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OFFENCES AND PUNISHMENTS IN THE WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT. It is no longer a question today that in many cases employees find themselves in a situation where either they or their environment believe that they have committed a misdemeanor or sin at work. The perception of sin can depend on a number of factors, such as the particular organizational culture, management, employee preferences, the degree of trust in the organization, and so on. There are cases where we judge the same sin differently, making the severity and extent of the penalties involved vary. The present study examines workplace offenses and subsequent employer penalties and their impact. The researchers did not focus on illegal acts, but on those that violate moral standards or affect an employee's professional development and ability to advance in the workplace. The analysis made a distinction between misdemeanors that came to light and those that did not. The test results confirmed the following. The employees are more critical of their own faults than the employer, and this is especially true of moral faults. People experience sin and punishment differently by gender and age.

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Introduction

The appearance and handling of errors occurs from an early age. Demeter's (2020) paper on pre-schoolers emphasises that there should be a healthy principle about mistakes: that is, making mistakes is human. Errors happen often, but if someone is wrong, it does not mean that

they are bad, that no one can discover the mistake. That is why it is useful to learn from a mistake, especially if we are not afraid to bring it to light, discuss it, understand the root causes, and accept the consequences. The protocol for this mechanism and the healthy handling of mistakes must be established in early childhood, so that we can later rank the errors in the adult world, develop and accept a healthy mechanism for their management. Of course, in the world of work, we face various mistakes daily, both small and large (Seifried & Wuttke, 2010). However, the question of how specific mistakes and the associated penalties are handled at the organizational level and at the individual level by companies is of interest. The research seeks answers to questions such as what mistakes employees make, how mistakes affect employees' perceptions when they come to light, and how mistakes affect corporate relationships. This paper summarizes some of the results of a quantitative study in light of the hypotheses formulated by the authors.

1. Literature review

Studies on workplace sin and delinquency examine the issue from a number of perspectives. Thus, for example, the nature of sin, its interpretation, the perception of the role of leaders, and so on. The study will now present some of these without claiming completeness. There may be a few misdemeanours and mistakes in the workplace that someone who committed would not even feel a problem, while others would disagree. Violations can be numerous, varying from the simplest mistakes such as delays, failure to observe the time limit, inaccurate work, all the way to misdemeanours that can lead to serious irregularities. In one of Egri's (2009) studies, he sheds light on the essence of error in such a way that error creates an unpleasant situation that we do not wish for ourselves or others. A condition is created that is different from what is usual or desirable, that is, expected.

Several studies examine the links between power, moral purity, and punishment. Individuals with an increased sense of power suggested more severe punishments for offenders than those with a reduced sense of power (Wiltermuth, Flynn, 2010). Organisations are easily blamed for misbehaviour because they seem to be capable of intention and planning. Organisations appear to be unable to feel pain (i.e., have no perceived experience). Without the ability to suffer, companies and organisations cannot quell people's desire for retaliation, even with large fines and other penalties (Tang, Kurt, 2018). Leaders are also aware that punishment is a heavily charged cognitive and emotional event with wide-ranging and far-reaching effects that go far beyond punished subordinates and simply change their attitudes and behaviour (Butterfield et al., 2017).

The aim of Podsakoff's and Todor's study was to examine the relationships between subordinate leadership perceptions of reward and punishment behaviour and group cohesion, leadership, and productivity. In addition, the effect of variance from the same source on these relationships was evaluated (Podsakoff, Todor, 1985). The question arises as to what drives leaders to unfairly punish their subordinates? And why can managers unfairly punish subordinates, even if it increases misconduct at work? Power and status force leaders to punish them unfairly. Some authors review the evidence on the effects of power and status on punishment, as well as how unjust punishment causes misconduct, and highlight how this creates a loophole of self-sustaining feedback — leaders are more likely to punish unfairly when subordinates commit misconduct, but subordinates' misconduct is caused in part by unjust punishments (Mooijman, Graham, 2018).

Research on organisational punishment has focussed on the effects of punishment on the disciplined subordinate. Trevino's study evokes a perspective on justice to develop a framework for studying the effects of punishment on observers — other members of the

organisation who are interested in a particular punitive event (Tervino, 1992). Unlike most econometric research on welfare sanctions, sanctioning can be approached as an organised practice that reflects not only the characteristics and behaviours of participants, but also organisational needs, routines, values, authority relationships, environments, and reward and punishment systems. Many researchers' analysis focusses on the organisation of discipline and in the process suggests that investigators may misrepresent and misunderstand the occurrence of discipline if they do not consider the dynamic ways in which organisation and management shape sanction patterns (Soss et al. al., 2011).

According to Kornél Bőhm (2018), leaders have a big role to play in creating a positive error culture. They are the ones who set an example that if they make a mistake, they do not hide it, but talk about it openly and share the fact and lessons with their subordinates, thereby making employees aware that making a mistake is a human thing. Some researchers advise leaders of organisations to link rewards and punishment to ethical and unethical behaviour. When organisations operate in the stages of Kohlberg's moral reasoning, it can be examined how over-reliance on rewards and punishments encourages employees to operate in the lowest stages of their moral reasoning (Baucus, Beck-Dudley, 2005). The strength of organisational norms often depends on consistent reciprocity, i.e., regular and expected rewards for good behaviour and penalties for bad behaviour. However, the differing reactions of direct recipients and third-party observers point to the possibility of unmet expectations and organisational inconsistencies. This study suggests that these types of problems are not only common but also predictable (Whison et al., 2015).

Previous studies have noted that both punishment and reward can improve knowledge sharing to some extent; however, which one better supports knowledge sharing is still debatable. Furthermore, it has not yet been thoroughly investigated whether a higher fine or a higher bonus will result in better knowledge sharing performance. Both punishment and reward can promote knowledge-sharing behaviour, but punishment is more effective than reward for maintaining the contribution of knowledge. Contrary to expectations, the mixed mechanism is not as effective as punishment or reward in facilitating knowledge sharing. The amount of the fine/bonus is non-linear to the quality of the knowledge shared. It is easier to improve and maintain the contribution of knowledge if the facilitative effects from the work environment, e.g., peer pressure is stronger than inhibitors, e.g., time pressure (Zhang et al., 2020).

2. Methodological approach

Researchers have launched a quantitative study between 2020 and 2022 to find out how employees commit to making a mistake in their workplace and, if the offense is revealed, what (essentially non-statutory, mainly workplace-related) penalties they face. Previous literature has examined the issue from several aspects, but studies on similar topics have been relatively modest in terms of employee self-judgment and assumption of a given error (Kobayashi, Kerbo, 2012; Seifried & Wuttke, 2010). Indeed, the authors did not really find any international statistical comparisons on this topic, i.e., what characteristics and perceptions of fault and punishment in companies (specifically offenses, not specifically under the Penal Code) have in each national culture and how do they affect the emotional and professional development of employees. The authors focus on such research in Hungary, and Hungarian employees took part in the research. The respondents were reached by e-mail and on various internet interfaces. The authors also used the tools found in social media (Facebook, Viber). The questionnaire was basically available and completed electronically by the respondents. The study consisted mainly of closed-ended questions, with only one open-ended question for research participants. Closed questions were based on nominal and five-order Likert variables. During the trial survey, the

respondents did not have any interpretability problems, so the first questionnaire was sent out and posted on the social media surfaces. For enquiries where an e-mail questionnaire was completed, the response rate was around 60%. On the social media interface, this could not be measured by the researchers.

3. Conducting research and results

The structure of the questionnaire is shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Structure of the questionnaire

Sample specification	Types and characteristics of offences	Punishment of wrongs in the workplace	Impact of errors
Gender	Margins for error in the company	What faults the employer would penalise	Impact of malpractices on the employee
Age	Taking ownership of personal errors	What faults the company punishes	Impact of errors on the employee, attributable to moral standards
Residence	The coming forth of errors	Weighing of punishments in a company, based on faults	Impact of errors on human relations within a company
Educational attainment			
Size of workplace			
Organisation's activity			
Property relations of firm			
Respondent's position in the company			

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

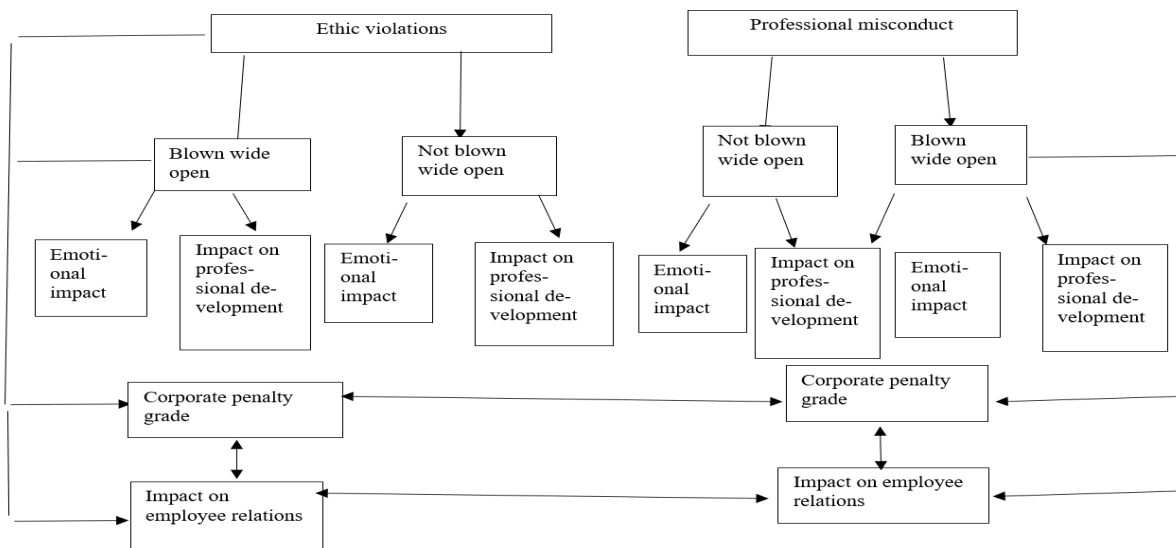
During the two years of the research, 302 respondents completed the questionnaire. This seems to be futile, but the willingness to respond has also shown that people are reluctant to talk about their mistakes.

During the research, the researchers sought answers to the following basic questions:

1. What mistakes do employees typically make in their workplace?
2. What mistakes are typically revealed in a worker's workplace?
3. What are the most severe levels of punishment for each error in a corporate culture?
4. How do professional errors affect an employee's personality traits, depending on whether a particular error is revealed?
5. How do moral defects affect an employee's personality traits, depending on whether a particular defect is revealed?
6. What is the impact of professional and moral errors on employee relations?

Along the given research questions, the researchers were able to establish the following research target structure, along which the studies were carried out (see Graph 1).

During the research, the authors examined the impact of a moral or professional misconduct in the workplace on an employee's professional and emotional development, depending on whether the error comes to light. What kind of corporate punishment levels can be revealed about the mistakes that have come to light, and how these affect employee relationships? The relationship between the two error rates and the relationship between employee relations was also analyzed by the authors of the study.



Graph 1. Research target structure
Source: authors' own elaboration

In the present study, the authors present the research results by demonstrating the following hypotheses:

- H1. Professional and moral misconduct in the workplace, regardless of whether they come to light, have the same backing for an employee's emotional and professional development.
- H2. Moral misconduct has a more serious negative impact on employee relationships than professional misconduct.
- H3. There is no difference in terms of gender, age, or position, who makes any professional and moral mistakes within a company.

The authors begin the presentation of the research result with the specification of the sample. The questionnaire was completed by a total of 302 people, 105 men and 197 women. Eighty-five percent of respondents are young adults under the age of 30. More than a third of the respondents, 37.5 percent, live in the capital, 24.5 percent in Central Hungary, 18.2 percent in Northern Hungary, 13.6 percent in Transdanubia and 7.2 percent in the Great Plain. Nearly three-quarters, 73.5 percent, indicated only upper secondary education. However, given that the respondents were undergraduates, this only means that they have not yet completed their undergraduate studies. Therefore, differences in education were not examined in this study. Ages were grouped into age groups. The first age group is 18-29 years old (young adults, this includes 80 percent of respondents), followed by the other age groups: 30-39, 40-49, 50-59 and 60-75 years old. In the subsamples of the group of men and women, the normality of the sample means was assumed based on the Central Limit Theorem (CLT). The normality of the other groups was examined with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in the groups with more than 30 items and with the Shapiro-Wilk test in the groups with less than 30 people. Based on this, we found no normality according to the other age groups, the groups by place of residence, or the size of the workplace. Accordingly, non-parametric tests were used in these subsamples below. We also examined the distribution of the sample based on workplace ownership and workplace activity. There were 4 possible options for ownership, the distribution of which is shown in Table 2. Based on the ownership distribution, we continued to work with parametric tests.

Table 2. Sample distribution and normality test results by groups of ownership

Form of ownership	N	Kolm-Smirnov Sig	normality
Exclusively Hungarian	154	<0.001	no*
Mixed ownership	42	,075	yes
Entirely foreign	49	,037	no
Currently I do not work	57	,007	no

* in this case, the CLT establishes normality due to the high number of element

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

The distribution of activity by firms has proved to be rather uneven. The number of items in each group was less than 100. The normality of groups with more than 30 people was examined with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and those with less than 30 items were tested with the Shapiro-Wilk test. Normality was characteristic of some groups of ownership forms, but not of other groups, so activity-based studies were performed with non-parametric tests.

The first survey was conducted in connection with the eighth question of the questionnaire, which lists misdemeanours committed in the workplace. By aggregating these, we created the sin index, which shows the frequency of mistakes made in the workplace for each respondent. Before examining the gender distribution of the sin index — after the existence of normality based on CLT for both sexes separately, we examined homoscedasticity. For this purpose, we used the Levene test, the results of which are shown in Table 3, based on which there is not a statistically significant difference between the standard deviations of the two groups.

Table 3. Examination of homoscedasticity by gender

<i>Levene's</i>				
Grouping variable	F	df1	df2	p
gender	0,0218	1	300	0,883

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Accordingly, a t-test was used to examine the association of the sin index with gender (Table 4–Table 6).

Table 4. Committing sins at work between men and women

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1				
men	162	104	86.7	8.50
women	146	198	87.3	6.21

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Table 5. Paired sample statistics of sin index by gender

<i>Paired Samples Statistics</i>					
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Pair 1					
Sin index	17.24	302	4.496	0.2587	
Gender of the respondent	1.66	302	0.476	0.0274	

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Table 6. T-test of sin index by gender

<i>T-test</i>		95% Confidence Interval Difference						
		statistic	df	p	Mean difference	SE difference	Lower	Upper
Sin index	Gender of the respondent	59.5	301	<.001	15.6	0.262	15.1	16.1

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Based on the results, there is a significant difference between the two sexes, meaning that men commit more offences in their workplace than women.

No normality was found in the sample of age group, place of residence, and workplace size groups; therefore, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used for these. The results of this are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7. Relationship between age group, size of residence and workplace size, and “sins” at work

<i>Kruskal-Wallis</i>				
Grouping variable	Chi-square	df	Asymp sig	
Age group	4.06	4	0.398	
Residence	2.62	4	0.623	
Size of workplace	3.47	4	0.482	
Form of ownership	15.50	3	0.002	
The organisation's activity	21.77	13	0.059	

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Based on the results, the medians of the population are equal except for the grouping by type of ownership, i.e., there is no difference in terms of who commits what infractions at work, regardless of age group, place of residence, and size of the workplace. The activity of the organization is just a borderline case, because here we got a result very close to the 5-percent limit. The identity of the age groups may seem surprising at first glance, the most likely explanation for this being that 80 percent of the respondents are young adults (aged 18-29).

The sins committed were divided into three categories based on the statements in question 8 of the questionnaire:

1. Time
 - a. They are late for work.
 - b. They cannot complete the task on time.
 - c. They do not take overtime.
 - d. They leave their job sooner than their working hours tell them.
2. Work ethic
 - a. They can't solve their tasks.
 - b. They do their job superficially.
 - c. They are not open to news.
 - d. They commit irregularities.
 - e. They make malpractices.
3. Relationships
 - a. They are naughty with their colleagues.
 - b. They do not respect their colleagues.

For these three categories, we created sub-indices by averaging and then examined their frequency. The differences between the sexes are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Types of sins committed by gender

	Together	Men	Women
average of sin index	17.2	17.6	17.0
time	1.6	1.5	1.5
work ethic	1.4	1.4	1.3
connections	1.2	1.3	1.2

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Based on this, it can be said that time-related sins (delay, early departure) are equally common in both sexes. The significant difference between men and women is caused by the other two categories. This is because men are more likely than women to commit both work ethic and personal faults. However, it is also clear that these faults are less frequently committed by respondents than average, as even the index of time-related behaviours is only 1.5. This is also lower than the theoretical average of 2.5.

Our next question was to what extent sins are known. To measure the revelation, we created an index called "leakage" in a similar way to the sin index, and then examined whether a correlation could be detected between the commission and detection of sins. Our results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. The relationship between the commission and detection of sins

		Correlations	
		Sin index	Leakage
Sin index	Pearson correlation	1	0.209***
	Sig (2 tailed)		<0.001
	N		302
Leakage	Pearson correlation	0.209***	1
	Sig (2 tailed)	<0.001	
	N	302	

Note * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Based on this, we can say that there is a significant relationship between the commission and detection of sins, i.e., the mistakes made in the workplace are usually revealed. The question is whether the faults of women or men are more apparent (Table 10–Table 12).

Table 10. Correlation of sin detection with gender of respondents

Pair 1	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Men	24.7	104	12.0	1.18
women	23.4	198	12.2	0.864

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Table 11. Paired sample statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Leakage	28.83	302	12.107	0.6967
Gender of the respondent	1.66	302	0.476	0.0274

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Table 12. T-test of leakage by gender

<i>T-test</i>		95% Confidence Interval Difference						
		statistic	df	p	Mean difference	SE difference	Lower	Upper
leakage	Gender of the respondent	31.7	301	< 0.001	22.2	0.699	1.64	2.01

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

So, the averages of the populations are different, which in our case means that the sins of men are more exposed. One reason for this may be that men are more likely to make mistakes. But presumably women are better able to hide their flaws than men.

The results for groups whose means do not follow a normal distribution are summarised in Table 13.

Table 13. Non-parametric test results for the frequency of workplace error detection

<i>Kruskal-Wallis</i>				
Grouping variable	Chi-square	df	Asymp sig	
Age group	9.58	4	0.048	
Residence	11.2	7	0.131	
Size of the workplace	17	5	0.005	
Form of ownership	2.03	3	0.566	
Organisation's activity	6.12	13	0.942	

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Based on the results, it can be said that there are significant differences according to the age group and the size of the workplace in terms of how often workplace errors are revealed. The frequencies for the age groups are as follows (Table 14):

Table 14. Frequency of errors in each age group

Age group	N	Missing	Mean	Median	St. Dev	Min	Max
18-29	242	0	23.8	20.0	12.0	11	55
30-39	19	0	24.3	21.0	12.4	11	45
40-49	25	0	21.6	18.0	12.1	11	55
50-59	12	0	22.9	21.5	12.3	11	55
60-74	4	0	43.5	43.0	1.0	43	45

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

According to the post hoc test (Dwass-Steel-Critchlow-Finger pairwise comparison), 18–29-year-olds differ significantly from 60–74-year-olds, the latter age group also differs significantly from 40–49-year-olds. Thus, based on the results, quadragenarians are the “most shrewd”. The younger ones still have an enthusiasm for honesty, and the older ones may be less able to pay attention to detail, so they fail. This is especially true for those over sixty years of age.

The significance of the size of the workplace is based on a single significant difference between the medium-sized companies and the sole proprietors according to the post-hoc test but given that the latter group includes only twelve respondents, further studies are needed to interpret the difference.

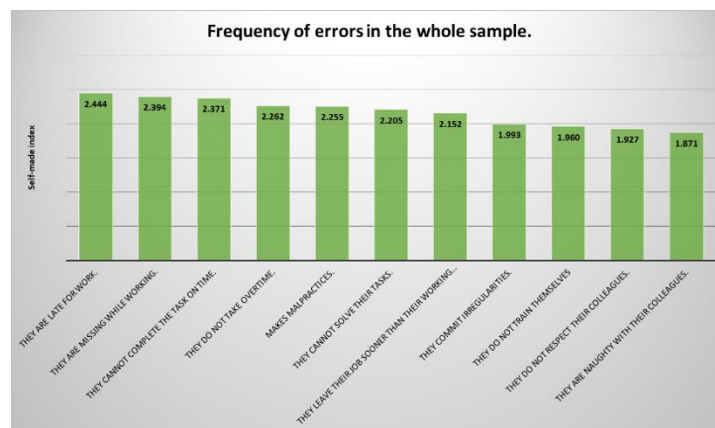
Graph 2. shows the most common errors. An interesting result is that leaving the workplace earlier and committing irregularities was only in the second half of the ranking.

Offences involving personal relationships are the least common and are likely to be arranged between those involved.

Our questionnaire examined possible penalties in three ways:

- what the company is penalizing
- what the respondent considers punishable
- the severity of the penalties imposed

For comprehensive analysis, similar aggregate indices were generated as before. The 11 chances of error listed in the first two questions, rated on a 5-point Likert scale, can score a total of a minimum of 11 and a maximum of 55 points per respondent. The third question contained a seven-point scale.



Graph 2. Frequencies of workplace error detection in the total sample

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Based on the answers to the questions, we found that respondents were much more critical of the mistakes made (median = 32) than their workplace management (median = 26). Respondents would primarily penalize irregularities and disrespect, giving them an average of 4 points out of a possible five. The same questions are judged more seriously by companies, but here these answers were given only a 3-point average. Based on the results of Graph 2, we can say that it is not the most common mistakes that respondents and their companies rate as the most serious.

The severity of the penalties ranged from 11 to 77 points per respondent. Of these possible responses, however, a value of 7 meant a “no punishment at all” response and a value between 1 and 6 meant penalties of increasing severity. Of the 302 respondents, only three reported maximum rigor (66 points) and seven reported that the company did not penalize violations at all. Non-punishment could be typical of sole proprietors who were their own bosses, but only three of the twelve sole proprietors among the respondents found such an answer. Therefore, the possibility arose those respondents scoring 77 points (but even all respondents) inadvertently filled in the questionnaire and automatically considered the seventh option to be the most severe penalty. To avoid this ambiguity, we will take special care in compiling our next questionnaires. Given that the evaluability of the responses to the severity of the penalties has therefore become uncertain, the question of the severity of the penalties has been excluded from further investigation.

Table 15. Individual and corporate assessment of the need for penalties by gender

Group Descriptives						
	Group	N	Mean	Median	SD	SE
OnBunt	1	104	32.3	33.0	8.29	0.813
	2	198	31.8	32.0	7.69	0.547
CegBunt	1	104	26.8	28.0	9.52	0.934
	2	198	25.8	26.0	9.94	0.707

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Table 16. T-test of individual and corporate penalties

<i>T-test</i>			
	Statistic	df	p
OnBunt	0.446	300	0.656
CegBunt	0.876	300	0.382

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

The gender perception of self-criticism and corporate punishment culture was examined by t-test. The results of this are summarized in Table 15–Table 16. The results show that there is no significant difference between women and men on any of the issues. The Kruskal-Wallis test also showed no difference in the opinions of the different age groups and the respondents living in different places. We also found no differences in the application of penalties between respondents from firms of different sizes, activities, and ownership. However, the position held by the company proved to be decisive in judging the penalties imposed by the company (Table 17).

Table 17. Judging the frequency of penalties imposed by a company based on job title

<i>Kruskal-Wallis</i>			
Grouping variable	Chi square	df	p
CegBunt	11.35	4	0.023

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

The difference is explained by the significant differences between subordinates and senior managers and between basic managers and senior managers based on the post-hoc test.

We examined the evolution of collegial relationships by the evolution of responses to professional and moral mistakes made by colleagues, and by how a respondent is affected by a colleague blaming him or her for something. For the analysis, we created aggregate self-indices according to the previously used method. The answers to the questions examining the development of relationships contain positive statements, which had to be answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from non-typical to completely characteristic. Accordingly, a lower value indicates a more significant deterioration of the relationship. As 10-10 statements refer to professional and moral errors as well as blaming each other, all three sub-areas can give a score between 10-50 points. Thus, the global development of relationships was rated between 30 and 150 points by the respondents. Based on the results, workplace errors lead to a significant deterioration in personal relationships in only 37 percent of respondents. We found only six respondents who did not have a significant deterioration, but in their case, too, only 145 points out of a possible 150 were scored. Thus, mistakes at work in any case worsen collegial relationships. Professional misconduct is particularly significant in this regard, with respondents scoring an average of 36 out of a possible 50 points, while moral misconduct scored 32 points and blaming each other scored 30 points.

Examined by gender, the following results were obtained (Table 18–Table 19; Graph 3). Neither in relationships in general nor in the three sub-areas of relationships is there a significant difference between women and men in the extent to which workplace errors change relationships with colleagues. It can also be seen that both sexes are treated in the same way as moral errors and blaming the other. This is not a coincidence, as blaming others is also a type of moral problem.

Table 18. Changes in collegial relationships by gender

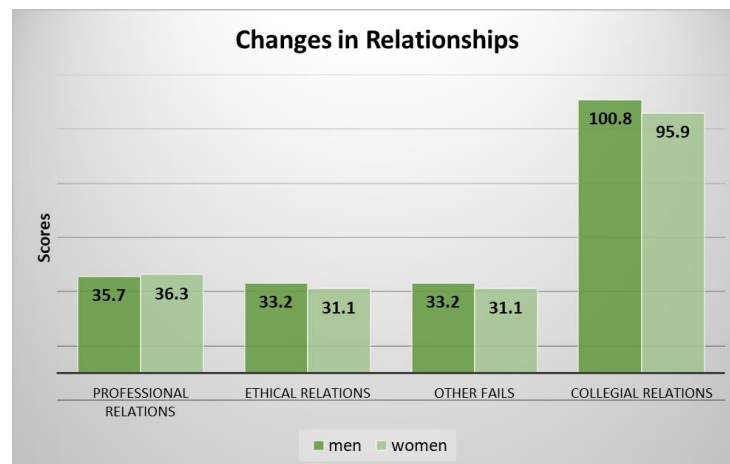
<i>Group Descriptives</i>						
	Group	N	Mean	Median	SD	SE
ColleagProf	1	104	35.7	37.0	7.58	0.743
	2	198	36.3	37.0	7.36	0.523
ColleagEthic	1	104	33.2	32.0	8.88	0.871
	2	198	31.1	30.0	9.69	0.689
ColleagFail	1	104	33.2	32.0	8.88	0.871
	2	198	31.1	30.0	9.69	0.689
ColleagRel	1	104	100.8	101.0	22.47	2.203
	2	198	95.9	94.5	21.43	1.523

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

Table 19. T-test of collegial relationships

<i>T-Test</i>			
	Statistic	df	p
ColleagProf	-0.715	300	0.475
ColleagEthic	1.824	300	0.069
ColleagFail	1.824	300	0.069
ColleagRel	1.850	300	0.065

Source: *authors' own elaboration*



Graph 3 Changes in relationships

Source: *authors' own elaboration*

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis tests showed no differences in age, place of residence, or company characteristics.

Conclusion

Summarizing our results, the most important lesson is that we are all primarily human, so our spiritual reactions to the mistakes of others are largely independent of our environmental circumstances. Rational actors rethink compliance with workplace rules, expecting to consider not only the costs of non-compliance but also the rewards of compliance, thus threatening cultural differences in perceived levels of informal punishment for shame; informal rewards of pride and praise for compliance with the rule (Kobayashi, Kerbo, 2012). Our investigations also confirm that the participants in the research are aware of the situation of offenses and the aspects of punishment. Errors that can cause significant damage can be identified in each job (Seifried & Wuttke, 2010). The question that arose in our analyses was how employees judged their own and others' mistakes. These can be influenced by a few specification factors (e.g., gender, age).

Workplace errors are more common among men than women. This finding is primarily true for work ethic and personal relationship errors, while the frequency of scheduling errors is the same for both sexes. Examining the possible penalties, we found that respondents were much more critical of the mistakes they made than their workplace management and would penalise irregularities and disrespect primarily. Establishing an optimal error culture is important for error handling. The culture of error is an integral part of the organizational culture, in which the attitude of individuals towards error and the handling of errors are realized. In the formulation of Egri (2009), the term fault culture comes from the social and economic sciences. It means how organizations manage the risk of error, errors, and their consequences. Due to the constant changes in the course of work, it is inevitable that errors will occur. In this case, the manager has an important role to play in handling the errors that occur. And this is to show that he can make mistakes, and even he himself makes mistakes sometimes (Chapman-Myra-White, 2016). If there is a positive fault culture in the organization, the fact that faults come to light does not cause fear in the workers either. Her examinations show that workplaces tend to be flawed and men's sins tend to come to light. One reason for this may be that men are more likely to make mistakes. But presumably women are better able to hide their flaws than men. Errors that are the least likely to affect personal relationships come to light the least, as they are usually arranged between the parties. However, we found significant differences in the extent to which workplace errors are revealed across age groups. Our results show that quadragenarians are best able to cover up their mistakes. The need for honesty is still significant in the younger ones, and the older ones (especially those over the age of 60) are already less able to focus on the details that are important in preventing fallout. We also found that mistakes at work in any case worsened personal relationships, but only 37 percent of respondents had a significant rate of deterioration.

The relationships between managerial reward and punishment behaviour and employee attitudes, perceptions, and performance have been examined in several studies. Some researchers mention relationships between managerial reward and punishment behaviours, as well as some criteria variables, and provide an estimate of bivariate relationships between managerial behaviours and various employee criterion variables (Podsakoff et al, 2006). Reflecting on this, our studies seemed to justify that sometimes employees judge mistakes and punish themselves more strongly than managers.

In connection with the examination of our initial hypotheses, we can make the following findings. Regarding the first hypothesis, we can say that to affect the emotional-professional condition and activity of the employee, the error must come to light. However, this is an evidence-like relationship. If I do not know if my colleague made a mistake or blames me for something, it will not affect our relationship. And their own sins and mistakes, if they remain secret, increase the need to correct mistakes, primarily through their conscience, which can help

the development of the personality. This is also evidenced by our finding that employees are much more critical of the mistakes they make than company management.

In setting up the second hypothesis, we thought that the negative impact of moral errors was greater than that of professional errors. Our results show that professional errors occur / are discovered at a much higher rate than moral stumbling blocks. At the same time, neither the respondents nor the leaders of the companies are the most critical. All types of workplace errors worsen personal-collegial relationships, but the rate of deterioration was only significant in 37 percent of cases. Professional errors have the greatest impact on the development of relations (72%), moral offenses can be attributed “only” to 64% – but in our opinion this proportion is still high. The effect of the errors on relationships proved to be independent of gender, i.e., it affects men and women equally.

Our third hypothesis was partially confirmed. We found differences by gender and age, in the frequency with which errors are made and come to light, but the effect of the position did not prove to be significant. Overall, men are more likely to commit mistakes and irregularities than women, and both professional and moral misdemeanours are more common among men. However, the ability to cover up mistakes and sins is more related to age: those in their forties are the best at this. Younger people are even more honest, and older ones are less able to pay attention to detail, so they “fall down” more often. However, we also found a gender difference: women are better able to avoid unwanted exposure than men.

As a future direction of the research, the authors plan to interview the employer side. It is important how companies feel about the issue and how consistent these views are with the views of the employee side.

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