmiştir Katılımınız İçin Teşekkür Ederiz...

APPENDIX B CONSENT FORM

Değerli Katılımcı,
Bu çalışma ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Doktora Öğrencisi Özgür ÖNEN tarafından Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI danışmanlığında yürütülen “Öğretmenlerin Kendi Ahlaki Kararlarına Aykırı Davranmalarına Neden Olan Değişkenlerin İncelenmesi” başlıklı doktora çalışmasının bir parçasıdır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı öğretmenlerin ahlaki (etik) anlamda doğru bulmadığı bir durum ya da konu ile karşılaştıklarında, eğitim kurumlarının temel paydaşları olan yöneticiler, öğretmenler (iş arkadaşları), öğrenciler ve velilerinin iyilik durumları ve/veya çıkarları için ne ölçüde ahlaki değerlerinden vazgeçebileceklerini ortaya koymak ve bu tutumlarının birey ve örgüt düzeyinde bazı değişkenlerle olan ilişkisini incelemektir.

Formu doldurmanız yaklaşık yirmi dakikanızı alacaktır. Katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmakta olup, formu doldururken herhangi bir aşamada katılmaktan vazgeçebilirsiniz. Elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel amaçlı olarak yürütülmekte olan doktora tez çalışmasında kullanılacaktır. Bireysel veriler araştırmacı tarafından saklanacak olup üçüncü kişi ya da kurumlarla paylaşılmayacaktır. Kimliğinizi gizli tutmak için imzalanan bu form ile ölçek formu ilişkilendirilmeyecektir. Herhangi bir sorunuzun olması durumunda aşağıda belirtilen iletişim adreslerle, araştırmacıya ulaşabilir, araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı yöneltebilirsiniz. Araştırmaya katılmak istiyorsanız lütfen aşağıdaki beyanı okuyup imzalayınız.

Araş.Gör.Özgür ÖNEN

Adres :Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi,
Eğitim Fakültesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü,
Üniversiteler Mahallesi, Dumlupınar Bulvarı,
06800 Çankaya Ankara/TÜRKİYE

Telefon : +90 (312) 210 4029 - 5574
: +90 (506) 863 65 19

E-posta : onen@metu.edu.tr

Yukarıda yer alan açıklamayı okudum ve gönüllü olarak bu çalışmaya katılıyorum.

.....

İmza

APPENDIX C

DEBRIEFING FORM

Bu çalışma daha önce de belirtildiği gibi ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Doktora Öğrencisi Özgür ÖNEN tarafından, Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI danışmanlığında yürütülen doktora çalışmasının bir parçasıdır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı öğretmenlerin ahlaki (etik) anlamda doğru bulmadığı bir durum ya da konu ile karşılaştıklarında, eğitim kurumlarının temel paydaşları olan yöneticiler, öğretmenler (iş arkadaşları), öğrenciler ve velilerinin iyilik durumları ve/veya çıkarları için ne ölçüde ahlaki değerlerinden vazgeçebileceklerini ortaya koymak ve bu tutumlarının birey ve örgüt düzeyinde bazı değişkenlerle olan ilişkisini incelemektir.

Etik karar verme literatürü incelendiğinde, bireylerin etik algı içeren bir durumla karşılaştıklarında, ahlaki muhakeme yeteneği, cinsiyet ve deneyim gibideğişkenlerden etkilenerek nasıl davranmaları gerektiği konusunda ahlaki bir karara vardıklarını ancak bazı durumlarda bu kararlarının aksine hareket edebildiklerini göstermektedir. Eğitim kurumlarının başlıca paydaşlarının (örnek, yönetici, veli, öğrenci ve diğer öğretmenler), öğretmenlerin ilk başta vermiş oldukları kararın aksine hareket etmelerinde etkili oldukları düşünülmektedir. Yine bu süreçte, öğretmenlerin örgüt içindeki sosyalleşme düzeylerinin, paydaşlardan etkilenme düzeylerine etkisi olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bu anlayışa göre bireylerin “kişisel ahlaki felsefelerinin” kendi ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket etmeleri üzerinde bir etkisi olduğu varsayılmaktadır. Bu çalışmada bu etkiler yine diğer demografik (örnek, cinsiyet, yaş, hizmet yılı, kurum türü gibi) değişkenler dikkate alınarak incelenmektedir. Bu çalışmadan alınacak verilerin 2013 yılı bahar döneminde (II. Sömestr) elde edilmesi planlanmaktadır. Elde edilen bilgiler sadece bilimsel araştırma ve yazılarda kullanılacaktır. Çalışmanın sonuçlarını öğrenmek ya da bu araştırma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için aşağıdaki isimlere başvurabilirsiniz. Bu araştırmaya katıldığınız için tekrar çok teşekkür ederiz.

Arş. Gör. Özgür ÖNEN (Oda: YöneylemLab; Tel:210 5574; onen@metu.edu.tr)

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI (Oda:EF 412; Tel: 210 4077; E-posta: yasar@metu.edu.tr)

APPENDIX D

FACTOR LOADING VALUES for HIGH MORALLY INTENSE CONDITIONS

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Acpt H 2	.899			
Acpt H 3	.859			
Acpt H 4	.804			
Acpt H 1	.798			
Legal H 3		.841		
Legal H 1		.838		
Legal H 2		.834		
Legal H 4		.736		
Mag H 2			.949	
Mag H 3			.836	
Mag H 4			.819	
Mag H 1			.809	
Prox H 4				.772
Prox H 3				.760
Prox H 1				.706
Prox H 2				.643

Note: 1) Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

2) Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

APPENDIX E

FACTOR CORRELATION MATRIX for HIGH MORALLY INTENSE CONDITIONS

Factor	1	2	3	4
1	1.000	.474	.374	.391
2	.474	1.000	.149	.213
3	.374	.149	1.000	.469
4	.391	.213	.469	1.000

APPENDIX F

**FACTOR LOADING VALUES FOR LOW MORALLY INTENSE
CONDITIONS**

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Accept L 2	.92			
Accept L 4	.87			
Accept L 3	.83			
Accept L 1	.82			
Mag L 2		.90		
Mag L 4		.89		
Mag L 1		.82		
Mag L 3		.78		
Legal L 3			-.87	
Legal L 2			-.86	
Legal L 4			-.83	
Legal L 1			-.80	
Prox L 3				-.84
Prox L 4				-.78
Prox L 2				-.78
Prox L 1				-.71

Note: 1) Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
2) Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

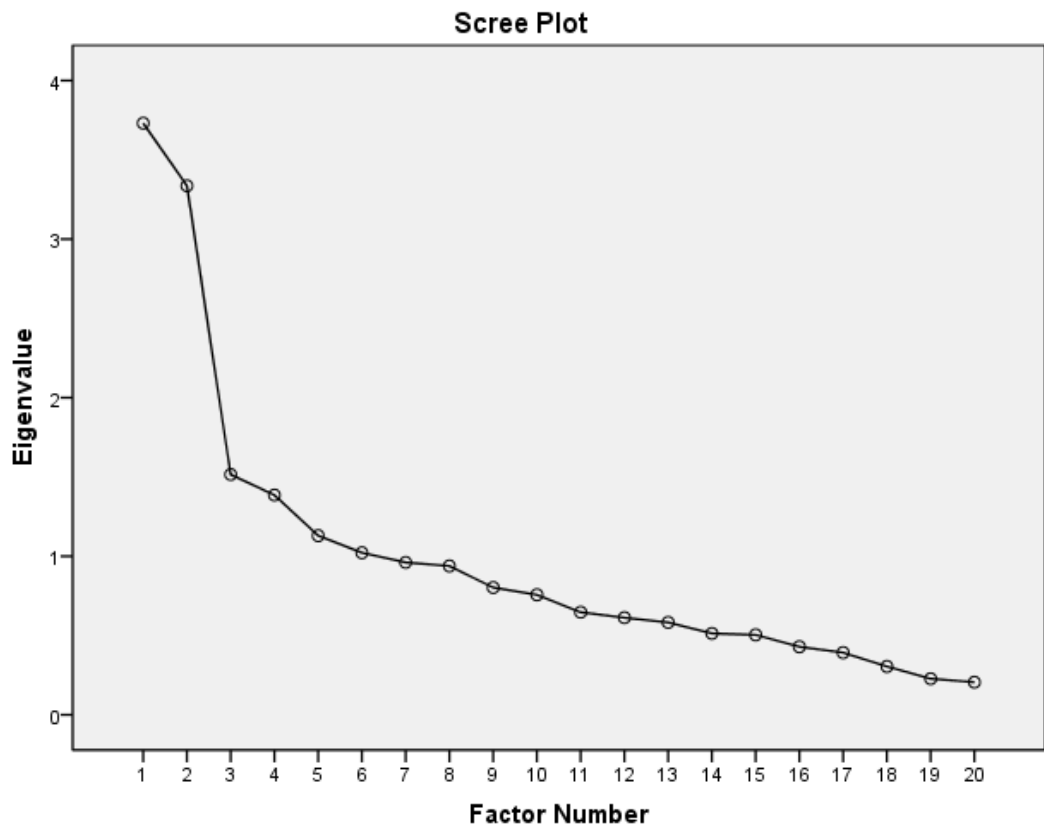
APPENDIX G

FACTOR CORRELATION MATRIX for HIGH MORALLY INTENSE CONDITIONS

Factor	1	2	3	4
1	1.00	.20	-.40	-.27
2	.20	1.00	-.28	-.42
3	-.40	-.28	1.00	.29
4	-.27	-.42	.29	1.00

APPENDIX H

SCREE PLOT of INITIAL FACTOR ANALYSIS of EPQ




APPENDIX I

PERMISSION FOR EPQ SCALE


Microsoft Corporation [US] | <https://dub128.mail.live.com/default.aspx#tid=cmVwfondid4RG>

+ New Reply | Delete Archive Junk | Sweep Move to Categories ...

RE: CEV ve Moral Philosophies Ölçekleriniz

 **Sebnem Burnaz Hoca İTÜ** @ 5/13/2012 Documents
To: onen@metu.edu.tr

1 attachment (36.8 KB)

Anket SB.docx

View online

Download as zip

Merhabalar;
Kaynak göstermek şartıyla ekte soru formumuzu gönderiyorum. Aynı şekilde, çalışmanızın bir kopyasını da rica ederim.
Basarılar dilerim.

Sebnem Burnaz
Professor of Marketing
Istanbul Technical University
Faculty of Management

-----Original Message-----
From: onen@metu.edu.tr [mailto:onen@metu.edu.tr]
Sent: Wednesday, May 09, 2012 10:48 AM
To: burnaz@itu.edu.tr
Subject: CEV ve Moral Philosophies Ölçekleriniz

APPENDIX J

APPROVAL of DIRECTORATE of NATIONAL EDUCATION OF ANKARA



T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

08.03.2013
ÖĞRENCİ İŞLERİ
DİREKTÖRLÜĞÜ

Sayı : 14588481/605.99/163038
Konu: Araştırma İzni
(Özgür ÖNEN)

06/03/2013

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : a) Meb Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 2012/13 nolu genelgesi
b) 27/02/2013 tarih ve 1087 sayılı yazınız.

Üniversiteniz Eğitim Yönetimi ve Planlaması Ana Bilim Dalı Doktora Programı Öğrencisi Özgür ÖNEN'in "Öğretmenlerin Kendi Ahlaki Kararlarına Aykırı Davranmalarına Neden Olan Değişkenlerin İncelenmesi" konulu tez önerisi kapsamında uygulama yapma isteği Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüş ve araştırmanın yapılacağı İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne bilgi verilmiştir.

Anketlerin uygulama yapılacak sayıda çoğaltılması ve çalışmanın bitiminde iki örneğinin (CD ortamında) Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne gönderilmesini rica ederim.

İlhan KOÇ
Müdür a.
Şube Müdürü

08-03-2013-4423

Güvenli Elektronik İmza
Aslı ile Aynıdır.
08.03.2013

MURAT YILMAZER
Şef

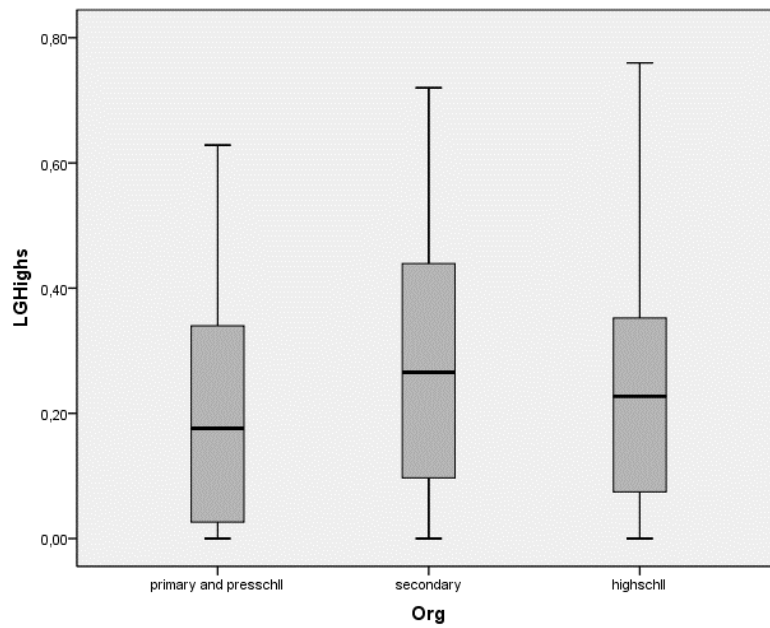
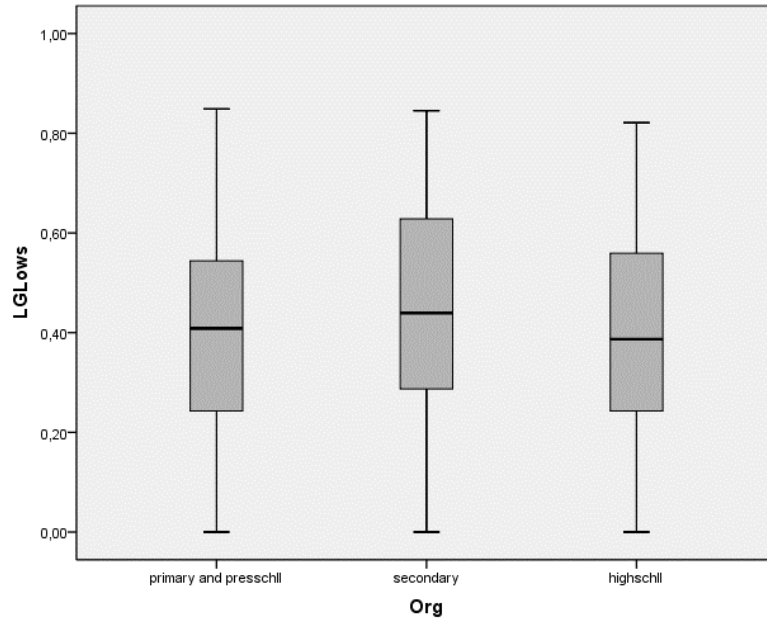
Bu belge, 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5 inci maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır
Evrak teyidi <http://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden 488e-bc83-3ca2-8043-8767 kodu ile yapılabilir.

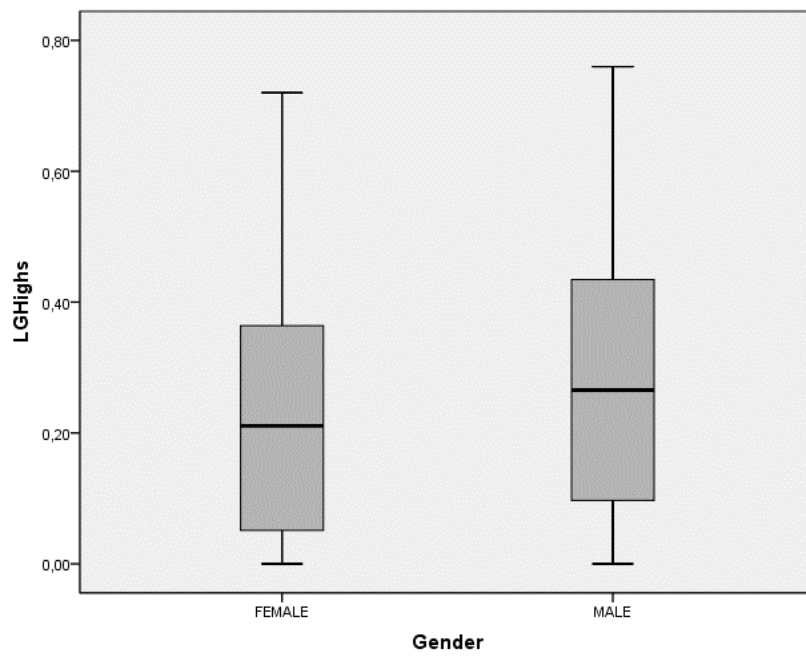
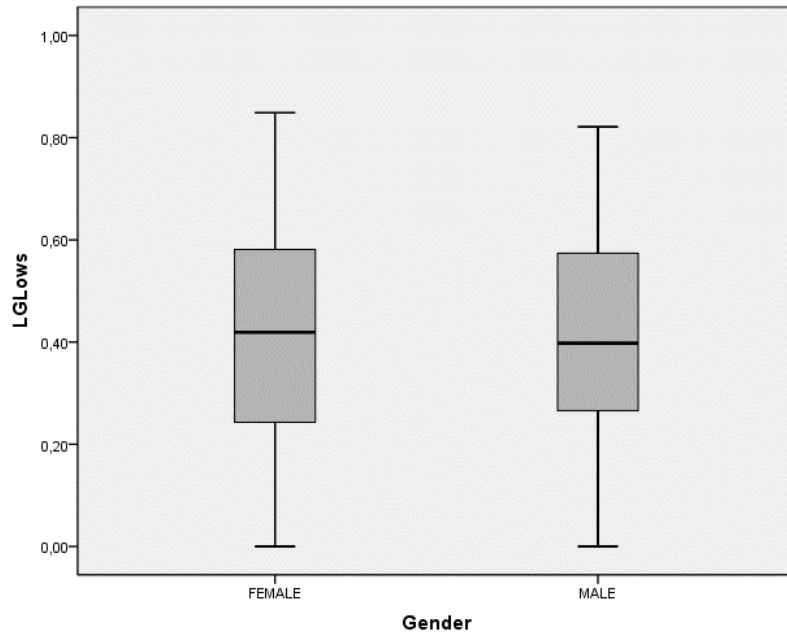
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www.ankara.meb.gov.tr
istatistik06@meb.gov.tr

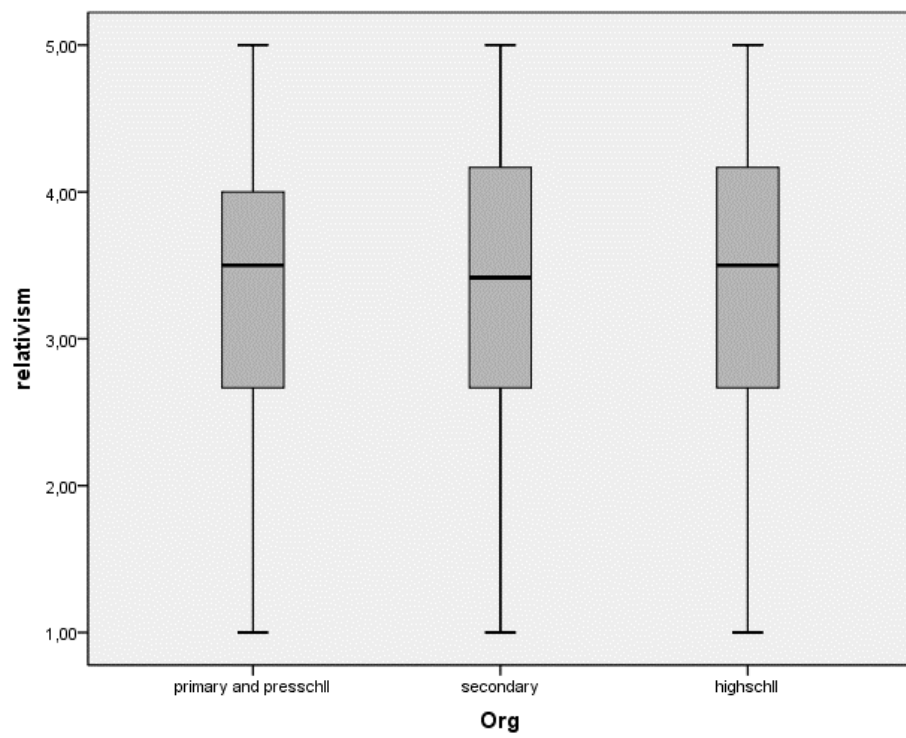
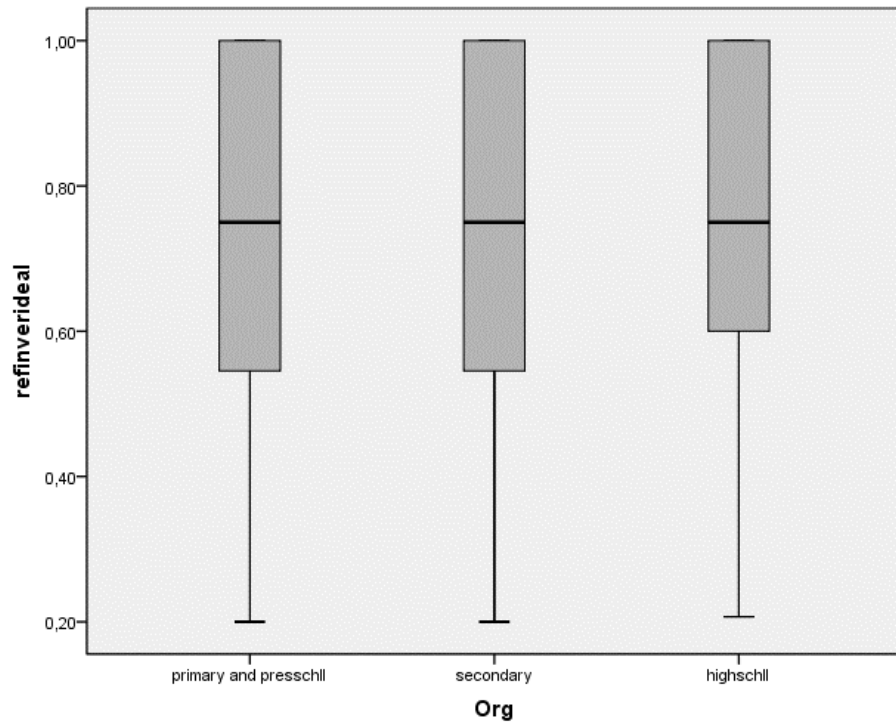
Ayrıntılı bilgi için: Murat YILMAZER
Tel: (0 312) 212 36 00
Faks: (0 312) 212 02 16

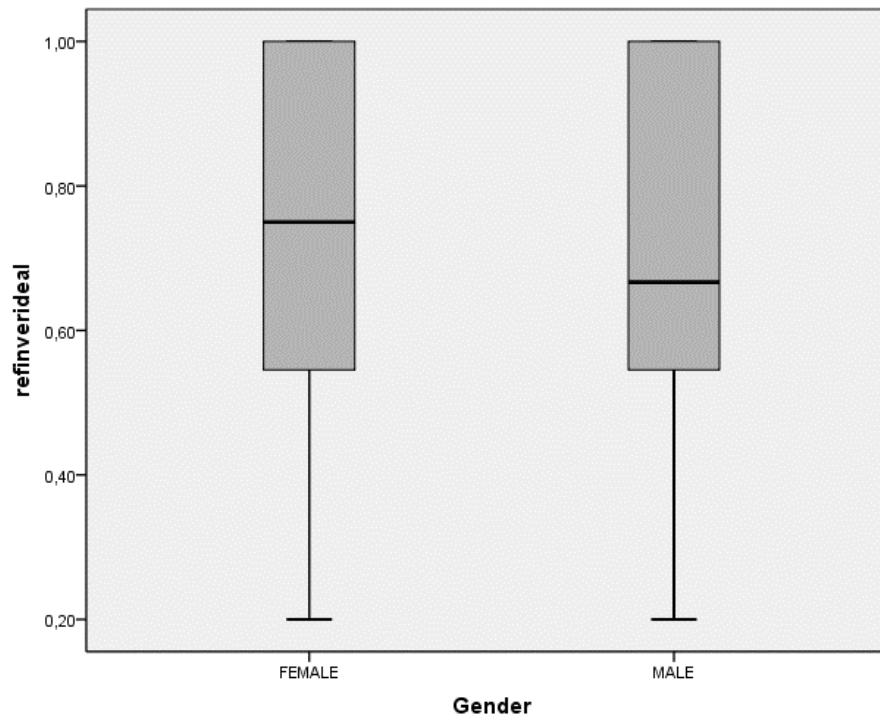
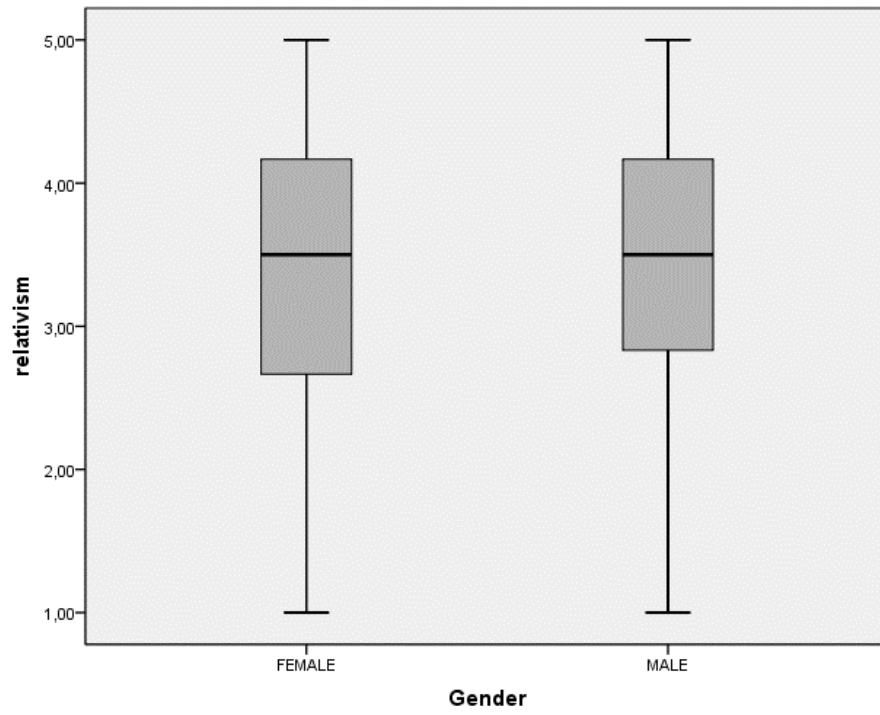
APPENDIX K

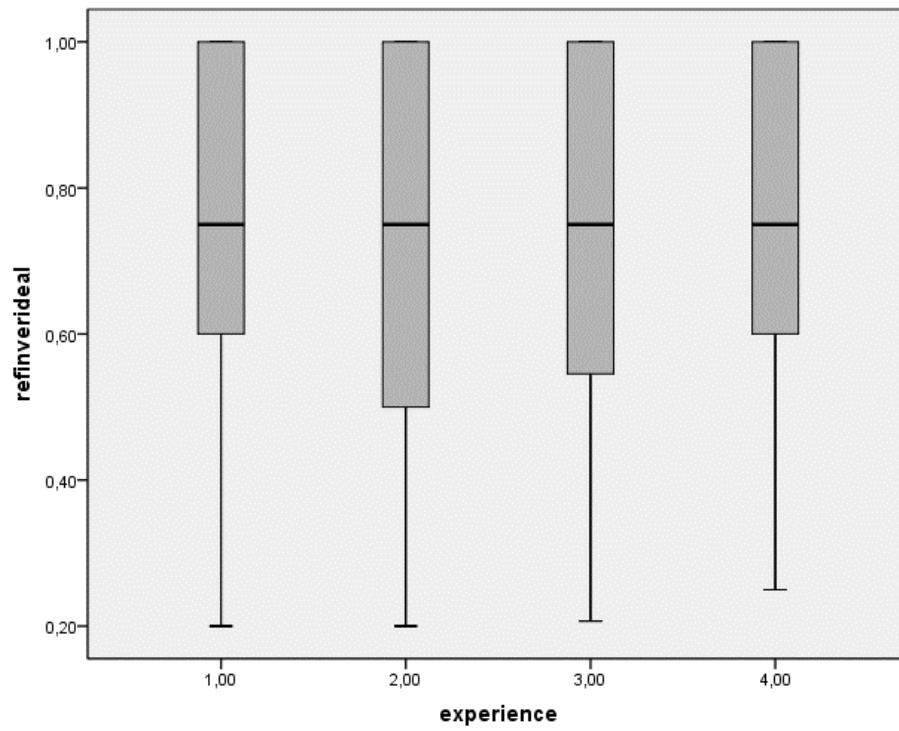
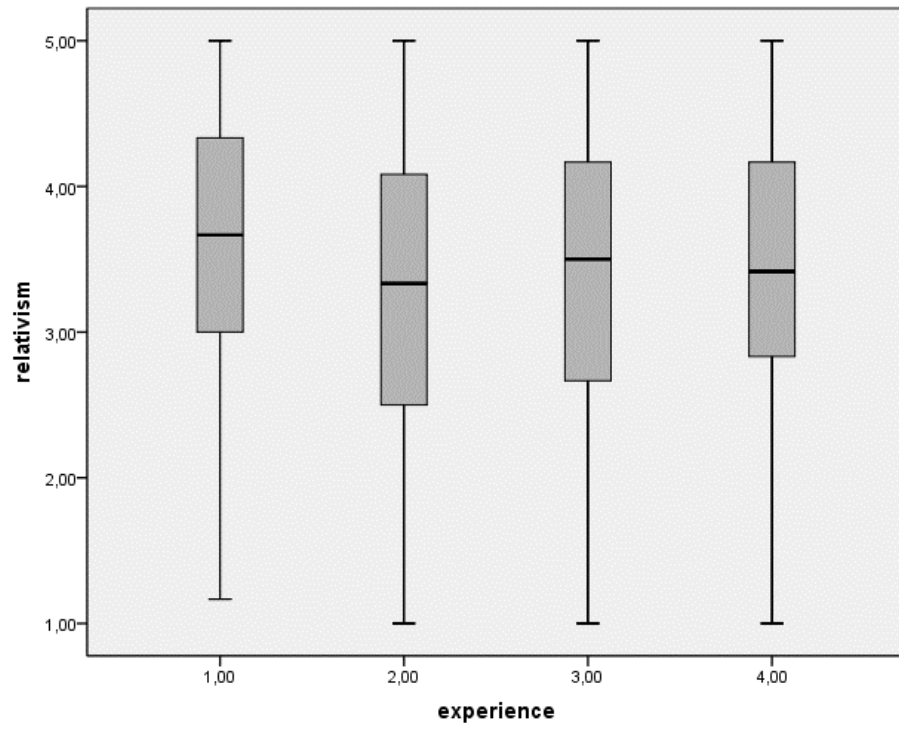
BOX PLOTS of DEPENDENT VARIABLES and COVARIATES











APPENDIX L

ANOVA TABLES

ANOVA Results of Relativism and Idealism Scores According to Gender

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
relativism	Between Groups	1,322	1	1,322	1,306	,254
	Within Groups	512,312	506	1,012		
	Total	513,634	507			
refinverideal	Between Groups	,073	1	,073	1,360	,244
	Within Groups	27,294	506	,054		
	Total	27,368	507			

ANOVA Results of Relativism and Idealism Scores According to Years of Employment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
relativism	Between Groups	6.448	3	2.149	2.136	.095
	Within Groups	507.187	504	1.006		
	Total	513.634	507			
refinverideal	Between Groups	.161	3	.054	.996	.394
	Within Groups	27.206	504	.054		
	Total	27.368	507			

ANOVA Results of Relativism and Idealism Scores According to Level of Organization

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
relativism	Between Groups	.124	2	.062	.061	.941
	Within Groups	513.510	505	1.017		
	Total	513.634	507			
refinverideal	Between Groups	.002	2	.001	.014	.986
	Within Groups	27.366	505	.054		
	Total	27.368	507			

APPENDIX M

Thesis Photocopy Permission Form
TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Önen
Adı : Özgür
Bölümü : Educational Administration and Planning

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : **TEACHERS' OPENNESS TO VIOLATION OF ETHICAL DECISIONS**

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınmaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:

APPENDIX N

TURKISH SUMMARY

ÖĞRETMENLERİN AHLAKİ KARARLARINA AYKIRI HAREKET ETMEYE AÇIKLIKLARI

Giriş:

İş etiği 1980’li yıllardan beri ciddi anlamda akademik ilgi konusu olmuştur. Bu konuda yapılan yayınlar (McMahon, 2002; O’Fallon & Butterfield, 2005) ve verilen derslerden de (Rest, 1986) bu ilgili kolayca anlaşılabilir. Örgüt liderleri ve araştırmacıları, yöneticilerin ahlaki değerlendirme gerektiren konularda nasıl karar verdikleri ile ilgilenmektedirler (Bass, Barnett & Brown, 1999). Bu sadece basında çıkan haberlerin etkisinden değil, ayrıca ahlaki olmayan davranışların insan ve ekonomik kaynakları ile alakalı getirmiş yüksek maliyetinden kaynaklanmaktadır (McMahon, 2002).

Araştırmalar ahlaki olmayan uygulamaların hem özel hem de kamu kurumlarında sıklıkla karşılaşıldığını göstermektedir (ör. Detert, Trevino, & Sweitzer, 2008; Reynolds, Schultz, & Hekman, 2006). Eğitim örgütleri de bunlardan istisna değildir ve eğitimciler sürekli olarak ahlaki ikilemlere düştükleri olaylarla karşı karşıya gelmektedirler (Beninga, 2013). Karar verme, yargılama gerektiren, adalet, disiplin, değerlendirme, mahremiyet ve tavsiye verme gibi faktörler genellikle ahlaki ikileme sebep olmakla (Gifford, 1992) beraber eğitimcilerin neredeyse günlük rutinini oluştururlar ve hatalı tercihlerde bulunmak oldukça olasıdır. Bununla beraber öğretmenler okulda paydaşlardan kaynaklı ahlaki ikilemlere düşebilmektedirler. Paydaşlar, öğretmenlerden ahlaki olmayan davranışlar sergilemelerini isteyebilirler. Buna basit bir örnek olarak öğretmenden herhangi bir öğrencinin notlarının yükseltilmesini başka bir paydaş isteyebilir. Bu belki de toplumun neden öğretmen değerlendirme sistemdeki artışlara ilgi gösterdiğini açıklayabilir. Çünkü birçok birey öğretmenlerin bu tür ahlaki olamayan taleplere karşı koyamayacağını düşündüğü için,

genellikle öğretmen değerlendirmesi etkisinin, diğer kurumlara geçişte yükselmesine karşı çıkmaktadırlar.

Toplumdaki ilgiye ve alandaki birçok çalışmaya rağmen, etik karar vermenin doğası hala çok net değildir ve daha fazla çalışmaya ihtiyaç olduğu gözlenmektedir. Bu aslında etik karar vermenin karmaşık doğası ve etiğin kendisi ile açıklanabilir. Alanda araştırmacılar tarafından birçok ahlaki karar verme modelinin ortaya atılması da bu sebepten kaynaklanıyor olabilir (ör. Jones, 1991; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Trevino, 1986; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; 2006). Alandaki modellerin zenginliği ile beraber birçok değişkenin ahlaki karar vermenin sonucu veya sebebi olduğu gözlenmektedir. Bu değişkenlerin bazıları, ahlaki olayın yoğunluğu, grup dinamikleri, otorite faktörü, sosyalleşme süreçleri (Jones, 1991), kişisel özellikler, dini değerler, insani değerler, kültürel değerler, sosyal değerler, örgütün amaçları, ortaya konan vizyon, örgüt kültürü, kanun ve düzenlemeler, yasal sistem, akran ve aile etkisi (Bommer, Gratto, Gravander, & Tuttle, 1987), ve ahlaki yönelim (Ferrell, Gresham & Fredrich, 1989) şeklinde sıralanabilir. Birçok değişkenin yer aldığı düşünülen bir süreç içinde örgütlerde karşılaşılan etik ikilemlere ve etik karar vermeye yönelik genel olarak kabul gören bir açıklama getirmek zorlayıcı bir durumdur. Diğer bir ifade ile, araştırma bulguları genel kabul gören bir model veya uygulama ortaya koyma konusunda hala sınırlıdır. Bununla beraber, tüm bu değişkenlerin tek bir çalışma dâhilinde test edilmesi de oldukça zor görünmektedir.

Her ne kadar, bu karmaşık değişkenler setini tek bir çalışmada test etmek kolay olmasa da, araştırmacılar bu modelleri kısmen bazı değişkenleri dâhil ederek test etmeye çalışmaktadırlar. Aslında bu faktörlerle ilgili birçok çalışma söz konusudur, ancak paydaşların doğrudan etik davranış niyetleri üzerindeki etkisine yönelik çalışmalar oldukça azdır. Bununla birlikte paydaşların ahlaki karar verme de etkisi olabileceği unutulmamalıdır. Aslında bazı teorilerde önem verilen kişilerin ahlaki karar vermede etkisi olabileceğini vurgu yapmaktadır (örneğin, Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Hunt & Vitell, 2006). Ancak, alanyazın paydaşların etkisine yönelik çalışmalar konusunda sınırlı kalmaktadır. Westerman, Beekun, Stedham, & Yamamura, (2007) tarafından gerçekleştirilen bir çalışmada akranların ve yöneticilerin ahlaki niyet oluşturmaya

etkilerini ölçülmeye çalışılmış olsa da, aslında bu çalışma karar verme sürecinin merkezindekilerin akranları ve yöneticileri bir referans noktası olarak görüp görmedikleri üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır.

Bununla beraber örgüt ortamında ahlaki karar vermeye yönelik yapılan alandaki çalışmaların aslında bir takım sınırlılıklar taşıdığı gözlenmektedir (Örneğin Kılıç & Önen, 2009). Bu tür yordayıcı çalışmaların çoğu niyeti sebeplendirilmiş eylem yaklaşımına uygun olarak asıl davranışın yordayıcısı olarak ele alırlar. Ancak katılımcıların niyetleri ölçerken genellikle araştırmacılar kendileri, söz konusu davranışı ahlaki ya da ahlaki değil diyerek tanımlarlar (örneğin, Moore, Detert, Treviño, Baker ve Mayer, 2012). Bu etik davranmanın doğası ile ilgili eleştirilere sebep olmaktadır. Örneğin, bir davranışın etik olup olmadığı içinde bulunulan özel koşullara, topluma veya örgüte göre değerlendirilebileceği iddia edilebilir, çünkü neyin etik olduğuna dair genel kabul gören cevaplar oluşturmak zordur. Her ne kadar bazı akademisyenler, en azından bir kısım etik ilkelerin evrensel olduğunu iddia etseler de, diğerleri ahlaki olanın içinde bulunulan duruma göre farklı şekillerde değerlendirilebileceğini düşünmektedirler.

Alandaki çalışmaların, örneklem seçimi ile ilgili olarak bazı sınırlılıklar taşıdığı görülmektedir. Örneğin, çalışmaların çoğu eğitim harici kurumlarda gerçekleştirilmektedir. Diğer kamu kurumlarında ve eğitim sektöründe yeteri kadar çalışılmamıştır. Ayrıca birçok çalışma yeterli ya da hiç iş deneyimine sahip olmayan öğrenci katılımcılarla gerçekleştirilmiştir (örneğin, Westerman, Beekun, Stedham, & Yamamura, 2007), ve durum onların gerçek iş ortamını yansıtmaması ile ilgili şüphelere sebep olmaktadır. O'Fallon ve Butterfield (2005) alan yazın taramalarında çalışmaların yüzde 40'ının öğrencilerle gerçekleştirildiğini raporlamaktadır. Dahası Craft'ın yapmış olduğu alan yazın taramasında bu oran yüzde 53'e çıkmıştır ve çalışmaların sadece yüzde 31'lik bir kısmının sadece gerçek profesyonellerle gerçekleştirildiği görülmüştür.

Alandaki çalışmalarla ilgili bir diğer önemli husus, senaryo kullanımudur. Birçok durumda daha öncede belirtildiği gibi insanların etik algıları değişkenlik

gösterebilmektedir. Ancak verilen hikâyeler veya tanımlamalar katılımcı tarafında bir farkındalığa sebep olabilmektedir, katılımcılar bilinçli ya da bilinçsiz, verilen durumu toplumun değerlerine uygun şekilde değerlendirme eğilimine sürüklenebilir. Sonuç olarak, bir durum ya da ifade vermek araştırmalarda ön yargılara sebep olabilmektedir.

Belki de yukarıda söylenen araştırma sınırlılıklarından kaynaklı olarak, var olan alan yazın bulguları bir birleri ile çelişmektedir. Örneğin bazı çalışmalar cinsiyetin anlamlı bir farklılık yarattığına dair bulgular raporlarken (Örneğin, Singhapakdi, 1999; Cohen, Pant & Sharp 2001). Jones ve Kavanagh (1996) ve Ketchand (2001) her hangi bir cinsiyet farklılığı tespit edemediklerini raporlamışlardır. Bu durum ahlaki yönelim ve iş deneyimi içinde geçerlidir. Valentine ve Bateman (2011) ile Singhapakdi, Salyachivin, Virakul ve Veerayangkur (2000) ahlaki yönelik ve etik davranma niyeti oluşturma arasında anlamlı bir ilişki tespit etmiştir. Ancak Bass, Barnett ve Brown (1998) bu konuda herhangi bir anlamlı ilişki tespit etmemiştir. Benzer bir şekilde, Dubinsky ve Ingriam (1984) ile Serwinek (1992) iş deneyimi ile ahlaki davranış niyeti oluşturma arasında anlamlı bir ilişki rapor etmezken, Kidwell, Stevens ve Bethke (1987) ile Eweje ve Brunton (2010) anlamlı ilişki tespit etmişlerdir. Bu nedenlerle, bu değişkenleri farklı bir ortam ve kültürde, Türkiye gibi farklı niteliklere sahip olan bir ülkede araştırmak bu alandaki öngörülerimize katkı sağlayabilir.

Bu çalışmada, paydaşların kendi yaralarına olan davranışları öğretmenlerin gerçekleştirilmesi konusunda ki etkileri incelenecektir, bu şekilde paydaşların karar vermedeki etkilerinin incelenmesi öğretmenlerin ahlaki davranışları ile ilgili olan süreçleri anlamamıza yardımcı olabilir.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmanın amacı ahlaki konularda öğretmenlerin paydaşların etkisine olan açıklığını, ahlaki yönelim ve demografik değişkenler, cinsiyet, hizmet süresi ve çalışılan okul düzeyi bağlamında incelemektir. Alan yazında çelişkiler bulgular gözlenmekle birlikte bu değişkenlerin ahlaki karar vermeye bir etkisi olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu değişkenlerin etkisi sadece etik davranış niyeti oluşturmada değil, etik farkındalık, yargılama ve davranışta bulunmada etkisi olduğu söylenebilir.

Örneğin, Eweje ve Brunton (2010) cinsiyetin ahlaki farkındalıkta etkisinin olduğunu bulmuştur. Ancak Chan ve Leung (2006) cinsiyetin ahlaki farkındalıkta anlamlı bir etkisinin olmadığını raporlamaktadırlar. Diğer taraftan McCullough ve Faught (2005) ile O'Leary ve Stewart (2007), iş deneyiminin daha fazla ahlaki olmada etkisi olduğunu bulmuştur. Hayibor ve Wasielesk (2009) ise etrafta aynı davranışı ahlaki bulanların olmasının, davranışın ahlaki kabulünde etkisi olduğunu raporlamıştır. Beekun, Hamdy, Westerman, ve HassabElnaby (2008) ise milli kültürün ahlaki karar vermede etkisi olduğunu bulmuşlardır. Bu nedenlerle, farklı bir kültürde, aynı değişkenlerin farklı sonuçlar ortaya koyabileceği beklenebilir. Bu durum, paydaşların etik davranış niyeti oluşturmaya etkilerinde Türkiye bağlamında farklı sonuçlar ortaya konabileceğine işaret etmektedir.

Bu çalışma ile erkek ya da kadın öğretmenlerden hangilerinin paydaşlar uğruna (öğrenci, yönetici, veli ve diğer iş arkadaşları) ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket etmeye daha yatkın olduklarının ortaya çıkması, yine iş deneyiminin veya çalışılan okul düzeyinin bir etkisinin olup olmadığının ahlaki yönelim değerleri kontrol edildikten sonra ortaya çıkması beklenmektedir.

Araştırma soruları

Bu çalışmada aşağıda belirtilen sorulara cevap aranmaktadır.

- 1) Öğretmenlerin ahlaki yönelim düzeyleri (idealizm ve rölativizm değerleri) nedir?
- 2) Öğretmenlerin ahlaki yönelimleri demografik değişkenlere göre farklılaşmakta mıdır?
- 3) Öğretmenlerin paydaşlar uğruna ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket etmeye açıklıkları nasıldır?
- 4) Öğretmenlerin ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket etmeye açıklıkları ile etik yönelim düzeyleri arasında bir ilişki var mıdır?
- 5) Öğretmenlerin ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket etmeye açıklıkları etik yönelim düzeyleri kontrol edildikten sonra cinsiyet, iş deneyimi ve çalışılan örgüt düzeyine göre değişiklik göstermekte midir?

- a. Öğretmenlerin ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket etmeye açıklıkları yüksek ahlaki yoğunluk içeren durumlarda etik yönelim düzeyleri kontrol edildikten sonra cinsiyet, iş deneyimi ve çalışılan örgüt düzeyine göre değişiklik göstermekte midir?
- b. Öğretmenlerin ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket etmeye açıklıkları düşük ahlaki yoğunluk içeren durumlarda etik yönelim düzeyleri kontrol edildikten sonra cinsiyet, iş deneyimi ve çalışılan örgüt düzeyine göre değişiklik göstermekte midir?

Araştırmanın önemi

Etik hususlar eğitim örgütlerinde ve eğitim yönetimi alanında önemli konulardır. Öğretmenler eğitim kurumlarının başlıca ve en önemli çalışanları olarak öğrencilerin hayatında ve geleceğinde önemli bir etkiye sahiptirler (Tucker & Stronge, 2005). İş görenler çalışma ortamlarında ahlaki ikilemlerle karşılaştıklarında (Fudge & Schlacter, 1999), bazan kurumun amaçları ile çelişen değerler taşıyabilirler ve bu onların üzerinde strese sebep olabilmektedir (Carroll, 1975). Ayrıca karar verme stilleri, örgüt performansını etkileyebilir (Rehman, Khalid, & Khan, 2012). Öğrencilerin geleceğindeki kritik önemleri göz önüne alındığında, ahlaki konularla karşılaştıkları zaman nasıl hareket ettiklerini anlamak önemlidir. Bununla birlikte öğretmenler, özellikle Türk eğitim sisteminde, kaynakların ve harcamaların dağıtımında belli bir oranda sorumluluk sahibidirler ve her an ilk yıllarında dahi yönetici pozisyonunda çalışabilmektedirler.

Bunun haricinde hem özel hem de kamu kurumlarında toplumlar tarafından skandal olarak değerlendirilen birçok olaya rastlanmaktadır (örneğin, Enron Skandalı, Kanada Sponsorluk Skandalı). Eğitim örgütleride istisna değildir. Yazılı ve görsel medyada bazen öğretmenlerin, okul yöneticilerinin veya öğrencilerin karıştığı ve skandal olarak değerlendirilen olaylarla karşılaşmaktadır. Örnek olarak, Atlanta Kamu Okulu Kopya skandalı, 1999 ÖSYM sınav sorularının çalınması verilebilir. Paydaşların ahlaki kararlara aykırı hareket etmeye etkisinin anlaşılması bu tür skandal olarak değerlendirilen davranışların önlenmesinde etkili olabilir.

Bazen insanların yapmış olduđu ahlaki olmayan davranışları fark edememeleri söz konusu olabilir. Aşırı bir örnekte, gaspa karışan bir polis memuru başka bir meslektaş tarafından korunmuştur (Wilson 1962 akt. Sherman 1978). Polis memurunun meslektaşının davranışının da ahlaki olmadığı iddia edilebilir. Bu durumda insanların aslında kendi çıkarları için değil başkalarının çıkarları için ahlaki olmayan bir davranışı gerçekleştirmesi söz konusudur. Bu aslında çok şaşırtıcı bir davranış olarak değerlendirilmemelidir, zira karar verme konumunda olanlar kar ortaklarının beklentilerini optimize etmeye çalışırlar (Reynolds, Schultz, & Hekman, 2006) ancak bu beklentilerin her zaman ahlaki olacağının garantisi yoktur.

Aslında paydaşların etkisine yönelik bazı çalışmalar olmakla beraber (örneğin, Westerman vd., 2007, Barnett, Bass, & Brown, 1996, Jones & Kavanagh, 1996, Zhuang vd., 2005, Grover & Hui, 1994, Bruce, 1994, Zabid & Alsagoff, 1993, Dubinsky & Loken, 1989). Bu çalışmalar genel olarak paydaş tanımlamasında veya paydaş için ahlaki olmayan bir şeyler yapılacağı hususunda bazı sınırlılıklara sahiptirler ve aslında ahlaki karar vermede paydaşın etkisi üzerinde durmaktadırlar. Bununla birlikte bir kısmı normatif bir yöntem izleyerek “neyin ahlaki olduğunu” önceden tanımlama eğilimindedirler. Bununla beraber doğrudan paydaşlar için ahlaki davranmamaya yönelik araştırmalar sınırlıdır. Ancak bu çalışmanın amacı alandaki bu eksikliği inceleyerek ortaya koymaktır.

Yine bu çalışmada, katılımcı olarak öğretmenler seçilmiştir. Birçok çalışmada (Loe, Ferrell, & Mansfield, 2000; Craft, 2013) örneklem grubu öğrencilerden ve hatta özellikle işletme bölümünden öğrencilerden oluşmaktadır. Loe, Ferrell ve Mansfield’in (2000) de belirttiği gibi, öğrenciler örgüt bağlamını tam yansıtamayacakları gibi, hem iş hem de özel hayatta sınırlı bir tecrübeye sahiptirler. Örgüt ortamında ahlaki karar vermeyi incelemek için öğrencilerden ziyade asıl çalışanlar üzerinde çalışmalar yapmak oldukça önemlidir (Loe vd., 2000; Craft, 2013).

Alan yazın incelendiğinde birçok ahlaki karar verme modelinin var olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bunların önemli bir kısmı Kohlberg’in ahlaki gelişim teorisini temel almakta olan Rest’in dört aşamalı ahlaki karar verme modeline (Rest, 1994)

dayanmaktadır (Seymen & Bolat, 2007). Rest'e göre ahlaki karar verme süreçleri öncelikle ahlaki bir durumun farkedilebilmesi ile başlar, karar verici daha sonra durumun ahlakiliğini değerlendirir ve ahlaki olup olmadığı konusunda bir kanaat oluşturur. Daha sonra bu kanaate göre bir davranış niyeti oluşturmakta ve ardından da davranışı gerçekleştirmektedir. Bu aşamaların her hangi birinde sorun yaşanması kişiyi ahlaki olmayan bir davranışa sürükleyebilir.

Bir diğer ahlaki karar verme modeli ise Trevino'ya aittir (1986). Bu model de kişi olayı yargıladıktan sonra davranışa dönüştürürken kişisel faktörler ile durumsal faktörler ve ayrıca örgüt kültürü ve işin özellikleri gibi faktörler rol oynar.

Ferrell ve Gresham'ın (1985) geliştirdiği modelde ise önem verilen kişiler, davranışın gerçekleştirilmesi esnasındaki ödül ceza, mesleki değerler gibi fırsatların da karar verme esnasında rol oynadığı gözlenmektedir, yine bu modelde davranış sonucunda elde edilecek dönütün değerlendirilmesi de modele eklenmiş olup gelecekteki durumlar için durumun yargılanması konusunda bir faktör olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Hunt ve Vitell (1986;2006) ise modellerinde sosyo kültürel çevreye öncelikle vurgu yapmakta, alternatiflerin değerlendirilmesinin karar verme sürecinde bir rol oynadığını öne sürmektedirler. Yine bu modelde bireylerin karar verme sürecinde olası durumun ahlakiliğini deontolojik ve teleolojik bir değerlendirme süzgecinden geçirdiklerini öne sürmektedirler. Akabinde davranış niyeti oluşturulur ve eylem üzerinde kontrol düzeyine göre gerçekleştirilir, elde edilen sonucun kişinin karakteristik özelliklerine etki ettiği savunulur.

Ferrell, Gresham ve Fraedrich's ise daha önce anılan Ferrell ve Gresham'ın (1985) modeli ile Hunt ve Vitell'in (1986) modelinin bir sentezini oluşturmaktadır. Sosyo ekonomik çevrede ortaya çıkan ahlaki ikilem Rest'in modelindeki sıralamaya uygun olarak gelişmekle beraber ahlaki değerlendirmeden önce kişinin ahlaki gelişim düzeyinin kendi başına bir süreç oluşturduğu ve bundan sonra kişinin yargılarını deontolojik ve teleolojik bir değerlendirmeden geçirerek oluşturduğunu öne sürmektedir. Akabinde ise davranış niyeti oluşturulur, tüm bu süreçleri ise örgüt kültürü, kişisel özellikler ve fırsatlar etkilemektedir, sonrasında da asıl davranış

meydana gelmekte ve kiři bir deęerlendirme yapmaktadır, sonuçların örgüt kültürü fırsatları ve bireysel özellikleri etkilediđi düşünölmektedir.

Boomer, Gratto, Gravander ve Tuttle'ın davranışsal ahlaki ve ahlaki olmayan karar etik karar verme modelinde ise (1987). Tüm karar verme süreci tek bir aşamada gerçekleşmekte ancak bu aşama iş ve meslek çevresi, yasal çevre sosyal çevre kişisel özellikler ve kişisel çevre gibi faktörlerden etkilenmekte sonucunda ise ahlaki veya ahlaki olmayan davranış ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Jones'un (1991) konu-durumsal etik karar verme modeli diđer modellerden farklı olarak karşılaşılan durumun ahlaki açıdan içermiş olduđu yoğunluđa vurgu yapmaktadır. Olayın sonucunda ortaya çıkabilecek olumlu veya olumsuz sonucun büyüklüğü, zarar görme olasılığı olan kişilerin yakınlık düzeyi gibi sebepler Rest'in modelinde yer alan dört aşamayı da etkiliyor gözökmektedir. Yine örgütsel faktörlerin niyet oluşturma ve davranışı gerçekleştirme aşamalarına etkisi olduđu öne sürölmektedir. Dönüt ve teleolojik /deontolojik deęerlendirmelerin model de yer almaması dikkat çekmektedir.

Tüm modeller birlikte deęerlendirildiđin de aslında her birinin diđerinde olmayan bazı faktörlere yer verdiđi ya da vermediđi gözlenmektedir. Jones'un (1991) modelinde dönüt ve teleolojik /deontolojik deęerlendirmelerin yer almaması gibi, diđer modellerde ise karşılaşılan ikilemin yoğunluğunun dikkate alınmadığı görölmektedir.

Ahlaki karar verme ile ilgili olarak yine sebeplendirilmiş eylem yaklaşımının (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) önemli olduđu düşünölmektedir. Bu teoriye göre eylemlerimizin en önemli yordayıcıları aslında oluşturmuş olduğumuz niyetlerdir. Bununla beraber tutumlarımız, ön deęerlerimiz ve davranış üzerindeki kontrol algımız niyetlerimizi oluşturur. Bu açıdan bakıldığında etik karar verme sürecinde yargılama aşamasından sonra oluşturulacak niyetlerin olası ahlaki ya da ahlaki olmayan davranışların kestirilmesinde rol oynamakta olduđu düşünölebilir. Yine bu teoriye göre arka planda yer alan cinsiyet yaş vb. birçok etken bu süreci etkileyebilmektedir.

Etik davranış niyeti oluşturma üzerine yapılan arařtırmaların cinsiyet, hizmet süresi ve örgüt düzeyi ile beraber idealizm ve rölativizm gibi kişisel ahlaki yönelim deęişkenlerini göz önüne alınarak incelenmesi sonucunda ise alan yazında bir biri ile çelişkili sonuçlar sergilediđi görölmektedir. Örneđin, Marta, Singhapakdi ve Kraft (2008) kadın yöneticilerin daha ahlaki davranma eđiliminde olduđunu bulmuřtur, ancak Street (2006) ahlaki olmayan davranış niyeti oluşturmada anlamlı bir deęişken olmadığını raporlamaktadır. Yine hizmet süresi için Armstrong, Williams, ve Barrett, (2004) deneyimle beraber ahlaki olmayan davranış eđilimi oluşturma arasında bir ilişki olduđunu raporlarken Valentine ve Rittenburg (2007) buna tezat olarak etik davranma niyeti oluşturma ve yargılama ile hizmet süresi arasında pozitif yönlü bir ilişki raporlamaktadırlar. Benzer bir şekilde etik yönelim ile etik davranış niyeti oluşturma arasında da mevcuttur. Örneđin Valentine ve Bateman (2011) daha düşük düzeyde rölativizm skoruna sahip bireylerin daha ahlaki davranma eđiliminde olduđunu raporlarken, Bass, Barnett ve Brown (1999) ne idealizm ne de rölativizmin etik davranış niyeti oluşturma ile ilişkili olmadığı raporlamaktadırlar. Ancak örgüt düzeyi ile ilgili doğrudan bir arařtırmaya rastlanılamamıştır.

Söz konusu olayın ahlaki yoğunluđu, başka bir ifade ile ikileme sebep olan olayın etki düzeyi Leitsch'e (2004) göre ahlaki davranma niyetini etkilemektedir. Shafer ve Simmons (2011) da ahlaki yoğunluđun düşük olma durumunda daha yüksek düzeyde etik olmayan davranışlar gerçekleştirilebileceđini bulmuşlardır. Valentine ve Bateman (2011), Robin, Reidenbach ve Forrest (1996) ve Singhapakdi'nin (1996) yapmış oldukları çalışmalarda ahlaki yoğunlukla davranış niyeti oluşturma arasındaki ilişkiyi destekler niteliktedir. Bununla birlikte Karande, Shankarmahesh, Rao, ve Rahsid (2000) söz konusu davranışların ahlaki yoğunluklarının toplumdan topluma farklı algılandığını raporlamaktadırlar

Yöntem:

Bu çalışmada nicel arařtırma yöntemlerinden betimsel karşılaştırma arařtırması deseni tercih edilmiştir. Arařtırma hem hedef grup olan öğretmenlerin betimsel özelliklerini ortaya koymayı amaçlamakta hem de hali hazırda var olan gruplar arasında farklılıklar olup olmadığını arařtırmaktadır (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Demografik deęişkenlerin

paydaşlar için ahlaki kararlardan vazgeçmede anlamlı farklılıklar oluşturup oluşturmadıkları öğretmenlerin etik yönelimleri olan rölativizm ve idealizm skorları kontrol edilerek araştırılmıştır. Figür 3.1 de öngörülen araştırma deseni düz oklarla gösterilmiştir.

Araştırmanın evrenini Ankara merkezde bulunan dokuz ilçe de, ilk ve orta dereceli okullarda çalışan öğretmenler oluşturmaktadır. Örnek seçilirken öncelikle dokuz ilçe belirlenmiş, ve bu ilçelerdeki okulların yüzde onu oranında okulun araştırma için dâhil edilmesi planlanmıştır. Yaklaşık olarak her okul türünden yine yüzde onunu oluşturacak şekilde rastlantısal olarak okullar seçilmiştir. Okuldaki öğretmenler arasından ayrıca bir seçime gidilmeksizin tümüne ulaşılmaya çalışılmıştır. Toplamda 111 okul seçilmiştir. Her okul sadece bir kez ziyaret edilmiş ve o gün okul da bulunan öğretmenlerden araştırmaya katılmaları istenmiştir. Toplamda 540 öğretmen araştırmaya katılmış olmakla beraber elde edilen anket formlarından 508 tanesinin kullanılabilir düzeyde olduğu belirlenmiştir. Tablo birde her ilçeden toplamda ve okul düzeyine göre kaç adet okul seçildiği görülebilir.

Veri toplama aracı olarak üç bölümden oluşan bir anket kullanılmıştır. Birinci bölümde bu araştırmada kullanılan AKADA ölçeği, ikinci bölümde Forsyth (1981) tarafından geliştirilen ve kültürler arası yapılan bir çalışmada kullanıldığı için Marta, Singhapakdi, Lee, Burnaz, Topcu, Atakan, ve Özkaracalar (2012) tarafından çevirisi yapılmış olan EPQ ölçeği eş yazarlardan izin alınarak kullanılmıştır. Son bölümde ise demografik bilgilerin toplanması amaçlı sorular bulunmaktadır.

AKADA ölçeği, McMahon (2002) tarafından gerçekleştirilen çalışmalar sonucuna göre ahlaki yoğunluğun üç boyutu temel alınarak hazırlanmıştır. Ancak bu çalışmada Bommer vd. (1987) önerisinde var olan yasal çevre sosyal kabulün bir parçası şeklinde değerlendirildiğinden bu çalışmada ayrıca bu konuda maddeler eklenmiştir. Ölçek toplamda düşük yoğunluklu ve yüksek yoğunluklu 16'şar maddeden oluşmaktadır. Toplamda 32 madde ölçekte yer almıştır. Ölçek dokuzlu Likert tipi şeklinde dizayn edilmiştir. İçerik geçerliliği, yüzeysel geçerlilik çalışmaları için uzman görüşüne ve

öğretmen görüşüne sunulmuştur. Elde edilen öneriler doğrultusunda son şekli verilmiştir. Örnek maddeler Tablo 3,2’de görülebilir.

AKADA ölçeğinin yapı geçerliliği için öncelikle 176 öğretmenin katıldığı pilot çalışma gerçekleştirilmiştir. Hem düşük yoğunluklu hem de yüksek yoğunluklu maddeler için yapılan faktör analizi sonuçlarına göre, rotasyondan önce beş rotasyon sonrasında ise dört faktörün eigenvalue değeri 1’in üzerindedir. Bu nedenle ölçeğin dört faktörlü bir yapı sergilediği kabul edilmiştir. Beşinci faktör öğrencilerle ilgili maddelerden oluşmakla beraber, bu maddeler diğer faktörlere de yüklenmektedir. Açıklanan varyans değerlerinden beşinci faktöre ait değerler çıkarılmıştır. Düşük yoğunluklu ahlaki durumlarda ölçeğin açıklamış olduğu toplam varyans yüzde 77.35 düşük yoğunluklu durumlarda ise yüzde 79.61’dir. Faktörler McMahan’un (2002) sınıflandırması temel alınarak adlandırılmıştır; olası zararın büyüklüğü, sosyal kabul, yakınlık ve yasallık.

Ölçeklerin ölçüm modeli değerlendirmeleri, normal dağılım sergilemediği için Hair’in (2010) önerdiği üzere kovaryans temelli alışıla gelmiş yapısal eşitlik modeli ile değil, PLS-yapısal eşitlik modeli ile değerlendirilmiştir. Bu yöntemde öncelikle güvenilirlik değerleri kontrol edilmiş, ve Tablo 3.6 da görülebileceği gibi, Cronbach’s α değerlerinin tüm alt boyutlar için .80 üzerinde olduğu görülmüş ve ayrıca birleşik güvenilirlik değerlerinin Nunnally ve Bernstein (1994) önerdiği gibi .70’in üzerinde olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca her bir maddenin yük değerinin .50’nin üzerinde olduğu gözlenmiştir (Hulland, 1999). Yakınsaklık geçerliliği için açıklanan ortalama varyans (AVE) değerleri kontrol edilmiş ve her bir alt boyut için Henseler, Ringle ve Sinkovics’in önerdiği gibi (2009) .50’nin üzerinde olduğu görülmüştür. Ayırdedicilik düzeyleri ise her bir boyutun AVE değerinin en diğer boyutlarla en yüksek korelasyon düzeyinin karesinden yüksek olup olmamasına bakılmıştır Tablo 3.7 ve 3.8 de görüleceği üzere korelasyon düzeylerinin kareleri AVE değerlerini altındadır. Bununla beraber Tablo 3.9 ve 3.10 da görülebileceği üzere her bir maddenin çapraz yük değerleri en yüksek kendi faktöründedir. Ölçeğin her bir boyutunun bir birinden bağımsız olduğu sonucu ortaya çıkmaktadır. Sonuç olarak ölçeğin ölçüm modeli değerlendirmesinin yeterli düzeyde olduğu görülmüştür.

Öğretmenlerin etik durumlara ilişkin genel tutumlarını ölçmek amacıyla Forsyth (1980) tarafından geliştirilen Etik Yönelim ölçeği (Ethic Position Questionnaire -EPQ) kullanılmıştır. Ölçek iki alt boyuttan oluşmakta, idealizm ve rölativizm düzeylerini ölçmektedir. Ölçeğin Marta vd. (2012) tarafından yapılmış olan çevirisi yazarlardan izin alınarak kullanılmıştır. Ölçek orjinal haliyle dokuzlu Likert tipi şeklinde düzenlenmiş olmasına rağmen çevirisinde 5 Likert tipi ile kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin Türkçe adaptasyonunda geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik çalışmasına dair bilgi olmadığı için geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmaları yapılmıştır. Öncelikle ölçek üzerinde faktör analizi yapılmış, sonuç olarak sekiz madde ölçekten çıkartılmıştır. Toplamda her iki faktörün toplam varyansın yüzde 51.32'sini açıkladığı görülmüştür. Her bir boyut için ayrı ayrı faktör analizi yapıldığında ise idealizm boyutunun toplam varyansın yüzde 45.04 rölativizm boyutunun ise yüzde 40.15'ini açıkladığı gözlenmiştir. Ölçeğin güvenilirliği ise Cronbach alpha değerlerine göre değerlendirilmiş ve ilk boyut için .82 ikinci boyut için ise .78 olduğu gözlenmiştir. Sonuç olarak ölçeğin iç tutarlılık düzeyinin yeterli olduğu düşünülmüştür.

Ölçeğin doğrulayıcı faktör analizi ise IBM-AMOS istatistiksel paket programı kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Her ne kadar idealizm skorları normal dağılım göstermese de bootstraping yöntemi ile bu sorun aşılmaya çalışılmıştır. İlk DFA modeli yeterli uyum değerleri göstermediği için, Arbuckle'un (1999) madde eşleştirme öneri dikkate alınarak en yüksek kovaryans değerleri kontrol edilmiş ve en yüksek iki madde çifti olan madde bir ve iki her ikisinin de bir başkasına zarar verme olasılığı ile ilintili olmaları sebebi ile birleştirilmiştir. Bu modele (Figür 3.5) göre tekrarlanan analiz sonucunda NNFI değerinin .95 CFI değerinin .96, RMSEA değerinin .06 olduğu Ki-kare değerinin ise 152.835 ($df= 53$, $p= .00$) olduğu görülmüştür. Sonuç olarak modelin tatmin edici değerler sergilediğine karar verilmiştir.

Asıl verilerin analizinde ise hem betimsel hem de yordayıcı istatistiksel tekniklerden yararlanılmıştır. Toplamda 540 veriden 32 tanesi uygun bulunmayıp çıkartılmıştır. Araştırmada kullanılan veriler Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Etik komitesinin

kurallarına uygun olarak ve Ankara İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nün yasal izni ile toplanmıştır.

Araştırmanın bir takım sınırlılıkları mevcuttur. Öncelikle veriler sadece Ankara ili merkez ilçede görev yapan öğretmenlerden toplanılmıştır. Bu nedenle verilerin sadece bu örneklem grubuna göre genellenmesi uygun olacaktır. Her ne kadar her bölgeden eş miktarda okul çalışmaya dâhil edilmiş olsa da, veri toplama gününde okulda olmayan öğretmenler araştırmaya katılmaları için davet edilememiştir, bu nedenle genelleme yaparken dikkat edilmesi gerekmektedir. Araştırmada olası iç geçerlik tehditleri olarak örneklem karakteristikleri, örneklem kaybı, lokasyon, ölçek uygulama ve zaman düşünülebilir. Bunlardan örneklem karakteri ile ilgili olabilecek cinsiyet, deneyim gibi faktörler hali hazırda çalışmaya dâhil edilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin çoğunun benzer sosyal ve fiziksel imkânlarla sahip olduğu düşünüldüğünde lokasyonun araştırma sonuçlarını etkileyebilecek düzeyde bir etkiye sahip olmadığı düşünülmüştür. Bir diğer sorun ise bu tarz bir ölçeğe kimlerin katılmak isteyeceği şeklindedir, ölçeğe katılımı her hangi fark uygulama esnasında fark edilememiş olmakla beraber, gerçekte gerçekleştirebileceklerinden daha düşük düzeyde işaretlemeler yapmış olmaları olasıdır ve bu dikkate alınarak hareket edilmelidir. Ayrıca bunun önüne geçmek için verilerin güvelliğine mümkün olduğunca önem verilmiş, öğretmenlerin doldurmuş oldukları ölçekleri kalabalık bir ölçek grubunun içine koyarak kendilerine ait ölçeklerin bulunamayacak şekilde yerleştirilmesi sağlanmıştır. Örneklem kaybının önüne geçmek için ise okullara rastlantısal bir düzen içinde ve haber verilmeden ziyaretlerde bulunulmuş, böylece uygulamadan kaynaklı olarak öğretmenlerin okulda bulunmaması gibi bir olasılık engellenmeye çalışılmıştır. Ölçeğin uygulanması esnasında sadece tek bir araştırmacı yer almış böylece uygulayıcıdan kaynaklı ölçek uygulama ile ilgili tehditler en aza indirilmiştir. Çalışma esnasında olası zaman etkisi ise her hangi bir skandal vb. olayın gerçekleşmemesi sebebi ile olmadığı düşünülmektedir.

Bulgular:

Çalışmaya katılan 508 öğretmenin yüzde 72.4'ü kadın (n= 368) 27.6'sı (n= 140) ise erkek öğretmenlerden oluşmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin ortalama deneyim düzeyi 14.17 yıl

($SD= 7.99$). Öğretmenlerin çoğunluğu 6 ile 15 yıl arası deneyime sahiptirler ($n= 231$) 16-25 yıl arası deneyime sahip olan öğretmen sayısı ise 158'dir. Deneyim süresi 1 ile 5 yıl arasında değişen öğretmen sayısı ise 69'dur. Son olarak 25 yıl üstü deneyime sahip öğretmen sayısı ise 50'dir. Okulöncesi ve ilkokulda çalışan öğretmen sayısı 169, orta okullar da görev yapan öğretmen sayısı 206 ve son olarak liselerde görev yapan öğretmen sayısı ise 133'dür (Tablo 4.1).

Betimsel istatistik sonuçlarına bakıldığında AKADA ölçeğinin her bir alt boyutu için elde edilen değerler Tablo 4.2 ve 4.3 de görülmektedir. En düşük ahlaki kararlardan vazgeçme eğilimi yüksek ahlaki yoğunluk durumunda ve yasal olmayan koşullarda 1.26 ortalama ile okulöncesi ve ilkokul kademesinde görev yapan öğretmenlerde gözlenmektedir. Yüksek ahlaki yoğunluklu durumlarda en yüksek olasılık ise 2.97 ile 25 yıl üstü deneyime sahip öğretmenler arasında tanıdık birinin zarar göreceği durumlarda gözlenmiştir. Düşük ahlaki yoğunluklu durumlarda ise en düşük değer, bir başkasına zarar verme olasılığı söz konusu iken 2.07 ortalama ile erkek öğretmenler arasında gözlenmiştir. En yüksek kararlardan vazgeçme eğilimi ise 1 ile 5 yıl arasında deneyime sahip olan öğretmenlerde 3.54 ortalama ile düşük olasılıkla bir başkasına zarar verme olasılığı söz konusu olduğunda gözlenmiştir.

MANCOVA analizinin varsayımlarından biri her bir alt grupta en az toplam bağımlı değişken sayısının bir fazlası kadar örnek olmasını gerektirmektedir. AKADA ölçeğinin toplamda hem yüksek hem düşük yoğunluklu durumlar için sekiz boyutu olması sebebi ile her bir alt grup için dokuz katılımcı gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmada her bir alt grupta dokuz katılımcı olmadığı için ve yine Tabachnik ve Fidell'in (2007) mümkün olan en az sayıda bağımlı değişkenin MANCOVA modeline katılması önerisi doğrultusunda, her iki duruma ait alt ölçeklerden birer toplam değer elde edilmiştir. Bu skorlara göre ise en yüksek ahlaki kararlardan vazgeçme 3.11 ile orta okullarda görev yapan öğretmenler arasında gözlenmiştir. En düşük eğilim ise 1.76 ile okulöncesi ve ilkokullarda görevli öğretmenler arasında gözlenmiştir.

İdealizm ve rölativizm skorlarına bakıldığında en yüksek rölativizm puanına sahip grup 3.55 ile okulöncesi ve ilkokullarda görevli öğretmenler arasında gözlenmiştir, en

düşük skor ise 3.23 ile 6 ile 15 yıl arasında deneyime sahip öğretmenler arasında gözlenmiştir. İdealizm skorlarında ise en yüksek puan 4.48 ile 6-15 yıl arasında deneyime sahip öğretmenler haricindeki gruplarda gözlenmiştir. Bununla birlikte en düşük puan 4.32 ile 6-15 yıl arasında deneyime sahip öğretmenlerde gözlenmiştir.

MANCOVA analizinin varsayımları

MANCOVA analizi gerçekleştirilmeden önce parametrik bir test olması nedeni ile öncelikle varsayımları test edilmiştir. Normal dağılım varsayımını tam olarak karşılayamamasından kaynaklı olarak veri dönüştürme yöntemi uygulanmıştır. MANCOVA analizi sonuçlarına göre cinsiyet, hizmet süresi ve okul düzeyi değişkenlerinin hem yüksek hem düşük yoğunluklu durumlar için anlamlı bir farklılığa sebep olmadığı görülmüştür. Ancak hem idealizm (Pillai's Trace = .17, $F(2, 481) = 49.509$, $p < .05$) hem de rölativizm (Pillai's Trace = .067, $F(2, 481) = 17.209$, $p < .05$) değerleri bağımlı değişkenler olan yüksek ve düşük yoğunluklu ahlaki kararlardan vazgeçmeye açıklık eğiliminin yordayıcısı olduğuna işaret etmiştir. Bu ilişkinin hangi bağımlı değişkenler üzerinde olduğunu anlamak için ANCOVA analizleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. ANCOVA analizi sonuçlarına göre yüksek yoğunluk durumlarda hem rölativizm düzeylerinin ($F(1,482) = 25.68$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$) hem de idealizm düzeylerinin ($F(1,482) = 61.78$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$) anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Düşük yoğunluklu durumlarda da benzer bir şekilde, hem rölativizm ($F(1,482) = 27.54$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .054$) hem de idealizm ($F(1,482) = 88.58$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .16$) düzeylerinin anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu gözlenmiştir. Yüksek yoğunluklu durumlarda çalışılan örgüt düzeyinin bir etkisi varmış gibi gözükse de ($p = .032$) Bonferroni düzenlemesi gereği anlamlılık düzeyinin .025'e çekilmesi gerektiğinden, anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olmadığı düşünülmüştür.

Tartışma:

Her ne kadar bu çalışmanın asıl amaçları arasında yer almasa da, ahlaki kararlara aykırı hareket etmede, ahlaki yoğunluk kavramının faktör yapısının daha önceki çalışmalardan (Barnett, 1996; Singhapakdi, vd., 1996; McMahan, 2002, 2006; Leitsch, 2006) farklılık gösterdiği anlaşılmıştır. Bu çalışmada McMahan'un sosyal kabulü Jones (1991) önerdiği gibi ele almış olduğu faktör yapısı dikkate alınmış ancak sosyal

kabulde, sosyal uygunluk ve yasalara uygunluk kavramlarının birlikte alınmış olmasından ancak Bommer vd. (1987)'nin yasal çevreyi başlı başına bir faktör olarak ele aldığı önerisi de dikkate alınarak hareket edilmiştir. Bu nedenle AKADA ölçeğine kanunlara uygunlukla ilgili maddeler eklenmiştir. Hem yüksek hem de düşük yoğunluklu ahlaki değerlendirme içeren durumlarda sosyal kabul ile yasalara uygunluk maddelerinin birbirinden farklı iki yapı şeklinde hareket ettiği görülmüştür. Bu örnek grubu için yasalara uygunluğun başlı başına bir faktör oluşturdu şeklinde değerlendirilebilir. Ancak örnek gurubunun kamu kurumlarında çalışan öğretmenlerden yani memurlardan oluştuğunu düşündüğümüzde, bu durumun bu örneklem grubuna özgü olabileceği de düşünülebilir. Yani içinde bulunulan çevre ile yasal çevrenin değerleri arasında fark olmaması durumunda bu faktörlerin yine Jones (1991) belirttiği şekilde tek bir faktör oluşturması da beklenebilir.

Sonuçlar ayrıca ahlaki yoğunluk kavramının farklı faktörler barındırabileceğini dair işaretler göstermektedir. Bu çalışmada, AKADA ölçeği oluşturulurken farklı paydaşlar hesaba katılmıştır. AKADA ölçeğinin faktör analizi sonuçları, beşinci bir faktörün olabileceğine işaret etmektedir. Her ne kadar bu çalışmada açıkça ortaya konmuş olmasa da, beşinci faktörün rotasyondan önce eigenvalue değerinin birin çok az üzerinde olduğu görülmektedir. Ancak rotasyondan sonra bu değer 1'in altına düşmektedir, ve beşinci faktörü oluşturan maddeler diğer faktörlere daha yüksek değerlerle yüklenmektedir. Ancak tüm maddelerin öğrencilerle ilgili olduğu görülmektedir. Bu sonuçlar bazı toplumlarda paydaşların öneminin, sosyal değerlerden veya kanuni düzenlemelerde önde gittiğini göstermektedir. Benzer bir çalışma iş arkadaşlarının öneminin yüksek olduğu ve örgütsel bağlılığa vurgunun daha çok olduğu askeri personel ya da polislerle ilgili kurumlarda iş arkadaşlarının belki de başka bir faktör olarak ortaya çıkmasına sebep olabilir. Bu nedenle bazı toplumlarda ya da topluluklarda ahlaki yoğunluk kavramı kar edenin önemi şeklinde farklı bir boyut oluşturabilir. Ancak öğretmenler arasında gerçekleştirilen bu çalışmada bu faktör yapısının tam olarak desteklenemediği de belirtilmelidir.

Bu çalışmanın asıl amacı öğretmenlerin paydaşlar uğruna kendi ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket edip edemeyeceklerini ortaya koymaktır. Sonuçlar ahlaki anlamda

yüksek yoğunluktaki durumlarda bunun öğretmenler için çok düşük olasılıkta olduğunu göstermekle beraber dokuzlu Likert tipi şeklinde hazırlanmış bu çalışmada ortalama değerin ikinin çok hafif üzerinde olması, nadiren de olsa bu olasılığın gerçekleştirilebileceğini göstermektedir. Ahlaki anlamda düşük yoğunluklu durumlar düşünüldüğünde ise sonuçlar çok ciddi farklılıklar göstermemektedir. Ortalama skorun yüksek yoğunluklu durumlardan bir puan üzerinde olduğu gözlenmiştir.

Cinsiyet değişkeninin öğretmenlerin paydaşlar için ahlaki kararlarından vazgeçmelerinde bir etkisini olup olmadığını anlamak için öğretmenlerin ahlaki yönelimleri kontrol edilerek MANCOVA analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Sonuçlar hem yüksek hem de düşük ahlaki yoğunluk içeren durumlarda cinsiyet değişkeninin anlamlı bir etkisinin olmadığını göstermektedir. Bu sonuçlar daha önce yapılan diğer bazı çalışmaları destekler niteliktedir (örneğin Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Shafer vd., 2001; Street & Street, 2006). Bununla beraber Sweeney vd.(2010) cinsiyet değişkeninin bir olayı ahlakiliğini yargılamada önemli bir değişken olduğunu bulmuşlardır bu açıdan bakıldığında ise sonuçlar bazı araştırma sonuçları ile zıtlık göstermektedir şeklinde değerlendirilebilir. Cinsiyet değişkeninin bu çalışmada bir etkisinin olmaması, belki de Türk eğitim sisteminde, alt yapı imkânları gereği öğretmenlerin genel olarak hep aynı odayı kullanmaları ve bu yoğun etkileşim sebebi ile bir birlerinin düşünce yapılarını etkilemeleri olabilir. Yine bu çalışmanın özelliği olarak asıl doğrudan kazanımda bulunan karar verici konumundaki öğretmen değil, diğer paydaşlardır. Karar veren ile asıl doğrudan kazanç sağlayanın aynı olduğu durumlarda sonuçların farklılık gösterebileceğine dikkat edilmesi gerekmektedir.

Diğer bir değişken olan mesleki deneyim, ya da hizmet süresi de öğretmenlerin diğer paydaşlar için ahlaki kararlarından vazgeçmelerinde, hem yüksek hem de düşük yoğunluklu ahlaki durumlarda bir farklılık göstermemektedir. Dubinsky ve Ingriam da (1984) etik çelişki ile hizmet süresi arasında bir ilişki tespit edilemediğini raporlamıştır. Benzer bir şekilde Serwinek (1992) de ahlaki tutum ve meslekte geçen süre arasında bir ilişki tespit edememiştir. Roozen vd. (2001) ise deneyim ile etik farkındalık arasında bir ilişki bulamamış ancak ahlaki tutumla arasında negatif yönlü bir ilişki tespit etmiştir. Forte (2004) ise iş deneyimi ve ahlaki muhakeme yeteneği

arasında bir ilişki tespit edememiştir. Bu bulgular dikkate alındığında bu çalışmanın bazı araştırma sonuçlarını desteklediği söylenebilir. Ancak Kidweel vd. (1987) deneyimle beraber daha ahlaki sonuçlar alındığını rapor etmiştir. Larkin (2000) de benzer bir şekilde deneyimle beraber daha muhafazakâr bir ahlaki yaklaşımın sergilendiğini belirtmektedir. Yine, McCullough ve Faught (2005) ile Eweje ve Brunton (2010) öğrencilerin deneyimle beraber daha ahlaki davranma eğiliminde olduklarını belirtmektedirler. Sonuçların bu nedenlerle anlamlı fark olmayan çalışmaları desteklediği ancak diğer çalışmalarla aralarında farklılıklar gösterdiği söylenebilir.

Bir diğer faktör olan görev yapılan okul düzeyinin de yine benzer bir şekilde etik yönelimleri kontrol edildiğinde hem yüksek hem de düşük ahlaki yoğunluklu durumlarda öğretmenlerin ahlaki kararlarında vaz geçmelerinde etkili olmadığını göstermiştir.

Öğretmenlerin idealizm ve rölativizm skorları incelendiğinde ise, cinsiyet örgüt düzeyi veya hizmet süresine göre farklılık göstermediği görülmüştür. Bu sonuçlar Özyer ve Azizoğlu'nun (2010) çalışması ile paraleldir, ancak Bass vd. (1998) hem idealizm hem de rölativizm skorlarının cinsiyete göre farklılık gösterdiğini raporlamaktadır, ancak Bass vd. (1998) çalışmasında yaşın kontrol değişkeni olarak araştırma deseninin de yer aldığını, bu çalışmada ise hizmet süresi ile arasında yüksek korelasyon olması sebebi ile araştırma desenine dahil edilmediği vurgulanmalıdır. Yine Bass vd. (1998) in çalışmasında hem idealizm hem de rölativizm skorlarının etik davranma niyeti oluşturma da bir etkisini olmadığını raporlamışlardır ancak bu çalışmada hem idealizm hem de rölativizm skorları paydaşlar için ahlaki kararlara aykırı davranma eğiliminde etkili bulunmuştur. Benzer bir şekilde Marta vd. (2008) de ahlaki yönelimin etik davranma niyeti ile ilişkili olmadığını raporlamıştır. Bununla beraber Singhapakdi vd. (2000) hem idealizm hem de rölativizm skorlarının ahlaki davranma niyeti ile ilişkili olduğunu rapor etmektedir. Sivadis vd. (2003) sadece rölativizm skorlarının daha önce etik anlamda tartışmalı davranışlarda bulunan kişileri işe alma niyeti ile ilişkili bulmuştur.

Teori için öneriler

Bu çalışmanın belki de en önemli bulgusu, öğretmenlerin diğer paydaşlar için ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket edebilecek olmalarının tespit edilmesidir. Bu aşamada öğretmenlerden ziyade doğrudan çıkar sağlayan grupların diğer paydaşlar olduğu vurgulanmalıdır. Bu nedenle ahlaki karar verme ile ilgili teori geliştirirken ya da araştırma yaparken, asıl kazanç sağlayanın kim olduğu da açıkça belirtilerek ve hesaba katılarak hareket edilmelidir. Kişinin davranışları veya kararları asıl çıkar sağlayan olup olmadığına göre değişebilir. Her ne kadar bu çalışmada test edilmemiş olsa da, belki de, Rest'in (1994) dört aşamalı karar verme süreci teorisi çıkar sağlayan durumuna göre yeniden değerlendirilebilir. Çünkü çıkar sağlama pozisyonuna göre olaylara bakış açısı değişebilir, örneğin çıkar sağlayan karar vericinin kendisi ise olayın ahlaki bir durum içerebileceğini düşünemeyebilir. Ancak bir başkası karar vericinin davranışı sonrası çıkar elde edecekse, daha hassas davranıyor olabilir.

Bu çalışmanın bir diğer önemli bulgusu ise ahlaki yoğunluk kavramının boyutlandırılması ile ilintilidir. Jones (1991) sosyal kabul ile kanunlara uygunluğu bir boyut şeklinde önermiş olmasına rağmen Bommer vd.'nin (1987) belirttiği gibi legal çevre kendi başına bir faktör olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Yine geçerlilik çalışmaları esnasında tam olarak desteklenememekle birlikte öğrenciler için ahlaki kararlardan vaz geçme farklı bir boyut olarak ortaya çıkmakla birlikte, faktör rotasyon sonuçlarında bu faktör yeterli eingenvale değerine sahip olamamıştır. Ancak paydaşların öneminin arttığı çalışma ortamlarında bu olgu daha iyi desteklenebilir. Eğer bu bulgu başka örgütsel bağlamlarda desteklenecek olursa ahlaki yoğunluğun yakınlık boyutunun bir uzantısı olarak değerlendirilebilir ve çıkar sağlayanın yakınlığı şeklinde değerlendirilebilir. Ancak bu olgu için farklı kültürlerde ve çalışma ortamlarında araştırmalar yapılarak test edilmesi gerektiği düşünülmektedir.

Yine bu çalışma sonucuna göre hem idealizm hem de rölativizm skorları ahlaki olmayan davranış niyeti geliştirme ile anlamlı ilişki içinde bulunmuştur. Ancak idealizm skorlarının rölativizm skorlarına göre daha yordayıcı olduğu gözlenmiştir. Ancak açıklanan varyans oranı yüksek değildir. Bu belki de başka faktörlerin de etkili olduğunu düşündürmektedir.

Gelecek arařtırmalar için öneriler

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, örgütlerde ahlaki karar verme süreçlerinin hala daha fazla araştırılması gerektiğini düşündürmektedir. Öncelikle faktör analizi sonuçları en azından ahlaki olmayan davranışları sergileme konusunda yeniden değerlendirilmeli, farklı ortamlarda ve kültürlerde test edilmelidir. Paydaşların etkisi en azından bazı gruplar için ahlaki yoğunluk kavramının şüana kadar tanımlanan boyutlarından daha etkili olabilir. Gelecek çalışmaların bu konulara yoğunlaşmasında fayda olabilir.

Yine bu çalışma ahlaki davranmama ile ilgili arařtırmalara yeni bir ölçek getirmekte ve diđer ölçeklerden belki de daha az önyargı içermektedir. Çünkü AKADA ölçeđi doğrudan karar verenin çıkar sağladığı durumlardan ziyade çıkar sağlayanın paydaşlar olduđu durumlar için dizayn edilmiştir ve hiç bir davranışı önceden ahlaki veya ahlaki deđil şeklinde sınıflandırmamaktadır. AKADA ölçeđi özellikle öğretmenler için dizayn edilmiş olmakla beraber, diđer çalışanlara veya kurumlara adapte edilebilecek şekildedir. Farklı örgüt, kültür veya ortamlar için adapte edilip kullanılması etik karar verme literatürü ve arařtırmaları için yararlı olacaktır.

Bir diđer husus ise ahlaki yönelim ölçeđinin faktör yapısı ile ilgilidir. Her ne kadar 20 maddeden oluşmuş olmakla beraber, bu örneklem grubu için 12 maddeden oluşan iki faktörlü yapı geçerlilik güvenilirlik çalışmalarında desteklenebilmiştir. Bu nedenle arařtırmacıların, bu ölçeđi kullanırken geçerlilik güvenilirlik çalışmalarını kendi örneklem grupları için yenilemeleri faydalı olabilir.

Uygulama için öneriler

Bu çalışmada öğretmenler paydaşlar için ahlaki anlamda yüksek yoğunluklu durumlarda bile kendi ahlaki kararlarına aykırı hareket edebileceklerini dile getirmektedirler. Bununla beraber rölativizm ve idealizm skorlarının yüzde beş ile yüzde on yedi oranlarında varyans deđişimini açıkladıkları gözlenmiştir. Her ne kadar bu oranlar çok yüksek gözükme de ahlaki olmayan davranışın sonuçlarının eğitim ortamlarında neredeyse paha biçilemez zararlara yol açabileceđi düşünöldüğünde sonuçları iyi değerlendirmek gerektiđi düşünölmelidir. Örneđin, Türk eğitim sistemi içerisinde öğrenciler sürekli bir birleri ile yarışmaktadırlar. Öğretmenlerin verecekleri

not dağılımında ahlaki davranmamaları her hangi bir öğrencinin geleceğinde geri dönüşü olmayan hatalara, yanlış yönlendirmelere, ya da eğitim hayatının sonlanmasına sebep olabilir. Bu nedenlerle öğretmenlerin ahlaki kararlarına aykırı davranmaya yatkınlıklarının ölçülmesi ve etkileyen faktörlerin bilinmesi, ahlaki olmayan davranışların önüne geçilmesinde yardımcı olabilir. Örneğin, öğretmenlerin bu şekilde davranmaya yüksek ahlaki yoğunlukta bile az da olsa açık olmaları yükseköğretime girişte okul performansının öneminin artırılması tartışmalarına katkı sağlamakta ve aslında bu tür bir eğitim politikası değişikliğinin olumsuz sonuçlar doğurabileceğine işaret etmektedir.

Bununla beraber AKADA ölçeği, diğer sektörlerde ve ortamlar da kullanılarak iş görenlerin hali hazırdaki durumları değerlendirilebilir. Netice itibari ile ahlaki olmayan davranışların sonuçların da ciddi kayıplar söz konusu olabilmektedir. Örneğin, 1999 yılında üniversiteye giriş kitapçıklarından birinin çalınması ÖSYM'ye yaklaşık 3.500.000 liraya mal olmuştur (Vatandaş Sağolsun, 1999) ve bu paranın içinde sınava girecek öğrencilerin yapmış oldukları ekstra masraflar dâhil değildir. Bu nedenlerle, paydaşların ahlaki kararlara aykırı davranmaya etkilerinin incelenmesi tüm kurumlar için kısmen de olsa bazı ahlaki olmayan davranışların önüne geçmede faydalı olabileceği düşünülmektedir.

APPENDIX O

CURRICULUM VITAE

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