The effects of the perceived external prestige of the organization on employee deviant workplace behavior
The mediating role of job satisfaction

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Abstract

Purpose – This paper aims to examine the effects of perceived external prestige (PEP) on deviant workplace behavior (DWB) and the mediating role of job satisfaction (JS).

Design/methodology/approach – The relationship was tested via hierarchical regression analyses. The study used data drawn from 401 employees of five-star hotels located in the Turkish cities of Ankara and Antalya.

Findings – The study findings suggest that there is a negative correlation between JS and organizational deviant work behaviors. Employees' satisfaction leads to workplace harmony and brings employees closer to the purpose of the organization. Additionally, the study shows that positive PEP reflects positively on JS and vice versa. JS plays a mediating role between PEP and DWB.

Research limitations/implications – The first limitation of the study is that the sample involves a specific area and, therefore, may not be generalizable. Additionally, the study contains only five-star hotels. Therefore, future researchers could replicate the findings with a heterogeneous population sample comprising employees of various hotels' levels.

Originality/value – The external reputation of an organization (image) is an important subject for researchers, as it fosters organizational members' JS, and higher PEP decreases members' deviant work behavior. This empirical study focuses on hospitality employees because this group has not received attention from researchers, despite their importance as the top contributors to the high-level service industry.

Keywords Job satisfaction, Hotel employees, Deviant workplace behavior,
Perceived external prestige, Perceived external image

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

Much effort has long been devoted to the subject of organizational image. Thus, many studies have focused on examining the effects of the perceived organizational image (prestige) on the organization in terms of its employees' identification with and commitment to the organization (Dutton *et al.*, 1994; Smidts *et al.*, 2001). The majority of the research examining organizational identification has been steered by social identity theory and its related body of literature relevant to group identification processes (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Fuller *et al.*, 2006). However, identification with one's organization is different from his/her organizational commitment and requires a conscious and cognitive connection with the organization, reflecting on the employee's perceptions (Foreman and Parent, 2008; Fuller *et al.*, 2006; Pratt and Foreman, 2000). Organizational identification serves as both a definitional and classification tool that guides organizational members in understanding who they are and what they stand for (Foreman and Parent, 2008; Pratt and Foreman, 2000; Whetten, 2006).

Organizational image is a concept that is gaining importance, as it affects peoples' behaviors in organizations (Carmeli *et al.*, 2006). Thus, the image that the organization has is mostly influenced by what outside stakeholders hold. As such, their perception and opinion affect the inside stakeholders' perception and assessment of their organization (Herrbach and Mignonac, 2004). In short, we can say that if an employee believes that outsiders view the organization positively, he or she "basks in the reflected glory" of the firm (Cialdini *et al.*, 1976, p. 366). Consequently, the external organization's image is being perceived. Further, this perception is being interpreted by the members of the organization (Herrbach *et al.*, 2004). A positive organizational image or a positive perception plays an integral role in employees' strong identification with and commitment to an organization (Carmeli, 2005a; Carmeli *et al.*, 2006; Dukerich *et al.*, 2002; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Dutton *et al.*, 1994; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Smidts *et al.*, 2001). Consequently, the organization takes on an ideal "persona" with an image that employees emulate as a model.

Studies researching the effects of perceived external prestige (PEP) on employee attitudes and behaviors have traditionally focused on various organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction (JS), job performance and commitment (Carmeli *et al.*, 2006; Carmeli and Freund, 2009; Çiftçioğlu, 2010a, 2010b; Herrbach *et al.*, 2004; Smidts *et al.*, 2001). Accordingly, organizations focus their efforts and practices to help improve their perceived identity and constructed external image and prestige in the eyes of their beholders (internal and external stakeholders). Their efforts are mostly focused on cultural and structural changes (Dutton *et al.*, 1994), on improving organizational performance through new or improved products and/or services, on corporate social responsibility and on other more focused proactive and reactive strategies that help their image (He and Lai, 2014; Pérez and Del Bosque, 2013).

Scholars have concluded that organizational reputation and PEP are distinct constructs (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Carmeli and Freund, 2002; Çiftçioğlu, 2010a; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Dutton *et al.*, 1994; Herrbach and Mignonac, 2004; Mael and Ashforth, 1992). According to Dutton *et al.* (1994), employees hold two images of their organization. One image is the perceived organizational identity, which reflects an assessment of what their organization represents or stands for. The second image is the organization's reputation, which is interpreted as an external reflection in terms of outside stakeholders' (e.g. customers, suppliers, strategic partners and local authorities)

assessments and beliefs of what the organization is. Fundamentally, while the reputation of the organization refers to external beliefs, PEP refers to the internal stakeholders' views of the organization built solely on the outsiders' beliefs or views. This study applies the term "PEP" to represent the manner in which five-star hotel employees in Turkey view their organizations based on external belief systems.

As one of the leading industries in Turkey today, the hospitality industry is characterized by its intensive use of labor, high customer interaction and a demand by its management to provide the highest quality of service (Tuna *et al.*, 2011). A country with a magnificent historical and cultural heritage portrayed by monuments and sites all over Anatolia since ancient times, Turkey offers visitors and tourists with many travel leisure alternatives. Its tourism and lodging sectors are rapidly developing, making significant contributions to the Turkish economy (Koyuncu *et al.*, 2013). According to the Culture and Tourism Ministry (2014a), 31,782,832 tourists arrived in Turkey in 2012, which contributed about $29,007,003 to the Turkish economy. The aforementioned figures have contributed to Turkey being ranked as the number sixth country in terms of tourist arrivals (UNWTO, 2012a) and 12th in terms of tourism-based income in the world (UNWTO, 2012b). Both Antalya and Ankara are among the top leading Turkish regions in attracting tourists. In 2012, while 10,726,136 tourists arrived in Antalya, 1,769,454 tourists visited Ankara in the same year (Culture and Tourism Ministry, 2014a).

Contemporary hotel managers are described as competitive and human-focused (Yang, 2010). Accordingly, hospitality employees' behaviors, attitudes and capabilities are a benchmark in terms of businesses (Gallardo *et al.*, 2010). In the hospitality industry, employee behavior is important because it assists managers in running, coordinating and managing employees' and group behavior in organizations by applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness and productivity (Demir, 2011).

This empirical study contributes to the available literature on PEP, deviant workplace behavior (DWB) and JS through its focus on PEP as a predictor of employee DWB within the context of the international and national luxury hotel industry in Turkey, an unexplored area. The current literature does not reveal that the subject has been fully explored in the context of this paper. Notwithstanding, a few studies are currently investigating PEP in the tourism and hospitality industries. The very few studies that have researched the impact of the reflections of the hotel managements' image and the behavior of its employees are insufficient. For example, Kang and Bartlett (2013) have studied the impact of the PEP on the customer-oriented citizenship behavior in five-star hotels in South Korea as a part of their study. Additionally, Mathe and Halsell (2012) have researched PEP's impact on employee psychological capital (i.e. hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy) in fast-food restaurants. While it suggests that PEP correlates positively with an enhanced attitude toward work, JS was not a construct or a mediator in the aforementioned study.

Following the introduction, this paper will present the study's conceptual framework and its research propositions. The conceptual framework section will discuss the concepts of PEP, workplace behavior and their linkages. Next, the research methodology will define the pragmatic approaches taken and discuss the findings. Finally, the paper will provide conclusions, implications and suggestions for future research.

Review of literature
Reputation and the image of the organization
Organizational reputation affects stakeholders in every aspect, and there is a positive correlation between a good corporate reputation and an organization's value (Balmer and Gray, 1999; Clark and Montgomery, 1998; Roberts and Dowling, 2002; Vergin and Qoronfleh, 1998; Williams *et al.*, 2005). An organization's reputation affects customers' product choice, attitudes toward the firm's products and services and confidence (Brown, 1995; Johnson and Grayson, 2005). Indeed, according to Goldsmith (1997), reputation is the most valuable assets of the organization.

Fombrun (1996) defined corporate reputation as the overall value of the firm as expressed by its stakeholders, including its customers, investors, employees and the general public. Fombrun (1996) identified several key traits that form the basis for good company reputation. These traits include trust, credibility, pride, quality, service and genuine customer orientation. Possessing and cultivating these traits help to project good organizational images and consequently cultivate its core reputation. Patterson (1996, p. 7) states that:

> [...] reputation management is made up of two basic areas: First, working year-round to enhance an organization's reputation, and second, being totally prepared to mitigate damage when that reputation is threatened.

While reputation may only exist in the mind of the beholder, its impact on the organization is fundamentally decisive (Corporate Reputation, 2006). While corporate image is the immediate mental framework that stakeholders have of an organization, corporate reputation does indicate a value judgment regarding the attributes of the organization (Gray and Balmer, 1998). Today:

> [...] across every region and industry sector, analysts overwhelmingly support the statement that a company that fails to look after the reputation aspects of performance will ultimately suffer financially, too (Corporate Reputation, 2006, Paragraph 7).

Organizations with a strong image and a positive reputation such as Cisco Systems, Inc., Microsoft, Apple, Disney, Intercontinental Hotel Group, Wyndham Hotel Group, Marriott International and Hilton Hotels, to name a few, have traditionally attracted the best employees and who are driven by such image and positive reputation. Today, organizations are increasingly proactive in meeting increased stakeholders' demands for a positive corporate reputation and a strong, sustainable image. Such organizations are developing tools, strategies and attitudes to convey the needed trust and competitive advantage sought by internal and external stakeholders (Pruzan, 2001).

Perceived external prestige
PEP has become increasingly one of the most studied concepts in organizational settings by researchers and practitioners because of its role as an influential mediator in forming employee attitudes and attachment to their organizations (Carmeli *et al.*, 2006; Çiftçioğlu and Sabuncuoğlu, 2011). PEP is also referred to as a "constructed external image" (Dutton *et al.*, 1994, Smidts *et al.*, 2001). According to Carmeli and Freund (2009), researchers use either constructed external image or PEP to characterize this form of organizational image. While these constructs are related and have close meanings, others have argued that, although these two concepts are closely related, they are different (Carmeli, 2005a; Carmeli *et al.*, 2006, 2011).

As a socio-cognitive concept, PEP is based on individuals' knowledge of the organization, their beliefs and the influence of the external world that individuals are exposed to. The way the thoughts related to the organization are perceived by individuals in the external world constitutes the PEP (Helm, 2013). Therefore, the perception of organizational image differs for each employee. The basic determinant here is whether or not individuals' beliefs of shared organizational identity overlap. The fundamental, determinant and discriminating properties are related to the organizations where individuals work that lead to the formation of the perceived image (Dutton et al., 1994). Thus, individuals obtain the information about the organization from outside and make sense of it, and in light of the information, they form an opinion as to what outsiders think of the organization where they work (Kang et al., 2011).

A review of the existing literature of how people view the organization could help explain how the image of the organization is indirectly created. Studies examining organizations and work behavior reveal that external prestige is an indicator of the quality of the organization. Indeed, prestige is what attracts and connects employees to an organization (Carmeli, 2005a). Scholars suggest that when an organization has notable prestige (a good image), employees exhibit positive practice (i.e. positive behavior), which results in positive performance (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Riordan et al., 1997). A developed positive perception is helpful for a better employee–organization relationship. Such positive perceptions create understanding of and tolerance for whatever organizational adversity may occur (Mignonac et al., 2006).

PEP reflects fame comprehension regarding a person's own work organization. It is composed of the characteristics of all the different images that were formed by all who have a stake in the organization (i.e. stakeholders). It expresses the views and perceptions of the people outside the organization, contains the situation at the moment and evaluates the value and behaviors for the future (Carmeli, 2005a). Employees form their beliefs regarding their organizations based on the way it is perceived in the outside world (Dutton et al., 1994). Therefore, PEP constitutes perception from external constituents without taking into consideration whether the externally perceived thoughts are normative (i.e. tending to the prescribed norms or standards) or manipulative (Gioia and Thomas, 1996). In this study, PEP is defined as the employee's personal assessment of his/her beliefs regarding the image of the organization as viewed and expressed by outsiders.

If a person perceives or believes that the organization has a positive image, the reflection of this situation results in him/her becoming proud of it (Bartels, 2006; Smidts et al., 2001). On the other hand, organizational membership can also bring about negative images and attributes when interpreting the external image as discouraging or negative. This perception or belief may lead to undesirable outcomes, including stress, disengagement and possible turnover (Dutton et al., 1994; Kahn, 1990).

Deviant workplace behavior

The literature on organizational workplace deviance is almost exclusively focused on the negative aspects of workplace behavior (Appelbaum et al., 2007). Researchers studying this type of behavior have labeled it differently but have mostly focused on its negative aspect. For instance, Mangione and Quinn (1975) described it as counterproductive behavior, and Giacolone and Greenberg (1997) labeled it as antisocial behavior. Others describe it as behaviors with a harmful purpose (misbehavior) (Vardi

and Wiener, 1996; Vardi, 2001). Fox *et al.* (2001) evaluated workplace behaviors and suggested deviance as the behavior that is harmful to the working environment and that leads to workplace aggression, interpersonal conflict, sabotage and robbery. The main idea here is that creating harm in the workplace affects organizational purpose, reduces the organization's effectiveness, harms equity perceptiveness and negatively affects the organization's social structure (Bulutlar and Öz, 2009; Seçer and Seçer, 2009). According to Robinson and Bennett (1995, p. 556), "employee deviance is defined here as voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both". DWBs are not only aimed at organizational norms but also intend to harm social norms in the workplace (Brown and Treviño, 2006; O'Leary-Kelly *et al.*, 2000). Consequently, these behaviors, which are exhibited willingly, cause loss of employees' motivation and facilitate violence-motivated behaviors (Stewart *et al.*, 2009).

Vardi and Wiener (1996) explained DWB as the type of behaviors that take unfair advantage of the organization and negatively influence shared organizational norms and expectations as well as basic social values, habits and production. It endangers the norms, obstructs organization goals and harms the mental state of other workers. In an organization, workers both accept the norms and work for the common goals as well as practice deviant behaviors (Pulich and Tourigny, 2004).

The conceptual definition of DWB varies among scholars; it seems that these definitions are harmonious and complementary, as many agree that DWB is oriented toward the organization, its members or both. These behaviors deliberately aim to create damage (Avcı, 2008). Consequently, DWB is explained as deliberate behaviors by its organizational members aiming to obstruct the routine of the organization. In other words, there is deliberation on the fundamentals of these kinds of behaviors (Demir and Tütüncü, 2010, p. 65). Gruys (1999) designated 87 titles of deviant behaviors and categorized them into 11 different categories. These are as follows:

(1) robbery and similar behaviors;
(2) harming the real estate;
(3) misusing the know-how;
(4) misusing the time;
(5) non-confidence behaviors;
(6) insufficient attendance;
(7) damaged working quality;
(8) workplace alcohol drinking;
(9) using or selling narcotics (in the workplace);
(10) not showing suitable behaviors; and
(11) unsuitable physical touching (as cited in Sackett, 2002).

While many definitions of DWB exist, the authors of this study define it as voluntary acts undertaken by the employee that violate significant organizational norms and that threaten the well-being of the organization and/or its members (Johnson, 2011; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Consequently, employee deviance is a lack of conformity to the

organizational social context as prescribed by its written policies, its standard operating procedures and its unwritten procedures and policies (i.e. its norms).

DWB that constitutes departure from organizational and group norms could have the potential to harm the organization and negatively affect core capabilities and competencies that the organization depends on. Therefore, an employee's attachment to an organization's normative behavior is essential. In practice, when a behavior that takes a deviance format becomes a common behavioral norm in an organization, it constitutes a costly organizational problem (Colbert et al., 2004). Studies show that robbery, trickery, deliberate demolishing actions and workplace sexual assaults cause tremendous losses for the organization, both financially and non-financially (Hsieh et al., 2004). For example, 24 per cent of women claimed that they experienced some type of workplace sexual assault, and 71 per cent of workers have experienced some sort of unaccepted workplace behaviors by a co-worker or a manager at least once over a five-year period (Ferries et al., 2009). According to Bourke (1994), workplace robbery causes over a billion dollars a year in losses to organizations. Additionally, the sabotage to the equipment that results in its breaking down causes a great deal of production and productivity loss (as cited in Dunlop and Lee, 2004).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) suggest that DWB could be targeted toward the organization (an organizational target) or toward the individuals (an interpersonal target). Both types have either minor or serious consequences. DWB could lead to property deviance, a serious behavior that may result in behaviors such as sabotaging equipment, accepting kickbacks, lying about hours worked and/or stealing from the company. Production deviance behavior may result in minor deviance behaviors that include leaving early, taking excessive breaks, intentionally working slowly and wasting resources. On the other hand, serious interpersonal deviance could lead to personal aggression behavior that includes sexual harassment, verbal abuse, stealing from a co-worker and endangering a co-worker's life; and minor interpersonal deviance might lead to behaviors including playing favoritism, gossiping, blaming others and non-beneficial competition.

Although many studies have exposed these types of behaviors, other researchers suggest that the consequences of individuals' attitudes cannot be explained only by the individuals' related behavior and that these have premises in organizational typology, which is related to the organization itself (Biron, 2010; Vardi, 2001). For instance, Fox et al. (2001) suggest that certain organizational factors such as stressors make the organization's environment more vulnerable to deviant work behaviors. Additionally, while a lack of control and accountability at work leads to this type of behavior (Bennett, 1998), a weak sanction for violations also encourages such behavior (Hollinger and Clark, 1983). In addition, Robinson (2008) found through field interviews with chefs in hotels that deskilling (e.g. decreases in the quality and range of the practical knowledge, lack of learning opportunities, etc.) and standardization lead to boredom, which, in turn, caused deviance in behaviors. The researcher states that the widespread use of convenience foods in the kitchen results in less use of skills and more mundane work. In a sense, it may be said that a situation in which employees experience a loss of control over their work or reduced responsibilities might lead to an increase in the tendency toward deviance behaviors. On the other hand, workplace friendships increase support and resources that help individuals do their jobs, which will, in turn, reduce DWB (Yen and Teng, 2013). Accordingly, workplace deviance is related to the organization's

environment, and therefore, employees' acts could be explained by factors related directly to the organizations. Contrary to this, others conclude that workplace deviance is positively related to individual differences, which is related to personality factors (Douglas and Martinko, 2001; George and Jones, 2012; Marcus *et al.*, 2007; Ones *et al.*, 2007). In another view, Henle (2005) suggests that DWB is moderated through an interaction between individuals' personality variables and organizational justice.

Linking PEP to members' behavior
How employees behave in the organization provides fertile ground for research regarding the merits of their PEP and the relative role of JS. Research studies examining PEP have confirmed that PEP, when positive, has a high impact on forming a worker's behavior and increasing his/her level of dedication (Çiftçioğlu and Sabuncuoğlu, 2011). It is possible to think of PEP as a mirror that reflects the behaviors of workers in an organization, as it transmits the perceived image through the outside world (Dutton *et al.*, 1994, p. 249). Employees have a sense of membership in the social group (i.e. the organization), and such membership shapes their own self-concept (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Dutton *et al.*, 1994; Kramer, 1991).

Employees resolve their inner conflict between their self-image and what they think they should be by making the organization a representative of their ideal self. When an employee is committed to an organization, he/she is committed to its ideal and what the organization represents. Consequently, a person's desire and willingness to practice a behavior that goes beyond his/her self-interests is an indication of his/her acceptance of its perceived beliefs and ideals. As previously stated, an employee looks at the image of the organization, which has built a model to emulate.

In the study on the relationship between lawyers' work and workplace attitudes and PEP of private law firms in Israel, Carmeli and Freund (2002) concluded that people's attitude toward work was positively correlated to their firm's PEP. They also found that affective commitment, compliance behavior and JS were significantly related to PEP. While few studies have empirically examined the question of what shapes PEP (Carmeli and Freund, 2002; Dutton *et al.*, 1994), it is equally vital to empirically examine the impacts of PEP on workplace behavior or to answer the question of how PEP shapes the workplace attitudes of the organizations' members. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1. PEP has a negative and significant effect on DWB.

The role of JS
The subject of JS and dissatisfaction is a topic that has attracted a considerable amount of research and is by far one of the most studied work attitudes (Carmeli and Freund, 2002; Ghazzawi, 2008; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2007). Employees' positive perception of their own status and prestige is highly related to the positive thoughts they hold toward their organizations (Bartels *et al.*, 2007). People are more likely to be satisfied with being a part of an organization that has a good image and yields them higher self-esteem as compared to one with questionable prestige. Accordingly, prestige might contribute to employees' morale, develop their self-esteem and form egotism. This leads to the formation of employees' JS (Carmeli and Freund, 2009).

JS is defined as one's positive or negative attitude toward one's job (Greenberg and Baron, 2008; Wollack *et al.*, 1971). In other words, it includes the positive feelings toward

one's job based on one's evaluation of the characteristics of the job (Robbins and Judge, 2007). The literature on JS suggests that there are four basic factors that affect the employee's level of JS. These factors are personality, values, the work situation and social influence (George and Jones, 2012; Ghazzawi, 2008). While studies of the relationship between JS and performance yield conflicting results (Carmeli and Freund, 2009; George and Jones, 2012; Ghazzawi, 2008), a great number of studies suggest a strong correlation between JS and organizational commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Francisco and Gold, 2005; Gunlu *et al.*, 2010; Namasivayam and Zhao, 2007; Rue and Byars, 2005). As JS is an individual's positive or negative attitude toward his or her job (Brayfield and Crocket, 1955), this attitude tends to influence the person's commitment to the organization, including how hard he or she works while there (Ghazzawi, 2008; O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1980). Although most of the studies on JS focus on its relationship to performance, job commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, limited research focuses on the relationship of PEP to JS. This study proposes that PEP has positive effects on JS. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H2. PEP has a positive and significant effect on JS.

The linkage between DWB and JS

One of the strongest causes of DWB is JS (Omar *et al.*, 2011). As discussed before, JS is the employee's positive or negative attitudes regarding the job. This is evaluated in the context of the job. According to Hershcovis *et al.* (2007), if a person does not like his/her job, he/she will put less effort forth and deviate from organizational norms and activities. The definition of poor JS plays a catalyst role in deviation behaviors like robbery, aggressiveness and sabotage (Kulas *et al.*, 2007, p. 391).

On the one hand, studies have concluded that people who are dissatisfied with their job act in a deviant way by adopting blocking activities. Having a feeling of dissatisfaction might impact a person's attitudes and can lead to unacceptable work behavior (Vardi and Wiener, 1996). Conversely, satisfied employees focus their efforts on pursuing organizational goals and purpose and show more prosocial behavior in the workplace (Mulki *et al.*, 2006). JS leads to organizational citizenship behaviors that are voluntary and not demanded by organizations, such as individuals helping others without expecting rewards (Bies, 1989; Organ, 1988; Organ and Ryan, 1995).

Employees' attachment to an organization is essential; it affects their attitude toward commitment and contributes to other positive behaviors (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Francisco and Gold, 2005). Organ and Ryan (1995) suggest that JS and organizational citizenship behaviors are stronger than the relationship between satisfaction and performance. Based on that, the study proposes that satisfied employees do not subscribe to DWB and, therefore, proposes the following hypothesis:

H3. JS has a negative and significant effect on DWB.

PEP, JS and DWB

Studies researching the subject of PEP show that it has a positive correlation with employees' attitudes. When PEP is positive, employees' attitudes toward their organization are also positive (Bartels *et al.*, 2007; Mishra *et al.*, 2012). It may be assumed that the more the individuals think that the organization is perceived positively by outside stakeholders, the more they will display positive behaviors and attitudes toward

their organization. In addition, when expressed in connection with the theory of social identity, such a case will raise individuals' levels of self-esteem (Bartels *et al.*, 2007). Riordan *et al.* (1997), on the other hand, pointed out that a probable deterioration in the image of an organization or individuals' negative perceptions of the image of the organization will trigger certain behaviors, and consequently, such a state will direct the individuals toward certain actions. In a similar vein, Dutton *et al.* (1994) suggest that when the individuals in the organization think that the image of the organization according to the outside world is negative, the thought may cause depression and stress in individuals within the organization. Such a state might cause an increase in competition between the members of the organization and the wide spread of DWB. Although a review of the literature on the effects of negative PEP produced limited studies, Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2002) concluded that negative information has more clear effects on a person's identification with his/her organization than positive ones. According to Mishra *et al.* (2012), the perception of a negative external image causes a separation from one's organization. If a person and organization behave in such a way that they are separated from each other, the results are not favorable for either. The impact of positive or negative perceptions of the organization causes states within the individual that affect JS (Herrbach and Mignonac, 2004).

In an early study on JS by Herzberg *et al.* (1959), work situations were divided into two sets of factors – intrinsic and extrinsic. The intrinsic factors are those related to the job itself, such as interesting work, recognition and chance for personal growth. On the other hand, the situational factors, also known as extrinsic factors, are those that are related to the job and include the physical working conditions, quality of supervision, salary and relations with others, among others (Herzberg *et al.*, 1959; Herzberg, 1987, 2003). Situations intrinsic to the job surfaced as an important determinant of JS. In a research study of hotel employees in Hong Kong, Wong *et al.* (1999) concluded that the external factors are not sufficient in real sense in assuring JS. According to these authors, the factors assuring intrinsic JS are the real factors assuring satisfaction. Herzberg *et al.* (1959) suggested that intrinsic factors created JS, whereas extrinsic factors reduced satisfaction or were neutral. There is research evidence that, depending on the type of the job, satisfaction is related to factors intrinsic to the job. For instance, Morse and Weiss (1955) suggested that middle-managers and farming jobs emphasized the intrinsic significance of their work, while blue color workers look at their job as one that keeps them busy. Similarly, Weaver (1980) concluded that managerial and professional people tend to be more intrinsically satisfied with their jobs than laborers and factory workers. In contrast, Smith *et al.* (1996) suggested that intrinsic factors do not have important effects on JS and that external factors are actually more influential in that regard. It may be said that an organization that has a good external reputation provides its members with symbolic rewards. Accordingly, PEP can be evaluated as an extrinsic satisfaction factor. According to Herrbach and Mignonac (2004, pp. 77-78), a "good reputation provides the employees with the symbolic rewards of organizational membership". Riordan *et al.* (1997) contended that JS is affected more by organization-based applications and by organizational characteristics. Therefore, the authors propose that an organization-related issue such as PEP is closely related to JS.

JS can be influenced through the beliefs formed by positive information; alternatively, negative beliefs cause a lack of satisfaction. Although satisfaction leads to an increased commitment to someone's organization, dissatisfaction, on the other hand,

will lead to problems, including absenteeism, tardiness, turnover and strikes (Rue and Byars, 2005). According to the literature, lack of JS not only leads to such behaviors but it also is the antecedent to deviant behaviors. Bolin and Heatherly (2001) suggested that deviant behaviors depend on attitudes, and that job dissatisfaction is the cause for such a state. Singh and Jain (2013) concluded that dissatisfied individuals display more antisocial behaviors, including being late, stealing from the workplace and not being friendly to others in the organization. Accordingly, JS can play a mediating role in PEP and employees' work behaviors. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H4. JS mediates the relationship between PEP and DWB.

Research methodology
Procedure
The goal of our study was to examine how employees perceive PEP and its impact on JS and DWB. The target population of this study was limited to only five-star hotel employees at all department levels (front office, food and beverage, housekeeping, etc.). The data were collected from a convenience sample of national and international chain hotel employees. This method allows for the acquisition of primary data in a fast, practical and economical way (Nakip, 2005).

In this study, the sample was focused on five-star hotel employees for two reasons. The first pertains to the fact that the employees of these establishments are the most important part when it comes to quality service delivery. This factor is also one of the most important determinants of reputation (Kang and Bartlett, 2013). A second reason is that the employees of hospitality establishments have a direct relationship with customers and direct interactions (touch). Accordingly, their attention or the lack of attention to quality service delivery can affect the establishment as a whole.

According to data published by the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism, there are 398 five-star hotels and 272,777 beds in the Turkish hospitality (hotel) industry (Culture and Tourism Ministry, 2014b). In this study, five-star hotels in Antalya and Ankara were the focus for various reasons including the fact that these cities are the most important destinations for visitors and have the highest number of five-star hotels in Turkey. While Ankara is the most important as a business- and government-related business destination, Antalya is the number one most important city for leisure seekers. The data used in this research were obtained from five-star hotel employees located in Ankara and Antalya in the period from January 15 through April 15, 2012. In 2012, Ankara had 15 five-star hotels and 6,366 beds; similarly, there were 219 five-star hotels and 181,188 beds in Antalya in 2012 (Antalya Kultural Turizm, 2014). Accordingly, the authors felt that the Ankara–Antalya region, which has a large concentration of hotels and hospitality employees, would be a prime region on which to focus the study as opposed to conducting it on a wide geographical area.

The study data were gathered from ten five-star hotels located in Antalya and Ankara. According to Ağaoğlu (1992) and Erdem (2004), on average, there are 0.59 hotel workers per each five-star hotel bed (Ağaoğlu, 1992, p. 114; Erdem, 2004, p. 48). In this context, it can be accepted that there are 3,756 hospitality employees in Ankara and 106,901 in Antalya.

The quantitative method used to test the research hypotheses included the development of a survey questionnaire to measure the perceptions and behaviors of the

employees of Turkish five-star hotel establishments. A four-section survey questionnaire was designed for this study. DWB was measured following the model provided by Peterson (2002). PEP was measured using a four-item scale from Mael and Ashforth (1992). One section consisted of demographic variables. JS was measured following a six-item scale provided by Tsui *et al.* (1992).

The Statistical Package for Social Science software, version 16, and LISREL 8.80 were used to analyze the data collected from the questionnaire. A preliminary test using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to assess the validity and reliability of the measurement scales of the data. In addition, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also used for the scales used in the research. The results for the CFA are shown in Table I. All the values obtained through CFA are within the range that is regarded to be sufficient in the literature (Kline, 2005; Schermelleh-Engel *et al.*, 2003; Schumacker and Lomax, 2004).

The research method for this study was based on an empirical study and descriptive statistics. The reliability of the data was tested by Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's instrument is widely used to measure the internal reliability of a psychometric instrument. In this study, the Pearson moment correlation was calculated. Correlation coefficient (r) was calculated for determining relations between variables with a tested level of $p < 0.01$. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses and mediation effect in the models. These analyses were conducted according to the procedure described by Baron and Kenny (1986). The Sobel test was conducted to evaluate the significance of indirect effects.

Measures
Organizational deviation scale. To measure DWB, this research utilized the multidimensional scale that was originally developed by Robinson and Bennett (1995) as a 20-item scale and was later revised by Peterson (2002), who made it a 12-item scale. Therefore, the multidimensional scale used in the study was the modified scale that contained 12 questions measuring the general level of organizational deviance based on a Likert-type scale anchored with five frequency adverbs: from 5 = never to 1 = always.

PEP scale. To measure the employees' PEP, the authors used the PEP survey developed by Mael and Ashforth's (1992), an eight-item survey based on a Likert-type scale with five frequency adverbs to measure the degree of external prestige. These measures were assessed on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The reliability of this instrument was determined to be $\alpha = 0.7$ by Mael and Ashforth (1992).

JS scale. To measure JS, the authors used the JS measure that was developed and tested by Tsui *et al.* (1992). This is a six-item measurement that is based on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The reliability of the JS scale used was determined to be $\alpha = 0.7$ based on the study by Tsui *et al.* (1992).

All the above-mentioned scales were used in this study with permissions from the appropriate developers. The study's researchers were very careful about cultural and group variances. In experimental studies aimed at different cultural groups, different behaviors and different results may transpire since different languages and management styles are being used (Brislin, 1976). In this study, all used measurements were translated into the Turkish language by certified translators and were then translated back to the English language by a committee of five people who have

Factor analysis and scale	Factor loadings of the scales			
	Scale 1	Scale 2	Scale 3	Communalities
DWBs scale (Cronbach's a = 0.871, KMO = 0.896, χ^2 = 1791.050, df = 55, p < 0.01, explained variance = 47.054%, eigenvalue = 5.176)				
Taken an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at your place of work	0.568			0.322
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	0.735			0.541
Showed favoritism for a fellow employee or subordinate employee	0.718			0.515
Blamed someone else or let someone else take the blame for your mistake	0.803			0.644
Repeated gossip about a co-worker	0.654			0.427
Padded an expense account to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	0.750			0.562
Accepted a gift/favor in exchange for preferential treatment	0.422			0.178
Taken property from work without permission	0.688			0.473
Cursed at someone at work	0.737			0.543
Made an ethnic or sexually harassing remark or joke at work	0.685			0.469
Made someone feel physically intimidated either through threats or carelessness at work	0.708			0.501
CFA Results: χ^2 = 110.19, df = 39, χ^2/df = 2.82, RMSEA = 0.068, GFI = 0.095, CFI = 0.98, IFI = 0.98, NFI = 0.97, NNFI = 0.98				
PEP scale (Cronbach's α = 0.743, KMO = 0.736, χ^2 = 840.777, df = 28, p < 0.01, explained variance = 34.273%, eigenvalue = 2.757)				
People in my community think highly of (name of hotel)		0.677		0.459
It is considered prestigious in the tourism sector to be an employee of (name of hotel)		0.759		0.576
(Name of hotel) is considered one of the best hotels		0.713		0.508
People from other hotels look down at (name of hotel)		0.418		0.175
Employee of this hotel would be proud to have their relatives work (name of hotel)		0.446		0.199
(Name of hotel) does not have a good reputation in my community		0.493		0.243
A person seeking to advance his career in hotel sector should downplay his association with (name of hotel)		0.561		0.315
When other hotels are recruiting new employees, they would not want employees (name of hotel)		0.532		0.283
CFA Results: χ^2 = 33.24, df = 14, χ^2/df = 2.37, RMSEA = 0.059, GFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.98, IFI = 0.98 NFI = 0.97, NNFI = 0.96				
JS scale (Cronbach's a = 0.842, KMO = 0.831, χ^2 = 966.016, df = 15, p < 0.01, explained variance = 56.749%, eigenvalue = 3.405)				
How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?			0.663	0.439

Table I.
The results of reliabilities of measurements used in the study

(*continued*)

Factor analysis and scale	Factor loadings of the scales			
	Scale 1	Scale 2	Scale 3	Communalities
How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you [your organizational superior]?			0.792	0.627
How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work [your co-workers or peers]?			0.747	0.558
How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?			0.724	0.525
How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement [promotion]?			0.779	0.606
Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation?			0.806	0.649
CFA Results: $\chi^2 = 7.44$ df $= 5$, $\chi^2/df = 1.49$, RMSEA $= 0.0035$, GFI $= 0.99$, CFI $= 1.00$, IFI $= 1.00$, NFI $= 0.99$, NNFI $= 0.99$				

Table I.

mastered both languages. Foreign references, uncommon words (words that are not used locally) and errors of cultural differences (references to a different culture) were eliminated. The final translated versions of measures were pre-tested on a group of 41 hotel employees to determine the validity and reliability of these measures. The results of the pilot study showed that the whole scale was appropriate for the study.

To achieve the criterion-related validity of the scales, a sample application test was performed on 113 hotel employees in Antalya. The participants were given a questionnaire form composed of six scales, of which three were the actual and three were the criteria. In the criterion-related validity analysis of the organizational deviation scale, the anti-production labor behaviors scale, which was developed by Spector *et al.* (2006) and adapted into Turkish culture by Öcel (2010) was utilized. The reason for using an anti-production labor scale instead of an organizational deviation scale in the validity study was that no other scale for deviant behaviors had been adapted into the Turkish language up to that time. Additionally, the fact that both scales measured similar variables considered to be harmful to organizations was another reason for our choice. According to the criterion validity study, the correlation between the two scales was found to be 0.415. In the criterion-related validity of the eight-item *PEP scale*, which was developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992), the external prestige scale, which was developed by Johnson and Ashforth (2008) and for which the validity study was performed for Turkish by Ulu (2011) was used. Following the criterion validity study, the correlation between the two scales was found to be 0.433.

In achieving the criterion validity for the six-item JS scale developed by Tsui *et al.* (1992), the five-item scale, which measures the same concept and which was developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951), was employed. The scale was adapted into Turkish by Bilgin (1995, p. 160), and it had a single factorial structure. As a result of the criterion validity study, the correlation between the two scales was found to be 0.644. Middle and high levels of correlations were found between the scales in the criterion-related validity, and the scales may be said to have achieved criterion-related validity.

Participants and setting

The major part of the study included a survey of 600 employees and managers from various five-star hotels in Antalya and Ankara in the Republic of Turkey. Of the nearly 600 participants solicited from these hotels, 421 individuals volunteered to participate in the current study and actually completed and returned the survey. The response rate was thus 66.8 per cent. In the study, 401 questionnaires were accepted as valid based on their completion, 20 questionnaires were excluded because of non-completion or that participants in the study chose not to answer some questions for reasons that could be related to a lack of opinion regarding the subject or that they may have perceived some of the questions to be too personal.

One concern of the study was the common method bias. This method is known to be a serious threat that can lead to measurement errors among study variables and that can affect the outcomes of the study as individuals evaluate the questionnaire themselves as opposed to researchers explaining the purpose and answering their questions (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). In this study, participation was voluntary and survey responses were confidential. The participants were asked to sign a consent form identifying the purpose of this study and indicating their awareness that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. Following Podsakoff *et al.*'s (2003) and Yen and Teng's (2013) recommendations to ensure that common method bias be eliminated or minimized, the DWB and PEP scales were divided onto different pages of the survey questionnaire in this study. This yielded the effect of psychological separation in the respondents (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Additionally, researchers were available to explain any questions when needed.

The sample in this survey included 144 women (36 per cent of the survey's sample) and 256 men (64 per cent of the survey's sample). The respondents' age distributions were as follows:

- 14.5 per cent ($n = 58$) under 20 years;
- 56 per cent ($n = 225$) 20-29 years;
- 22 per cent ($n = 89$) 30-39 years;
- 5 per cent ($n = 20$) 40-49 years;
- 5 per cent ($n = 7$) 50 years or above; and
- 0.5 per cent ($n = 2$) did not specify their age (or answer this question).

Respondents' educational levels were as follows:

- 10.5 per cent ($n = 43$) have a primary school education only;
- 35 per cent ($n = 141$) have a high school (secondary) diploma;
- 17.5 per cent ($n = 70$) have a vocational school diploma;
- 33 per cent ($n = 132$) have a college degree;
- 1.25 per cent ($n = 5$) have other types of education/trade; and
- 0.25 per cent ($n = 1$) did not indicate his/her educational level.

As far as respondents' work experience within the hospitality (hotel) sector:

- 16.5 per cent ($n = 66$) had less than 1 year of experience;
- 27.5 per cent ($n = 110$) had 1-3 years' experience;

- 26 per cent ($n = 105$) had 4-6 years' experience;
- 15.5 per cent ($n = 62$) had 7-9 years' experience; and
- 14.5 per cent ($n = 58$) had over 10 years' experience.

While 27.75 per cent of the study participants ($n = 111$) worked for a national Turkish hotel chain, 14.5 per cent ($n = 58$) worked for international hotel chains (mostly US or European chains), and the majority of the respondents ($n = 231$ or close to 58 per cent) worked for independently owned and operated hotels.

Results

For each of the dimensions that were a part of the study (i.e. deviant behaviors, PEP and JS), a factor analysis to study variations among these variables was applied, as shown in Table I. With the results provided by factor analysis, three different scale structures emerged. As a result of factor analysis with varimax rotation results, one item was deleted because the factor loading scored less than 0.40 in terms of significance. The factor loadings of the other statements are above the critical level of 0.40 (Ural and Kılıç, 2006). To determine the reliability of the measurements, Cronbach's alpha test was implemented. With Cronbach's alpha values added, the established reliability of the measurements was as follows: $\alpha = 0.871$ for DWB, $\alpha = 0.743$ for PEP and $\alpha = 0.842$ for JS. The values of factor loading and Cronbach's alpha are shown in Table I.

In this research, EFA was utilized to supply the construct validity. Consequently, all three scales were found to have a single factorial structure. The factor loads were found to be within the 0.422-0.803 range, the eigenvalue was found to be 5.176 and the variance explanatory rate was found to be 47.0 per cent in relation to the EFA conducted for the DWB scale. On the one hand, the factor analysis results performed for the PEP scale made it clear that the factor loads were in the 0.418-0.759 range, the eigenvalue was 2.757, and the variance explanatory rate was 34 per cent. On the other hand, the factor analysis conducted for the JS scale showed that the factor loads were in the 0.663-0.806 range, the eigenvalue was 3.405, and the variance explanatory rate was 57 per cent. Despite the threshold limit of 60 per cent explanatory rate for some studies available in the literature (Hair et al., 1998), it is difficult to reach the value in practice – especially in social sciences and in scales with a single structure. Therefore, 30 per cent is considered to be the threshold limit in some studies in social sciences (Büyüköztürk, 2007). The study utilized the applied Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure to measure the sampling adequacy for factor analysis. As shown in Table I, KMO was adequately established in the study to be greater than 0.70. Additionally, the Bartlett's test, a statistical technique to verify the assumption that variances are equal across the groups in the study sample, was applied to basically test whether k samples are from populations with equal variances (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989). From the same table, we can see that the Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant. Both the KMO value and Bartlett's test results show that there are sufficient correlations between items to implement factor analysis.

Table II presents the means, standard deviation and correlation among all study variables. To determine the relationship between the three variables, the coefficient of Pearson's correlation was calculated. The study results confirmed a close correlation between the three variables, with DWB and JS having the highest (negative) linear relationship ($r = -0.385$ and $p < 0.001$). According to these results, as JS increases,

	Mean	SD		DWB	PEP	JS
DWB	1.56	0.65	Pearson's correlation	1		
			Significance (two-tailed)			
			N	396		
PEP	3.79	0.63	Pearson's correlation	−0.241*	1	
			Significance (two-tailed)	0.000		
			N	384	389	
JS	3.88	0.82	Pearson's correlation	−0.385*	0.316*	1
			Significance (two-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
			N	389	383	393

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (two-tailed)

DWB decreases and vice versa. On the other hand, a negative relationship was found to exist between DWB and PEP ($r = -0.241$ and $p < 0.001$). According to the study, when PEP increases, DWB behaviors decrease. Regarding the relationship between PEP and JS, the study's statistical results produced evidence of a positive relationship measured as ($r = 0.316$ and $p < 0.001$). The higher the PEP a person has, the higher the level of satisfaction a person achieves. Similar results were produced by other empirical studies including those by Carmeli and Freund (2009) and Çiftçioğlu and Sabuncuoğlu (2011).

The results of hierarchical regression analysis aimed at the mediation factor (test of hypotheses)
To verify whether the procedures of the approach were met by the results, the hypotheses of the study were tested using the hierarchical regression analysis method. The results of the analysis can be seen in Table III. In the analysis of the first hypothesis (*H1*), the negative effect of PEP on DWB was tested. With respect to the result of the hierarchical regression analysis, the hypothesized effect was found to be significant ($F = 23.467$, $p = 0.000$, $\beta = -0.241$, $R^2 = 5.8$ per cent), and *H1* was supported. In the second hypothesis, the positive significant effect of PEP on JS was tested. According to the results, the effect was found to be significant ($F = 42.501$, $p = 0.000$, $\beta = 0.316$, $R^2 = 10.0$ per cent), and *H2* was supported. In the third hypothesis, the negative effect of JS on DWB was tested. The results of the analysis show that the effect in the hypothesis was found to be significant ($F = 67.518$, $p = 0.000$, $\beta = -0.385$, $R^2 = 14.9$ per cent), and *H3* was also supported. As a result, the study accepts its hypotheses that there is a negative and significant effect of PEP on DWB ($\beta = -0.241$), that the effects of PEP on JS are positive and significant ($\beta = 0.316$) and that the effects of JS on DWB are negative and significant ($\beta = -0.385$).

In the fourth hypothesis, the testing approach of Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to examine whether JS was a mediating variable between PEP and DWB. The four mediation conditions were evaluated following the procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). According to this approach, the procedures for regression analyses are as follows:

- regressing the independent variable on the dependent variable;
- regressing the independent variable on the mediator;
- regressing the mediator variable on the dependent variable;

	JS Step1 β	DWB Step 2 β
Test 1		
PEP		**−0.241***
R^2		0.058
Adjusted R^2		0.056
		($F = 23.467*$)
Test 2		
PEP	0.316*	
R^2	0.010	
Adjusted R^2	0.098	
	($F = 42.501*$)	
Test 3		
JS		−0.385*
R^2		0.149
Adjusted R^2		0.146
		($F = 67.518*$)
Test 4		
PEP		**−0.129***
JS		−0.346
R^2		0.165
Adjusted R^2		0.161
		($F = 37.232*$)

Note: *$p < 0.001$

- establishing that mediator partially or completely mediates the X-Y relationship, the effect of X (independent variable) on Y (dependent variable) controlling for mediator should be reduced or zero.

After implementing said procedures, if the independent variable shows significance regarding the mediator, the mediator shows significance regarding the dependent variable, and the independent variable is significant in terms of the dependent variable, there will likely be a mediator between the independent variable and dependent variable. However, if the decrease of the mediators in the regression model reduces the beta coefficient of the initial variable to zero (i.e. there is no direct effect in the model), the mediators will be accepted to fully mediate the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. Finally, if the mediator's beta coefficient value is reduced but a statistically significant influence remains, the mediators can be accepted as partially mediating the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

Based on the aforementioned explanations, the following were investigated as suitable to this research:

- PEP's effect on DWB;
- JS' effect on DWB;

- PEP's and JS' effect on DWB, whether significant or not; and
- when PEP and JS are included in the model, whether PEP's effect on DWB is decreased or not.

According to this, if any decreases in the relationship existed in this study, it could be stated that there is a partial mediating effect in the model.

In this study, the first and second steps were provided by *H1* and *H2*. To further test for the effect of JS as a mediation variable in the hierarchical regression model, PEP was treated as a dependent variable with an assignment parameter of 5.8 per cent. However, by adding JS to the model as a mediator variable, the assignment parameter became 16.5 per cent. The result shows that the JS variable should be taken into account when explaining the DWB. Furthermore, a positive perception of the organization positively influences people's work behaviors and reduces employees' deviance. Very importantly, JS is a contributor to this interaction, as shown in Figure 1. Thus, the explanation rate rises because of the new variables that were added to the model, showing that there is not any multicollinearity (Albayrak, 2005). In addition, because of the variance inflation factor, or variance inflation factor, the value of the model is <10, which means there is not multicollinearity in the hierarchical regression model (Field, 2005).

Based on the hierarchical regression analysis results, while the effect of PEP on DWB is negative ($\beta = -0.241$), this relationship decreases ($\beta = -0.129$) and becomes statistically significant when the effect of JS is controlled (Figure 1), so *H4* was supported. For testing the significance of this decrease, the Z value, which is calculated by the Sobel test, was examined (Z value 4.71, $p < 0.01$).

Discussion and conclusion

This paper has examined the effects of PEP on DWBs and tested JS as a possible mediator construct in five-star hotel employees in the Antalya and Ankara regions of the Republic of Turkey. Research conducted in diverse sectors has shown that the perception of the organizations where individuals work as favorable and praiseworthy by outsiders causes the individuals to be proud of their organization (Carmeli and Freund, 2009). Such a state is capable of accounting for a number of individual behaviors and attitudes. Image and prestige are important sources of motivation for people. PEP is also influential in individuals' displaying positive attitudes toward their work (Mathe and Halsell, 2012). PEP strengthens self-image in a positive way. If individuals perceive the organization they work for as socially valuable or as businesses perceived in a positive light, this contributes to their JS (Çiftçioğlu and Sabuncuoğlu, 2011). The results
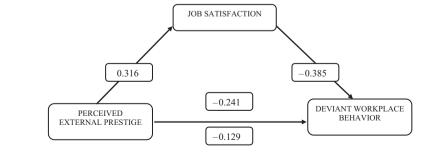

Figure 1.
The results of hierarchical regression analysis aimed at research model

of other experimental studies researching PEP and JS showed that positive relationships exist (Carmeli and Freund, 2009; Carmeli, 2005b; Çiftçioğlu, 2010a; Çiftçioğlu and Sabuncuoğlu, 2011), and this research also confirmed that said relationship was positive. The present study showed that positive PEP affects JS and JS serves as a mediating construct that influences deviant behaviors in the workplace. Positive PEP reflects positively on JS and vice versa.

Upon reviewing the literature of studies concerning JS, we have found that emphasis is placed on ensuring employees' JS, as it leads to workplace harmony and aligns employees with the purpose of the organization (Gazzoli *et al.*, 2010; Ghazzawi, 2008; Hancer and George, 2003). Hostile and deviant behaviors displayed by individuals are associated with job dissatisfaction and are direct reflections of their organizational experiences. In other words, deviant behaviors are observed more in people who have negative experiences in their workplace (Judge *et al.*, 2006). Research findings suggest that there is a negative effect between JS and organizational deviant behaviors. Hence, it would be appropriate to say that the happier and the more pleased employees are at work, the more harmonious the employees will be.

In this study, PEP has been found to have a negative relationship to deviant behavior and, therefore, influences positive organizational behavior ($r = -0.241$). In contrast, dissatisfaction contributes to DWB that pits employees against the purpose of the organization. After Ashforth and Mael (1989) noted that PEP's negative impact on organizational identification, the number of studies focusing on the positive effects of PEP began to increase. To our knowledge, there is limited research exploring the relationship between PEP and negative workplace behavior (DWB, counterproductive behavior, misbehavior, etc.). The present paper attempts to add to the existing literature by explaining the path through which PEP negatively impacts DWB. Omar *et al.* (2011) suggest that job dissatisfaction motivates DWB. Similar results were introduced by Zoghbi and De-Lara (2010), who produced evidence of a reverse relationship between DWBs and JS. In other words, the more satisfied an employee is, the less likely it is that the employee will exhibit deviant behavior in the workplace. In the hospitality industry, while burglary, sabotage and damage to equipment are the most encountered DWBs, other behaviors, including aggression, will also negatively impact the organization and the workplace and result in losses to business, customers and other stakeholders (Demir, 2010). It is not unusual to encounter an individual who is not satisfied in his/her job having a negative attitude and behaviors. Understanding differences in organization-based perceptions is more effective when understanding the relationship between organizational DWB and satisfaction in the context of PEP.

Theoretical implications
This study contributes to the literature regarding the subject of external organizational prestige and its impact on organizational deviance behavior and the mediating role of JS in both theoretical and practical aspects. One of the main contributions of the study is the model that was tested within the scope of the research. This study has two theoretical implications. Regarding the theoretical aspect, none of the published studies have examined the relationships between PEP and DWB. Additionally, no study has focused on the role of JS as a mediating factor in this relationship.

To more fully understand the relationships between these variables, particularly the relationships between PEP and DWB, this study tested whether JS serves as a mediator

between PEP and DWB via hierarchical regression analysis. First, the findings indicate that from the standpoint of hospitality employees, a higher degree of PEP is associated with lower employee DWB. This result is important because it reflects a reciprocity relationship. This exchange can be easily explained, as the more the organizations emphasize positive public opinion/perception, the more they get back in the way of employees commitment and support. The positive perceptions and evaluations by organizational stakeholders of the activities/contributions that are made by the organization/hotel reflect the attitudes and behaviors of the individuals in the organization. However, if said activities are perceived negatively, it will negatively affect the employees' behaviors (Riordan *et al.*, 1997). In general, employees tend to continuously evaluate the position and impression of their organization, and consequently, they shape their own behaviors.

The way of understanding PEP and its impacts for researchers and practitioners are regarding to realize social exchange. To minimize the negative effects of long and intensive work hours in hotel establishments, employees need uplifting factors. Employees who perceive the organization more positively and thus exhibit good workplace behavior reflect the positive mood and favorable working conditions that businesses have provided to them. This situation might be an outcome of social exchange.The research findings have showed that PEP has positive effects on JS. A positive perception of the organization by people outside makes the organizations a more desired place to work. Finally, it was determined that satisfied employees are effective in reducing the level of organizational deviant behavior and as regards the consequences these correlates with the above discussion.

Practical implications
There are at least three important practical implications from this study. First, given the need to create positive PEP, organizations, through leadership, should focus on building and sustaining an image that projects a positive reputation. Such an image is associated with having sound products and/or services, good customer service and commitment to ethical practices and social responsibility. Despite the increase in the number of studies on PEP and DWB, the number of studies concerning the ties between the two concepts is still limited, making it difficult to understand the relationship between them. The changing work environment, increased competition and the changes in the structure of today's marketplace have been influential on both variables gaining so much importance. It is only possible for businesses to keep up with these circumstances through an increase in employees' contributions. PEP is a consequence of employees' assessment of their organization based on their perception. Employees' positive PEP perceptions lead to an increase in their self-esteem. The more PEP at individual level, the more employee self-esteem increases (Smidts *et al.*, 2001).

Another implication is for the manager to help improve employees' JS, which, in turn, helps reduce occurrences of turnover intentions and increases a sense of commitment. This implication is consistent with the findings of Carmeli and Freund (2002), Ghazzawi (2008) and Rue and Byars (2005). JS is very important in the hotel business. The intensive working conditions and the need for the hotel employee to do different jobs are among the reasons why an employee needs to be happy and satisfied to give his/her best (Gallardo *et al.*, 2010). Yang (2010) suggested that role conflicts and indistinct roles are among the most frequent problems encountered in the hospitality industry besides the

heavy work load. These are among the causes for job dissatisfaction. Precisely defining each worker's duties and creating clear job descriptions will affect JS in positive ways (García *et al.*, 2011). This will cause hotel employees give timely service and/or to go above and beyond what is expected of them and thus help to increase customer satisfaction, which, obviously, is very important in hospitality businesses. Hotel administrators meeting the expectations of the employees will prevent the tendency of employees to adopt undesirable behaviors. On the other hand, a negative working environment brings about negative feelings and dissatisfaction that may lead to increased DWB (Alias *et al.*, 2013). The rationale behind this is the fact that individuals experiencing job dissatisfaction are more likely to display deviant behaviors than those who have JS. The undesirable behaviors displayed by unhappy employees or employees displeased in their workplace are a reflection of the negative experiences that they encounter in the workplace itself (Brown, 2008).

Finally, as the hotel industry is labeled under the term "hospitality" and is characterized as a labor-intensive sector, it is imperative to ensure a workplace free of deviant behavior and to ensure satisfied employees who will be hospitable. As a high level of employee performance in the hospitality industry is the foundation of hotel productivity, ensuring the JS of the employees in the hotel business is important in such a competitive and complex environment (Yang, 2010). Considering the fact that the reflections of negative experiences encountered by employees or their unhappiness in the workplace can be costly to organizations, it becomes evident that administrators should be more careful in the resolution of employee problems. Care taken especially by the managers in hotel organizations, where quality of service and customer satisfaction are important, will hinder the emergence of considerable costs. Taking the results of the research into consideration, it can be seen that an increase in JS reduces deviant behaviors, which is an issue that must be considered by hotel managers.

Like other studies, this study has concluded that a desirable image of the organization as perceived by the general public is significant when recruiting and hiring talented people. In terms of employees' perceptions, the prestige the organization has and the feeling of JS will result in an increase in employees' contentment and belief in the value that their organization holds for them personally and professionally. In this respect, an increase in JS adversely impacts deviant work behaviors. On the other hand, job dissatisfaction has a direct effect on DWB (Bolin and Heatherly, 2001). Accordingly, to develop organizational PEP, managers should take precautions to help increase JS and promote social responsibility activities, thereby decreasing DWB.

Limitations and future research
As this study is attempting to contribute to the knowledge on the subject of the effects of PEP and workplace behavior, it has some limitations, and subsequently, the study's conclusions should be taken with caution. One study limitation is the possibility that respondents may be biased because it may be argued that they might not have been able to thoroughly think through the questions, as they answered the three instruments. As a consequence, the study results could have been overstated. A second limitation is related to the use of a convenience sample of hospitality employees and in Turkey. It should be cautioned here that other research studies might produce different results if conducted in a different industry or region. Accordingly, we can make no claims in terms of the representations or generalizability of these results beyond the group

studied. To enhance the external validity of the study, future comparative research and semi-structured interviews with focus groups of employees and managers should examine causal relationships between PEP, JS and work behavior and further explain these causes.

A third limitation is the use of a semi-homogenous sample, which could contribute to possible results bias because all respondents work for five-star hotels. To counter this and enhance the generalizability of the findings, future research should study a heterogeneous population sample that comprises employees of various hotel levels (as measured by different stars). Moreover, the scope of the research is restricted to the employees in hotels in Ankara and Antalya only. The research should be repeated to be inclusive of the other cities in Turkey. A fourth and a final limitation of the study is that it does not provide valuable implications for other countries or cultures. Cultural dimensions could add to results bias. Therefore, the generalizability of these findings to other countries or cultures is not reasonable. Similarly, more studies in different cultures are needed to draw a better generalization. Another suggestion for future research is to further investigate the relationship between PEP and organizational attachment and citizenship behavior. A final suggestion for a future research is to study the effect of PEP on DWB using demographic variables such as age, gender, income level and education as mediators.

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