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Contents

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From the Editor

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Welcome to the 28th issue of the *International Leadership Journal,* an online, peer-reviewed journal. This issue contains five articles.

Nierenberg, Alexakis, Preziosi, and O'Neill start off this issue with an argument for utilizing consistent evidence-based models of work-related well-being and organizational culture. They performed an evaluation of the relationship between organizational characteristics and psychological well-being for 416 MBA candidates and found that psychological well-being was inversely correlated with organizational health, suggesting that increased workplace dysfunction is associated with decreased psychological well-being.

Noting the importance of written communication in organizations, Ziek and Mundy investigated whether or not differences exist between the prose of male and female leaders. They surveyed undergraduate and graduate students for their perspectives on written communication from CEOs and discovered that business leaders have adopted elements of "traditional" gendered attributes to create an institutionalized form of gender indistinct writing.

Yeşiltaş, Tuna, and Ghazzawi examined the effects of ethical climate on employees' identification with their organizations in the hotel industry in Turkey. They surveyed 1,003 employees of 48 five-star hotels in Turkey and concluded that while ethical leadership influences identification with one's organization, an ethical climate plays a mediation role in that relationship.

Andy-Wali and Wali explored the impact of the academic leadership activities of tutors' (also known as lecturers) on Nigerian and Chinese students' experiences of participation in a single university in the post-Brexit United Kingdom. Through analysis of data gathered from focus groups, they learned that tutors at the university were transformational in their approaches to teaching and learning. They also identified four themes that characterized participants' positive experiences of their tutors' academic leadership activities: teaching and learning quality, academic versatility, supportive academic leadership, and tutor accessibility

Finally, Santora and Bozer, noting that business succession planning requires careful planning, present a case study of a failed generational transition within a small family business in Eastern Europe. Lessons learned from this transition validate previous research findings that generational transitions within family businesses present similar problems around the world.

Please let us know your thoughts and feel free to submit articles for review. Enjoy!

Joseph C. Santora, EdD
Editor

ARTICLES

Workplace Happiness: An Empirical Study on Well-Being and Its Relationship with Organizational Culture, Leadership, and Job Satisfaction*

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Research has increasingly suggested that improved psychological well-being corresponds with employee physical health, job performance, and retention (Wright & Quick, 2009). However, literature identifying the relevant factors contributing to the significant correlation has produced contradictory results. This is predictable given the discordant definitions of work related to well-being along with inconsistent conceptualizations of organizational culture. Arguments are presented for utilizing consistent evidence-based models of work-related well-being and organizational culture. Employees and organizations can benefit from comprehending specific characteristics of the workplace affecting psychological well-being. This study evaluated the relationship between organizational characteristics and psychological well-being in a sample of 416 nontraditional MBA students using the Organizational Diagnosis Questionnaire (Preziosi, 1980) and Ryff Scales of Psychological Well-Being (Ryff, 1989). Results demonstrated that psychological well-being was inversely correlated with organizational health, suggesting that increased workplace dysfunction was associated with decreased psychological well-being. The results correspond to previous studies that established relationships between workplace environmental factors and employee psychological health. The findings provide new data pertaining to the specific workplace factors with decreases in psychological well-being.

Key words: leadership, performance, well-being, wellness, workplace

It is widely recognized that beyond the individual, social environments such as workplaces may promote or constrain one's practice of a healthy lifestyle, which can ultimately lead to health or illness (De Clercq et al., 2015). There is strong evidence demonstrating that work can potentially have beneficial effects on

*Nierenberg, B., Alexakis, G., Preziosi, R. C., & O'Neill, C. (2017). Workplace happiness: An empirical study on well-being and its relationship with organizational culture, leadership, and job satisfaction. *International Leadership Journal, 9*(3), 2–23.

physical and mental health and individuals' overall well-being (Alimo-Metcalfe, Alban-Metcalfe, Bradley, Mariathasan, & Samele, 2008; Waddell & Burton, 2006). In a reciprocal manner, increased levels of health and well-being can positively affect job performance (Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1988). Few studies have focused on how leadership qualities and strategies may act as essential processes of importance to positive effects of workplace health promotion (Dellve, Skagert, & Vilhelmsson, 2007). However, workplace supervisors, managers, and leaders in various capacities and the organizational culture that they generate have a major effect on individuals' well-being (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Maidaniuc-Chirila & Constantin, 2016; Thirlwall, 2015). The following study aimed to investigate some of the variables that are involved in mediating these relationships.

Literature Review

Because of the connection between work and health (Alimo-Metcalfe et al., 2008; Waddell & Burton, 2006), this study aimed to investigate some of the important variables that connect health and work. Theories of person–environment interaction have been prevalent in the management literature for almost 100 years (e.g., Lewin, 1935). The academic and professional literature has documented the interaction between employee well-being and the workplace during the last two decades. Among specific areas that may benefit from an increased psychological well-being and health of employees are employee physical health, job performance, and retention rates (Wright & Quick, 2009). The following review of related literature presents employees, leaders, and organizations in the context of work environment characteristics and wellness.

Wellness

The term *well-being* (used interchangeably with the words *wellness* and *happiness* in this article) is meant to denote a multidimensional concept. In consolidating research on the topic of happiness, Ryff (1989) found six dimensions that, when present together, constitute an elevated quality of life that comprises psychological well-being. They are:

- *self-acceptance*, which is "a characteristic of self-actualization, optimal functioning, and maturity" (Ryff, 1989, 1075) that requires that a person to have a generally positive view of themselves and their lives.
- *positive relations with others*, indicative of a sense of empathy for, close emotional intimacy with, and the guidance of others.
- *autonomy*, or the ability to be a fully functioning person. This dimension necessitates that a person possess characteristics such as "self-determination, independence, and the regulation of behavior from within" (Ryff, 1989, 1071).
- *environmental mastery*, defined as an individual's ability to choose or create environments suitable to his or her psychic conditions. Put another way, a person is most happy when they are self-aware enough to put themselves in positions where they are most likely to be successful.
- *purpose in life*, or the idea that a person is most fulfilled when they feel a sense of connection to others, with some understanding that they are working toward goals that have an intrinsic value. A person who has achieved this has goals, intentions, and a sense of direction, all of which contribute to the feeling that life is meaningful.
- *personal growth* is the act of developing one's potential. This often requires a person to be open to experience, as new experiences are the only things that can show a person that he or she has evolved, expanded some skill set, or deepened his or her understanding of the world.

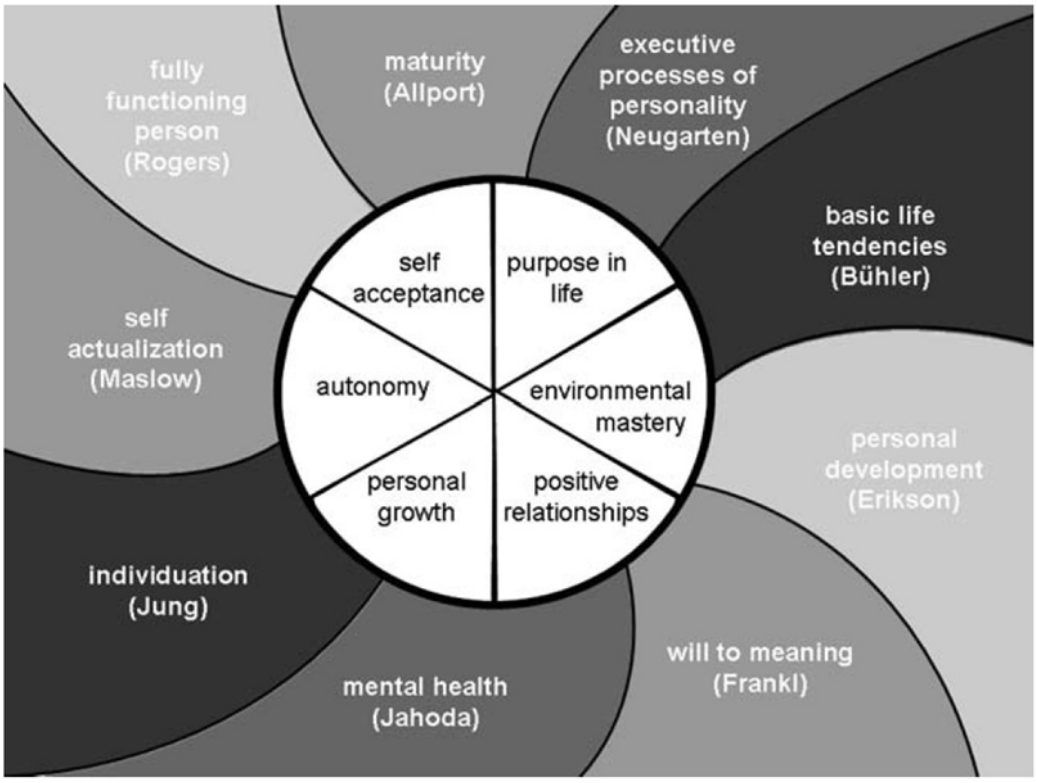

Figure 1. Ryff's Wheel of Psychological Well-Being. Adapted from "The Structure of Psychological Well-Being Revisited" by C. D. Ryff and C. L. Keyes, 1995. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*(4), p. 720. Copyright 1995 by the American Psychological Association.

However, applying these concepts to the workplace can be difficult. Any given place of business contains many existing dynamics and systems that can affect one or more of these dimensions differently. Different occupations may encourage the development of some of these dimensions more than others. One major contribution that positive psychology has made to this area of study has been its provision of evidence that resilience to stress is an important factor that helps people develop psychological well-being.

To put the following discussion into context, it is important to explain the parameters of positive psychology and what comprises the territory of "positive" behavior, especially positive behavior in an organizational setting. Wright and Quick (2009) state that it is important to study people's well-being and happiness not only as it pertains to work performance, but for the intrinsic value in each person's life. This has been called the "health model" (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Furthermore, positive psychology aims to reach further

than pathology-focused psychology. It is not enough to simply relieve suffering—it should be the business of anyone interested in bettering people's lives to learn what helps people develop, flourish, and succeed. All organizational research, then, must serve dual purposes: to improve the functioning of businesses, and to improve the functioning of individuals and help them build lives worth living. In other words, employers must care about their employees as people first, employees second.

Fulfilling these dual purposes has implications for organizational psychologists: they must search for improvements both on an individual level (training new skills or rewarding certain behaviors), and make changes on a systemic level (helping institute new policies or practices in the workplace). Many organizational psychologists already see themselves as advocates for employee rights. How better to advocate than when one can introduce a scenario in which everyone wins? Employees have happier, more balanced lives, and organizations experience higher productivity and retention rates (to name just a few examples).

As stated previously, positive psychology aims to move beyond reducing suffering into helping people enrich their lives. Work can be one arena in which people experience enrichment. It is not always easy to see the importance of this, however, unless it is put into context with unhappiness in the workplace. For instance, Addae and Wang (2006) sought to examine the relationship between stress and factors that led to good work performance of employees. The authors of the study point out that a number of studies have shown that time pressures at work have a bearing on employees' psychosomatic complaints. Addae and Wang's study revealed a linear relationship between job involvement and time pressure: meaning that as employees feel more time pressure, they become more involved with their jobs. However, this does not mean they perform well. The study also revealed that anxiety promotes more job involvement to a certain extent. It points out, though, that if anxiety increases to levels that are intolerable, job involvement decreases. The same quadratic curve applied when comparing time pressure and job satisfaction (Addae & Wang, 2006). The implications of

this are that while some stress can motivate people to work harder, and ultimately experience more job satisfaction, high stress levels can be detrimental.

Studies of workplace well-being have already yielded some important findings. Some terms indicating happiness or well-being at work have been identified as targets for research. For instance, Magee (2015) clarifies two emotional states that contribute to well-being of employees at work: job pride and job satisfaction, explaining that "job pride can be elicited by successful praiseworthy action, such as working to overcome obstacles to reach a desired work-related outcome. In contrast, job satisfaction may be elicited by receipt of job-related resources even in the absence of effort" (1091). Job pride may be conceptualized in Ryff's Wheel of Psychological Well-Being as autonomy, personal growth, and environmental mastery (Ryff, 1989). Job satisfaction, then, may fall on the wheel under positive relationships, and possibly also encapsulate purpose in life (Ryff, 1989). These two states necessitate that positive psychologists' interventions address job pride on an individual level, perhaps to strengthen an employee's intrinsic motivation to succeed at work. They must also help increase satisfaction by helping each business make their employees feel valued and appreciated.

Formal recognition of a job well done has been a fixture in some organizations, and researchers have endeavored to determine whether that recognition would, indeed, help their employees feel valued. Li, Zheng, Harris, Liu, and Kirkman (2016) reveal that recognition is important not just to an individual, but to that person's colleagues as well. Li and his colleagues (2016) found that formal recognition of one person's job performance will also increase the job performance of his or her teammates. This increase in performance was even larger when the person being recognized had a more central role in their team (in other words, when they had more interactions with many of their team members). This recognition may have had an effect not only on the team members' job pride, but also on their satisfaction.

The research has borne out that intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction should, all other things being equal, lead to increased job performance. Hartnell, Kinicki, Lambert, Fugate, and Doyle Corner (2016) measured two factors also thought to

lead to changes in job performance: CEO leadership and organizational culture. The goal of their study was to examine fit between a CEO's leadership style and the overarching culture of the organization and its effect on job performance. They explain that "leadership and culture are salient contextual cues, or sources of information about attitudes and behaviors that are valued, rewarded, and supported in the organization" (Hartnell et al., 2016, 846). In terms of leadership styles, Hartnell et al. measured *relational leadership,* defined as "the degree to which a leader displayed behaviors such as trust, respect, and liking" (852). The particular ways in which "culture" was measured was broken down into two dimensions: task culture and relationship culture. Task culture was measured along two dimensions: outcome orientation and aggressiveness in completing tasks (Hartnell et al., 2016). Relationship culture was measured using respect for people and team orientation (Hartnell et al., 2016). They discovered that "CEO leadership is effective when it provides psychological and motivational resources lacking in the organization's culture" (Hartnell et al., 2016, 857). If the culture already provides those supportive resources, it is less necessary for the CEO to provide those things to their employees (Hartnell et al., 2016). The overarching message of studies such as these is that it is crucial to develop a culture in a business that supports, recognizes, and values their employees.

Schein (1985) defines *organizational culture* as

> a pattern of basic assumptions—invented, discovered, or developed by a group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration—that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those processes. (as cited in Alimo-Metcalfe et al., 588)

Denison (1996) suggests that *culture* "refers to the deep structures of organizations," whereas "climate" is concerned mainly with "those aspects of the social environment that are consciously perceived by organizational members" (624).

Supporting employee wellness means meeting core needs that can have a significant impact on employee life and well-being and reciprocates organizational benefits (Stairs & Galpin, 2009). Happy employees bring their happiness from the office to their home; likewise, they also transfer their

happiness from their home to the office, suggesting a possible close interrelation between an individual's work and life (Wesarat, Sharif, & Majid, 2014). Robinson, Perryman, and Hayday (2004) identified how much an organization is concerned with their employees' well-being and health as one of the significant drivers of employee engagement (as cited in Harrell-Cook & Levitt, 2017). A groundbreaking study by Diener (2000) indicates that "to create a better society where happiness is ubiquitous, a major scientific effort to understand quality of life is needed." (41). The study found that quality of work life is likely to be at least as important to subjective well-being as is income (Diener, 2000). That economic productivity has been increasingly wrung out of average workers at the cost of their health and happiness represents a trend toward pathological and dysfunctional effects (Gavin & Mason, 2004). To the extent that higher incomes allow people to engage in more rewarding activities, they will improve subjective well-being; however, higher productivity could decrease levels of subjective well-being if it requires long hours of boring work, high levels of stress, and little leisure time (Diener, 2000). These views applied in defining well-being at work move the focus from traditional stress theory and ill-being-based conceptualization to theories on well-being (Laine & Rinne, 2015). In this connection, the construct of psychological well-being (i.e., a generalized feeling of happiness) also arises (Laine & Rinne, 2015). These dimensions encompass a breadth of wellness that includes:

- positive evaluations of oneself and one's past life (self-acceptance),
- a sense of continued growth and development as a person (personal growth),
- the belief that one's life is purposeful and meaningful (purpose in life),
- the possession of quality relations with others (positive relations with others),
- the capacity to manage effectively one's life and surrounding world (environmental mastery), and
- a sense of self-determination (autonomy; Laine & Rinne, 2015).

These dimensions can also be viewed easily from the work perspective (Laine & Rinne, 2015). *Workplace happiness* refers to how satisfied people are with their work and lives and is related to an individual's subjective well-being (Wesarat et

al., 2014). Huffman, Sanders, and Culbertson (2011) suggest that to truly meet the goal of making a significant impact, industrial/organizational psychology researchers and practitioners must first address the disconnect between work–family research and practice as an important, relevant, and necessary component of organizational success. Happiness experts generally agree that what really matters in one's professional and personal life are memorable experiences, connections, and relationships with others; space and stuff (i.e., physical resources) should support those things (Alter, 2013; Durisin, 2013; Goleman, 2003). They also caution that a wandering mind is an unhappy mind (Killingsworth & Gilbert, 2010). The workplace not only affords employees the potential prospect for purposeful and meaningful work, but also the opportunity to mentally stay in the present and derive deep intrinsic satisfaction from the very work itself. Wright, Cropanzano, and Bonett, (2007) found that positive well-being moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, as work is central to individual identity, social roles, and social status. Job performance is highest when people not only report being satisfied with their jobs, but when they also report feeling a sense of overall well-being in their lives. Additionally, Waddell and Burton (2006) report that employment is one of the main mediators of physical and mental health and mortality. They also state that this relationship is reciprocal in that a number of important physical and psychosocial aspects of work can potentially be hazardous and pose a risk to health. Leaders must constantly be aware of this.

In a landmark study, Sparks, Faragher, and Cooper (2001) researched and made recommendations for employee well-being on four issues: job insecurity, working hours, work control, and managerial style. They concluded that when investigating potential stressors in the workplace, both researchers and practitioners must consider employee perceptions to distinguish perceived positive and negative stressors in the workplace for both practical interventions and research investigations. McGrath (2012) explains that peer and organizational social support, combined with seeking strength in intrinsically rewarding organizational spaces, may help employees develop resilience to

threats to their well-being. The results of a series of structural equation modeling analyses by Salanova, Bakker, and Llorens (2006) offer clear support for the notion that personal resources (i.e., self-efficacy beliefs) and organizational resources (including social support climate and clear goals) facilitate work-related flow (work absorption, work enjoyment, and intrinsic work motivation). They also found that work-related flow has a positive influence on personal and organizational resources. Schneider (2001) asserted that "of all the issues in psychology that have fascinated scholars and practitioners alike, none has been more pervasive than the one concerning the fit of person and environment" (141). Criteria such as employee turnover have become increasingly important and are influenced by fit, so selection techniques that assess multiple types of fit need to be developed and validated against the criterion they are most likely to affect (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2015). The alignment, direction, and trajectory proximity levels between organizational and employee values undoubtedly determine the level of fit. It has been long understood that the consequences of withdrawing from work, performing poorly, or leaving the organization can be severe, making it likely that attitudes will be influenced by fit well before behaviors are changed (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2015). Despite these barriers, these results provide evidence that various types of fit do influence behavioral outcomes, including performance and turnover.

Leadership

Because the level to which the employee ethos and organizational culture align and integrate drive individual workplace happiness, leaders feature prominently in the wellness discussion. Research shows that leaders' values have direct effects on followers' outcomes (Fu, Tsui, Liu, & Li, 2010). In their significant study, Kelloway and Barling (2010) discovered that a growing body of literature suggests that organizational leadership is linked to a wide variety of employee outcomes, both positive and negative, relevant to occupational health and safety. The results of the seminal study by Bono, Foldes, Vinson, and Muros (2007) demonstrate the powerful role that managers and supervisors have on employee emotions, as they have an ongoing influence on employee optimism and

enthusiasm. There is a large body of research in the management literature on "employee happiness" and leaders' role in shaping it. Yet less is known about the relationship between positive leader moods and team performance. For instance, Santora and Esposito (2011) report that positive moods of leaders had a strong correlation to both improved team performance and the performance of the leaders themselves. Having an interesting job and having good relations with management are the two most important work-role outputs (De Clercq et al., 2015). Because healthy lifestyle change attempts do not result in long-term personal change, leaders can create the opportunity for employees to include lifestyle modifications within their employee development plan (McPeck, 2014). Leaders should ensure that such plans are a high priority for all managers.

A combination of leadership styles and characteristics was found to contribute to the development and sustainability of a healthy work environment in Pearson et al.'s (2007) study. At its core, the employee productivity and well-being link has to do with healthy work environments, wherein employees feel engaged in their jobs and also in their home lives so that "they feel an energetic connection to their work and family activities and experience what engagement scholars refer to as 'absorption, dedication and vigor' in how they address work and nonwork roles" (Kossek, Kalliath, & Kalliath, 2012, 738). Organizations and leaders that treat employees well outperform others because of the derived tangible benefits: lower staff turnover, reduced training expenses, and a higher quality of customer service (Kent, 2005). Friedman, Fischer, and Schochet (2017) identify six characteristics of a *humble* leader: listens, delegates, accepts responsibility, is compassionate and altruistic, desires to contribute, and does not retaliate. Along these humane lines, servant leadership can also be used as a framework for organizational change, as "servant leaders are committed to developing emotionally healthy followers and providing an environment in which followers can safely mature emotionally" (Baldomir & Hood, 2016, 37). The positive attributes of authentic leaders' actions can be used to influence organizational outcomes by example (Shirey, 2006). Shirey's (2006) theory supports the notion that good leadership adds to a healthy environment in which

direct reports are encouraged to feel emotionally safe. Self-enhancement values—focusing on the leader's own happiness—would attenuate the effect, whereas self-transcendent values—focusing on others' happiness—would accentuate the effect of leader's transformational behaviors on followers' commitment (Fu et al., 2010). This is consistent with *transcendental leadership,* which advocates that leaders first commence with a focus on self-improvement as the most efficient and effective manner to positively modify team dynamics and to effect change and encourage peak performance in their followers (Alexakis & Preziosi, 2014). Finally, to thoroughly investigate the impact of leadership on the creation of a healthy work environment, it is not only necessary to review attributes of leadership that have a positive impact on the work environment, but it is also necessary to investigate the impact the work environment has on developing and sustaining leadership (Pearson et al., 2007). Leadership training and development can have immense effects. For example, interpersonal conflict in the workplace is one of the largest sources of occupational job stress, connected to reduced employee physical well-being and psychological health, and linked to work disability (Kerns, 2016). Managing conflicts benefits managerial leaders and their organizations, and managerial leader effectiveness is increasingly linked to this practice area (Kerns, 2016). Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, and Guzman (2010) found some support for leader stress and affective well-being being associated with employee stress and affective well-being. Leader behaviors, the relationship between leaders and their employees, and specific leadership styles were all associated with employee stress and affective well-being (Skakon et al., 2010).

Method

Participants in the study were a group of 416 currently enrolled Master of Business Administration (MBA) students at a private (i.e., independent), not-for-profit university in Florida. The measures administered were the Organizational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ; Preziosi, 1980) and the Ryff Scales of Psychological Well-Being (RYFF; Ryff, 1989). The anonymous and self-reported

measures were given to students as part of course credit. The students answered the questions using paper and pencil. The variables in the study (from Ryff's conceptualization of well-being) included environmental mastery, positive relationships with others, purpose in life, autonomy, personal growth, and self-acceptance. The variables were compared to scores on the ODQ using correlational analysis. Finally, total scores on the RYFF were compared to total scores on the ODQ. The total score on the ODQ was a composite of scores on the following variables: leadership, purposes, structure, rewards, helpful, and mechanisms and relationships (Preziosi, 1980).

Results

The results of the study indicate significant findings in several areas. First, scores on the ODQ and scores on the RYFF were inversely correlated with one another, at r (367) = -.15, $p < .01$. This shows that as discord in the workplace increased, scores on the well-being measure decreased. Scores on the ODQ were also found to correlate negatively with the environmental mastery factor of the RYFF, at r (354) = -.22, $p < .001$. Continuing with this pattern, ODQ scores correlated negatively with the factor positive relations with others, with r (354) = -.16, $p < .01$. Purpose in life and self-acceptance correlated negatively with ODQ scores as well, with findings of τb = -.08, $p < .05$ and τb = -.14, $p < .001$, respectively.

Summary of Results

- ODQ total scores and wellbeing total scores were inversely correlated with one another: r (367) = -.15, $p < .01$. Overall, as discord in the work environment increased, well-being scores decreased.
- ODQ questionnaire scores were correlated with the following subscales on the well-being questionnaire:
  - environmental mastery; r (354) = -.22, $p < .001$;
  - positive relationships with others; r (354) = -.16, $p < .01$;
  - purpose in life; τb = -.08, $p < .05$; and
  - self-acceptance; τb = -.14, $p < .001$.

Discussion and Conclusion

The research demonstrates that if leaders and organizations can better support employees in meeting the core needs identified in this study, the more likely it is that employees will experience increased loyalty, satisfaction, positive energy, and decreased perceived stress levels. Organizational leaders have the influence to affect such outcomes. The most significant correlations found here were between work environment and (a) environmental mastery, (b) positive relationships with others, (c) purpose in life, and (d) self-acceptance. These findings support previous research conducted with regard to employee workplace well-being. More research should be done to improve understanding of some of these interactions, but the overall message is clear—fostering an environment that supports employees and their emotional health achieves the two goals set forth by all positive and industrial–organizational psychologists: help people for the benefit of the business and the benefit of the people themselves.

Research has demonstrated that the more effectively leaders and organizations support employees in meeting core needs, the more likely employees are to experience loyalty, job satisfaction, positive energy at work, health benefits, and lower perceived levels of stress. Both employees and corporations stand to gain from understanding how specific characteristics of the work environment may impact psychological well-being. The present study sought to evaluate this relationship and revealed that as discord in the work environment increased, individual well-being scores decreased. Explicitly, there were significant correlations amid work environment and

- environmental mastery (the extent to which individuals feel in control of and able to act in their environment),
- positive relationships with others (the extent to which individuals have satisfying, trusting relationships with other people),
- purpose in life (the extent to which individuals hold beliefs that give life meaning), and
- self-acceptance (the extent to which individuals have a positive attitude about themselves).

Future Research

While our findings gave credit to previous findings, much still needs to be done to understand the complex nature of well-being and how to promote it. Further development of this research could provide assistance in identifying important organizational aspects that enhance employee psychological well-being. The proposed model may help organizational leaders adopt a broad view of employee well-being and consider a comprehensive range of organizational characteristics that will potentially facilitate employee outcomes of performance and well-being.

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Disseminating Corporate Identity Through Leadership: Unraveling the Gendered Discourse of Capitalism*

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Leaders spend countless hours creating written instruments, such as letters, e-mails, and reports. However, as important as writing is to leadership communication, there is a paucity of research in the area, particularly in relation to gender differences. The purpose of this study is to investigate if differences exist between the prose of male and female leaders. Data were collected via a survey in which respondents were asked to assign gender to the introductory sections of the CEO's annual letter to shareholders, noting the rationale for such selections. The results show that the writing style of both female and male CEOs is gender ambiguous. Business leaders have adopted elements of "traditional" gendered attributes to create an institutionalized form of gender indistinct writing. Yet, given that gender is both performative and culturally constructed, this study calls for future research on how readers affirm the gender of leaders, not only through what is presented, but by placing written discourse into a larger matrix of thought and experience.

Key words: gender differences, gender reading, institutionalized practices, leadership communication, written discourse

Guiding an organization through today's ever-changing environment requires a vast set of leadership behaviors. One behavior that receives a great deal of attention is leadership communication. The literature focused on leadership communication often does so from a normative perspective. In other words, leadership communication is conceptualized as an observable and measurable behavior so that studies can identify the aspects that impact organizational life. The literature does well to describe the way that leaders create certain communicative instruments, such as speeches and meetings, to influence things like organizational trust, teamwork, conflict, and performance. Within this research trajectory, there has been a focus on identifying the role gender plays in the creation of communicative instruments. However, most of the extant research focuses on instruments that rely on oratory content.

Leaders spend countless hours crafting written instruments such as e-mails, memos, letters, reports, blogs, and even tweets. Leadership communication is an

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inclusive behavior in that all facets work together to shape the content, direction, and outcomes of organizational activities. To that end, there is very little understanding about the process of leadership writing, and even less is known about the role gender plays in the creation and acceptance of this discourse. Given that organizations are still ideologically dominated, it is crucial to understand how, and if, gender shapes the way leaders create and followers receive written prose. For this reason, the purpose of the current study is to investigate written leadership communication and the impact of gender using a survey of undergraduate and graduate students' perspectives on written communication from CEOs.

Leadership Gender and Communication

According to Barge (2004), there is no longer a unitary set of values and assumptions that dominates organizational life. What was once the domain of the male ideology, many organizations today are based on an attempt to find gender equity. Evidence of the change from the classical organization, controlled by a singular type of male, can be seen with the increase in female leaders. This is not to say that the organizational world is unbiased. Indeed, the entry of females in leadership positions has been far more rapid in some organizational contexts as opposed to others. In recent years, the corporate world has seen an uptick in female participation in top-level management and executive leadership positions (Stryker & Stryker, 2015). The presence of female corporate leaders has consequently produced an interesting, yet sensitive, area of research. Since the feminism of leadership began to take hold in the 1970s (Roth, 2006), many studies have attempted to determine the differences between male and female leaders with an eye toward how these difference impact followers.

Communication is an area of great interest relative to leadership and gender. Leadership communication is the conscious use of symbols that enables leaders and followers to reach goals (Hackman & Johnson, 2013). There are two features of leadership communication that separate it from most other forms of communication. First, leaders communicate in a variety of dimensions, including

interpersonal, group, organizational, and interorganizational (Daft, 2014). Second, leadership communication creates the culture of an organization, which in turn affects productivity, assimilation, turnover, social responsibility, and investor interest, among others (Pacleb & Bocarnea, 2015). With so much importance given to leadership communication, it should be no surprise that researchers have studied the impact that variables such as gender have on style and reception.

Gender-based leadership communication studies have been around for decades. What is consistent among the research is the mix of findings that are used to detail how male and female leaders communicate. It was clear from the first few studies that the waters would be muddied relative to the role of gender as a communicative variable. Megargee (1969) and Schein (1973) indicated early in this research trajectory that men and women were perceived by followers to have different characteristics and consequently leadership styles. Kanter (1977) soon followed up and explained that individual differences, such as interpersonal style, are more important than gender differences. The high inconsistency of findings did not diminish as the trajectory matured, and instead, only seemed to widen.

Geis, Boston, and Hoffman (1985) found that men and women received equal leadership recognition, but that men were perceived to outperform women in social environments. Along these lines, Eagly and Johnson's (1990) findings were consistent with stereotypical expectations that women tended to adopt a more democratized and participative style of communication, as opposed to the directive style of men. Park (1996) uncovered strong support for the way that men created relationships through direct and task-oriented communication, whereas women used more conceptual and relation-oriented styles of communication. Chesler (2001) discovered that men were more self-assertive, aggressive, and coarse with their language than women. However, Hawkins (1995) found that there were no significant differences between the way each gender produced task-relevant communication. Manning (2002) uncovered that

both genders saw themselves as transformational and thus attempted to communicate in this manner.

Although the research remains split in terms of the findings, there is an evolving nature to the work. Recent findings seem to reflect an understanding about the complexities of gender and leadership and the intersectionality of gender and leadership. As Cheung and Halpern (2010) explain, communication and relational orientation are a complex interplay between personal attributes, processes, and environment. So when differences are found (Memon, 2014) or not (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014), the implications are clear—findings point to the notion that gender and communication cannot be relegated to binary understandings or stereotypical views of leadership (Crites, Dickson, & Lorenz, 2015). While this all points to Denmark's (1977) contention that the assumptions of differences are not supported by the data, there are still factors to be studied. Taken as a whole, there is a relative nature to the evidence based on sample, organizational level, and industry. In addition, these studies have typically examined oratory skills and content (e.g., Aldoory & Toth, 2004; Powell, 2012; Ziek, 2015) and not how leaders communicate through written discourse.

Leadership Gender and Written Communication

Leadership communication is much more than speaking. In fact, Ruben (2009) contends that most leadership communication occurs through nonverbal means such as writing. Leaders spend countless hours creating and re-creating written instruments that have a distinctive unitary bearing on some circumstance within and around the organization (Caron, Hwang, Brummans, & Caronia, 2013). Leaders often generate organizational reality through the process and structure of their writing (Smeltzer, 1981). According to Thomas and Reinertsen (2016), writing and leadership are a collaborative practice of performance that sculpts and constructs the deeper meanings of organizational life.

At the same time, what makes leadership writing so complex is that written instruments are built on a framework of identifiable organizational rules, roles, and procedures (Aakhus & Ziek, 2009). Written discourse that emerges from leadership positions is an explicit, extensive expression of the organizational

context. This is because written communication is a tactical behavior that is devised to coordinate stakeholders in various environments (Smeltzer & Thomas, 1994). In other words, there are substantive formal and informal standards that both constrain and afford written leadership communication, such as the expectations relative to format, language, and turn-taking. Yet, as important as writing is to leadership communication, there is a paucity of research in this area. Therefore, the goal of the current study is to, as Thomas and Reinertsen (2016) state, rethink the process of leadership writing. More specifically, the study seeks to investigate if there are differences in the way that male and female leaders create prose. Given this goal, the current study asks the question:

Research Question: What is the impact of gender on written leadership discourse?

Building a connection between language and gender is a rather complex undertaking, as language is not inherently masculine or feminine; rather, it is totalizing to one's reality, developed as a part of and in response to social interaction. As Brody (1993) notes, the act of selecting and organizing written discourse is not gender specific; however, the contexts in which one is part of self-assigns gender. Written language, therefore, functions as part of a larger social matrix, an amalgam of signifiers that construct and/or assign identity. Considering the extant research on leadership communication and gender, how gender is represented in writing is an open area that needs to be addressed. By examining how male and female leaders write, past research can also be applied more effectively.

Even though many individual organizations have made conscious efforts to be more inclusive, many organizations are still ideologically dominated, by valuing masculine traits. Indeed, according to Seo and Huang (2017), structural oppression and vertical gender segregation in top management positions remain common practices, which led them to believe that research needs to inform best practices for sustaining diverse talent pools. It is here that the benefits of the current study become significant—by investigating the consequences of the reflexive choices followers make relative to the written words of leaders, we can

develop a better understanding of how ideologies are socially constructed and maintained as well as eventually overcome.

Method and Data Collection

Leadership is an open construct, in that it can encompass an assortment of positions within an organization. This is particularly true when investigating top-level leadership, so the current study focuses on the chief executive officer (CEO). Using the position of CEO allows the researchers to study keystone communication as this is the individual who typically sets the standards of language and behavior within the organization. In addition, the position of CEO is a rank that women have difficulty reaching. According to Ng and Sears (2017), even with myriad recruitment and human resource practices, the glass ceiling is still keeping women from reaching the corner office. Although there are many reasons behind this demarcation, Oakley (2000) believes that perceived gender differences in linguistic styles and socialization is one of the most important.

Following the mobilizing genre of leadership communication research, which is an interpretative form that looks at how leaders enact organizational strategy (Jian & Fairhurst, 2017), this study uses the CEO shareholder letter as the unit of analysis. The letter to shareholders is a critical corporate communication tool because it serves a multitude of strategic purposes such as conveying image, defining behaviors and facilitating well-being (Dikolli, Keusch, Mayew, & Steffen, 2016; Nickerson & de Groot, 2005; Segars & Kohut, 2001; Ziek, 2011). Given the importance of the letter, CEOs take a strong role in its content and often script the letter in their personal voice (Broberg, 2014). Indeed, as Craig and Amernic (2011) explain, the CEO shareholder letter is a privileged and underappreciated tool that enables researchers to access, at a distance, how leadership is enacted through communication (see also Amernic, Craig, & Tourish, 2010).

Measuring how written messages are received requires capturing the communicative loop. To do this, a survey consisting of both closed and open-ended questions was sent to all the individuals on an undergraduate and graduate listserv at a mid-sized, private, comprehensive university in the

northeastern United States. The survey was funneled, so closed-ended questions first asked for demographic information on gender, age, ethnicity, highest education achieved, and geographical location within the United States.

The survey also contained a section in which each respondent was randomly assigned two 100-word paragraphs (one female, one male) generated from the introductory section of a CEO letter to shareholders. The pool of writing samples consisted of 20 letters (10 female, 10 male), all of which were collected from CEOs on the list of the 2015 *Fortune 500*. Paragraphs were stripped of identifying information without changing the nature of the content. After reading each paragraph, respondents were asked to rank the style of the writing on a Likert scale. The scale ranged from 1 (the writing read as very masculine) to 5 (the writing read as very feminine) with 3 representing a neutral score in which the writing did not carry any gender markers. In addition, the respondents were asked, in an open-ended question, to explain what guided their decision to score the paragraph the way they did. The use of the open-ended question was strategic. Open-ended questions allow the researchers to explore ideas in an organizational setting more so than closed-ended questions (Jackson & Trochim, 2002), such as emotion, perception and attitude (Mossholder, Settoon, Harris, & Armenakis, 1995). Open-ended questions also enable theory or model building (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The data from the open-ended questions were analyzed using grounded theory, a method for constructing theoretical analysis from data (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2012) instead of using data to test a theory or hypothesis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Therefore, there were no preconceived notions or coding schemes used; instead, the categories and names for categories took shape after the researchers reviewed the data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

Leadership Writing Questions with Sample Paragraphs

Sample 1: Please read the following paragraph and answer the questions below.

The year 2013 was a significant one for Company A, with improved financial performance and the execution of several important strategic initiatives. We acquired and expanded relationships, invested in our businesses, improved

efficiency, and returned peer-leading capital to our shareholders. Full-year net income from continuing operations grew to $847 million, or $0.93 per share, compared with $813 million or $0.86 per share in 2012. The market recognized our progress with a 59% increase in our stock price for the year, outpacing both the S&P Bank Index (up 32%) and the S&P 500 (up 30%).

- How masculine or feminine did you find the writing?
- What guided your decision to score the paragraph the way you did?

Sample 2: Please read the following paragraph and answer the questions below.

At Company K, we are focused on building consumer-preferred brands and products that create value for consumers and shareowners. Everything begins with consumer understanding and winning at the zero moment of truth when consumers search for our brands, at the first moment of truth when they choose our brands, and at the second moment of truth when they use our products. Winning these moments of truth leads to consumer purchase, preference, regular usage, and long-term loyalty. This is how we create value for consumers, build leadership brands and businesses, and create value for Company K shareowners.

- How masculine or feminine did you find the writing?
- What guided your decision to score the paragraph the way you did?

Results

Of the 96 respondents to the survey, 68% were women and 35% were men. Even though the sample was drawn from a very specific population, participants represented a variety of ages and educational backgrounds. Table 1 on the next page lists the respondents' ages. The most highly represented age range, at 32%, was 18 to 24 years old.

Table 1: Respondents' Ages

Age	Percent
18 to 24	32%
25 to 32	19%
33 to 40	13%
41 to 48	16%
49 to 56	1%
57 to 65	13%
66 and above	6%

Table 2 provides the educational levels of the respondents.

Table 2: Respondents' Educational Levels

Highest Educational Level	Percentage
High School Degree	5
Some College	12
Technical Degree	1
Associate Degree	6
Bachelor's Degree	42
Master's Degree	22
Professional Degree	3
Doctorate Degree	9
Total	100

After reading the assigned paragraphs, 21% of the respondents correctly identified gender. In other words, if a respondent read the female written shareholder letter, he or she answered either very feminine or feminine. Of the respondents, 42% picked neutral, meaning that they could not identify the author's gender. Finally, 37% of the respondents picked the incorrect gender for the corresponding author. For example, a respondent read a passage from a female CEO and identified it as either very masculine or masculine. When combining the neutral and opposite scores, 79% of the choices were imprecise relative to gender. Given this percentage, it is safe to say that an overwhelming number of respondents saw CEO writing as gender ambiguous. However, to further investigate the idea that a gender-indistinct writing style does exists requires delving into the reasons why respondents were unable or unwilling to choose the correct gender.

Three themes emerged after analyzing the data from the open-ended question as to why respondents scored the paragraph the way they did. The first theme has to do with comments made relative to the way some of the female passages were scored as very masculine or masculine. The perception of masculinity was very clear as the respondents decoded the passage according to the use of first-person pronouns and a demonstrative presentation of thoughts and goals. Evidence for this theme is seen in how 93% of the comments spoke of a straightforward, authoritative, businesslike language that encompassed numbers and action words. Identifiers included:

- "starts with 'I TOLD YOU' . . . ends with 'I BELIEVE'"
- "numbers seem most important"
- "direct and to the point"
- "very goal-oriented, and the use of powerful words such as 'adversity'"
- "use of verbs and action-based descriptions"

The second theme concerns the respondents who identified the writing as very feminine or feminine for male authors. Female writing was determined by way of first-person plural language and a general sense of being less authoritative than their male counterparts. Here, 94% of the comments made about the perceived female writer were done so because the passage seemed more about building relationships and collaboration than the recitation of facts and numbers. Statements in this section included:

- "we have attempted and we hope to complete"
- "rather than focusing on statistics, the paragraph's usage of explanations seemed friendlier"
- "the voice of the content is a lot softer"
- "more of a 'we' and 'team' feeling. It shows more concern for all"
- "the use of words like 'a little bit better' and 'heart'"

The third and final theme relates to the passages scored as neutral. Of the comments made when scoring the passage as neutral, 60% described the writing as being devoid of gender. The respondents either stated that they did not

believe the writing is gendered or that they could not determine the gender from the passage. This is an interesting theme because written language is part of a larger social matrix. In other words, the way in which leaders create written prose and how this prose is received involves an amalgam of signifiers that signal identity, or identities. So in this sense, for some individuals the signifiers were clear—either masculine or feminine—but others who read the same passages determined the markers to be absent. Statements here included:

- "I saw nor felt either gender"
- "there was no indication of the paragraph leaning toward a certain gender"
- "words do not have gender"
- "I did not feel that the language used displayed one gender"
- "I read the paragraph and focused on word choice and tone; neither seemed more feminine or masculine"

The data point to a gender-indistinct form of leadership writing. This form of communication includes elements of traditional perceptions of both female and male writing. The emergence of this style makes sense, as Richardson and St. Pierre (2005) explain that styles of writing are not fixed, but reflect the historically shifting domination of particular paradigms. The notion that senior executives have developed a shared language is nothing radically new (Stryker & Stryker, 2015). According to Shin and You (2017), leadership writing conforms to the prevailing norms that flow and shift with the environment. The leaders, which hold the position of CEO in this particular study, are conveying an institutionalized sense of gender representation, one that normalizes behaviors so they are read as indistinct.

Institutions are instrumentally rational structures subject to routines, rituals, and the symbolic context in which organizations act (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991). Since organizations are part of an ever-evolving field, institutions emerge as structured responses so that organizations can survive. There are, of course, obvious reasons for the emergence of an institutionalized form of leadership writing. It is a normative pillar that allows leaders to govern and manage the market and their position in the market. Beyond this, an institutionalized form of leadership writing

allows leaders to create meaning through uniform symbols. Meaning here is not simply about the significance of words, but the nature and properties of social actors and their actions (Jepperson & Swidler, 1994). Leadership writing is a way to break down the traditional concepts of hierarchy (Thomas & Reinertsen, 2016). What is interesting about this idealized form of writing is that it is adopted during an individual's career path.

Upon entering the workforce, female and male writing styles are unique. The difference in gender is most notable during the college years, during which 18- to 24-year-olds typically adopt a generalized understanding of gendered roles. For example, male writers adopt a more bold, straightforward style (Francis, Robson, & Read, 2001), while females use more exclamation points to convey the emotion behind words (Rubin & Greene, 1992). Indeed, Koppel, Argamon, and Shimoni (2002) even developed an automated text categorization technique that can exploit combinations of simple lexical and syntactic features between genders to within 80% accuracy. However, as females and males progress throughout their careers, they adopt an institutionalized form of gender-ambiguous writing.

"Reading" Leadership Writing

The work of our study, an attempt at determining how gender is perceived (read) through the written discourse of business, is laden with great complication, but none greater than the opportunity presented to better understand the topic. As Denny (2010) wrote, "wrongly reading one person's sex or presupposing values around gender and sexual expression present minefields as well as opportunities for learning" (87–88). In asking participants to internalize such writing, we look to accomplish the latter—to better understand gender identity—how it is uttered, performed, and ultimately determined (if at all) via written text. A truncated historical review of prevailing, normative social discourses that address the production of gender identity provides great insight to the present. Moving from an agrarian economy to an industrial one, spaces, along with subsequent individual performances of gender, were coded as either public (male) or private

(female). In the case of the former, rhetoric of politics and economy were determined to be masculine, and with regard to the latter, the private, existed a locale primed for the female. Outside of the public, sequestered to the home, women could work toward the greater social good, extolling purity and virtue through their thoughts, words, and actions.

The act of writing distinctly parallels the aforementioned social script of physical locations. According to Brody (1993), writerly identity for men was grounded in active citizenship—the public male—while women were tethered to domesticity through a pejorative notion of ornamentation. In short, men were thought to be rhetorically direct and demanding, even combative as Connors (1996) writes; their female counterparts, however, were defined as being nothing short of timid. Women were said to be unnatural fits for public standing, lacking the rhetorical strength with which the public was to/should operate. Brody continues by claiming that the manner in which culture rhetorically assigns gendered standing today remains strikingly similar to the past. To be terse, stoic, and without emotion on the page operates as an exercise in masculinity, and to be confessional and/or emotional, perhaps superfluous, is to embody a sense of femininity, a marker that denotes weaker sensibilities and, by extension, argumentation.

Bloom's (1996) highly referenced review of the classed dynamic of writing instruction also provides insight into how gender identity is manifested and proliferated through both the act and teaching of writing. Her position that writing is a middle-class enterprise, valuing self-reliance, responsibility, propriety, moderation, thrift, efficiency, order, cleanliness, punctuality, and delayed gratification, speaks of masculine (middle-class) norms just the same. In what Bloom sees as classed rhetoric exists hints of the self-made man, the breadwinner ideal, a sense of what is expected culturally that should take form through written prose; in other words, writing that meets the standards for public consumption. Such logic functions to sort out, to define how we understand writing according to perceived masculine/feminine markers. Fields such as science and business, ones that value such a writing ethos, are assigned masculine standing. However, writing that is flowery, turgid, even purple, such as

what some deem to be related to the creativity inherent in the humanities, is, again, relegated to a lesser, feminine standing.

Gender, therefore, is a discursive construct. As Butler (1990) wrote, social reality is created through an ongoing, constant iteration of spoken and/or symbolic rhetorical gestures. However, as Foucault (1977) made clear, discourse and performance, as related to gender, are fluid and thus contingent on context. Such thinking challenges the misperception that writing occurs as a binary—that is to say, men do it one way and women do it another. The "social turn" in composition studies (Berlin, 1997; Faigley, 1992) speaks further to the ability to destabilize the rigidity in which gender (or any social marker) is assigned via discourse by drawing attention to the complexity of identity and the vast amount of contexts in which one interacts. To this point, feminine and masculine identities are not totalizing, and, therefore, function as only one part of a larger matrix of identity. We ask, however, to what extent does perception of gender remain salient, how much of that perception remains contingent on past sociocultural/socioeconomic norms, and to what degree does such perception drive how texts are read, understood, and valued by their subsequent audiences?

The provided samples, along with the larger contexts, were read as gender indistinct, suggesting that the samples are highly edited, polished products that echo Shelby's (1998) contention that there is a certain technical, functional, and aesthetic quality to leadership communication. As previously noted, gender was assigned by the reader, with the majority following what can be described as a traditional gender script, one that extends from sociocultural and socioeconomic interaction. The initial document, once moved beyond the walls of the organization, is subject to immediate affirmation or contestation. Readers decode far more than what exists on the written page, interjecting experience into the way in which they construct meaning (Crites et al., 2015). For many of the respondents, gender assignment, correct or otherwise, was a product of how they have experienced or understood gender in their lives and through their socially constructed performances (Mullany, 2009).

In many ways, the findings reaffirm cultural bias in understanding and subsequently assigning gender and its purported language according to prevailing gender norms (Gamble & Gamble, 2014). Based on respondent responses, men using first-person, singular pronouns to present an image of strength and women using plural pronouns as a response to their communal sensibilities are just two of many examples that signal how readers assign gender to discourse (Coleman, 2011). However, as the provided samples note, this is not always the case. However, whether the participant was correct or incorrect is immaterial, as the rationale for the determined gender assignment remained constant. In other words, readers constructed their responses according to cultural codes that manifested themselves in and through the presented language.

However, as "neutral" responses would suggest, in moments in which gender is not recognizable, a deeper reading of the work takes place. In this scenario, economic identity and institutional familiarity become salient. The respondents assigned gender as consumers, reading into the subtext of the sample, building narratives of their own in an attempt to fill the gaps that were left by the writer. Although identity is fluid and marked by intersections of contesting identifiers, the participants' responses suggest that capitalism, as a personality characteristic far more than an economic ideology, is often the context that undergirds social reading (e.g., Metcalfe & Rees, 2010).

The participants read gender in line with traditional social scripts; however, an underlying economic identity was apparent, one that disrupts the intended codes that are forwarded by the producer. In other words, information transmission is not linear and, therefore, social discourse, how meaning is made and understood, is far more complicated. Although language is created to impart some suggested meaning, the reader contextualizes information in a sweeping landscape. Initial respondent comments indicate that uniform readings are problematic; however, factors, such as a consumer-driven culture, commonly influence readers of social discourse, suggesting that socioeconomic identity is paramount to how one understands the language they encounter.

Limitations

There is one major limitation relative to the current study: the strong possibility that the letters are not written directly by the CEO but public relations and corporate communication practitioners. The limitation is balanced by the fact that CEOs take a strong personal role in drafting the shareholder letter (Lane, 2008), including overseeing the content and tone of the overall direction of the messaging (Amernic, Craig, & Tourish, 2010). According to Amernic and Craig (2006), "most CEOs who do not write such letters admit to carefully briefing those who do" (200). However, if the letters are drafted by public relations and corporate communication practitioners, they are still relying on gender-ambiguous institutional writing.

Conclusion

Survey responses to institutionalized language, and those members who script such spaces, suggest that gendered language is identified through a traditional sociocultural lens. How participants assigned gender, when it was thought to be evident, followed a culturally constructed binary—men do and say X, and women do and say Y. However, given the large percentage of participants who coded the samples as gender neutral, an institutionalized "gender ambiguous" written discourse was most common. The data, therefore, suggest that leadership writing in general and CEO writing specifically embodies elements of both masculine and feminine writing. Written leadership communication is rendered genderless in many of the provided samples, as competing notions of what we have called "traditional gender" disrupt the reader's ability to assign one identity or the other. The producer, in this case, could manipulate discourse so as to present institutional ambiguity.

Readers, however, were not only aware of gender's performative nature, the manner in which performance is constructed or reaffirmed through written communication by a single individual; they were familiar with institutional operation. Respondents' comments moved beyond assigning gender to the provided words and phrases. Instead, many respondents affirmed gender

through a response to their experiences with corporate America as capitalistic participants or consumers. Given this data, further research is necessary to determine how readers construct meaning, as they are seemingly not reading only what is presented, but placing this discourse into a larger matrix of thought and experience. Therefore, reading along these lines challenges an institution's ability to transmit a uniform idea; rather, the intended concept, once disseminated to the masses, is immediately negotiated and understood in response to and as a part of a socioeconomic experience. The individual identity is lost to the institution—the narrative assigned by readers as consumers.

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Ethical Leadership and Ethical Climate as the Determinants of Organizational Identification in Hotel Establishments in Turkey*

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Ethical leadership has gained importance and emerged as an important topic in the last two decades because of different ethical scandals. Using data drawn from 1,003 employees of 48 five-star hotels in Turkey, this article examines the effects of ethical climate on employees' identification with their organizations and concludes that while ethical leadership influences identification with one's organization, an ethical climate plays a mediation role in that relationship. Additionally, this article suggests that employee organizational identification would be further understood and enhanced by examining the interplay between the ethics of an organization's leadership and its ethical climate. Accordingly, organizational ethical climate contributes to employee organizational identification. The article contributes to ethical leadership and ethical climate literature by providing empirical findings regarding its effects on employees' organizational identification in the hospitality industry of Turkey.

Key words: ethical climate, ethical leadership, hospitality industry, mediating effect, organizational identification

Research studies present strong support of the important role organizational identification plays in employees' dedication to their work (Albert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). *Organizational identification* implies that members of an organization perceive that their own identities overlap with that of the organization and help them identify with the ideals for which the organization stands (Ashforth et al., 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Achieving organizational goals is only possible with the presence of employees who are aligned with their organization and its goals.

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Previous studies have shown that identification is positively correlated with employees' citizenship behavior and commitment (Ashforth et al., 2008; Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Zehir, Müceldili, Altindağ, Şehitoğlu, & Zehir, 2014). However, other studies suggest that employee dedication and commitment are also positively influenced by an organization's leadership (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Erkutlu, 2008; Gill, Flaschner, & Shachar, 2006; Hinduan, Wilson-Everest, Moss, & Scannell, 2009; Lu & Lin, 2014; Mwendia, 2006; Pucic, 2015; Tracey & Hinkin, 1994; Tuna, Ghazzawi, Tuna, & Çatir, 2011) and its ethical treatment (Kanungo, 2001; Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996; Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher, & Milner, 2002; Van Dick, Hirst, Grojean, & Wieseke, 2007).

An organization and its employees have mutual expectations and relationship. While an organization expects its employees to be committed to its goals and objectives and to take responsibility for their actions, its employees also need leadership that values their contributions, treats them ethically, and respects their expectations. In fulfilling those expectations, accurate and honest performance appraisals and ethical treatment are essential for keeping employees motivated and committed. Based on that, managers will be able to influence employees' perceptions of the organization's ethical climate through their ethical leadership behavior (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Hence, this kind of exchange relationship could lead to employees' identification with their organization and help them predict and explain the causes of many actions carried on at work (Edwards, 2005). Accordingly, the shared vision of both leaders and employees becomes the anchor that connects all, as opposed to a vision that appeals only to senior management. According to O'Connor & Day (2007), this conceptualization does imply a shift to a collective identity level, with a primary concern for "all of us," rather than an individual concern. With a shared identity, employees will function as committed members of the organization and comply with its code of ethics.

According to Tüzün and Çağlar (2008), there are many factors that affect organizational identification. Factors such as communication, confidence, and identity are emphasized intensively. While these factors are necessary to create

a cognitive link between employees and an organization, other factors are required to increase the identification levels of individual employees, including supportive behaviors and decisions that are consistent with the goals of the organization (Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Reil, 2001). Pucic (2015) suggests:

> Followers [should] base their leader's performance expectation on hierarchically fixed leader prototypes organized in decreasing order of abstraction. Expectations of lower level leaders are considered the most specific or least abstract. Leadership results from being perceived as a leader and a leader's success is determined by meeting the expectations of followers. (657)

In this sense, ethical leadership is a value-driven form of leadership. By influencing an individual's self-concept and beliefs, a leader can also affect that individual's motivation, thinking, and behaviors (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). At the same time, a leader with a moral identity, moral values, and ethical awareness can help determine the ethical climate. A leader is the main determinant in the creation of the ethical identity of an organization (Dickson, Smith, Grojean, & Ehrhart, 2001). Researchers indicate that ethical climate reflects on several organizational results and is also a determining factor in an individual's thinking and behavior. Researchers and practitioners are increasingly focused on the role of leadership as a means to avoid unethical behaviors in organizations (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005; Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Lu & Lin, 2014; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009; Sama & Shoaf, 2008).

Although many different results of ethical climate have been specified up to date, few studies have investigated the relationship between ethics and identification (DeConinck, 2011; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). As there is also a dearth of empirical studies that have investigated the impact of the leader on organizational ethical climate (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Schminke, Ambrose, & Neubaum, 2005), the first objective of this study is to further investigate and identify the effects of a leader who has a moral responsibility to ensure an ethical climate. The study also seeks to investigate the effects of a leader's characteristics on employee identification level. Finally, the ultimate objective of this study is to empirically research the relationship between the ethical climate

and ethical values on employee identification level. This study investigates the relationship of an employee's reflection of his or her personal identity to the personality of the organization and the extent to which he or she perceives his or her personal identity significantly overlaps and aligns with the personality of the organization (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Dutton et al., 1994; Netemeyer, Heilman, & Maxham, 2012). This article aims to add to the organizational identification literature on ethical leadership and ethical climate, as relatively little research has examined this relationship. Implications and suggestions for future research are provided.

This empirical study focuses on hospitality employees in Turkey because these employees have not received much attention from researchers, despite their importance as the top contributors to the biggest service industry in Turkey. The hospitality industry is characterized by its intensive use of labor and high customer interaction (Tuna et al., 2011). According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (2014), the Turkish hospitality industry employs more than 2,317,000 people, which is 9.1% of Turkey's total employment. The Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2014) estimates that there were 4,038 hospitality establishments with 497,368 rooms and 1,041,161 beds in 2013.

As hotel employees' identification with their organization is a reflection of their psychological connection to and satisfaction with their organization, the need for ethical leaders who provide an organizational ethical climate has been increasing. This study empirically tests the extent of the impact of ethical leaders on employee identification and suggests that ethical climate plays a mediator role in its employee identification. Figure 1 illustrates the article's conceptualization.

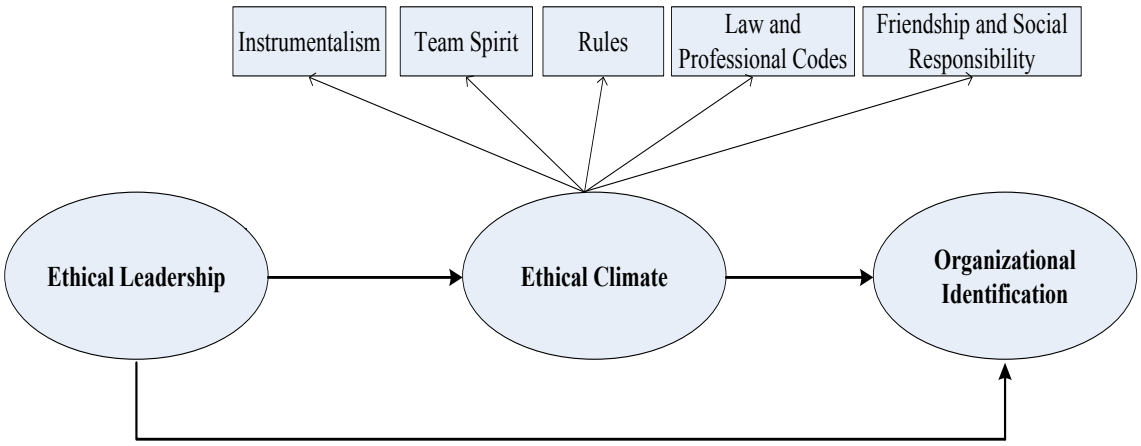

Figure 1. Ethical leadership and ethical climate as the determinants of the organizational identification: Conceptualization

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

Organizational Identification

Since March and Simon (1958) introduced social identity theory and discussed how individuals tend to identify with prestigious or high-status groups, scholars have also suggested that individuals in organizations identify themselves with organizations possessing attractive images (Dutton et al., 1994). According to Kreiner and Ashforth (2004), the concept of organizational identification has attracted many scholars' attention and emerged as an important research variable in organizational behavior over the past decade. Mael and Ashforth (1992) define *organizational identification* as "a perceived oneness with an organization and the experience of the organization's successes and failures as one's own" (103). Although there are many other relevant definitions, the common characteristic is an overlap of an individual's self-perception and sense of belonging to his or her organization (Dutton et al., 1994; Garmon, 2004). As noted by Dutton et al. (1994), identification with the organization "is one form of psychological attachment that occurs when members adopt the defining characteristics of the organization as defining characteristics for themselves" (242). Accordingly, organizational identification is an important construct in explaining behaviors that are relevant to organizational outcomes. When an individual's self-concept mirrors the same characteristics as those in the perceived organization, this cognitive connection is

the simple portrayal of the perceiver's organizational identification (Dutton et al., 1994; Tuna, Ghazzawi, Yesiltas, Tuna, & Arslan, 2016). Research findings suggest that organizational identification is positively related to a broad range of employees attitudes and behaviors at work, including job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2015; Fu & Deshpande, 2014; Marique, Stinglhamber, Desmette, & Goldoni, 2014; Tuna et al., 2016; Van Dick et al., 2004).

Researchers suggest that there are a few factors connected with organizational identification, the primary one focusing on the construed external image of the firm (Carmeli & Freund, 2009) as it refers to an organizational member's perception as seen by outside stakeholders (Dutton et al., 1994; Tuna et al., 2016). Previous studies have concluded that external image positively influences identification with one's organization and labels it as a distinctive construct (e.g., Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Carmeli & Freund, 2002; Çiftiçioğlu, 2010; Dutton & Dukerich, 1991; Dutton et al., 1994; Herrbach & Mignonac, 2004; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Tuna et al., 2016). Identification with an organization at its basic level is someone's feeling of being a part of a larger organizational identity. The personification of the organization with the concept of "we" versus "I" contributes to the individuals' sense of belonging to a larger whole (Rousseau, 1998).

Organizational identification can also be expressed as a psychological integration between an individual and his or her organization. The more individuals identify themselves with the organization, the greater the possibility that organizational values, norms, and other important organizational means and aims become easier to internalize (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, et al., 1994; van Knippenberg, 2000; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Accordingly, common interests occur, and organizational members become intrinsically motivated within the scope of these common interests (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; van Knippenberg, 2000; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Thus, individuals' senses of membership in the organization ultimately shape their self-concepts (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Kramer, 1991; Tajfel & Turner, 1985).

According to Tüzün and Çağlar (2008), the similarity between the individuals and their groups within the organization is the most significant determinant of

organizational identification in the literature. People identify with similar people or groups within their organization (Tüzün & Çağlar, 2008), which contributes to a cognitive oneness with the identified targeted group through identification. Identification with the organization requires cognitive oneness. On one hand, the individual has his or her own self-classification, referred to as *comparing*; while he or she feels a sense of belonging to the organization on the other hand (Bellou, Chitiris, & Bellou, 2005; Foreman & Whetten, 2002). If there is an overlap between the two sides of the comparison, then identification with organization occurs. Crocetti, Avanzi, Hawk, Fraccaroli, and Meeus (2014), describe it as

> the personal facet of identity refers to awareness of oneself as a worker doing a specific kind of occupation, whereas the social facet consists of the strength of identifications with social groups, such as the work team and the organization as a whole (282).

The Linkage to Ethical Leadership

While leadership studies have sought to define *leadership,* Ciulla (1998) argues that researchers should instead seek to define "good leadership." The meaning of being "good" reflects morality in addition to a leader's effectiveness. Thus, the "ethical" concept should be a fundamental criterion for a leader. Toor and Ofori (2009) suggest that the expected definition of a leader is the same as the one pertaining to answer to the questions of "What is good leadership?" or "What is ethical leadership?" In other words, the ethical component of leadership should be emphasized and present in the daily life of an organization.

Webley and Werner (2008) conclude that while a code of ethics is necessary, a code alone is not sufficient to guarantee ethical organizational behavior, as a discrepancy often exists between the organizational code of ethics and its members' actual behavior. Several studies have shown that managers influence their subordinates' ethical behaviors positively or negatively (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown et al., 2005; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Lu & Lin, 2014; Mayer et al., 2009; Sama & Shoaf, 2008).

Brown (2007) questions how employees should be treated in the workplace and argues that the normative approach to leadership in business ethics can usually be formed by concentrating on this question. Similarly, other studies on

ethical leadership focus on how ethical leadership should be (e.g., Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Ogunfowora, 2009). Treviño, Hartman, and Brown (2000) suggest that ethical leadership has "moral personal" and "moral manager" characteristics (129). According to this approach, the structure of ethical leadership is characterized by the management characteristics of the leader, including role modeling, rewarding, disciplining, and communicating in an ethical way that reflects the personality traits innate to the leader. Leader personality traits include integrity, honesty, trustworthiness, and acting ethically (Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003).

Brown et al. (2005) define *ethical leadership* within the scope of social learning theory as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (120). This definition stresses ethical values through two-way communication (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). In addition, the focus on altruistic rather than selfish behaviors is among the subjects that an ethical leader can inject in a two-way communication. Leaders transfer their own ethical values to individuals by providing strong messages through attitudes, behaviors, and activities (Sims & Brinkmann, 2002). Members at the lower organizational levels learn appropriate ethical standards by following the ethical acts of those who work at the higher levels (Kim & Brymer, 2011; Pucic, 2015). According to Brown et al. (2005), *ethical leaders* are those individuals who consider their people and society at large when making major decisions, as these decisions might impact them. Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008) describe *ethical leaders* as those lwho seek to do the right things personally; who display professional behaviors, and who act with integrity, honesty, fairness, and openness. Similarly, Jordan, Brown, Treviño, and Finkelstein (2013) suggest that ethical leaders provide guidance in an ethical way and style, are fair when making decisions, transmit the importance of ethics to members, reward ethical behaviors, and condemn unethical behaviors.

The Linkage to Ethical Climate

Victor and Cullen (1987) define *organizational ethical climate* as an organization's "shared perceptions of what are ethically correct behaviors and how ethical issues should be handled" (51–52). Accordingly, the definition encompasses an organization's established norms and practices, which serve as boundaries of what is morally right or wrong. Victor and Cullen (1988) emphasize that "the prevailing perceptions of typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content constitute the ethical work climate" (101). When a member of an organization decides on the appropriateness of a decisional choice, those aspects of work climate determine what constitutes an ethical work behavior (Victor & Cullen, 1988; Schneider & Snyder, 1975). The ethical climates are a reflection of the organization's "general" and "pervasive" characteristics that affect a broad range of decisions (Victor & Cullen, 1988, 101). Similarly, Schminke, Arnaud, and Kuenzi (2007) suggest that an ethical work climate "identifies the ethical characteristics of the work environment that directly and indirectly affect 'how things are done here.' Specifically, ethical work climates encompass the established ethical values, norms, attitudes, feelings, and behaviors of employees" (175)." Additionally, while there is a general understanding of how the business is run, employees' understanding of policies, procedures, and other organizational practices forms the organizational climate (Schminke et al., 2007). Mentioning the climate of an organization requires mentioning the effects of the organizational system on individuals or groups in the organization. Organizational climate concentrates on "effects" rather than considerations in the organization (Denison, 1996). Ethical climate can be expressed as the general perception of ethical-based production processes and the application of these processes (Arnaud, 2010; Barnett & Vaicys, 2000; DeConinck, 2010; Neubaum, Mitchell, & Schminke, 2004; Parboteeah et al., 2010; Victor & Cullen, 1988). According to Zehir et al., (2014), organizational climates vary from very ethical to very unethical. At the same time, ethical climate is a component of the general organizational climate and the general psychological organizational climate. Ethical climate, as a component of the

general organizational climate (Elçi & Alpkan, 2009), is affected by management, various groups, other stakeholders, organizational policies, and personal needs (Barsh & Lisewski, 2008). According to Victor and Cullen (1988), *ethical climate* is considered to be "the prevailing perceptions of typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content" (101). This organizational ethical climate is the expression of common ethical ideas in the organization (VanSandt, Shepard, & Zappe, 2006).

In an organization, ethical climate can be considered as a harmony of the attitudes, behaviors, and ethical values supported by organization members. The reason for this is that ethical climate is formed among the members as a cultural control device, and it is a guide for them (Schwepker & Hartline, 2005). It also defines organizational members' ethical standards and guidelines (Weber & Seger, 2002). Parboteeah and Kapp (2008) suggest that of the nine possible ethical climate types, the most relevant climate type to understand employees within an organization is the local type. Empirical research studies have concluded that intra-organizational dimensions (referred to as the local referent) have a powerful functional and salient influence on how employees perceive their organizations' ethical climates (Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988).

The Relationship between Organizational Identification and Ethical Leadership

Decision making and behaviors shown by an organization's leader affect how individuals act, react, and commit to their organization (Weaver, Treviño, & Agle, 2005). A leader has a tremendous effect on an organization's social structure, mission, and purpose. A leader's behavior forms a complementary process for shaping employee behaviors inside the organization. An ethical leader determines roles, ensures the attainment of the standard of integrity within the workforce, and decides the acceptable organizational values (Piccolo, Greenbaum, den Hartog, & Folger, 2010). An ethical leader is instrumental in helping people understand their role and perceptions, providing them with guidance and aligning/binding them to the organization so that they see their identity as a reflection of its identity (Zhu, 2008).

Individuals perceive themselves as self-based and identity-based; that is, they are very much affected by feelings, thoughts, behaviors, and purposes. Accordingly, if a leader successfully alters an individual's self-perception, then this leader will be effective on all types of intra-organizational changes, including those made by groups and individuals (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). As suggested by Demirtas and Akdogan (2015); Erkutlu (2008); Gill et al. (2006); Hinduan et al. (2009); Kanungo (2001); Kanungo and Mendonca (1996); Lu and Lin (2014); Mwendia (2006); Pucic (2015); Tracey and Hinkin (1994); Tuna et al. (2011); Turner at al. (2002); and Van Dick et al. (2007), a leader's identification with an organization leads him or her to be more focused on the development of the aims and values of the group. The leader is the most important element in an organization that embraces the values of the organization; he or she is a role model.

In an approach proposed by Treviño et al. (2000), the trust concept, which is among the characteristics of ethical leader, is one of the most important factors that causes an increase in the identification of an organization or group. As an important characteristic, trust conveys the message that an individual is both important and valuable (Walumbwa et al., 2011). A leader is expected to affect the behaviors of individuals and to shape their experience in the workplace. An employee's distance from or closeness to a leader also has an important impact on his or her reliance, job satisfaction, and in turn organizational commitment (Yang & Mossholder, 2010).

Accordingly, this study proposes that ethical leaders can affect organizational outcomes through their ability to ensure an ethical working environment. Additionally, working environments with strong ethical leaders are more likely to possess norms and policies that value and reward ethical conduct. Furthermore, ethical leaders provide signals of whether organizational politics are acceptable (Kacmar, Andrews, Harris, & Tepper, 2013). Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Ethical leadership positively influences organizational identification in hotel establishments.

The Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Ethical Climate

Recent studies suggest that an ethical leader is very active in spreading an ethical-based climate in an organization (Dickson et al., 2001). Studies also suggest that organizational leadership is the determinant for forming and shaping formal common ethical codes and their integration in organizational practices and processes (Schminke et al., 2005; Treviño, Butterfield, & McCabe, 1998; Treviño, Weaver, & Brown, 2008). In fact, social learning theory provides some clues regarding the effect of a leader on ethical behaviors and the general ethical climate of the organization. This theory claims that some behaviors are learned by observing. Based on that, a leader is a model for ethical behavior (Grojean, Resick, Dickson, & Smith, 2004).

The moral development of a leader affects his or her positions on ethical questions and how ethical the organizational climate is (Schminke et al., 2005). According to Ehrich, Harris, Klenowski, Smeed, and Spina (2015), when an organizational climate places too much emphasis on performance, it could lead to organizational members' pursuit of "unethical" practices to meet those high expectations. A leader does contribute to the creation of an ethical climate by determining clear standards for an organization and coaching individuals at all levels based on those standards (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2009). At the same time, leaders are both the real and the symbolic representatives of the organization outside of the working environment. Their ethical behaviors and actions reflect positively on the spreading of an ethical climate inside the organization (O'Connell & Bligh, 2009). Ethical values, such as integrity, altruistic behaviors, and trust, are the determinants of the creation of an ethical climate. Ethical climate is very much influenced by the constructions, designs, and behavior of organizational leaders (Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen, & Theron, 2005; Erben & Güneşer, 2008). Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Ethical leadership will positively influence ethical climate in hotel establishments.

The Relationship between Ethical Climate and Organizational Identification

The effects of values on personal and organizational results have long been studied in terms of the individual and the organization. The high level of value adaptation between individuals and their organizations leads to an exchange relationship that brings about positive results, especially in employee behaviors and attitudes toward jobs, organizations, and other stakeholders (Kılıç, 2010). *Individual–organizational adaptation* is the extent to which the needs of individuals are met by their organizations and the individual personality traits are adaptable to the general characteristics of the organization (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2007; Jung, Namkung, & Yoon, 2010). It is expected that the adaptation between the ethical values of an individual and an organization affects the individual's behaviors toward the job (Ambrose, Arnaud, & Schminke, 2008).

However, a mismatch between the values of the individual and that of the organization can cause a conflict in inter-organizational relationships (Fritz, Arnett, & Conkel, 1999). Chen et al. (2015) suggest that organizational identification is positively related to an existing climate of organizational trust and organizational justice. Trust and being treated fairly contributes to identification, commitment, and job satisfaction. In fact, the dissimilarity of perceived ethical values by the individual to the common ethical values of the organization causes misidentification of the individual with the organization (Gautam, van Dick, & Wagner, 2004). Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Ethical climate will positively influence organizational identification in hotel establishments.

Many studies have focused on antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership. While individual traits and contingent variables are accepted as antecedents, pro-social behaviors, beneficiary behaviors, job satisfaction, motivation, and organizational commitment are considered to be results in these studies (Kim & Brymer, 2011). Additionally, some theoretical studies have implied that ethical leadership has an impact on ethical climate (Dickson et al., 2001; Mulki et al., 2009). Role model behaviors of leaders can facilitate value consistency between individuals and organizations and provide trust in leaders (Grojean et al.,

2004). Accordingly, employees respect and support ethical leaders, as they believe things have been done the right way (Mayer, Kuenzi, & Greenbaum, 2010).

Leaders facilitate the spreading of ethical behaviors by virtue of their principles and implementations. They also minimize the occurrence of unethical behaviors and serve as filters to communicate organizational principles and processes to group members (Elçi, Şener, & Aksoy, 2012). Those leaders must be ethical role models by walking the talk, communicating ethically, and ensuring ethical standards (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014).

Ethical leadership behaviors have many organizational and individual consequences. Cognitive commitment to an organization is one of the individual results of ethical leadership behavior. Ethical leaders are also responsible for the integration of the individual and organization. They expect their subordinates to adapt to their values as well as those of the organization. These behaviors are positively perceived by individuals as an organization's image. This impact reflects the identification of individuals with their organizations (Sluss & Ashforth, 2008). As role models, ethical leaders have a major impact in increasing the altruistic behaviors of their people. They persuade individuals to be dependent on each other and collaborate rather than compete (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008). Competition levels should be lower when developing organizational identification. Walumbwa et al. (2011) indicate that ethical leaders contribute to the increase in collaboration by taking a proactive role.

An organization's ethical climate level has an important role in the organizational identification of an individual, and this role can be explained by social identity theory. According to this theory, if ethical behaviors are seen intensively in organizations, most of the group members will copy these behaviors. Different ethical climate constructions do not have a direct impact on organizational identification. In cases in which leaders are directed to spread these behaviors in organizations, this could be a factor in determining individuals' organizational identification (DeConinck, 2011). In other words, if leaders try to develop responsible, helpful, and rule-based climate types, they also contribute to integrating members into organizations. In this case, the identification level of

individuals is increasing because of the leaders' behaviors. Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Ethical climate mediates the impact between ethical leadership and organizational identification.

Method

This study empirically investigates the effects of ethical leadership and ethical climate on organizational identification in hotel establishments in Turkey. Participants were asked to sign a consent form identifying the purpose of this study and indicating their awareness that their participation was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw at any time without consequences. Survey responses were confidential.

The quantitative method used to test the research hypotheses included the development of a survey questionnaire to measure the perceptions and behaviors of employees of Turkish five-star hotel establishments. A four-section survey questionnaire was designed for this study. For the first section of the survey, we used a 36-item scale prepared by Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1993). For the second section, we used a 10-item scale prepared by Brown et al. (2005). For the third section, we used a 6-item scale prepared by Mael and Ashforth (1992). We asked for demographic variables in the last section. The reliability of each section (Cronbach's alpha) was calculated, and exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were applied.

Correlation analysis was applied to measure the relationships between the variables in parallel with the two-step approach proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). Additionally, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and the structural equation model were used, respectively, to test the hypothesized model and its hypotheses. Research analysis was performed using the maximum likelihood estimation method. The normality of the data was checked using the skewness and kurtosis values. The maximum values were 0.950 for skewness (less than the threshold of 2) and 1.58 for kurtosis (less than the threshold of 7). These values suggest evidence for data normality (West, Finch, & Curran, 1995).

Additionally, the study was developed based on a screening model that examined the available literature.

For this research, we used the four-step method offered by Baron and Kenny (1986). This method proposes the following procedures: (1) regressing the independent variable on the dependent variable, (2) regressing the independent variable on the mediator, (3) regressing the mediator variable on the dependent variable, and (4) establishing that the mediator value partially or completely mediates the X–Y relationship; the effect of X (independent variable) on Y (dependent variable) controlling for the mediator value should be reduced or zeroed out.

The effect of ethical leadership on ethical climate was examined first, followed with an examination of the effect of ethical climate on organizational identification. The effect of ethical leadership on organizational identification was then tested. Finally, the mediation effect of ethical climate on the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational identification was examined.

Participants and Setting

The study included a survey of 1,003 employees and managers from 48 different five-star hotels in 13 different provinces from 7 different geographic regions in Turkey. The convenience sampling method was applied for the selection of the hotels. Of the nearly 1,800 employees solicited from these hotels, 1,035 volunteered to participate and completed and returned the survey. Based on that, the response rate was 57.5%. However, researchers considered 32 forms as invalid as a result of being incomplete or missing important information. Accordingly, the final number of valid surveys was 1,003.

The sample included 355 women (35.4%) and 648 men (64.6%). Respondents' titles included department manager, vice manager, chef, vice chef, worker, and helper. Respondents worked for various departments within these hotels, including accounting, sales and marketing, human resources, kitchen, purchasing, security, and other areas.

More than 90% of the respondents were between the ages of 20 to 29 (55.9%) or 30 to 39 (29.6%). Nearly half of the respondents (45%) held only a high school

diploma; only a quarter (25.8%) held a bachelor's or graduate degree. The majority of respondents had worked in hospitality for either one to three years (29%) or four to six years (32.5%). While 17.45% of the participants worked for national Turkish hotel chains, 28.45% worked for international hotel chains (mostly American or European chains). The majority (54.1%) worked for independently owned and operated hotels. Table 1 provides the details.

Table 1: Characteristics of the Sample (N = 1,003)

Gender	**Number of Employees (*n*)**	**Percentage (%)**
Female	355	35.40
Male	648	64.60
Age	**Number of Employees (*n*)**	**Percentage (%)**
Less than 20	61	6.10
20–29	560	55.80
30–39	297	29.60
40–49	70	7.00
Above 50	15	1.50
Education Level	**Number of Employees (*n*)**	**Percentage (%)**
Primary and Elementary	130	13.00
High School Diploma	451	45.00
Vocational school (two-year college)	162	16.20
Bachelor's degree	227	22.50
Graduate degree (master's or doctoral degree)	33	3.30
Work Experience (year) in the Hospitality Sector	**Number of Employees (*n*)**	**Percentage (%)**
Less than 1	102	10.20
1–3	291	29.00
4–6	326	32.50
7–9	152	15.20
Above 10	131	13.09
No answer	1	0.01
Employment Status	**Number of Employees (*n*)**	**Percentage (%)**
Seasonal Employee	218	21.70
Full-Time Employee	785	78.30
Hotel Ownership	**Number of Employees (*n*)**	**Percentage (%)**
National Chain	175	17.45
International Chain	285	28.41
Independent Hotel	543	54.14

Participants returned their completed surveys to the researchers in person or by mail in provided envelopes. To ensure the validity and confidentiality of the collected information, participants were guaranteed that all information would remain confidential and would be disclosed only with participant's permission or as required by law. Confidentiality was maintained by separating the consent forms from survey questionnaires. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software, version 14.0, was used to analyze the collected data. A preliminary test using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to assess the validity and reliability of the measurement scales of the data.

Common Method Bias

In the measurement of all variables, obtaining the data from all participants under the same condition may have an effect on skewness. In other words, when all variables are measured to obtain information from the same participant under the same conditions, it can affect the distortion of the results (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). To decrease this negative effect, the researchers used the method proposed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (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 recommendation to ensure that common method bias be eliminated or minimized, the ethical leadership scale and Ethical Climate Questionnaire were placed on different pages of the survey used 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.

Measures

Ethical Climate Questionnaire. To measure the ethical climate, this study utilized the 36-item Ethical Climate Questionnaire developed by Cullen et al. (1993). The questionnaire aims to define nine different ethical climate types and

is based on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The validity and reliability of the Turkish version of the scale was tested by Eser (2007). Participants define their organizational ethical climate type by providing answers to the scaled questions (Barnett & Schubert, 2002). The items include evaluations of the expectations of the organization rather than the employees' own expectations. An example of an ethical climate statement is "The first consideration is whether a decision violates any law." It should be noted that while law and ethics are not the same and may even be in conflict at times, one must be careful in making direct comparison between Likert-scale values of the various questionnaire categories, some of which are more objective while others are subjective (see Table 2 for factor loadings and means).

Ethical Leadership Scale. Ethical leadership was measured using a 10-item instrument developed by Brown et al. (2005). Participants' responses were captured on five-point Likert scales, with 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. The validity and reliability of the Turkish version of the scale was studied by Tuna, Bircan, and Yeşiltaş (2012). A sample scale item is "Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.''

Organizational Identification Scale. To measure respondents' levels of organizational identification, the survey utilized the 6-item organizational identification scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992). The validity and reliability of the Turkish version of the scale were studied by Tüzün (2006) and used in several studies. The scale measures the general level of organizational identification using a Likert-type scale with five frequency adverbs to measure the degree of organizational identification. These items were assessed on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. A sample item is ''When someone criticizes (name of hotel), it feels like a personal insult.''

Results

Factor Analysis and Correlation Values

The data were separated into basic components via the varimax rotation technique, and factor analysis was then applied. According to that, ethical climate

was separated into six types: (a) friendship; (b) social responsibility; (c) law and professional codes; (d) rules; (e) team spirit; and (f) instrumentalism.

In the first step, we analyzed whether correlations of the items were reliable or not. As a result of this analysis, items 6, 8, 9, and 10 were excluded as lacking reliability, as their total correlation values were less than 0.30 (0.171, 0.111, 0.122, and 0.156, respectively) (see Table 2 for clarifications). Then, we implemented factor analysis (Şencan, 2005). At this step, we excluded item 19 (0.388) for having less factor reliability. Following this step, we did a factor analysis for each factor. We found six ethical climate types, five of which were consistent with the original questionnaire. Three items (items 1, 29, and 33) were excluded from the instrumental ethical climate type because of low reliability-that is less than 0.40 (Akgül & Çevik, 2003; Büyüköztürk, 2007; Hair et al., 2006). Table 2 provides the results of the factor analysis of the Ethical Climate Questionnaire and confirmatory factor analysis.

Table 2: Results of the Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Ethical Climate Questionnaire

Factor Name & Items	Factor Loadings	Factor Mean	Cum. Variance Explained (%)	Eigenvalue	C. Alpha (α)
Friendship and Social Responsibility		3.57	15.265	31.987	.859
28. People in this company have a strong sense of responsibility to the outside community.	.691				
31. People are very concerned about what is generally best for employees in the company.	.649				
34. The effect of decisions on the customer and the public [is] a primary concern in this company.	.647				
32. What is best for each individual is a primary concern in this organization.	.644				
30. People in this company are actively concerned about the customer's, and the public's, interest.	.627				
35. It is expected that each individual is cared for when making decisions here.	.624				
36. Efficient solutions to problems are always sought here.	.597				

27. People in this company view team spirit as important.	.556				
Law and Professional Codes		3.71	27.596	6.203	.817
25. In this company, each person is expected, above all, to work efficiently.	.676				
15. Everyone is expected to stick by company rules and procedures.	.665				
14. People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations.	.614				
20. In this company, people are expected to strictly follow legal or professional standards.	.561				
24. In this company, the law or ethical code of [the] profession is the major consideration.	.552				
26. It is expected that you will always do what is right for the customer and public.	.507				
13. The first consideration is whether a decision violates any law.	.444				
Rules		3.40	36.591	5.616	.653
22. In this company, people are guided by their own personal ethics.	.651				
18. Successful people in this company go by the book.	.614				
23. Successful people in this company strictly obey the company policies.	.539				
11. The most important consideration in this company is each person's sense of right and wrong.	.437				
17. People are concerned with the company's interests—to the exclusion of all else.	.408				
Team Spirit		3.43	45.401	4.530	.747
5. In this company, people look out for each other's good.	.696				
16. In this company, our major concern is always what is best for the other person.	.572				
21. Our major consideration is what is best for everyone in the company.	.568				
7. It is very important to follow strictly the company's rules and procedures here.	.507				
12. The most important concern is the good of all the people in the company.	.473				

Instrumentalism		3.70	52.133	3.797	.607
3. In this company, people are expected to follow theft own personal and moral beliefs.	.758				
2. The major responsibility for people in this company is to consider efficiency first.	.652				
4. People are expected to do anything to further the company's interests.	.449				
KMO: .940	***X²* : 9655.147**		**Sig.:.000**		
CFA Results:* χ^2*: 1,627.90; df: 339;* χ^2*/df: 4.80; RMSEA: 0.062; GFI: 090; CFI: 0.97; NFI: 0.96; NNFI: 0.96; AGFI: 0.88; SRMR: 0.050					
EXCLUDED ITEMS					
6. There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this company. 8. Work is considered sub-standard only when it hurts the company's interests. 9. Each person in this company decides for himself what is right and wrong. 10. In this company, people protect their own interest above other considerations. 19. The most efficient way is always the right way, in this company. 1. In this company, people are mostly out for themselves. 29. Decisions here are primarily viewed in terms of contribution to profit. 33. People in this company are very concerned about what is best for themselves.					

The internal consistency reliability for the combined questionnaire was (α) 0.918, suggesting that these items formed a reliable scale for the five types. Barnett and Vaicys (2000) state that according to studies, multiple types of ethical climates can be found in an organization.

After the factor analysis, the Bartlett's test result was found to be 9,655.147 and the *p*-value was < 0.001. The result of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test shows that sample sufficiency was 0.940. The KMO test values were between 0.5 and 0.10, which appear to be acceptable values. In other words, this value range is an index that shows the conformity with the factor analysis. The satisfactory index to the researchers is 0.7 (Altunışık, Coşkun, Bayraktaroğlu, & Yıldırım, 2005). The five-factor structure of the Ethical Climate Questionnaire explains the 52.133% of the total variance.

There are 10 items in the ethical leadership scale, which has a one-factor structure. As a result of the factor analysis, it seemed that the scale had a single-factor structure in parallel with the original one (see Table 3). According to the factor analysis, the Bartlett's test result was 5,357.151, the *p*-value was 0.001, and the KMO test result was 0.936. The one-factor structure explains the

56.590% of the variance. The reliability of the scale was (α) = 0.913. The confirmatory factor analysis results are given in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of the Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Ethical Leadership Scale

Factor	Factor Loadings	Factor Mean	Cum. Variance Explained (%)	KMO	χ^2	Sig.	C. Alpha (α)
Ethical Leadership Scale		3.56	56.590	.936	5,357.151	.000	0.913
5. Makes fair and balanced decisions.	.820						
4. Has the best interests of employees in mind.	.809						
8. Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.	.795						
6. Can be trusted.	.784						
9. Defines successes not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.	.783						
7. Discusses business ethics or values with employees.	.777						
1. Listens to what employees have to say.	.761						
10. When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?"	.753						
3. Conducts his or her personal life in an ethical manner.	.640						
2. Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.	.561						
CFA Results: χ^2 = 144.64; *df* = 30; χ^2/*df* = 4.82; RMSEA = 0.062; GFI = 097; CFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.99; NNFI = 0.99; AGFI + 0.95; SRMR = 0.027							

In the organizational identification scale, there are six items. This scale has a one-factor structure. After testing the factor analysis, it is suggested that the

scale also has a single-factor structure in parallel with the original one (see Table 4). According to the factor analysis, the Bartlett's test result was 2,965.529 and the p-value was 0.001. Based on the KMO test result, the sample sufficiency was 0.869. This test explained the variance rate of 63.143%. The reliability of the scale was (α) = 0.881. The confirmatory factor analysis was implemented into the organizational identification scale and is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Results of the Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Organizational Identification Scale

Factor	Factor Loadings	Factor Mean	Cum. Variance Explained (%)	KMO	χ^2	Sig.	C. Alpha (α)
Organizational Identification Scale		3.57	63.143	.869	2,965.529	.000	0.881
5. When someone praises this hotel, it feels like a personal compliment.	.826						
4. This hotel's successes are my successes.	.811						
3. When I talk about this hotel, I usually say "we" rather than "they."	.806						
2. I am very interested in what others think about (name of hotel).	.806						
6. If a story in the media criticized the hotel, I would feel embarrassed.	.780						
1. When someone criticizes (name of hotel), it feels like a personal insult.	.736						
CFA Results: χ^2 = 13.64; *df* = 5; χ^2/*df* = 2.72; RMSEA = 0.042; GFI = 1.00; CFI = 1.00; NFI = 1.00; NNFI = 0.99; AGFI = 0.98; SRMR = 0.012							

The results of the correlation analysis between organizational identification, ethical leadership, and sub-dimensions of ethical climate are shown in Table 4. There is a strong and positive relationship between the friendship and social responsibility

ethical climate types and ethical leadership ($r = 0.651$; $p < 0.01$). In addition, there is a strong relationship between law and professional codes ($r = 0.512$; $p < 0.01$), rules ($r = 0.457$; $p < 0.01$), and team spirit ($r = 0.487$; $p < 0.01$). Finally, results suggest that there is a significant, positive, yet weak relationship between instrumentalism ethical climate and ethical leadership ($r = 0.297$; $p < 0.01$).

Similarly, there is a positive and significant relationship between friendship and social responsibility ($r = 0.527$; $p < 0.01$), law and professional codes ($r = 0.435$; $p < 0.01$), rules ($r = 0.445$; $p < 0.01$), team spirit ($r = 0.477$; $p < 0.01$), and instrumentalism ethical climate types ($r = 0.336$; $p <0.01$) and organizational identification level. There is also a positive and significant relationship between ethical leadership ($r = 0.537$; $p < 0.01$) and organizational identification level. As Table 5 shows, there is a medium-level relationship between ethical climate types and ethical leadership.

Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Analyses Results

	Mean	SD	Organizational Identification	Ethical Leadership	Instrumentalism	Team Spirit	Rules	Law & Professional Codes	Friendship & Social Responsibility
Organizational Identification	3.57	.96	1						
Ethical Leadership	3.56	.83	.537**	1					
Instrumentalism	3.70	.82	.336**	.297**	1				
Team Spirit	3.43	.78	.477**	.487**	.447**	1			
Rules	3.40	.69	.445**	.457**	.341**	.589**	1		
Law & Professional Codes	3.71	.72	.435**	.512**	.382**	.547**	.591**	1	
Friendship & Social Responsibility	3.57	.75	.527**	.651**	.352**	.597**	.592**	.665**	1

** $p < 0.01$

Measurement Model

Prior to testing the hypothesized structural model, we tested the measurement model to find out whether it had a good fit. All measures were subjected to

confirmatory factor analysis for the dimensionality and validity (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 1996). The verification of the model was made in compliance with the two-step approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). "The measurement indexes of the model are usually used to evaluate the convenience between the model and the data" (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003, 55). As a result of the analysis, the chi-square value was measured as $\chi^2 = 869.18$. In the second step, the normative chi-square value was determined as $df = 183$; $p = 0.000$; $\chi^2/sd = (4.75) \leq .5$. According to previous studies, if this value is 5 or less, it is sufficient for the model to be accepted (Ayyıldız & Cengiz, 2006). When other adaptive values were examined (RMSEA = 0.061, GFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.98, SRMR = 0.037, and NFI = 0.98; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2006; Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003), the confirmatory factor analysis showed a satisfactory fit of the hypothesized three-factor structure.

According to the results of the measurement model, standardized factor load values were close to the values accepted in the literature, however, some of the values were below the acceptable limit. Standardized load values ranged between 0.37 and 0.80 for the items in the survey and 4 of the 44 items were found to be less than 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), which may be an acceptable limit. In the study, the *t*-values were above the required limit (> 2.00). As a result, the discriminant validity was achieved within the framework of the research (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Karatepe, 2011).

Structural Equation Model and Hypothesis Tests

Structural equation modeling was used to test the relationships identified in the research. *Structural equation modeling* is a technique that combines factor analysis and multiple regression simultaneously for the testing of variables that are associated with each other (Hair et al., 2006). The proposed model was tested using the LISREL 8.8 program (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 1996). Figure 2 shows the standardized path parameters.

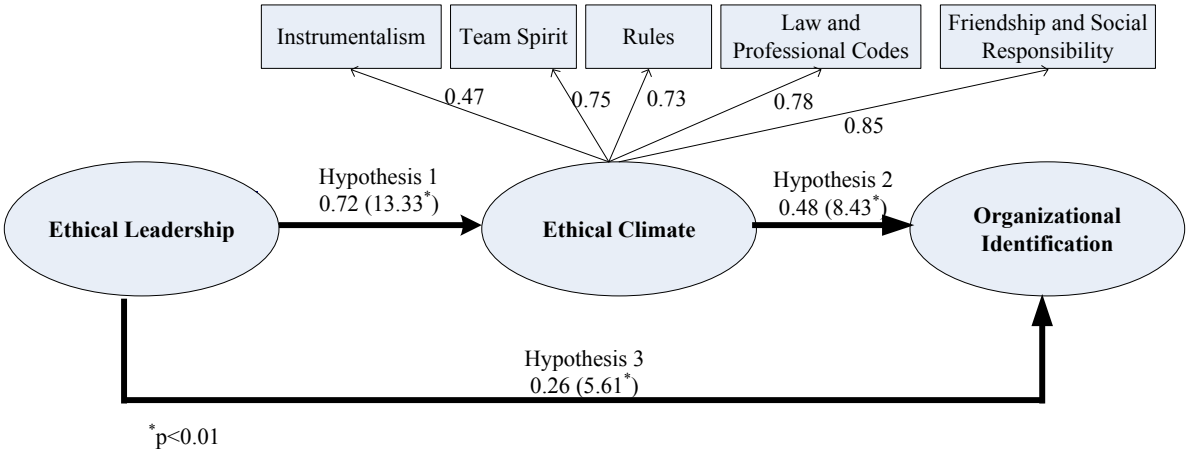

Figure 2. Path results of research model

In this study, we compared the full and partial mediation models. Table 6 on the next page shows the comparison of full mediation (χ^2 = 890.77, *df* = 182*)* and partial mediation *(*χ^2 = 869.18, *df* = 183*)* and also shows the χ^2 differences of both models to be able to test mediation. An analysis of the other results in Table 6 shows that the partial mediation model has significant results.

Table 6: Path of Structural Model

Hypothesis	**Direct Effect Model**		**Full Mediation Model**		**Partial Mediation Model**	
	β	*t*-value	β/γ	t-value	**β/γ**	***t*-value**
Ethical leadership ⟶ Organizational identification (Hypothesis 1)	0.60	15.94*	-	-	**0.26**	**5.61***
Ethical leadership ⟶ Ethical climate (Hypothesis 2)			0.74	22.18*	**0.72**	**13.33***
Ethical climate ⟶ Organizational identification (Hypothesis 3)			0.68	16.89*	**0.48**	**8.43***
χ^2	485.49		890.77		**869.18**	
df	100		182		**183**	
χ^2/df	4.85		4.89		**4.75**	
GFI	0.94		0.92		**0.92**	
CFI	0.98		0.98		**0.98**	
RMSEA	0.062		0.062		**0.061**	
NFI	0.98		0.98		**0.98**	
NNFI	0.98		0.98		**0.98**	
AGFI	0.92		0.90		**0.90**	
SRMR	0.033		0.046		**0.037**	

* *p* < 0.01

The overall structural model showed that ethical leadership had positive effects on ethical climate, and, subsequently, ethical climate influenced organizational identification. To further test the mediating effect of ethical leadership between ethical climate and organizational identification, structural equation modeling analyses were conducted.

As suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), four conditions for mediating effects were examined. While the first condition was satisfactory if the independent variable (ethical leadership) was significantly correlated with the mediator (ethical climate); the second condition was satisfactory if the mediator (ethical climate) was significantly correlated with the dependent variable (organizational identification). Additionally, the third condition was satisfactory if the independent variable (ethical climate) was significantly correlated with the dependent variable (organizational identification); and finally, the fourth condition was related to the effect of the mediation variables.

As the first research hypothesis of whether ethical leadership positively affects organizational identification was examined; the path parameter and its significance level showed that ethical leadership positively affected organizational identification. Accordingly, the first hypothesis was supported ($\gamma = 0.26$; $t = 5.61$; $p < 0.01$) and accepted.

When examining the second hypothesis to test the effect of ethical leadership on ethical climate, ethical leadership activities were found to have an effect on ethical climate ($\gamma = 0.72$; $t = 13.32$; $p < 0.01$). Accordingly, this study accepted its second hypothesis. As the study tested its third hypothesis, the effect of ethical climate on the identification of an individual with an organization, results revealed that ethical climate positively affected organizational identification ($\beta = 0.48$; $t = 8.43$; $p < 0.01$). The results also showed that the level of identification was high for individuals who work in an ethical climate. Therefore, this study also accepted its third hypothesis.

Finally, to test the mediating effect of ethical climate, the structural equation was re-estimated by constraining the direct effect of ethical climate on organizational identification. According to the test results, ethical leadership has

both partial direct impact and it is also partially affected by the mediation of ethical climate on organizational identification. The direct effect between ethical leadership on organizational identification was measured as $ß = 0.60$ to determine the mediation effect in parallel with the method offered by Baron and Kenny (1986). Then, the effect level decreased to $\gamma = 0.26$. This showed that there is a partial mediation impact of ethical leadership on organizational identification. In addition, results of good fit indexes of the mediation model were better than those of the direct model. This concludes that the mediation model will be better explained through the mediator of ethical climate.

Conclusion

In line with studies conducted by Walumbwa et al. (2011) and Neubert et al. (2009), this study concluded that ethical leadership positively affects organizational identification. Ethical leadership is effective on behavioral change and identification. While Walumbwa et al.'s study revealed that ethical leadership was positively and significantly related to employee performance, Neubert et al. suggest that ethical leadership has both a direct and indirect influence on follower job satisfaction and affective commitment. The indirect effect of ethical leadership "involves shaping perceptions of ethical climate, which in turn, engender greater job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. Furthermore, when interactional justice is perceived to be high, this strengthens the ethical leadership-to-climate relationship" (Neubert et al., 2009, 157).

This study also concluded that an ethical leader affects ethical climate. The values and the personal characteristics that a leader demonstrates have an impact on an organization. This result was also supported by Grojean et al. (2004), Elçi et al. (2012), Mayer et al. (2010), and Neubert et al. (2009), who studied the impact of ethical leaders on organizational climate in different types of industries and concurred with the same results.

This study found that an ethical climate positively influences organizational identification. This result was also supported by DeConinck (2010), Neubert et al. (2009), and Walumbwa et al. (2011).

Finally, this study found that ethical climate mediates the impact between ethical leadership and organizational identification. At the beginning of the analysis, the impact of ethical climate was controlled, and its direct impact was $\gamma = 0.60$. When the mediator was added into the model, the direct impact decreased to $\gamma = 0.26$. This reduction refers to the mediation effect between variables. According to these results, it could be concluded that leaders who have ethical traits and ethical managerial skills could be determinants in identification levels of members in organizations. High levels of ethical standards and widespread ethical norms in organizations contribute to raising individuals' ethical awareness (Mayer et. al., 2010). Moreover, a widespread ethical climate in an organization helps form the behaviors and attitudes of individuals (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2014). Consequently, a common ethical climate can contribute to organizational identification. According to the results, organizational identification of individuals is partially affected by leadership perception and also partially affected by the organizational ethical climate.

It is important to say that the absence of available studies with a focus on the hotel industry in Turkey or outside of Turkey made it difficult to compare results within the same industry. This limits the generalizability of the study.

Theoretical Study Implications

There are at least two theoretical implications of this study. First, the study suggests that ethical leadership affects employees' identification with their organizations, as organizational identification is a self-based process. An ethical leader is a role model for his or her employees. Such leaders affect the self and beliefs of the individual with their own behaviors (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). A leader can prevent the occurrences of unethical behaviors by rewarding acceptable behaviors and punishing unethical acts. With this strategy in place, ethical values are apparent, and norms and rules are created. These norms, values, and rules are also appreciated by the employees; and thus, the sense of an organizational solidarity between the employees occurs.

The second implication of the study is its contribution to the literature on ethical climate and ethical leadership. While other research studies provided evidence that ethical climates are effective on the behaviors and intentions of an individual (Banerjee, Cronan, & Jones, 1998; DeConinck, 2010; Smith, Thompson, & Iacovou, 2009; Vardi, 2001), other studies showed the impact of ethical climates on job safety (Parboteeah & Kapp, 2008); organizational loyalty, turnover intent and turnover (DeConinck, 2011), and deviance behaviors (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005). It is evident, by the results of this study, that an organization's ethical climate causes more than behavioral effects. It positively affects an employee's identification with his or her organization. It is important to say that there is only one existing study that examined the relationship between ethical climate and organizational identification (DeConinck, 2011). The study is important in the sense of its contribution to the field.

Practical Implications

This research has a number of practical implications for leaders and managers. First, ethical leadership matters. Ethical leadership is valuable in hotel enterprises as well as in other organizations. An ethical leader has great impact on an organization and the behaviors of individuals within it.

Although the impact of other leadership behaviors/models on individuals and organizations have been investigated in different studies, ethical leadership is different in the sense of a leader using two-way communication and being an ethical role model. This suggests a powerful impact by a leader who values ethics and an ethical climate. This implication is consistent with Mayer et al. (2010), Lu and Lin (2014), and Shin (2012). Leaders need to be aware that they play a significant role in creating an ethical climate and should therefore direct more effort toward institutionalizing ethical standards and norms rather than focusing only on the bottom line (Shin, 2012).

The findings of this study also suggest that ethical leadership may not only be normatively appropriate, but also instrumental for the effective functioning of organizations. The study demonstrates that ethical leadership can have an impact not only on ethics-related outcomes, but also on personal outcomes such

as organizational identification. Due to their own characteristics and respect for ethical values, ethical leaders have an impact on individuals' behaviors and attitudes. These findings are consistent with Brown et al. (2005), who suggest that ethical leadership predicts important follower outcomes, including satisfaction with the leader, perceived leader effectiveness, willingness to exert extra effort on the job, and willingness to report problems to the management. Ethical leaders are also negatively related with deviant behavior and positively related with organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Avey, Palanski, & Walumbwa, 2011). Therefore, managers should consider their exhibited managing activities and the impact of these activities on others.

The second implication is that this study also highlights the importance of ethical climate strengthening employee identification. The prevalence of ethical values and the clarity of norms and ethical standards within an organization positively affect individuals' identification with their organization.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

It is obvious that studies on ethical leadership are quite new and need more contribution and empirical support. As this study is attempting to contribute to the knowledge on the subject matter, it has some limitations and, subsequently, the study conclusions are made with caution. One limitation of the study might be a possible respondent bias, as it may be argued that some respondents might not be able to connect and think through the questions as they answer it. Accordingly, study results could have been overstated.

A second limitation is a possible result bias that may have resulted from our dependency on a semi-homogenous sample, since all respondents worked for five-star hotels. Accordingly, we suggest that future research use a heterogeneous population sample comprised of employees of different levels of hotels (as measured by different stars) to enhance the generalizability of the results.

A final limitation of the study is related to the use of a convenience sample of hospitality employees in Turkey. Accordingly, our study can make no claims to the representations or generalizability of its results as other research studies in different industries or countries might produce different results. 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. In addition to that, and to enhance the external validity of the study, we recommend that future comparative research and semi-structured interviews with focus groups of employees and managers examine ethical leadership, ethical climate, and organizational identification.

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A Comparative Qualitative Study of Tutors' Academic Leadership Activities on Nigerian and Chinese Students' Academic Experiences in a United Kingdom University*

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This study explores the impact of tutors' academic leadership activities on Nigerian and Chinese students' experiences of participation in a single university in the post-Brexit United Kingdom. The qualitative phenomenological research design used the focus group interview approach for data collection. Two key focus groups were conducted with 15 participants. The thematic template and content analysis techniques were used for data analysis with NVivo 11. Findings showed that tutors in the university were transformational in their approaches to teaching and learning. Four highly coded themes characterized participants' positive experiences of academic leadership activities: teaching and learning quality, academic versatility, supportive academic leadership, and tutor accessibility. This study provides a theoretical contribution to the literature because it validates the relevance of transformational leadership theory. This study is the first to propound the transformational teaching and learning framework. Recommendations for research are included.

Keywords: academic leadership, China, higher education marketing, Nigeria, qualitative focus group, students' experiences of participation, tutors

The purpose of this study is to implore the impact of the academic leadership activities of tutors (also known as lecturers) on international students from Nigeria and China in the face of Brexit in the United Kingdom's higher education sector. Studies have argued that leadership practices help motivate, but could also hinder the extent to which students participate in the classroom, subsequently affecting their academic output (Kruglanski, Pierro, & Higgins, 2007). This implies that the leadership activities of university tutors could have a positive or negative impact on their students' participation.

The United Kingdom, as a leading provider of higher education, has invested massive funding to build a sustainable human and capital infrastructure, which

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includes the development of leadership skills (Chalmers, Higgs, & Ciccone, 2016). Their universities attract not only Europeans and Americans, but also Africans, particularly Nigerians, as well as the Chinese. The number of Nigerian students in U.K. universities was estimated at 8,000 from 2012 to 2015 (Wali & Wright, 2016), and the number of Chinese students was estimated to be 15,000 from 2010 to 2014 (Chalmers et al., 2016). Since the United Kingdom is so influential in the workforce development of Nigeria and China, it becomes imperative to understand tutors' leadership practices and their influences on Nigerian and Chinese students' experiences of participation toward achieving their academic expectations at a U.K. university.

A review of current literature on academic leadership in U.K. higher education reveals that there is an absence of research on the influences of tutors' leadership practices on Nigerian and Chinese students' experiences of participation using the qualitative focus group approach at the subject university. Therefore, two key constructs were used for measuring academic leadership activities: *participatory leadership*, which is used to measure and understand transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978), and *directive leadership,* which is used to measure and understand transactional leadership theory (Bass, 2008). Additionally, the constructs used for measuring students' experience of participation were students' in-class participation and support for submitting module assessment (Chapman, 2003; Fletcher, 2005).The study used the qualitative focus group approach to collect the data, as it allowed the researchers to explore the feelings and opinions of students with regard to their participation in academic activities at the university. The study attempts to provide answers to the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What type of academic leadership activities were adopted by tutors at the subject university?

Research Question 2: What is the impact of these tutors' academic leadership activities on Nigerian and Chinese students' in-class participation?

Research Question 3: What influences do tutors' academic leadership activities have on students' abilities to complete module tasks?

Significance

This research may help the subject university to strengthen its existing teaching and learning policies as it aspires to be among the top five universities in the United Kingdom by 2025. In addition, given that the university attracts thousands of students from the international community, it is important for the university's administration to understand the types of academic leadership activities its tutors use to deliver instruction and research services to students.

Literature Review

There is no universal definition for leadership practices (Martindale, 2011; Woods, 2010). However, based on the context of this study, *leadership practices* can be defined as those implicit and explicit actions and behaviors that tutors in positions of academic authority exhibit while helping their students achieve their academic expectations (Foster, 2002).This definition thus infers that every lecturer in a higher education institution is a leader. Far (2010) argues that a lecturer is a leader because tutors work with weaker students to improve their expectations and universities assign each tutor manageable number of tutees to ensure they achieve those expectations. Far also says that tutors help to change students' perceptions of static intelligence to belief in academic success through hard work. Farrell (2009) also argues that tutors are leaders because they critique their own work while regularly finding new ways to improve their skills and teaching pedagogy to ensure that they adequately impart knowledge. These arguments by Far (2010) and Farrell (2009) strengthen this study's definition of leadership practices because it involves actions that positively or otherwise influence students toward achieving pre-established goals.

This study uses two theoretical lenses: transformational leadership theory and transactional leadership theory. *Transformational leadership theory* holds that leaders who positively inspire and motivate their followers to achieve common goals with equitable rewards for their efforts are known as transformational leaders. This infers that transformational leaders believe that their successes are dependent on the commitment of their followers and, in this case, their students.

Transactional leadership theory holds that those who direct followers toward a common goal without necessarily providing them with the requisite support, motivation, and inspiration to achieve those goals are called transactional, or authoritative, leaders.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership theory is most widely adopted for examining how leadership practices affect organizational outcomes, or in this context, how tutors affect students' performances (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Meyer, 2006). Burns (1978) first propounded transformational leadership theory, in which managers and employees help one another to achieve their common goals and objectives. While Burns' perspective of transformational leadership theory was on profit-making organizations, this study, in order to integrate the values of the theory, proposes that transformational leadership in higher education institutions exists when tutors are committed to helping their students achieve their academic goals and objectives. This implies that transformational leaders believe that the successes of their followers are dependent on their commitment to work and vice versa (Bass, 2000). Without support from their tutors, students cannot achieve their academic goals; hence, the tutors need to motivate, inspire, and ensure students' commitment to hard work by setting performance targets that exceed students' expectations.

In the past 25 years, leadership has become very prominent in the leadership literature. Bryman (1992) states that transformational leadership is a new approach in the 21st-century leadership paradigm. Anderson, Ones, Sinangil, and Viswesvaran (2001) describe transformational leadership in the light of a charismatic, visionary, and values-oriented leader—a person who creates and share a realistic vision of the future by stimulating subordinates intellectually and paying attention to subordinates' opinions (Yammarino & Bass, 1988). Bass (1990) opines that transformational leadership is delivered through the following perspectives: charisma, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Given these definitions, it follows that a *transformational*

leader is one who motivates and positively stimulates others toward the achievement of goals and objectives.

Participatory Leadership

The *participatory leadership approach* is a key construct of transformational leadership theory that is perceived to be popularly practiced in higher education institutions. It is a leadership approach in which tutors involve all students in the act and process of teaching and learning for the purpose of achieving an academic goal (Woods, 2010). Dahawy and Elmelegy (2010) argue that participatory leadership is critical for students and school management to achieve effectiveness, as it presents opportunities for student and staff involvement. Elmelegy (2015) suggests that leaders who adopt the participatory approach believe in positively motivating students toward actualization of set goals and expectations. Elmelegy's findings support Vroom (2003), who found that tutors who adopted the participatory leadership approach prepared the students for high performance on their assessments. Chen (2011) opines that schools would experience rapid improvements in performance if tutors allowed their students to participate in teaching and learning sessions. For example, in 2016, the university achieved ratings over 90% for students' campus satisfaction, graduate employability, and library satisfaction, which may trace back to tutors' willingness to explore student opinions in the process of building a teaching and learning infrastructure.

Transactional Leadership Theory

Transactional leadership theory, also known as authoritarian theory, holds that leaders are mostly concerned with strict supervision of roles and giving directives toward achieving set performance targets without focusing on followers' feelings (Bass, 2008; Hargis, Wyatt & Piotrowski, 2011). Therefore, for this study, transactional leadership theory in higher institutions is when tutors are not committed to helping, supporting, and motivating their students to achieve their academic goals and objectives. According to Cammalleri, Hendrick, Pittman, Blout, and Prather (1973), as cited in Hackman and Johnson (2009), there are several characteristics of transactional leadership theory. One characteristic is

that the leader always dominates discussions when interacting with subordinates. For example, a lecturer speaks for hours without providing students opportunities to think and make contributions. This often makes the teaching and learning boring. Another characteristic of a transactional leader is that he or she does not give or request feedback and punishes staffs for correctible mistakes. For example, a lecturer is unwilling to give students formative feedback on grey areas of assignments or does not provide answers to students' questions during class. Hargis et al. (2011) define *transactional leaders* as persons who use reward and punishment to achieve responses from their subordinates. These leaders are directive in nature, as they do not consider followers' feelings when giving directives. It can be likened to the "carrot-and-stick" approach, which is mostly used in a dictatorial leadership structure like the military. Hackman and Johnson (2009) defines *transactional leaders* as those who concentrate on improving the efficiency of routines and processes rather than making behavioral changes to the way an organization operates.

Directive Leadership

The *directive leadership approach* is one in which a lecturer dictates policies, processes, and objectives to be achieved by compelling and controlling all operational activities and does not welcome the participation of students under his authority (Hackman & Johnson, 2009). This approach is predominantly practiced in developing countries, as tutors who follow this approach are unwilling to give feedback to their students but are always happy to issue instructions without clarity of direction and dominate class sessions without regard to professional teaching and learning standards (Chikoko, Naicker & Mthiyane, 2015).

Student Participation

According to Chapman (2003), *student participation,* or *student involvement,* is defined as students' willingness and ability to take part in routine school and class activities, such as class attendance, submission of class assessments, and adherence to in-class instructions. Chapman thus conceptualizes student participation from an in-class perspective. Fletcher (2005), however, notes that

student participation can also include extracurricular campus activities, which provide strong educational benefits in encouraging students to focus on their curricular studies. Extracurricular activities help them relieve academic stress and mentally prepare them for tasks ahead. Overall, this study adopts Chapman's perspective on student participation. We define student participation from an academic perspective as an act in a process that gets students actively involved in class and module activities. For example, tutors do not do all the talking, but allow students to make contributions by providing alternative ideas or perspectives; ensuring knowledge is shared and developed together. Tutors are also willing to allow their students to think freely and justify the choices they make when contributing an in-class discussion. Ken (2006) describes in-class participation as student participation during teaching and learning by asking and answering questions and brainstorming with fellow students in small groups on a specific task. This study uses this definition because the tutor—as the leader—is responsible for creating a supportive atmosphere in which students are allowed to participate by asking and receiving answers from the lecturer as well as answering questions from the lecturer. The lecturer may also divide the class into smaller groups to answer individual questions and or make a presentation to the class (Gal & Gal, 2014). Ken found that students are at their best when they are allowed to play active roles in the teaching and learning process because it enables them to reflect on their personal experiences while linking it with class learning. It follows that knowledge derived from the use of this approach persists longer in students' memories, leading to further expansion of knowledge (Warhurst, 2006).

This study defines support for module assessment as tutors' willingness to provide timely and constructive formative and summative feedbacks to students' assessments before the submission deadline. This ensures that students are writing in accordance with the tutors' expectations, allowing students to receive good grades the first time, or if necessary, during a module re-test (Gal & Gal, 2014).

Tutors' Leadership Activities and Student Participation in Higher Education

Zarraga-Rodriguez, Jaca, and Viles (2015) examined the impact of higher education tutors' activities on students' academic effectiveness using a multi-

method approach. Their study found that climate of participation, teamwork training, resources and support from tutors, performance feedback, and recognition were all identified as influential factors that supported students' academic effectiveness. This implies that tutors who were engaged in activities leading to the creation of a positive climate for participation, teamwork, support, and feedback influenced student participation. In their quantitative study of higher education tutors in a single Indonesian province, Sukirno and Siengthai (2011) found that tutors' involvement in educational decision making had significant impact on their performance, and that tutors, in turn, were happy to stimulate their students' participation. This study argues that when an institution has a positive leadership attitude (using transformational leadership) toward its tutors, those tutors are more likely to pass on the same attitude of participation to their students.

Zuber-Skerritt and Louw (2014) used an ethnographic qualitative approach to study academic leadership activities and how they help to sustain institutional image in terms of student satisfaction. Their study revealed that tutors' academic leadership activities had a positive impact on student learning outcomes and positively positioned the image of the institution. This implies that when tutors' academic leadership activities are supportive, students get positively involved in academic activities, which leads to positive academic performance and an increased likelihood that students will speak well of the institution. Gal and Gal (2014) investigated the link between students' feedback for tutors and the grades they received after evaluation using a quantitative survey approach with 139 students at an Israeli college. Their study showed that there was a gender distinction between the quality of feedback given and the grades the students received. Specifically, female tutors were more open to constructive and supportive feedback, which resulted in good grades, than male tutors were. This infers that academic leadership practices in higher education institutions as regarding feedback, which supports students' participation, are more likely to be practiced by female tutors than their male counterparts. Furthermore, Arif, Ilyas, and Hameed (2013) examined the impact of tutors' leadership practices on student satisfaction in Pakistani private universities using the quantitative survey

method. Their study found that tutors' authoritarian leadership practices negatively influenced student satisfaction and resulted in a negative word-of-mouth reputation from their students. Their finding suggests that transactional leadership practices by tutors are not supportive of achieving students' expectations after participation.

Richards (2011) explored students' perspectives on the impact of tutors' leadership activities within the Australian higher education sector with an online survey approach. The study showed that students who were committed to participation in their academic activities were mostly influenced by tutors who were accessible and willing to give them formal and informal support. The study also found that students did not see all their tutors as leaders because some were not working in line with the university's student-focused mandate. This finding validates Marshall, Orell, Thomas, Cameron, and Bosanquet (2007), who opine that not all higher education institution tutors are leaders, especially those who are not pedagogically oriented. Consequently, Balwant (2016) examined the impact of transformational instructor leadership in higher education on student outcomes. His findings revealed that transformational instructor-leadership activities had a positive influence on students' satisfaction and ability to participate in class activities. The study also revealed that culture and course delivery patterns moderated the impact of transformational leadership practices on student academic performances. Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, and Warland (2015) examined the influence of leadership in teaching and learning in a single university in the Australian higher education sector using a qualitative strategy. Their study revealed four themes that influenced academic leadership practices on learning outcomes: influence on direction, culture, visibility and audibility, and collaboration. In a study of student experiences with transformational leadership practices at a single South African university, Seabi, Seedat, Khoza-Shangase, and Sullivan (2012) found that teaching quality, academic support, material resources and teacher accessibility all had a positive influence, while workload, limited access to tutors, and learning materials had a negative impact on students' perception of the transformational leadership practices of their tutors.

This implies that tutors who are accessible, provide teaching and learning materials, and deliver high-quality lectures positively influence students toward achieving their academic goals.

Method

The qualitative phenomenological research design was used for this study. This type of research design allows the researcher to explore participants' experiences and opinions through data collection while also interacting with the phenomenon under investigation (Bryman & Bell, 2011). More specifically, the study adopted the focus group interview approach to collecting the data for this study (Bryman, 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2011; Collis & Hussey, 2013; Onwuegbuzie, Jiao & Bostick, 2004; Wali & Wright, 2016). The population for this study was international Nigerian and Chinese students at the case U.K. university, which is located in an urban area of northern England and has over 2,000 international students enrolled in pre-degree to undergraduate and graduate programs. The sample was composed of 15 students drawn from the university's Nigerian and Chinese student societies. Findings from this study are limited and would be generalized within the university under investigation because samples were represented from most faculties of the university (Morse, 1999; Yin, 1994). The non-probability sampling strategy was adopted. Specifically purposive and convenience sampling techniques was used to purposively and conveniently select 15 International students at the case university (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In addition to an age criteria of 18 or above, the participants who were chosen had already received higher education degrees in Nigeria and China before coming to the United Kingdom for further studies and were registered for undergraduate or postgraduate programs with more than one semester of residency at the case university (Bryman, 2012; Tuckett, 2004).

Field Research Practicalities

The study developed a recruitment instrument and used the spontaneous recruitment approach to recruit 20 potential participants from a Nigerian Students' Society meeting and 18 potential participants from a Chinese Students'

Society meeting. Although the study only required 15 participants for two focus groups, additional participants were recruited because studies have suggested that researchers need to over-recruit participants by 20% (Morgan, 1997) or 50% to sufficiently cover issues of no-shows (Bryman, 2012; Wilkinson, 2004). The researchers first sent a general e-mail of appreciation to the 38 potential participants. After an examination of the attributes of those recruited against the established selection criteria, 10 interviewees from Nigeria and 12 interviewees from China were identified as qualified and divided into two groups (Group 1: 10 participants/Group 2: 12 participants) respectively. The researchers then sent a follow-up e-mail to the 22 selected interviewees to inform them that they had been selected and provide a proposed date, time, and venue for a focus group meeting. We received replies of availability from 10 participants in Group 1 and 9 participants in Group 2.

The study conducted two focus groups. The first was for Nigerian students with 7 participants present and 3 invitees absent. The second, held two days later, was for Chinese students with 8 participants present and 4 invitees absent. The sizes of the focus groups were properly constituted because past studies have argued that a typical focus group should consist of 6 to 12 participants (Baumgartner, Strong, & Hensley, 2002; Bernard, 1995; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Langford, Schoenfeld, & Izzo, 2002; Livingston, 2006; Livingston & Bober, 2003; Macnaghten & Jacobs, 1997; Morgan, 1997, 2010; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2004; Wali, Uduma, & Wright, 2016; Wali & Wright, 2016). The 7 absences also validated the need for over-recruitment suggested by Morgan (1997), Wilkinson (2004), and Bryman (2012) to cover the problems of no-shows and left the researchers with the necessary 15 participants for the study. Each of the focus groups began with introductions of the interviewer and interviewees. The interviewer re-emphasized the commitment to data confidentiality and solicited participants' permission to record discussions with an electronic device, which was unanimously given. The questions asked were developed in line with adapted constructs, the study's research objectives, and questions aimed at providing answers to the questions that were certified by two professionals in the field of

study. However, the questions were not set in stone, but instead served as a guide for data collection. The interviewer enlightened participants on the meaning of the theories and constructs under investigation and requested that participants make their contributions in an orderly manner without undue interference on other participants' talking time. Focus Group 1 lasted for 93 minutes, and Focus Group 2 lasted for 84 minutes. This supports previous studies that argue that a focus group of 6 to 12 participants should last between 60 and 110 minutes (Baumgartner et al., 2002; Livingston, 2006; Morgan, 1997; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2004; Vaughn, Shumm, & Sinagub, 1996; Wali & Wright, 2016).

Data Analysis Techniques

The content and thematic template analysis techniques of Braun and Clarke (2006) and Matthews and Ross (2010) were used to analyze the collected data for the study with the aid of the NVivo 11 Pro (2015) software for data management, coding, thematic weighting, and graphical analysis. More specifically, the first process of data analysis began with the transcription of the raw audio data by the researchers. Focus Group 1 took 22 hours and 33 minutes to transcribe, while Focus Group 2 took 21 hours and 5 minutes to transcribe. Second, the researchers read the transcripts to correct errors and to understand the shared perceptions, opinions, and experiences of the participants within the context of the study objectives. Third, the researchers handled the data manually by identifying themes that characterize students' experience of participation within the context of tutors' leadership practices. Finally, the data was imported into the NVivo 11 Pro software for rigorous analysis through a process of creating themes, coding of themes, and weighting of themes.

The thematic analysis process used in this study followed the process of (1) identifying initial themes, (2) reviewing the initial themes through a process of elimination based on thematic limit of acceptance and/or rejection as established by the study, and (3) determining the final themes as suggested (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Wali & Wright, 2016). The presentation of findings and themes, as well as thematic definition, follows the approaches and checklist provided by previous research (Braun & Clarke, 2006; King & Horrocks, 2010; Tong,

Sainsbury, & Craig, 2007; Wali & Wright, 2016). Using the thematic and content analysis techniques with NVivo 11 Pro enables the study to identify clear themes that characterize participants' experiences and provide interpretations and definitions of those themes. With the NVivo software, themes are created and weighted to identify themes that were highly emphasized by participants as having high influences on their experiences of participation. NVivo also helps in the effective management of the study data. However, the possibility of researcher bias is high with this approach as its analysis is subjective. The researchers employed these analytical concepts for the study because they are used in the field of qualitative research (King & Horrocks, 2010).

Results

To analyze the primary data, the researchers used the thematic template analysis technique of Braun and Clarke (2006) and the content analysis technique of Matthews and Ross (2010) with the aid of NVivo 11 Pro (2015) for data management, thematic coding, and weighting. The results are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

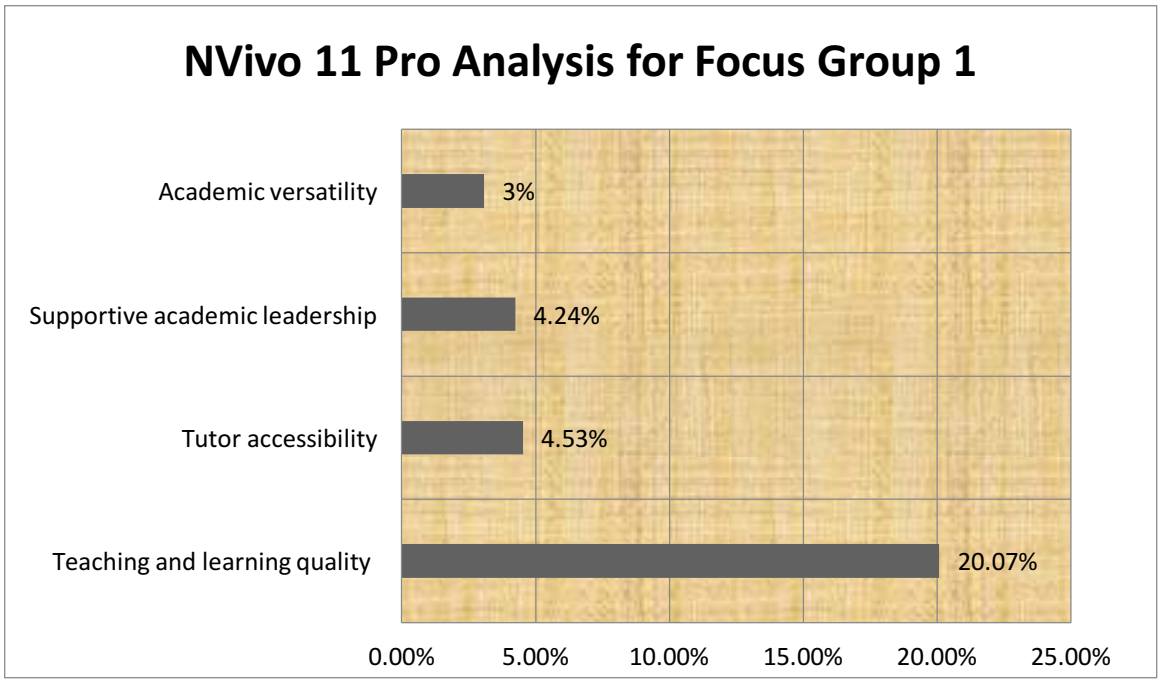

Figure 1. NVivo 11 Pro analysis for Focus Group 1

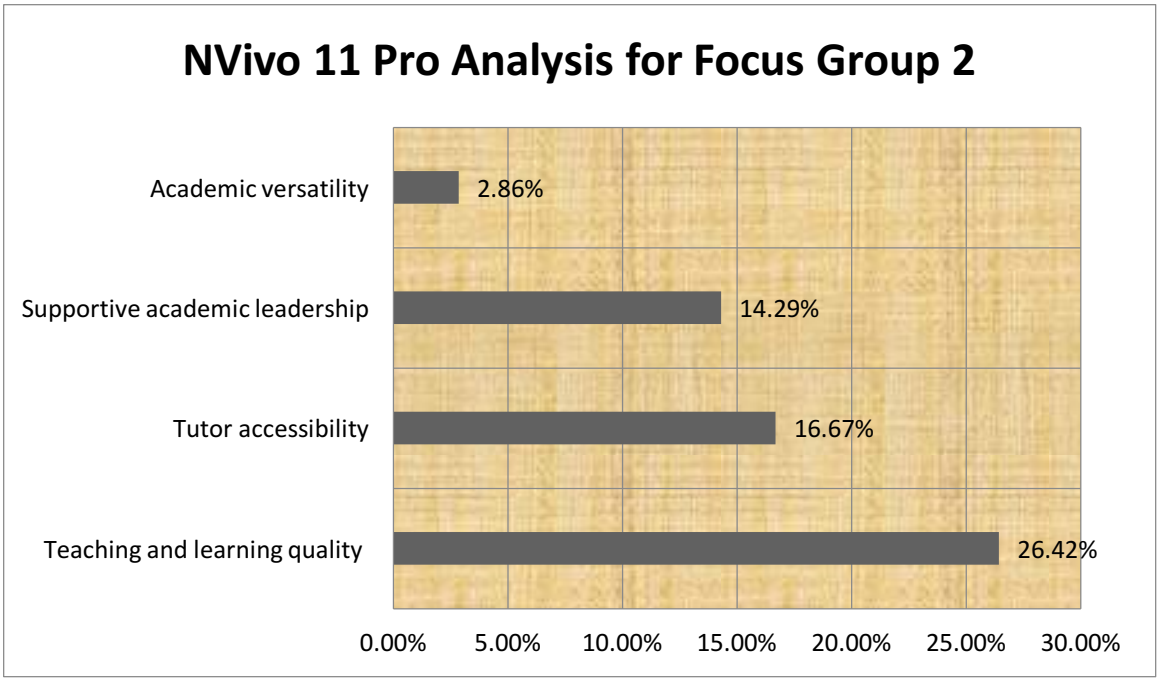

Figure 2. NVivo 11 Pro analysis for Focus Group 2

Emerging Themes and Their Definitions

As the figures show, four overarching themes—teaching and learning quality, tutor accessibility, supportive academic leadership, and academic versatility—summarize students' experiences of participation with respect to their tutors' leadership activities. The presentation of themes and their definitions follows the approaches and checklist suggested by previous research (Braun & Clarke, 2006; King & Horrocks, 2010; Tong et al., 2007; Wali & Wright, 2016).

Teaching and Learning Quality. The teaching and learning quality theme is a keen reflection of participants' experiences with the high standard of teaching and learning approaches of tutors at the case university and their commitment to providing the best teaching and learning equipment, such as a conducive and technology-stocked classroom and library. The theme further holds that tutors' leadership activities at the university support high academic performance; students were passionately taught, and the tutors were trained to be academically independent and creative. The sub-themes under the central teaching and learning quality theme are class management, participatory approach, and supportive learning environment. This theme shows theoretical support for transformational

leadership theory (Burns, 1978) and the meaning of the transformational leadership attribute (Anderson et al., 2001; Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1992; Dahawy & Elmelegy, 2010; Elmelegy, 2015*)*. Teaching and learning quality is linked with supportive academic leadership, academic versatility, and tutor accessibility. Participants in both focus groups highly supported this theme, praising the opportunities and motivation provided by the tutors.

> Here we are given academic freedom, and the way they teach—they give us learning objectives and outcomes, in-class assessments in groups [during] class . . . just to enable us be creative and inquisitive. And [with] all these activities, everybody must be involved . . . no matter where you are seated; you must participate in one thing or the other. (Nigerian participant)

> The way my tutors teach in class motivates me to participate in class. I am a very timid person, but they have developed me and created opportunities for me to ask questions, and they also provide answers. (Chinese participant)

Tutor Accessibility. The tutor accessibility theme relates to participants' experiences with respect to their tutors' openness and accessibility in their academic pursuit, as this practice positively influenced their sense of academic commitment. This theme indicates that the tutors at the university were accessible, available, and supportive of students in terms of helping them improve their academic potential and achieve their academic goals.

> It is the responsibility of the lecturer to assist in bringing them up to participate in class discussions by motivating them [to] be open and accessible to such students. This is what our tutors here do for us, and I am happy. (Nigerian participant)

> They are very accessible, and all we need to do is send an e-mail. . . . Of course, we all know that they are very busy, so you cannot need their attention at 10:00 AM and ask for appointment [at] 9:30 AM. If you give them a few hours [of] notice to discuss an issue, you are very sure that they must create time to meet with you and do their best to sort those issues. (Chinese participant)

The sub-themes under tutor accessibility are student friendly and staff support. This theme shows theoretical support for transformational leadership theory (Anderson et al., 2001; Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990; Dahawy & Elmelegy, 2010; Elmelegy, 2015). The tutor accessibility theme is linked with teaching and learning quality, academic versatility, and supportive academic leadership.

Supportive Academic Leadership. The supportive academic leadership theme deals with aspects of tutors' passionate academic leadership support for their students and shows a positive influence on students' academic commitment. Participants reported that their tutors' supportive practices were a source of mentoring and had shaped their dreams for the better and in pursuit of their future career.

> Just to add, I will say the tutors are supportive leaders, because they sought [to] give me support when it [was] needed, especially for professional advice. Some of them, in my experience, have gone even beyond the classroom boundaries to provide motivational support as well, and it is quite commendable that a lot of tutors here are advised and compelled to follow that approach. (Nigerian participant)

> The essence of leadership is followership, and I think the tutors in this university are nice, because when I came for [my] interview, I saw that the tutors were good listeners. We have tutors from Africa and virtually every [other] continent [is] well represented in it, and the tutors are very nice. So what I am saying, in essence, is that because they are nice, they tend to listen and understand and to help us achieve what we have come here to do. (Chinese participant)

The two sub-themes under supportive academic leadership are academic model and good listening ability and communication. This theme shows theoretical support for transformational theory (Anderson et al., 2001; Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990; Dahawy & Elmelegy, 2010; Elmelegy, 2015). This theme is connected with teaching and learning quality, academic versatility, and tutor accessibility.

Academic versatility. The academic versatility theme refers to participants' commendation for their tutors' academic robustness and knowledgeability. This implies that tutors in the university were versatile both in the academic literature and within the socioeconomic domains of different economic settings, as the university employed tutors from Africa, Asia, Europe, and the Middle East, perhaps because it attracts multinational students.

> They are my leaders based on their knowledge and exposure. Most of my lecturers here [have] years of industry experience. I think the real thing we will learn will be one hour, and during the rest [of the] time, they draw more from their experience because they are so enriched that they draw from everything possible to make sure we understand. (Nigerian participant)

> It was my supervisor who suggested my area of research and that was kind of him because my tutors normally visit Nigeria's [Economic and Financial Crimes Commission] to give them training, so they know the state of corruption in Nigeria. So he told me: 'You are from Nigeria; why don't you write on corruption?' As it is today, my thesis is on corruption. That means they are versatile and knowledgeable in the field. (Nigerian participant)

The sub-theme is knowledge diversity. The academic versatility theme shows support for transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978), and it is connected with teaching and learning quality and supportive academic leadership.

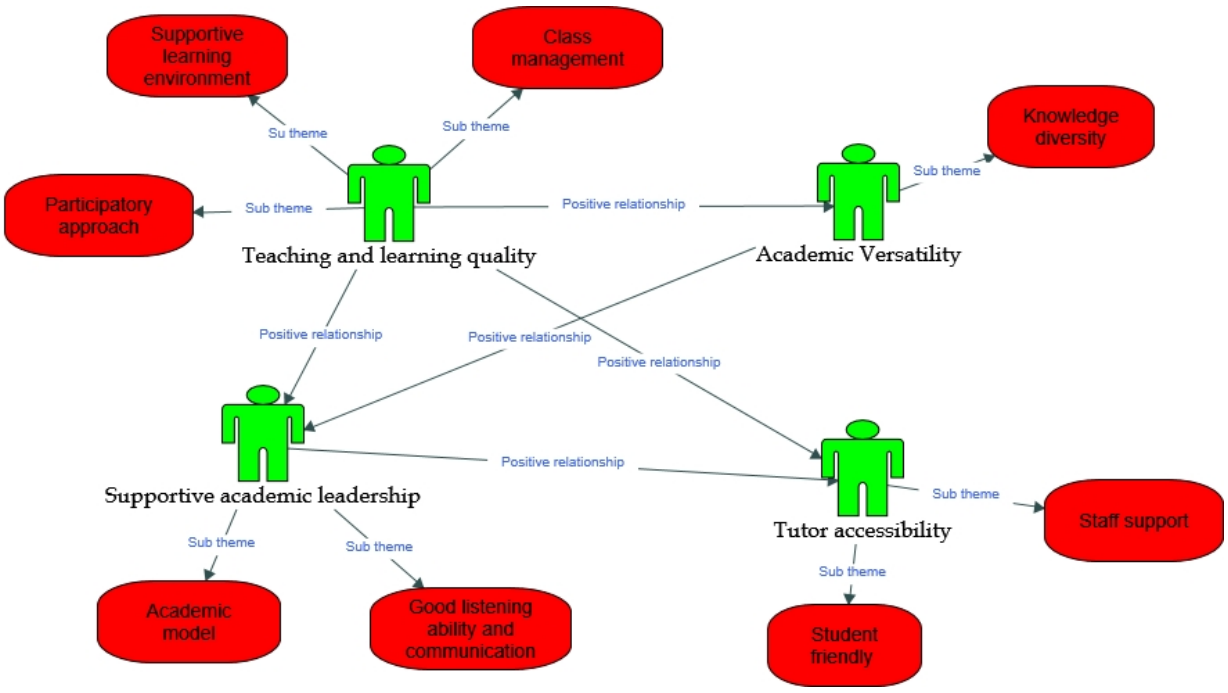

Figure 3. Thematic map showing connections between themes

Figure 3 indicates that the teaching and learning quality theme is a key catalyst and has a positive influence on supportive academic leadership, tutor accessibility, and academic versatility. Teaching and learning quality is the catalyst for other transformational leadership practices due to the university's robust teaching and learning quality framework that is regularly monitored for performance through various mediums. In fact, the university was named a finalist for the 2017 Higher Education Academy Global Teaching Excellence Award for its commitment to teaching quality (HEA, 2017). Supportive academic

leadership has a positive influence on tutor accessibility, while academic versatility influences supportive academic leadership.

Key Findings

The first finding provides an answer to Research Question 1. The study found that tutors' leadership practices at the case university were mostly transformational, as they were mostly supportive of students' aspirations. This finding is connected with the study's emerging theme of supportive academic leadership.

The second finding, which provides an answer to Research Question 2, is that supportive leadership practices at the case university have positively affected and motivated students to participate in-class sessions. Students with lower self-esteem gained confidence in themselves, thereby leading to their ability to ask and answer questions during small group sessions in-class. This finding is connected with the study's emerging themes of supportive academic leadership, teaching and learning quality, and academic versatility.

The third finding of the study was that tutors' leadership practices had a positive influence on participants' ability to submit their module assessments on time, which led to higher grades. Participants' ability to submit their module assessments on time and high grades were possible because their tutors were available and accessible at all times to provide them with formal and informal formative feedback. However, while participants agreed that their tutors do provide them with summative feedback, none of them had to re-take an exam in any module. This finding is linked with all four of the study's emerging themes: tutor accessibility, academic versatility, teaching and learning quality, and supportive academic leadership. To answer Research Question 3, the study found that several of the tutors' leadership practices supported students' ability to participate academically. Those practices included the following:

- Tutors knew their students' names and used their names when they wanted to ask questions.

- When dividing students into groups in class sessions, tutors tactically mixed academically strong and weak students to enable an exchange of different ideas and support for one another.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study examined the influence of tutors' leadership practices on students' experiences of participation at a single U.K. university and asked four research questions. The study revealed that tutors' leadership practices were mostly transformational and supportive and were linked under the supportive academic leadership theme (Richards, 2011). This finding supports previous studies that reported that universities with a transformational approach to teaching are empowered to influence and satisfy their students toward high academic performance (Arif et al., 2013; Gal & Gal, 2014; Richards, 2011; Sukirno & Siengthai, 2011; Zarraga-Rodriguez et al., 2015; Zuber-Skerritt & Louw, 2014). Second, the supportive academic leadership theme supports previous research that found that tutors were perceived as academic leaders by their students (Marshall et al., 2007). This finding implies that transformational leadership practices were in use by tutors at the subject university, as they were always willing to support students, both academically and morally. This may be due to the university's aspiration of being rated among the top-five higher education institutions in the United Kingdom and its current population of an overwhelming number of international students from across Africa, Asia, Europe, and the Americas. This argument thus places a great responsibility on the institution to be transformational in order to meet its long-term aspirations. Furthermore, findings showed that the prevalent transformational leadership practices had positively affected students' ability to participate in class sessions, as students with lower self-esteem began to have confidence in themselves, thereby leading to their ability to ask questions and answer questions as well as work in small groups during class (Ho & Chen, 2009; Nguyen & Ng, 2014). This finding is connected with three of the overarching emerging themes of this study: supportive academic leadership, in terms of academic modeling and having good listening and

communication skills; teaching and learning quality, in terms of class management, a participatory approach to teaching, and a supportive learning environment; and academic versatility, in terms of the tutors' diverse knowledge. This finding infers that the tutors' leadership practices in terms of teaching and learning quality and demonstration of academic leadership have helped transform and improve students' socio-academic abilities, which is an expected function of a good academic leader (Balwant, 2016; Dahawy & Elmelegy, 2010; Elmelegy, 2015; Hofmeyer et al., 2015; Seabi et al., 2012; Warhurst, 2006).

Additionally, the use of the participatory teaching and learning approach, the practice of academic leadership, and the academic versatility of tutors all contributed to the university's recognition as one of the top-20 U.K. universities based on students' satisfaction, graduate employability, and satisfactory library services by the UK Times Award (Times Higher Education, 2015). This finding is significant because it is a priority expectation of international students to be transformed and empowered to become quality personalities after graduation in terms of academic robustness and economically independent. This reflects participants' experiences with the knowledge and support provided by the system. More so, finding revealed that tutors' involvement of students in class sessions-such as in question-and-answer sessions or by sharing contributions-empowered students to become academically curious and inquisitive, which improving students' ability to submit their module assessment on time and improved their grades. This is also a result of tutors' availability and accessibility, in addition to their provision of formal and informal formative feedback (Boser, 2010; Mulcahy & Perillo, 2011; Seale, 2010; Vroom, 2003). That provision of module feedback improved students' capability to work independently and helped them achieve high module grades (Cahill et al., 2014; Chen, 2011; Harrington et al., 2015; Kaplan et al., 2011; Zepke & Leach, 2010; Zhang et al., 2016). This suggests that tutors who do not encourage students to participate in class sessions negatively influence students' commitment, as their levels of confidence in the module would be low, this possibly resulting in low grades (Chikoko et al., 2015). Also, tutors who knew their students and addressed them by their first

names motivated them to participate in-class sessions and were seen as accessible, available, and supportive (Boser, 2010; Chapman, 2003; Harrington et al., 2015; Ken, 2006). This implies that student personalization is a critical teaching and learning pedagogy for use in attracting students' attention in class sessions and increasing commitment to their studies.

This study makes theoretical contributions based on its findings as it validates the transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978). This is because the study demonstrates that the successes achieved with respect to tutors and students' performances at the case university are a function of its transformational teaching and learning practices. Second, the study's four key emerging themes-teaching and learning quality, supportive academic leadership, academic versatility, and tutor accessibility—all support the relevance of transformational leadership theory and make critical improvements to the existing theoretical models for evaluating tutors' leadership and academic practices within the single university. In terms of originality, this study is the first to propound the transformational teaching and learning framework comprised of those four major themes. The aim of this study was to explore the influences of tutors' academic leadership activities on Nigerian and Chinese students' experiences of participation at a single U.K. university, and this has been realized. Three research questions were developed to provide specific answers to meet that purpose. Therefore, based on available findings, the study concludes that tutors' academic leadership activities were transformational and supportive, which is associated with the identified theme of supportive academic leadership. Also, the transformational and supportive leadership practices of tutors at the university showed positive influence on Nigerian and Chinese students' experiences and motivated them to participate in-class sessions. This is because some students who suffered from lower self-esteem began to have more confidence, leading to their increased ability to ask and answer questions as well as work with others in small groups during class (Warhurst, 2006). This conclusion is linked with all four key themes: teaching and learning quality, supportive academic leadership, academic versatility, and tutor accessibility. In additional, transformational

leadership practices had a positive influence on participants' ability to submit their module assessments on time, which led to the achievement of higher grades (Mulcahy & Perillo, 2011). Those achievements were possible because the tutors at the university were supportive, available, and accessible at all times to provide them with formal and informal formative feedback (Zhang et al., 2016).

The study also revealed that four key themes characterize tutors' leadership practices and have a positive impact on students' experiences of participation: teaching and learning quality, supportive academic leadership, academic versatility, and tutor accessibility. Therefore, the researchers conclude that in the university's quest to continually improve international students' experiences of participation in academic activities, it should focus on exploring the potential in the four key themes, as they showed a strong influence on students' experiences.

Recommendations

Our recommendations are based on this study's thematic findings. First, we recommend stronger commitment on these areas of strength—teaching and learning quality, supportive academic leadership, academic versatility, and tutor accessibility—by continuously monitoring and evaluating performances arising from these areas. With strict improvement, the university will be better positioned to achieve its long-term goals of being listed among the top-five top universities in the United Kingdom by 2025. Second, we recommend that the university continue to emphasize the need for tutors to adopt transformational leadership practices in view of the diversity of their market. This study was limited to a single university in the United Kingdom, and samples were restricted to international Nigerian and Chinese students, which makes it difficult to generalize its findings across universities. Considering the limitation of the scope of this, researchers should consider a comparative multi-case study of four to six universities in four regions in the United Kingdom, using the constructs from this study to examine tutors' academic leadership practices and their influence on international students' experiences of participation.

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Like Father, Like Daughter: Dysfunctional Generational Transition*

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Succession in a business requires careful planning, and it presents one of the most difficult challenges in a family business. The next generation is sometimes thrust into leadership without knowing how to run or grow a company or having learned from a parent's mistakes. This article presents a case study of a failed generational transition within a small family business in Eastern Europe. In the case study, the business, which was already in decline, was given to an inexperienced daughter with no invested employees to help her improve and grow the experience. Lessons learned from this failed generational transition validate previous research findings that generational transitions within family businesses present similar types of problems around the world.

Key words: family business, generational transition, succession

Among the most difficult challenges a family business faces is the succession of its founder. In their haste for continuity, some founders may prematurely promote their children before they are ready or place them in "positions of influence without notice or lengthy apprenticeship" (Lansberg, 2007, 96). As part of this transition process, usually from one generation to another, there is often an underlying assumption and hope that the younger successor will reinvigorate the family business through superior strategic and innovative insights since she or he may be more technologically adept, lead the business in new ways, or simply bring a "breath of fresh air" to the position.

Over time, the family business should become a learning organization (see Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008): one that has benefitted from the founder's mistakes and successes based on trial and error. As a result, the family business led by the second generation should improve and grow, create added value, be financially solvent, and remain competitive in the marketplace (McEnany & Strutton, 2015). However, many family businesses fail to capitalize on the unique

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opportunities of a generational transition, and the new generation struggles and continues to apply the same approaches embraced by the founder (Stalk & Foley, 2012).

The single case study that follows illustrates a failed family generational transition that occurred in one Eastern European family business. While we acknowledge that a single case is not generalizable to a larger audience, we believe that the transfer of leadership in this case results in dysfunctional behaviors that are exhibited similarly by younger successors across cultures.

A Case of Failed Generational Transition*

The organization profiled in this case is a 20-year-old small family business founded in 1995 by an Eastern European entrepreneurial businessman to provide consulting services to emerging businesses capitalizing on the post-1991 dissolution of the Soviet Union. The founder managed the firm in the typical command-and-control style of his generation—popularized by the Soviet Union central government and adopted by its satellite countries—wherein the centralized leader makes all business decisions. He was known for his autocratic decision-making style, his “two-minute” meetings and terse one-line e-mails. The founder viewed communication as an impediment to organizational control and only met with employees, briefly, when he and the organization were responding to a serious management crisis.

In addition to the founder, the family business was supported by three non-family senior executives who had each worked for approximately 10 years in the business. However, there was high staff turnover at the lower employee level. Over time, the three senior executives left the business as the founder failed to reinvest in the company for continued growth. He diverted revenues into his personal accounts since his intention was “to make as much money as he could” from what he called his “cash cow.” Executive and staff replacements were not always made in the best interest of the business. The founder’s management philosophy was to replace departing executives and staff with less qualified ones. In order to attract them to the family business, he was willing to give them fancy

titles, but paid them little and forbid them to make any financial decisions for their areas of "responsibility"; only he had access to the budget. He insisted that employees address him with "Mr." and wanted to retain his distance from them.

As might be expected from such a management approach, the family business eventually began to slip into a second-rate operation. Clients were given short shrift. External consultants were either not paid or paid beyond contractual payment dates. The founder tried to conserve money, stretch it to cover other operating costs, and removed funds for personal gain.

In 2013, as the business was losing revenue and market share, the 75-year-old founder was experiencing some serious health problems. He reduced his workload to a few hours a day and appointed his 24-year old daughter, a recent university graduate with no work experience, to the role of managing director (MD). He took a ceremonial post as board chairperson.

The transition began smoothly enough via an e-mail informing all stakeholders that his daughter would be replacing him. The young MD began her tenure by holding some initial fact-finding meetings with staff, but soon grew weary of what she described as "all this management stuff," and these meetings ended with no follow-up communication, just a few minor organizational changes. Unsure of herself and with no work experience to guide her, the new MD began relying on one or two millennial staff for strategic direction, deferring all decision making to them. She arrived at the office at 10:00 AM, closed her door, took a two-hour lunch break, and left the office at 4:30 PM. She did not follow up with urgent requests from clients or external consultants and resorted to a laissez-faire approach to operating the business.

Like her father, she focused on finances, and she managed the family business in a dysfunctional way. Therefore, the family business continued to hemorrhage money. Clients' services dwindled considerably. Some consultants who had not been paid in nearly two years accepted their losses and left. Several of the unpaid consultants sent out an e-mail blast about the family business. That, coupled with the loss of clients, resulted in a 65% annual business revenue

decline by the end of the last business quarter of 2014. Most competitors projected the family business would collapse within the next six months.

Lessons Learned

Three significant lessons can be learned from this case to benefit both family business owners and their succeeding children. These lessons validate previous research findings that generational transitions within family businesses present similar types of problems around the world.

First, unlike the founder in our case, the founding parent must give careful consideration prior to initiating the leadership transition process. Business reins must be handed over only to a family member who has proven himself or herself to be a knowledgeable, worthy successor. On-the-job learning is not a viable option today, as the stakes are too high and failure is always one step away. Therefore, formal (or even informal) planning procedures should be instituted prior to any transition from one generation to another.

Second, similar to the family successor in our case, graduation from a university does not necessarily ensure that the successor is able to manage a family business effectively, especially one in crisis. We would recommend that other founders in the same situation look to our case for guidance and require that the hand-picked successor spend a significant amount of time learning the business, its management team and its employees, and the nuances of the business that make it unique.

Third, effective transition requires a learning and development approach and an organizational culture of leadership to ensure all stakeholders are engaged and committed to the process (Kur & Bunning, 2002). In our case, the young untested successor was unable to solicit help from the senior management and experienced employees as there was a disconnect between the old guard and the new guard, resulting in the creation of a dysfunctional organization.

Conclusion

Our case on an Eastern European family business confirms other research in Western countries that found that generational transition is a universal challenge regardless of geography or cultures (Lank et al., 1994). Organizational size was not an issue either for or against the management practices employed by the successor profiled in our case.

In closing, the successor in our case did not meet the test of leadership, but unfortunately, simply practiced an antiquated dysfunctional management approach. A more seasoned approach could possibly have rejuvenated this family business and improved its overall financial performance and organizational effectiveness.

**Note: This is an actual case. Some details of the case have been modified to preserve the confidentiality and anonymity of the family members and the business itself. It was prepared for possible discussion rather than to illustrate either effective or ineffective handling of an administrative situation.*

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