CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the empirical studies of different construct as used in this research. The main objective of this chapter is to discuss the previous studies with reference to relationship between ethical ideology, emotional intelligence, job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This research also investigated the emotional intelligence as the potential moderating variable on the relationship between ethical ideology, job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention.

3.2 Ethical Ideology and its relationship between Job Stress, Job satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

In the global competition scenario, the expanding boundaries of businesses across the globe have increased the need of ethics in organizations [Viswesvaran et al. (1998)]. Ethics related situations in business are becoming more complex, involving issues such as societal expectations, moral issues, fair competition, ethical decision-making, legal protection, rights, and ethical ideologies. This has led to an increase in the research work and literature in the domain of business ethics. These recent developments have increased both the depth and breadth of business ethics research. According to size, nature and consequences of today competitive business, even becomes more important to understand the causes and effects of ethics in the modern workplace. Business ethics literature will congregate the concepts, which help the researcher to understand the causes and effects of ethics in workplace.

The two basic causes were identified by one of the Linda Trevino’s influential study refer as individual and situational. Examples of the most prominent of causes are cognitive moral development [Kohlberg (1984)], locus of control [Rotter (1966)], obedience to authority [Milgram (1974)], moral disengagement [Bandura (1996)], moral awareness [Rest (1986)], and ethical climate [Victor and Cullen (1987)]. Examples of effects include ethical/unethical behavior [Trevino (1986)], corporate crime [Hill et al. (1992)], firm attractiveness to potential employees [Turban and Greening (1997)], and corporate social performance [Wood (1991)].
In the late 1980s, in receipt of different studies in the business ethics literature [Bird and Waters (1989)], a concept that came into existence recently [Reynolds et al. (2011)] found its way into the mainstream business ethics literature known as moral/ethical stress.

Managers are regularly pushed to accomplish their fiduciary obligations to their owners [Friedman (1962)]. Those obligations, in spite of numerous ethics related organizational scandals have spurred non-founder stakeholders to become even more vocal in their demands for ethical behavior from managers [Rehbein et al. (2004)], and many of these demands are materializing in the organization in diversified forms (e.g., Code of conduct, social auditing etc.). The saddles of accomplishing these diversified ethical obligations of the organization, employee or managers may get into ethical dilemma related to judgments; decision-making and conflict of personal and organizational values undoubtedly create a stress, which affects both professional and personal lives of employees and managers [Waters and Bird (1987)].

On daily basis, almost every employee onslaught from different job stressors, such as lack of supervisor, coworker support and family conflicts etc. In this dissonance of stress, are all stressors affect with the same intensity to organizational health and productivity, such stressors should be curative in priority. More specifically, what significance does individual moral/ethics have affect on different stressors clamoring for management’s attention?

There are few studies, which have examined the stress consequential from discrepancies in the ethical values and expected behavior of employees [Schwepker (1999), Viswesvaran et al. (1998)]. Researchers usually emphasize on more empirical studies to be conducted in the field of business ethics [Hosmer (2000), Lund (2001), Robertson (1993), Ross and Robertson (2000), Sparks and Hunt (1998)]. This research will contribute to fulfill the gap mentioned by previous studies. A study conducted on 800 adults concluded that 78% would work in an ethical company rather than receive a higher salary [Coldwell et al. (2008)].

3.2.1 Stress associated with moral values

The stress associated with moral values was conceptualized as moral stress or ethics stress etc. The concept like ‘‘moral stress’’ [Bird and Waters (1989), Wyld and Jones (1997)] and ‘‘ethical conflict’’ [Schwepker (1999)] in the business ethics literature, as well as the work by Thorne (2010), the studies on moral stress has given different definitions to conceptualize the term moral stress. Table 3.1 provides a chronology of the different definitions given by
different researchers, which gives a general description to understand moral stress [DeTienne (2012)]. It was found from the ethics literature that the stress was associated with moral values due to conflict between organizational moral values and individual moral values. But, the emphasis was given in the current research to examine the relationship between individual’s ethical ideology and their job stress.

**Table 3.1: Definition of ethics stress and related constructs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author/Year</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raines (2000)</td>
<td>Ethics stress</td>
<td>“The stress associated with ethical issues and/or dilemmas” (p. 30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulrich et al. (2007)</td>
<td>Ethics-related stress</td>
<td>“An occupational stress that is the emotional, physical and psychosocial consequences of moral distress (i.e. knowing the morally right course of action but constrained to carry out the action)” (p. 1709)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jameton (1984)</td>
<td>Moral distress</td>
<td>“Painful feelings and/or psychological disequilibrium that occurs when nurses are conscious of the morally appropriate action a situation requires but cannot carry out that action because of institutionalized obstacles” (p. 382)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wilkinson (1987)</td>
<td></td>
<td>“The psychological disequilibrium and negative feeling state experienced when a person makes a moral decision but does not follow through by performing the moral behavior indicated by that decision” (p. 16).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fry et al. (2002)</td>
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<td>“A feeling state experienced when a person makes a moral judgment about a situation but does not act on those judgments” (p. 374)</td>
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<td>Kalvemark et al. (2004)</td>
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<td>“When one believes one knows an ethical dilemma is at stake and also the morally right thing to do, but institutional constraints make it impossible to pursue the desired course of action” (p. 1077)</td>
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<td>Nathaniel (2006)</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Pain affecting the mind, the body, or relationships that results from a patient care situation in which the nurse is aware of a moral problem, acknowledges moral responsibility, and makes a moral judgment about the correct action, yet, as a result of real or perceived constraints, participates, either by act of omission, in a manner he or she...”</td>
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<td>Author(s)</td>
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<td>Jameton (1993)</td>
<td>Initial moral distress &quot;Occurs when the person feels frustration, anger, and anxiety when faced with institutional obstacles and interpersonal conflict about values&quot; (p. 544)</td>
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<td>Fry et al. (2002)</td>
<td>&quot;Is experienced when a person encounters a situation and experiences difficulty in carrying out his or her moral responsibilities. The experience itself typically involves strong negative feelings such as anger, frustration and guilt. Feelings such as anxiety, powerlessness, ineffectiveness, one’s personal beliefs or values being violated, and a sense of failed responsibility may also occur&quot; (p. 374)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jameton (1993)</td>
<td>Reactive moral distress &quot;Occurs when people do not act upon their initial distress&quot; (p. 544)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fry et al. (2002)</td>
<td>&quot;Typically involves behaviors such as crying and anger; psychological reactions such as depression, nightmares, and feelings of worthlessness; and physical reactions such as heart palpitations, diarrhea and headaches&quot; (p. 376)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Corley et al. (2005)      | Moral distress intensity; moral distress frequency "Undefined, Although the study reveal a difference between moral distress intensity and frequency and the importance of the environment to moral distress intensity."
| Pauly et al. (2009)       | "Undefined. The scale used to measure intensity is ‘‘none to great extent’’ and the scale to measure frequency ranges from ‘‘none to very frequently’’ (p. 565)" |
| Ohnishi et al. (2010)     | "Undefined" |
| Wyld and Jones (1997)     | "An incongruence between organizational and individual perspectives on ethical matters” (p. 470) |
| Lu’tze‘n et al. (2003)    | "Results when an individual person’s moral sensitivity cannot be put into action because of perceived external constraints” (p. 316) |
| Reynolds et al. (2011)    | "A psychological state (both cognitive and emotional) marked by anxiety and unrest due to an" |
3.3 Conceptualization of the relationship between Ethical Ideology and Job stress

According to various definitions, most of the moral stress or ethics stress has been evolved from the conflict between personal and organizational values or the person not able to take morally right course of action due to organizational constrained. However, Forsyth and Nye (1990) model proposed that individual’s moral beliefs, attitudes, and ethical values consist of an integrated conceptual system of personal ethics. This integrated system, or personal moral philosophy, provides guidelines for moral judgments, solutions to ethical dilemmas, which maybe erupted from different moral related issues in the organization consequently leads to stress.

Individual differences described with respect to personal moral philosophies, Forsyth (1980, 1985) focuses on two dimensions: relativism and idealism. First, individuals differ in their acceptance of universal ethical principles. While at the end of the continuum, where individual’s high in relativism espouse a personal moral philosophy based on cynicism. In contrast, individual’s low in relativism defined “right” actions as the action, which are
consistent with moral principles, norms, or laws. Second, individual’s high in idealism fundamentally concern for the welfare of others which lies at the heart of some individual’s moral codes believe that the we should avoid harming others, whereas, individual’s low in idealism do not emphasize such ideals and assume that harm will sometimes be essential to produce good results.


Previous studies demonstrated that ethical ideology was related to different individual factors, moral intensity, and organizational factors. Ethical ideology in organizations plays a significant role in developing strong ethical organizational culture and climate [Trevino et al. (1998), Karande et al. (2000), Ming and Chia (2005)]. There are other numerous organizational factors which have been studied with reference to business ethics, such as business competitiveness [Robertson and Rymon (2001)], code of ethics [Adams et al. (2001), McKendall et al. (2002)], peer relationship [Mencl and May (2009)], and training [McKendall et al. (2002)]. On the other hand, very little research has investigated business-ethics consequences, such as employee’s job satisfaction, stress, motivation, commitment, and job performance, in comparison with many studies to explain organizational factors of ethical behaviors in business [Koh and Boo (2001)]. Job stress is one of the organizational factors, which seek attention with reference to business ethics [Ho (2010)].

Empirical studies have confirmed the significant relationship between ethical climate and ethical ideology [Karande et al. (2000), Ming and Chia (2005)] as well as the significant association between ethical climate and role stress [Singhapakdi and Vitell (1999), Mulki
A significant negative relationship was explored between total work ethic and staff’s job stress [Nader Soleimani (2011)] and positive relation between work ethics and employee’s productivity [Ahmadie et al. (2014)]. Based on these findings, it can be argued that ethical ideology is a potential construct to be associated with job stress, which is left unexamined. Thus, this research contributes to overcome from this deficiency. The present study is designed to fill the gap in the literature by focusing on the association between job stress and ethical ideology. It extends previous research by taking its point of departure in the arguments presented above and other researcher’s suggestions for future investigations. Specifically, it seeks to determine whether there is any association between job stress and ethical ideology among retail employees. Therefore, the present research is conducted to examine the relationship and effect of ethical ideologies on job stress.

One type of organizational factor that harm personal well-being and ethical behavior is job stress. In an organizational context, job stress is also known as occupational stress, work stress or role stress. These terms are often used interchangeably in organizations, but its meaning refers to the same thing [AbuAlRub (2004)]. Occupational health problems and a significant cause of economic loss increasing due to job stress. Job stress may produce both overt physiological and psychological disabilities. However, it may also cause the subtle manifestation of melancholy that can affect personal well-being and productivity [Quick et al. (1992)]. A job stress affected individual have the higher probability of job dissatisfaction, increased absenteeism, increased the frequency of drinking and smoking, increase in negative psychological symptoms and reduced aspirations and self-esteem [Jick and Payne (1980)]. Job stress effects customer orientation and had a direct as well as indirect effects on job performance, mediated by customer orientation [Knight et al. (2007)]. If employees cannot control physiological and psychological stresses, this may negatively affect their work attitudes and behavior (satisfaction, commitment, productivity, quality, and health) in the workplace [Seaward (2005), Newell (2002), World Health Organization (2005)]. Previous study revealed that stress levels were found to vary with biographical variables such as gender, age, and experience in teaching, school size and location [Manthei et al. (1996)].

Job stress is a costly problem for researchers and organizations due to its prevalence and negative consequences. The prevalence of job stress is disturbing when the costs of organizations and individuals are affected, which leads to workplace deviance [Henle (2005)].
Evidence reported that job stress is the major cause of turnover in organizations [NIOSH (1999)]. Further, employees who are responsible for workplace deviance are more likely to increase turnover intentions [Giacalone et al. (1999)], increase job stress related issues, decreased productivity, low morale, lost work time [O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996)], damaged self-esteem, increased fear and insecurity at work, and psychological and physical pain [Griffin et al. (1998)]. It was found that role expectation conflict, coworker support and work-life balances are the factors responsible for the increased job stress in India [Shukla and Srivastava (2016a)]. Eventually, workplace deviance affects the ethical climate of the organization [Peterson (2002)], which influenced the job stress [Singhapakdi and Vitell (1999), Mulki (2008)] and ethical ideology [Karande (2000), Ming and Chia (2005)] of individuals. Therefore, from the above studies, it is believed that ethical ideology could have a significant relationship with job stress, which can be important relation for creating an ethical climate without any deviance in the modern workplace.

A potential elucidation for the complex relationship between ethical ideology and job stress is that an employee’s reaction to ethical pressure is likely to depend on the individual characteristics of the employee [Moser (1988)]. An individual variable that would appear likely to influence employees respond to pressure which may engage them in unethical business activity is the ethical orientation or moral philosophy of the employees. One of the key aspects of an individual’s moral philosophy is the degree to which the individual believes ethics are relative versus a belief in universal moral rules [Akaah (1997)]. From the previous studies, it has been proposed that differences in ethical orientation influence the formulation of an ethical intention [Thorne and Saunders (2002)]. Employees adhering to a belief in universal moral rules would prefer to formulate ethical intentions based on rules of proper conduct [Moon and Wooliams (2000)], while relativists are more likely to formulate ethical intentions based on the outcomes of the potential acts. Thus, all employees (idealists and relativists) may identify an ethical dilemma –for ex. misleading a customer in order to achieve organization’s goal of maximizing revenue. Relativists who believe in organization objective needs to rationalize the management goals are ethically acceptable. Research suggests that individuals believing in universal moral rules are more likely to adhere to their ethical standards and to act in an ethical manner [Tansey et al. (1994), Weber and Green (1991)]. Therefore, relativists
may find it easier to change their ethical standard according to organization objectives than idealists.

Thus, it might be reasonable to expect that individuals who believe in universal moral rules would have more difficulty in breaking rules of ethical conduct and thus experience more stress in coping with pressure to engage in unethical behavior at work than individuals who adhere to relativistic moral beliefs. That is, individuals who believe in universal moral rules would seem likely to have more difficulty rationalizing unethical work behavior since these individuals do not believe that ethics are relative. They are likely to expect the same ethical standards to apply to both personal and professional situations. As a result, individuals with a strong belief in universal moral rules may experience more stress or cognitive dissonance when confronted with pressure to engage in unethical work behavior and consequently have a stronger need to alleviate the stress by withdrawing from the organization.

Conversely, individuals who believe ethics are relative and dependent on the situation may be able to justify potential unethical acts as necessary for the successful accomplishment of organizational and work goals. These employees may view certain business activity as contrary to their personal morals, but may rationalize that ethics in the business environment do not necessarily have to be consistent with ethics in their personal life. Thus, they may be more successful in coping with pressure to engage in unethical behavior at work than individuals who adhere to a belief in universal moral rules.

A review of the literature did not reveal any theories or empirical research directly related to ethical ideologies i.e. idealism and relativism. Therefore, with respect to belief in ethical ideology, the following null hypotheses were tested:

H1(a): There will no relationship between idealistic moral beliefs and job stress.

H1(b): There will no relationship between relativistic moral beliefs and job stress.

3.4 Conceptualization of the relationship between Socio-demographic variable and Job stress

In an organizational context, occupational stress is also known as job stress and/or work stress. Occupational health problems and a significant cause of economic loss increasing due to job stress. A job stress affected individual have higher probability of job dissatisfaction, increased absenteeism, increased frequency of drinking and smoking, increase in negative psychological symptoms and reduced aspirations and self esteem [Jick and Payne
Job stress affected customer orientation and had direct and indirect effects on job performance mediated by customer orientation [Knight et al. (2007)]. If employees cannot control physiological and psychological stresses, this may negatively affect their work attitudes and behavior (satisfaction, commitment, productivity, quality and health) in the workplace [Newell (2002), Seaward (2005), World Health Organization (2005)]. Previous literature reported that the socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status affected the job stress development in general practice [Firth Cozens (1998), Wilhelmsson et al (2002), Mirowsky (1996), Cooper et al (1989), Mira et al (1994), May and Revicki (1985), Rennert et al. (1990), Preston (1995)].

Previous study showed that stress levels of teachers were found to vary with demographic variables such as gender, age, and experience in teaching, school size and location [Manthei et al. (1996)]. Research studies have reported that socio-demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, academic qualifications and experience may influence the causes of stress among sports personnel [Rintaugu (2013)]. Some of the researchers often have reported that there is no effect of demographic factors on job stress [Martocchio and O’Learyl (1989)].

Cornelia Rauschenbach et al. (2013) conducted meta-analysis showed no general correlation between age and irritation as a short-term indicator of work-related stress. However, according to the EWCS (1995-2005) respondents from all age categories report that work affects their health. The highest stress levels observed among middle-aged workers, and the lowest among older and younger workers. One of the study of age interaction reported that the total distress, its effect and support is twice larger in the older individuals as compared to young individuals [Matt and Dean (1993)]. Matt and Dean (1993) examined the relationships among age, gender; friend support and psychological distress among elderly persons and found that older males are especially vulnerable to psychological distress then they lose friend support. As the age of women and men increases, the older age groups until retirement age were had an impact on strain [Mirowsky (1996)]. It was found that there is “U shaped” relationship between depression and age [Schieman (1993)]. In other words, depression decreases from young adulthood into midlife and then increases with age. These mixed research findings relative to demographic factors affecting job stress poses issues for researchers and human resource professionals charged with designing and implementing
strategies for ameliorating job stress in the workplace. If these conflicting results can be resolved, human resource professionals can improve their chances of successfully targeting employees who most need job stress management programs. Therefore, on the basis of studies we can hypothesize as:

H1(c): Age is not related to overall job stress.

Deaux (1984) concluded in an analysis of psychological research on sex and gender that in most research little variance is accounted from sex. Martocchio and O’Leary (1989) conducted a meta-analysis of fifteen studies that had examined gender differences in work stress and they concluded that there are no gender differences in occupational stress. Spielberger and Reheiser conducted a study and found that there were no significant differences in the overall stress levels for the two genders. Whereas few researchers reported that, there is a significant relationship between gender and job stress. In European studies, gender differences in stress perception related to work appeared consistent across work-related groups but varied according to the geographical locations [De Smet (2005)]. Leontaridi and Ward (2002) is one of such studies, showed that the level of job stress increases with the number of hours worked. In addition, their findings showed that females experience greater levels of job stress than males, probably due to the stipulation of family care. Previous studies found that female experienced more stress as compared to men [Jick and Mitz (1985), Bogg and Cooper (1994), Davidson and Cooper (1984), Davidson et al. (1995), Vanagas and Bihari-Axelsson (2004)]. Whereas, some researcher also found that male medical doctors experienced more occupational stress and less job satisfaction than their female counterparts (Swanson et al. (1996)). Therefore, on the basis of above empirical studies, we can hypothesis as:

H1 (d): Gender does not have any relation to overall job stress.

Previous literatures showed that relative income, working hours, and children are some of the key factors that affect the level of happiness [Dolan et al. (2008), MacKerron (2012)]. There are few studies that investigated that these factors directly affect job stress. It cannot be generalized, but more often found that the higher-level workers those who have a good lifestyles, and more resources for their use, leading to lower levels of stress. The studies stated that individual’s well-being is adversely affected by their lower incomes than those of their higher income groups [Duesenberry (1949), Wilkinson (1996, 1997)]. Studies found that the
relative income strongly and negatively affects well-being [Clark and Oswald (1996), Clark et al. (2008)].

H1 (e): Annual income is negatively related to overall job stress.

For successful labour market integration, educational qualification becomes one of the important determinants as it changes the adult life of an individual by providing resources and capabilities. In addition, people with lower levels of education lacked opportunities and stagnate their growth and income. Education gives an advantage of being relatively stable throughout the life of an individual [Krieger et al. (1997)], and closely related with health conditions [Gallo et al. (2012)]. Previous literature findings demonstrated that there is a consistent association between lower education and higher levels of work stress in different countries [Lunau (2015)]. Therefore, on the basis of the literature we can hypothesis as:

H1 (f): Education is negatively related to overall job stress.

Previous studies found that older age and longer tenure of service were associated with higher levels of stress [Stanetić and Tešanović (2013)]. Research also reported that there are negative psychological states rising over the time in service demonstrated by emotional burnout [Figley (1999)]. Due to long service in particular professions (police, defense, emergency service professions) can visible the consequences of stress for example fatigue, frustration, depression, and anger. The psychological and physiological conditions also increase over length of service, most notably headaches and ulcers. One of the study reported that older police officers took more sick days, greater use of medication, and greater coffee consumption than their younger police officers [Burke (1994)] Officers with longer tenure in their present jobs reported more psychosomatic symptoms and more sick days.

H1 (g): Work experience is positively related to job stress.

The literature describes the relationships between work family balance and psychological well-being. Previous studies reported that high level of stress was associated with Work-family conflicts [Firth-Cozens (1998), Mira et al. (1994), May (1985)]. Using analogous dimensions it was found that 1.87 times more affected by job strain, those who reported their family life and family responsibilities meddled with their job performance.

One study conducted on health-seeking behavior revealed that 20% of physicians reported that their work negatively affected their married life [Rennert et al. (1990)]. Previous studies conducted on marital contexts, found that married women were most vulnerable to
stress [Preston (1995)]. Marital status and perceived health status were found significant predictors of job strain. Divorced respondents were two times more influenced by job strain than those who were married [Calnan (2001)]. It was found that married women had poorer health due to higher levels of job strain [Preston (1995)]. Therefore, these findings suggested that there are certain health effects through social context and we can hypothesize as:

H1 (h): Marital status is positively correlated to job stress.

Among the different professions, retail has been considered a profession, highly susceptible to stress in India. According to Sanjay Jog (Head HR, Future Group), the attrition rate in retail industry is 30-35 per cent. The reason behind high in retail industry is the physical efforts perform by sales person, fixed emotion has to be depicted, the job is reaction intensive and the business is mainly transactional. In a survey conducted in between 2014 -15 by Tata Consultancy Services and the Retailers Association of India (RAI), with 34 retailers, it was found that one third of the retailers had average attrition rates of more than 8% in a month. Results from interviews and questionnaire surveys among retail employees suggested that customer service and time management is a major source of stress in this population of retail employees. For example, studies that have investigated the risks involved in customer service show that time pressure, mainly arising from insufficient staffing and demanding supervisors, are one of the main sources of stress or dissatisfaction for sales employees in retail stores [St-Vincent et al (2006)]. Authors also state that supervisor’s attitude is also one of the major sources of the stress. Supervisors demand for the higher customer service with taking less time, which always have pressure on the retail employees. Younger aged employees are afraid to approach their managers with problems. Some younger workers are even afraid of being admonished or will be fired if they do not comply with their managers’ order [Zackos et al. (1998)]. High psychological demands (Karasek’s model) have shown the strongest relationship to burnout (emotional exhaustion from the Maslach Burnout Inventory) in the retail sector, followed by interpersonal conflicts with co-workers or superiors, and low job control [Tuuli and Karisalmi (1999)]. Lastly, Narayanan et al. (1999) have shown that besides interpersonal conflicts between co-workers, time/effort wasters and work overload are two other major sources of stress for sales personnel.
3.5 Conceptualization of the relationship between Ethical Ideology and Job satisfaction

This study relatively opens a new line of investigation in business ethics. Empirical studies found that individual’s ethical ideology affect positively the ethical climate of the organization [Putranta (2011)] and consequently ethical climate influence the job satisfaction of the employees [Vitell (1990)]. Few studies have examined the relationship, although it looks to be a complex relationship. If the personal ethical ideology correlates with job satisfaction, subsequently human resource managers find the best way to create an ethical climate of the organizations and at the same time it enhances the satisfaction level of the employees. Job satisfaction in retail industry is concerned with the organizational climate and how employees perceiving the organizational climate. An ethical climate represents the perceptions of organizational practices related to ethical decision-making and includes issues of delegated power, trust and human interactions within an organization [Olson (1998)]. In other words, ethical climate refers to the employee’s perceptions of the ethical standards that are reflected in the organization’s practices, procedures, norms, and values [Babin et al. (2000), Schwepker (2001)].

Ethical climate and ethical ideologies are two distinct phenomena in ethics literature. Ethical ideology is defined as a system of ethics used to make moral judgments, which often offers guidelines for judging and resolving behavior that may be ethically questionable [Henle et al. (2005)]. It has been found that improving the ethical climate may be essential for addressing job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions in the organization [McDaniel (1997), Raines (2000), Koh and ElFred (2001), Shirey (2005)]. Hian Chye Koh (2001) found a positive association between organizational ethical climate and job satisfaction. The ethical culture/climate established by positive ethical ideologies that influence employee’s ethical beliefs and actions [Hunt and Vitell (1986), Hunt et al. (1989), Trevino (1986), Nelson and Trevino (2004)]. Research indicated that ethical climate had a positive effect in employee’s job satisfaction and organizational commitment [Schwepker (2001)]. It has been established that the ethical climate in an organization can be established when employees follow their personal ethical ideologies [Putranta (2008)]. The above discussion corroborates that ethical ideologies could be associated with job satisfaction.
Majority of empirical studies reported that according to ethical issues encountered by individuals; they apply ethical guidelines in taking decisions, which are based on their moral philosophies [Singhapakdi et al. (1999)]. According to typology of personal moral philosophies, which differentiates between idealism and relativism [Forsyth (1992)], Forsyth (1980) defined ethical idealism as incarnate by an individual constantly trying to avoid the negative consequences that might occur, as well as idealist have the belief that for obtaining the desirable result it is important to encompass actions which is morally ‘‘correct’’. Idealistic people feel that harm to other people can always be avoided, whereas the relativist’s moral philosophy based on ‘‘skepticism’’, and when individual confronted by ethical problems, relativistic generally feel that moral actions are depend on the individuals and the nature of the situation. Idealists accept moral principles, whereas relativists reject universal moral principles in the execution of ethical judgments. There are few empirical studies have determined that ethical idealism is more highly related to a heightened sensibility to ethics than ethical relativism. It was found that individuals who are more idealistic and less relativistic are more likely to show example of honesty and integrity [Vitell et al. (1993)]. Other studies [Etheredge (1999)] have shown a direct and positive relationship existing between idealism and the perception of the importance of the role of ethics and social responsibility for the effectiveness of the organization (PRESOR) construct. Previous studies revealed that idealism was positively correlated with organizational commitment [Elia (2006), Shaub et al. (1993), Hinkle et al. (1979), as cited in Kotrlik and Williams (2003), Smith (2014)]. Few past studies reported that ethical idealism was positively related to job satisfaction [Vitell et al. (2010)]. Therefore, transferring these conclusions to our present model, we present the following hypothesis:

H2 (a): Ethical idealism positively related to the employee’s job satisfaction. That is to say, the more idealistic the person, the more job satisfaction will be experienced.

Relativism in ethical ideology is the extent to which an individual tends to reject the absolute moral principles [Forsyth (1980)]. As Forsyth (1992, p. 462) explained, relativists ‘‘generally feel that moral actions depend upon the nature of the situation and the individuals involved, and when judging others they weigh the circumstances more than the ethical principle that was involved.’’ To the best of our knowledge, virtually all studies using relativism in a marketing context and investigated its influences on different components of
ethical decision-making. For eg, one of the previous studies of professional members of the American Marketing Association (AMA) by Vitell et al. (1993) partially supports the negative relationship between relativism and various dimensions of specific marketing norms. Consistently, in another study of AMA members, Singhapakdi et al. (1995) found a negative relationship between relativism and perceived importance of ethics by marketers. Similarly, a study by Sparks and Hunt (1998) revealed a negative relationship between relativism and ethical sensitivity. Since “relativists” be inclined to not always stick to universal norms, and give less importance on ethics, and have a propensity to be less ethically sensitive, one would instinctively expect them to be lower in terms of their job satisfaction as well. Previous studies revealed that idealism was positively correlated with organizational commitment [Elias (2006), Shaub et al. (1993), Hinkle et al. (1979) as cited in Kotrlik and Williams (2003), Agresti and Finlay (2009), Smith (2014)]. Few past studies reported that ethical relativism was negatively related to job satisfaction [Vitell and Singhapakdi (2008), Vitell et al. (2010)]. Therefore, based upon the empirical evidence as well as the conceptual evidence discussed, we expect the relationships between relativism and job satisfaction to be negative.

H2 (b): Ethical relativism negatively related the employee’s job satisfaction. That is to say, the more relativistic the person, the less job satisfaction will be experienced.

3.6 Conceptualization of the relationship between Socio-demographic variable and Job satisfaction

Demographic variables play an important role in the behavioral studies. These are widely used in the studies of turnover and absenteeism. Demographic variable are the societal aspect for an individual. Tenure, age, gender, education and job levels are the five most cited demographic variables [Mowday et al. (1982)]. According to Herzberg et al. (1959), employees age and job tenure in the organization were related to job satisfaction in non-linear fashion “U-shaped”. In other words, as the employees age and tenure increases their job satisfaction also increases up to certain age, then further it will decreases as the age increases. However, later on other researchers contradicted this theory. Hulin and Smith (1965) found a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction. Regarding the relationship between educational level and job satisfaction, there is empirical evidence of an inverse linear relationship [Gordan et al (1975), Nash et al (1975)]. Such an inverse relationship is also likely to be present in a retail context. As it has been considered that sales profession in India is a
“low status” profession. Therefore, more academically qualified sales people may be expected to be more “frustrated” with their job than their less qualified co-workers. With respect to the relationship between income and job satisfaction, as one might intuitively expect, income has been found to have a positive correlation with job satisfaction [Nash et al. (1975)]. Thus, there is evidence of significant associations between each of the four demographic variables and job satisfaction.

Empirical evidence overwhelmingly supports a positive linear relationship between chronological age and both global and facet job satisfaction [Herzberg et al. (1959), Rhodes (1983)]. This indicates that older employees are generally more satisfied with their job than younger employees, a finding that holds across various types of organizations, among white and blue-collar workers, across genders [Rhodes (1983)] and education levels [Herzberg et al. (1957)].

The literature provides substantial evidence of a positive, linear relationship between age and overall job satisfaction. Evidence related to curvilinear relationships is less frequently reported and U-shaped relationships predominate, while inverted-U patterns are exceptional in studies. The often-found positive linear pattern is not universal; however, evidence of other patterns appears less frequently in the literature. The negative linear pattern between age and overall job satisfaction is rarely reported and may be associated with particular contexts or sample characteristics. Shriver (1953) as cited by Yucel and Bektas (2012) reported a negative linear association between age and job satisfaction. Shriver explained that decreasing job satisfaction was related to various age-related changes. Shriver proposed that declining job satisfaction was probably due to the sensitivity of Air Force pilots to age related physiological and cognitive changes. Such curvilinear type theoretical logic does exist in job satisfaction theory. Some studies found evidence of a U-shaped curvilinear relationship, where satisfaction falls for several years and gradually rises through that year, rising sharply just before retirement [Clark et al. (1996), Van Maanen and Katz (1976), Warr (1997)]. Therefore, bit confusing about the relationship between age and job satisfaction due to mixed findings.

H2 (c): Age is associated to job satisfaction among the retail employees.

The renewed interest by economists in job satisfaction has yielded a series of reasonably consistent and robust findings. Job satisfaction is higher for the youngest and oldest workers [Clark et al. (1996)], for non-union workers [Clark (1997)], and for the less
educated [Clark and Oswald (1996)]. Yet, the issue attracting the most attention has been the role of gender as a determinant of job satisfaction. The issue has been examined in different countries including not only those in Europe and North America cited earlier but also in Kenya [Mulinge and Mueller (1998)], China [Loscocco and Bose (1998)] and Kuwait [Metle (2001)]. Several studies have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and gender [Mason (1995)]. However, the findings of previous studies with regards to the relationship between job satisfaction and gender of the employees have been contradictory. In fact, from the 1950s to date, the findings regarding gender differences in job satisfaction have been inconsistent [Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999)]. Previous some studies have found that women to be more satisfied than men [Ward and Sloane (1998)], research within occupations has found women to be more satisfied than their otherwise equal male counterparts as clergy [McDuff (2001)], scientists [Dhawan (2000)], attorneys [Hull (1999)], and doctors [Bashaw (1999)]. Other studies have found men to be more satisfied than women [Forgionne and Peters (1982)]. However, it is important to note that most of the studies in this area reported no significant differences between the genders in relation to job satisfaction [MottazI (1986), Al-Ajmi (2006)]. For example, Witt and Nye (1992) found that no conclusive evidence with regard to the levels of satisfaction among men and women has been reported. Moreover, Manning (2002) confirmed similarities in male and female managers' job satisfaction. In addition, gender was found to have no significant impact on job satisfaction [Dole and Schroeder (2001)]. In their study of job satisfaction in the Nordic countries, Eskildsen et al. (2004) found that there is no significant difference between the genders with respect to job satisfaction. Although females do feel discriminated against, nevertheless they are as satisfied with their jobs in comparison to males [Dolliver (2003)]. Oshagbemi (2003) in a study concerned about personal correlates of job satisfaction, have found that gender is not significantly associated directly with the overall job satisfaction. Donohue and Heywood (2004) have found no gender satisfaction gap between younger American workers. Thus, the following hypotheses result:

H2 (d): There is no significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction.

Previous studies shown that various socio-demographic characteristics of employees (such as age, gender, tenure, income) have momentous relevance to their level of job satisfaction [Clark et al (1996), Gaertner (2000), Eskildsen, et al. (2003)]. These studies reported different and sometimes contradictory findings with respect to the effect that
employee’s individual characteristics such as gender, age and educational level have on work motivation and job satisfaction. Although many studies have focused on job satisfaction, there are still many unanswered questions about its nature [Lam et al. (2001)]. Therefore, the relationship between employee’s demographic characteristics and their job satisfaction occurs as an important aspect to be studied. A surprising result of Clark’s study was how strongly correlated relative income is with job satisfaction. According to Clark and Oswald, “satisfaction is more strongly correlated with relative income than absolute income,” [Clark and Oswald (1996, p.11)].

H2 (e): Annual Income of retail employees is correlated to job satisfaction.

Escalating educational level is likely to be allied with more diverse cognitive processing. Greenberg (1990) argues that veracity perceptions are more salient for educated workers than for semi-skilled workers. Rest and Thoma (1985) also posit that level of education is also a foundation of logic building. While less education viewed taking gifts and favors to less unethical practices [Browning and Zabriskie (1983)]. The previous findings established a relationship between perceived ethicality and education level [Lane et al. (1988)]. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) has acknowledge demographic variable such as age, sex, job level, education and organization experience as a potential predictors of organization commitment and job satisfaction. One of the studies related to India, examined relationship between demographic factors of employees and job satisfaction of 369 employees of Life Insurance Corporation Vellore division in Tamil Nadu (India). It is concluded, that there is significant association between gender, educational qualification and job satisfaction but there is no significant association between age, marital status, status of spouse, level of pay, experience and job satisfaction [Sundar and Kumar (2012)].

H2 (f): Education of retail employees is correlated to job satisfaction.

Some studies tried to establish the relationship through various aspects related to development with age and experience, experience with older worker’s age and perceived organizational support [Rhodes (1983), Rosen et al. (1981)]. Becker (1960) measured age and tenure as the imperative antecedents of organization commitment and job satisfaction. The relation between age, job satisfaction and commitment found positive in numeral studies [Salami (2008)]. However, not all the studies have confirmed this association [Chugtai and Zafar (2006), Iqbal (2010)]. Employee with long experience with the same organization tends
to more liable and found more difficulty to change the job due to emotional and cultural attachment with the organization. This show an affective commitment and satisfaction of an employee towards the organization [Mathieu and Zajac (1990), Meyer et al. (2002)]

H2 (g): Work experience of retail employees is associated to job satisfaction.

Another influential biographic variable that might have bearing on job satisfaction is marital status of the employees. However, there are not enough studies to draw any conclusion about the effect of marital status on job satisfaction but the limited research conducted on this area consistently indicates that married employees are more satisfied with their jobs than are their unmarried coworkers [Austrom et al. (1988), Federico et al. (1976), Garrison and Muchinsky (1977), Watson (1981)]. The reason may be marriage imposes increased responsibilities that may make a steady job more valuable and important. In addition, job satisfaction is required to have a steady job. Many, in such cases, strive to adjust them with the dissatisfaction facets.

H2 (h): Marital status of retail employees is associated to job satisfaction.

3.7 Conceptualization of the relationship between Ethical Ideology and Turnover Intention

To avoid unethical behaviors and smooth working of organizations depend on the level of synchronization between employees and organizational values. A match between employees and the organization values may produce productive results like job satisfaction and commitment [Hoffman and Woehr (2006), Verquer et al. (2003)]. The increasing unethical activities in organizations tempt researchers to investigate and develop a better understanding ethics contribution in organizational results [Andrews et al. (2011)]. In order to establish an ethical culture in the organization, ethical ideologies can be a predominantly effective tool.

Ethical ideology is very important for any organization because it influences the ethical behavior of the employees. Employees who perceive that their organization consider ethics in organizational decision-making, exhibits stronger desires to stay in the organization. This is likely to occur, particularly, when employees feel that their personal ethical values fits into the organization`s value system [Schwepker (1999)]. Previous studies revealed a significant relationship between employee`s ethical ideologies and ethical climates [Karande et al. (2000), Ming and Chia (2005), Putranta and Kingshott (2011)], organizational commitment [Shaub et
al. (1993)], turnover intentions [Farkhani and Javidnia (2013)]. Organizations having ethical culture have been found to exhibit positive influence on the idealistic orientation of the employees [Douglas et al. (2001), Karande, Rao and Singhapakdi (2000), Ming and Chia (2005)].


Studies found that ethical climates influence employee’s turnover intention [Schwepker (2001), Valentine and Barnett (2003), Weeks et al. (2004)] and from the preceding studies, it is clearly established that the ethical climate and ethical ideology are two separate phenomenon [Putranta (2008)]. The key of individual decision making depend upon the ethical ideologies, which are of two types: (1) relativism, and (2) idealism [Schlenker and Forsyth (1977)]. Relativism is the extent wherein individuals believe that moral actions are dependent upon the nature of the situation. Whilst highly relativistic individuals are not reliant on universal moral rules [Forsyth (1980, 1992)], those with low relativism believe they should act in line with such values [Davis et al.(2001), Dubinsky et al.(2004)]. Idealism on the other hand concerns individuals to believe that moral actions lead to desirable outcomes. Highly idealistic individuals always consider the inherent goodness of universal moral values and give due importance of not harming others [Tansey et al. (1994)]. Less idealistic individuals maintain actions that harming others is not necessarily wrong [Redfern (2005)]—contingent upon the situation. Therefore, relativists may find it easier to acclimatize their ethical values to fit with the organization’s objectives than it is for idealists to violate moral rules. Thus, it might be rational to expect that individuals who believe in universal moral rules would have more difficulty to break the rules of ethical conduct and thus experience more stress in coping with pressure to engage in unethical behavior at work , as compared to , individuals who adhere to relativistic moral beliefs. In other words, individuals who believe in universal moral rules would seem likely to have more difficulty in rationalizing unethical work behavior since these individuals do not believe that ethics are relative. They are likely to expect the same
ethical standards to apply to both personal and professional situations. As a result, individuals with a strong belief in universal moral rules (idealists) may experience more stress or cognitive dissonance when confronted with pressure to engage in unethical work behavior and consequently have a stronger need to alleviate the stress by withdrawing from the organization. In addition, there is a paucity of research examining the relationship between ethical ideology and organizational outcome such as job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Therefore, we can hypothesize the following hypothesis to investigate the relationship between ethical ideologies and turnover intentions:

H3 (a): There is a positive relationship between idealism and turnover intention among employees of Indian retail Industry.

H3 (b): There is a negative relationship between relativism and turnover intention in Indian retail Industry.

3.8 Conceptualization of the relationship between Socio-Demographic variable and Turnover Intention

The issue of employee’s turnover (quitting behavior) has often received attention of researchers. A major determinant of turnover behavior as reported by literature is the turnover intention [Price (2001), Brigham et al. (2007)]. Turnover intention is an individual’s desire or willingness to quit or leave organization [Elangovan (2001)]. Hence, no better yardstick would have been more appropriate to measure quitting behavior than turnover intention. Demographic factors appear to strongly influence employee decisions to exit an organization. Previous studies found that the demographic factors which have been found significant relationship with retention and turnover intentions are age, gender, tenure, education and income levels. Over a time, organization’s demographic factors have influenced the turnover intentions. Previous studies in which demographic factors have been used to investigate job stress, job satisfaction and job attitudes which showed that they are strong predictors of turnover intentions [Furnham et al. (2009), Shukla and Srivastava (2016a)]. This study includes the demographic variable (gender, age, income, experience, education and marital status) to find the effect of individual difference on turnover intentions. Religion, as a demographic variable has not been included in the study although suggested by the literature [Village and Piedmont (2011)]. However, some studies found that religion does not affect the perception of individual related to ethics in Indian organizations [Garde (2011)]. Studies
provided strong evidence that the importance of religion in a person’s life much more than mere religious affiliation that has a significant effect on ethical attitudes [Emerson (2010)]. According to Kohlberg’s (1981) stage development theory as a basis in attempting to explain why religion may affect moral attitudes, theory argues strongly that religious and moral judgments are separate, Kohlberg (1981, p. 336) admits there are parallel. According to the Indian census 2011, 79.8% of the population of India practices Hinduism and 14.2% stick to Islam, while the remaining 6% adheres to other religions (e.g. Christianity, Buddhism, Sikhism, Jainism and various indigenous ethnically-bound faiths). The fact that majority of the population follows a specific religion, persuaded the researchers to think over the lack of variation among the sample with respect to religion in Indian retail setups. Therefore, the religion as a demographic factor has not been included in this study, rather it can be explored in future studies.

Previous research suggests that older and longer serving employees are less likely to quit [Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Iverson and Currivan (2003), Kellough and Osuna (1995), Lewis (1991), Lewis and Park (1989), Camp (1994), Mitchell et al. (2000) Robinson et al. (1997), Carbery et al. (2003), Ghiselli et al. (2001), Kim et al. (2010), Karatepe et al. (2006), Pizam and Thornburg (2000)], while others are not [Ford (1995), Jurik and Winn (1987)]. Younger employees have higher quit rates due to shifting career paths, greater willingness to relocate, and fewer family responsibilities and financial obligations [Kellough and Osuna (1995), Lewis (1991), Meyer et al. (1979)]. Generational differences also encourage younger employees to change jobs and sector of employment frequently after earning their degrees [Stark (2007)]. For example, recent public policy graduates are more likely than, those from older generations to go between the public and private sectors [Chetkovich (2003)].

H3 (c): Age has negative relationship with turnover intention.

Most of the literature on gender and turnover do come from the private sector. Recently, women participation in the job has been increased. The work participation rate by sex in India has changed, percentage of women in the work participation rate increased from 12.1% in 1979 to 25.5% in 2011 [Singh (2014, p. 18, Labour Bureau, Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India)]. Most turnover studies have given not enough contemplation to “gender” which is a generic source of individual difference in turnover. Meta-analysis study has established the indirect involvement of gender in turnover process
Carston and Spector (1987)]. This has probably led to gender’s absence in the theoretical models of turnover and due to which turnover has not been used as dependent, independent or control variable. [Wild and Dawson (1972)]. It has now become a common practice in the retail industry, not to allow husband and wife to work in the same located store. Göransson, Naswall and Syer (2009) stated that there were small effects of the demographic variables, indicating that men had stronger intentions to leave the organization. Studies have found that women are less likely to exit from the organization [Stier and Lewin-Epstein (2001, p. 1731)]. This pattern holds true across cross-national studies in large part due to policies supportive of working mothers [Stier and Lewin-Epstein (2001)], especially family leave policies [Waldfogel et al. (1999)]. Previously two studies found greater turnover intentions for female managers or professionals than their male counterparts, but these differences in turnover intentions were no longer significant after the researchers controlled for human capital variables [Miller and Wheeler (1992), Rosin and Korabik (1995)], and another study found no differences in reported turnover intentions of senior-level male and female managers who were matched on variables such as hierarchical level, age, line or staff job, and performance ratings [Lyness and Thompson (1997)]. However, Stroh et al. (1996) found that even after they controlled for age, education, company tenure, number of prior companies, and perceived availability of employment at another company, reported turnover intentions of female managers were higher as compared to male managers. The findings so far have been inconsistent. Hence, it will be interesting to know that how much this factor contribute for turnover intention in Indian retail industry. For the above reasons, we propose that there is no gender difference in expressing an intention to quit from their jobs.

H3 (d): There is no relation between gender and turnover intentions.

The relationships between economic factors (e.g., remuneration) and turnover were, however, rather inconsistent. Some studies found that income was not associated with turnover [Borda and Norman (1997), Michaels and Spector (1982)], some found that improved pay had a strong impact on intentions to quit [Shields and Ward (2001)], while others found that income had an indirect effect on turnover intentions [Strachota et al. (2003), Tzeng (2002), Yin and Yang (2002)]. Empirical studies indicated that income and tenure are identified as negatively related to turnover intentions [Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Morrow (1983), Gregersen and Black (1982), Hayes (2015)]. Wage was found to be associated with turnover intention
and it was concluded that low wage strengthens turnover intention [Albattat and Som (2013), Carbery et al. (2003), Ghiselli et al. (2001), Pizam and Thornburg (2000), Emiroğlu et al. (2015)]. Several researchers found associations between an employee’s age, education, gender, income, or length of tenure with turnover intentions, as well as antecedents to turnover [Chang and Lyons (2012), Heavey et al. (2013), Shuck et al. (2011)]. Organizational leaders benefited from research that was investigative of the effects that income had on employee mobility among organizations [Carnahan et al. (2012)].

H3 (e): Income is negatively associated to turnover intention.

As far as education is concerned, previous studies reported that a person who has higher education may have access to more work opportunities and be more aware of the opportunities through social and academic networks, compared to those who do not have higher education and have less turnover intention [Medina (2012)]. Research studies in the Netherlands suggest that management-level turnover is increasing rapidly. One of the studies reported that within 6 years after graduation, about 70% of all graduates leave the hospitality industry [Blomme et al (2008), Reijnders (2003)]. Walsh and Taylor (2007) also suggest that retaining highly educated staff is becoming a primary challenge for the hospitality industry. Most research has failed to find a direct link between educational level and turnover [Camp (1994), Ford (1995), Jurik and Winn (1987), Robinson et al. (1997)], however one study of juvenile correctional officers found that those with higher educational levels were more likely to express a desire to quit as compared to those with lower educational levels [Mitchell et al. (2000)]. Therefore, educational level was hypothesized to have a positive effect on turnover intent, as those with more education generally have more available higher quality employment opportunities as compared to their counterparts with lower educational levels.

H3 (f): Education levels have positive relationship with turnover intention.

Randhawa, Gurpreet (2007) concluded that there are significant correlations between turnover intention and demographic variables such as age, qualification, designation and it was found that age, designation and experience are negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intentions. This shows that the intentions of an individual to leave the organization are greatly influenced by age, designation and experience of an individual. Studies found that high turnover rates frequently result in new employees who have very little experience [Lambert (2001), Stohr et al. (1992)]. Although some previous studies sometimes conflates the
effects of age and experience, one of the studies showed that each has a separate negative effect on turnover intention [Moynihan and Landuyt (2008)]. Tenure was consider to be as one of the major determinant factors of turnover intention and it was revealed that the employees with high tenure generally have lower turnover intention [Karatepe et al. (2006), Nadiri and Tanova (2010), Uludağ et al. (2011), Emiroğlu et al. (2015)].

H3 (g): Employee experience is negatively associated with turnover intention.

Marital status was also revealed to be a determinant for turnover intention [Carbery et al. (2003)]. Ryan, Ghazali and Mohsin (2011) however concluded that marital status had no impact on intent to leave an organization. Whereas, Almalki et al. (2012) in their study revealed significant associations between turnover intention and demographic variables of gender, age, marital status, dependent children, education level, nursing tenure, organizational tenure, positional tenure, and payment per month. Some of the researcher found that single employees were observed to have a higher turnover intention compared to married employees [Carbery et al. (2003), Emiroğlu et.al (2015)].

H3 (h): Marital status is related to turnover intention.

3.9 Conceptualization of the relationship between Ethical Ideology and Emotional Intelligence

From a rationalist perception the role of emotions emancipation with the declaration that "arguments are one thing, sentiments another, and nothing fogs the mind so thoroughly as emotion." Individuals who believe in negative aspects of emotion would advise a person confronting an ethical dilemma to disembark the decision using rational considerations only. Other philosophers may reluctantly acknowledge the inevitability of emotive intuitions or the inclusion of feelings in moral discussions but actively resist employing them. “Overall that is impossible that the idea cannot avoid dependence on unsupported 'sentiments'. The idea is always to be suspicious of them, and to rely on as few as possible, only after examining them critically, and only after pushing the arguments and explanations as far as they will go without them.” [Rachels (1986)].

Certainly, the emotions are predominantly important in moral and ethical functioning. In every culture, children’s develop their emotional reactions such as guilt and shame at the same age. It appears that they have a naturally automatic predisposition to be morally socialized and think of the moral discussions, for which full development of emotional
response is necessary [Dienstbier (1984)]. Previous studies related to psychopaths indicated that lack of anxiety, guilt, empathy, or love demolishes the moral functioning. Persons with high intelligent quotient might able to articulate verbally the culture's moral values, but if they cannot sense the emotional force of inner responsibility, they can ignore all moral values or arguments without trepidation. Emotions invigorate the ethical expedition. In addition, people who grapple with moral questions is usually emotionally dedicated to doing good and avoiding bad. Therefore, it appears that the structural foundations of moral thinking are ingrain with emotions.

The importance of business ethics has fascinated many authors to carry out their studies on various ethics-related issues in business. Previous studies examined diverse factors which influenced the ethical decision-making [Trevino (1992), Singhapakdi et al. (1996), Douglas et al. (2001)]. Generally, ethical decision-making process has two critical factors referred as individual and organizational factors. Prior studies on ethical decision-making called for more empirical works on individual (personal) and situational (organizational) influences on ethical judgment [O’Fallon and Butterfield (2005)]. Enthused by the studies of earlier researchers and the call by O’Fallon and Butterfield (2005), the present research aims to investigate the influence of some personal and the ethical evaluation on organizational outcome of Indian retail sector. In particular, this study concentrates on the impact of personal factor (emotional intelligence and ethical ideology) on organizational outcomes (job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention).

E.L. Thorndike, who discussed the term “social intelligence” as distinct from theoretical or academic intelligence [Matthews et al. (2002), originated the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) in 1920. Later, Mayer et al. (1990), who commenced the term “emotional intelligence”, popularized it and later there was book published on emotional intelligence by Goleman (1995). EI is defined as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions [Mayer et al. (1990, p. 189)]. Emotional Intelligence is a different factor for individuals in managing one’s own and other’s emotion in order to direct the necessary thoughts and action to successfully manage with environmental demands and pressures [Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004), Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2008)]. In different words, EI is an individual difference variable involving one’s ability to identify, perceive, understand, and
manage emotions in oneself and in others [Ashkanazy and Daus (2005)]. Goleman (1998) argues that a lack of EI is an obstacle to self-confidence; maturity is a process of growing one’s consciousness about one’s emotions and relationships.

Researchers have examined a wide variety of diverse EI issues, its dominance as an important area in the business and management literature can be ascribed to be an important quality of effective leaders [Bradberry and Greaves (2005), Boyatzis and Saatcioglu (2008)]. There are numerous evidences that EI predicts a wide range of positive outcomes in terms of personal and organizational factors. Apart from intellectual abilities, EI has been found to be the distinguished factor in job performance [Goleman (1995), Goleman et al. (2002), Dulewicz et al. (2005), Slaski and Cartwright (2002), Law et al. (2004), VanRooy and Viswesvaran (2004), Dulewicz and Higgs (2005), Law et al. (2008)], sales performance [Wong et al. (2004)], job commitment [Goleman (1995)], supervisor ratings of overall job performance [Law et al. (2004), Slaski and Cartwright (2002)], and team performance [Druskat and Wolff (2001), Jordan and Troth (2004)]. Furthermore, some researchers have reported that EI can be useful tool for job satisfaction [Goleman (1995), Abraham (2000), Wong and Law (2002), Sy et al. (2006)], organizational change [Huy (2002)], workplace spirituality [Marques and Azevedo-Pereira (2009)], global leadership [Alon and Higgins (2005)], and effectiveness under high stress [Gohm (2003)]. For example, Muchinsky (2000) (p. 807) asserts that EI can be a valuable tool in personnel selection. Prior studies have discovered that emotional intelligence can have an influence on ethical decisions of an individual, but, apart from for small number of studies [Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2008), Deshpande and Joseph (2009), Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2010), Angelidis and Ibrahim (2011)], very little research has been conducted on the relationship between EI and ethical ideology.

Law et al. (2004) highlighted that Individual’s with high emotional intelligence can efficiently recognize their own emotions and regulate them for particular action. In the context of retail sales employees who frequently deal with ethical dilemmas in delivering their professional obligations, their emotional intelligence is predicted to guide them towards making appropriate ethical decisions and taking appropriate ethical action. Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2008, 2010), Deshpande and Joseph (2009), and Angelidis and Ibrahim (2011) recognized that individuals with high emotional intelligence be likely to act more ethically than those with lower emotional intelligence.
3.10 Emotional Intelligence as a moderator between Ethical Ideology, Demographic Variable, Job Stress, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

In recent years, the demographic characteristics played important role in the organizations. The distinctiveness of particular persons may add some descriptive control to show how some individuals are able to cope from their job stress. Employees experience stress differently even when they exposed to the same type of stressors, it might be due to unique individual characteristics. Emotions are one of the unique individual characteristics, which help to cope up from the stress [Folkman and Lazarus (1988)]. Although the significance of emotions related research in organizations was unnoticed for a significant period. Moreover, research related to the impact of emotions on organizational behavior is increasing. Therefore, it is important to evaluate whether and how individual differences in emotion-related individual characteristics moderate the effect of emotions on self-reported job stress. One such emotion trait is emotional intelligence (EI). EI reflects the ability to adaptively perceive, understand, regulate, and utilize one’s emotions and those of others [Salovey and Mayer (1990), Salovey (2002)]. Over the recent years, the utilization of emotional intelligence has increased with respect to organizational behavior [Mayer et al. (2000)]. Emotional Intelligence significantly contributed to understanding the different relationship in the organizational settings [Mayer et al. (2000), Jordan and Troth (2002)]. There are numerous research reported on emotional intelligence with regard to certain demographic factors such as age, sex, education and socio economic status. Findings from previous studies have corroborated the fact that there is a significant gender differences in EI among professionals. In line with other studies, EI level of females scored higher than males [Ismen (2001), Ergin et al. (1999), Goleman (2000), Schutte et al. (2001), Mayer et al. (1999), Reiff et al. (2001), Ciarrochi et al. (2001), Charbonneau and Nicol (2002), Day and Carroll (2004), Joseph and Newman (2010), Palmer et al. (2005), van Rooy et al. (2006)]. Some found no significant relation between gender and EI [Aquino and Alberto (2003), Khalili (2004), Abdullah (2006), Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008), Cavallo and Brienza (2002); Whitman et al. (2009)]. Prior studies conducted in western countries related to EI, demographic variable and job stress, but there is paucity of studies with respect to Asian countries particularly India. There is a lack of studies related to EI incorporating as a vital, influencing and moderating factor in managing individuals stress.
[Cherniss et al. (1998), Johnson and Indvik (1999), Dulewicz and Higgs (1999, 2000)]. The current research extend the previous findings [Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002)] by adding more demographic characteristics and their by attempting to identify emotional intelligence as moderator in the stress management process on Indian demographic sample. The limitations of previous studies [Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002), Rintangu (2013), Salguero et al. (2012)] have been addressed in the current study.

Goleman (1998) investigated that individual’s consists a high level of emotional intelligence inclined to experience more positive moods and emotions in contrast to those with a lower overall emotional intelligence. Malaysian-based study reported that EI is positively associated to work attitude and appraisal and expression of emotions are moderately related with job performance and satisfaction among the university staff [Santhaparaj and Alam (2005) and Ngah et al. (2009)]. Ssesanga and Garrett (2005) found positive association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among university staff members in Uganda. The results suggested that academics with high emotional intelligence would perceive high satisfaction and tend to feel more emotionally attached to their organizations. Emotional intelligence is one of the most imperative factors that empirically related to organizational performance and individual variables for example job satisfaction [Chiva and Alegre (2008)]. Sy et al. (2006) found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among food service employees. The study concluded that employees with high emotional intelligence have higher job satisfaction, which was supported by the finding of Wong and Law (2002). Bar-On (2004) reported positive relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and job satisfaction from a diverse group of professionals. Carmeli (2003), Kafetsios and Loumakou (2007), Vakola et al. (2004) studies have observed weak to modest relationships between trait emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Psilopanagioti et al. (2012) found emotional intelligence (use of emotion dimension) was significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction and it was found negatively correlated between surface acting and job satisfaction. Ealias and George (2012) revealed that there is a very high positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. The study also shows that the designation of the employee does not have relationship with job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Nevertheless, it found that experience and marital status have a significant relationship with emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.
A study of business students by Barnett et al. (1994a) reported significant differences in ethical judgment due to the student’s ethical ideology in 14 of 26 scenarios. Absolutists were the least lenient in 10 of the 14 scenarios while subjectivists were the most lenient in 11. In another study involving marketing professionals, Barnett et al. (1994b) found that absolutists were the strictest when judging actions involving ethical vignettes and subjectivists were the most indulgent. In addition, they reported significant differences between absolutists and subjectivists and between absolutists and exceptionists. Among finance professionals, Hartikainen and Torsila (2004) found absolutists to be the least lenient when judging ethical actions presented in four of five scenarios while subjectivists were the most lenient in all scenarios.

Despite numerous research efforts on emotional intelligence, one important area has received very little attention. With a few exceptions, the literature only briefly alludes to the relationship between EI and certain aspects of ethics such as honesty and integrity (see Holian 2006; McPhail 2004; Bay and Greenberg 2001). In the popular press, writers have asserted that ‘‘without a moral compass to guide people in how to employ their gifts, emotional intelligence can be used for good or evil’’ (Gibbs et al. 1995, p. 67). In a recent non-empirical article, Maak and Pless (2006) argued that ‘‘responsible leaders need both emotional and ethical qualities to guide their action and behavior in interaction’’ (p. 105). They maintained that, to be effective, leaders should possess a high level of ‘‘relational intelligence’’—a blend of emotional intelligence and ethical intelligence. In a study of management decision making, Holian (2006) recommended that future studies investigate whether ethical decisions are influenced by skills associated with emotional intelligence. Similarly, Mulki et al. (2009) suggested that future research include an examination of the impact of emotional intelligence on an individual’s ethical judgment. Overall, however, Bay and McKeage (2006) unequivocally state that ‘‘the link between emotional intelligence and … ethics is not verified by the (so far) hypothesized link between these constructs and emotions’’ (p. 452). They encourage researchers to examine this possible relationship: ‘‘It may eventually be shown that emotional intelligence is one of the variables that may explain the current gap between ethical understanding and ethical behavior’’ (p. 441).

The present study is designed to partially fill this gap in the literature by focusing on the association between these constructs. It extends previous research by taking its point of
departure in the arguments presented above and other writer’s suggestions for future investigations. Specifically, it seeks to determine whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and ethical ideology among practicing managers with respect to questions of ethical nature that can arise in their professional activity.

Prior empirical studies reported that higher level of emotional intelligence was negatively associated to turnover intentions [Wong and Law (2002), Goleman (1998), Kooker et al. (2007), Carmeli (2003), Lee and Liu (2007), Falkenburg and Schyns (2007), Firth et al. (2004)]. Even some of the studies showed there was no linear relationship between emotional intelligence and turnover intention [Bhatnagar (2013)]. One of the study found that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on turnover intention of faculty members [Jeswani and Dave (2012)].

Therefore, from the above discussions it was well established that there is a relationship between ethical ideology, demographic variable, emotional intelligence, job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Due to emotional intelligence was allied to ethical ideology treated as dependent variable and job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention treated as independent variable, emotional intelligence treated as moderating variable in the present research.

H4 (a): EI significantly moderates the relationship between ethical ideology and overall job stress.
H4 (b): EI significantly moderates the relationship between ethical ideology and job satisfaction.
H4 (c): EI significantly moderates the relationship between ethical ideology and turnover intention.
H4 (d): EI significantly moderates the relationship between socio demographic variable and job stress.
H4 (e): EI significantly moderates the relationship between socio demographic variable and job satisfaction.
H4 (f): EI significantly moderates the relationship between socio demographic variable and turnover intention.
Figure 3.1: Conceptual model
3.11 Conclusion

Today in modern organizations, every employee is struggling to survive in the competitive organizational culture. In this pressure of surviving and meeting organizational objectives, employees attracted towards unethical practices. Although employees know that, the unethical practices will not benefit them in long term or due to moral values, employees are in ethical predicament either, to accomplish the organizational objective by any means or to stick to the moral values for the action. This kind of ethical dilemma creates stress among the employees, which affect the job satisfaction, and consequently employees feel to overcome this stress by changing the organization. This kind of negative feeling of employees directly and indirectly affects the organization from cost, goodwill, reputation and organizational culture point of view.

Previous literatures suggested that ethics and emotions are intermingled to each other. Any person thinking of the ethics or moral values, somewhere the emotions are the force, which bonds them to follow the ethical values or ideologies. Emotional intelligence treated as one of the trait and ability to control, utilize and regulate emotions according to the organizational objectives. If employees are in a situation of ethical confusion, emotional intelligence can be a significant tool to guide them according to the situation and help them from the ethics related issues. Emotional Intelligence concept refers to as a positive influential force to overcome from individual negative behavioral intentions, which will be an organizational issue as well such as job stress, job dissatisfaction and turnover intention.

This chapter discussed the empirical background to conceptualize the relationship between ethical ideology, demographic variable, emotional intelligence, job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Based on prior empirical studies and theoretical models (discussed in chapter 2) the conceptual model has been finalized (Figure 3.1). The model depicts the different relationship between independent, demographic, moderating and dependent variables. According to this model the hypothesis has been formulated which were be tested in this research. This research will be a pioneer in terms of business ethics and emotional intelligence, as it will be tested to give new solution for the organizational issues.