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Ethical behavior, Leadership, and Decision Making

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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Emmett Emery

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and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

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Walden University
2015

Abstract

Ethical Behavior, Leadership, and Decision Making

by

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MBA, Strayer University, 1994

BS, Western Illinois University, 1987

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

December 2015

Abstract

Ethical principles applied in organizations can broaden individual and corporate priorities beyond profit and shareholder enrichment. Ethical factors may influence leaders to make sound decisions to protect the organization from unethical behavior. The purpose of this study was to examine if a correlation exists between the independent variables of leadership and decision making, and the dependent variable of ethical behavior.

Drucker's theory of management served as the theoretical framework. Data collection involved 2 survey instruments, the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire and the Moral Potency Questionnaire from 98 participants from retail businesses in the southwestern United States. The model as a whole was able to significantly predict ethical behavior ($F(2, 95) = 12.79, p < .01, R^2 = .21$). However, none of the individual predictors was significant. The existence of multicollinearity between the 2-predictor variables offers a plausible explanation for this phenomenon. Therefore, these results should be viewed with caution. Implications for positive social change include examining behaviors and leadership capabilities in individuals, communities, organizations, and institutions. The findings may contribute to social change by providing leaders with information to improve strategies when making decisions involving ethical behavior in the workplace.

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Dedication

I would like to thank God for keeping His hands upon me and giving me the strength to complete my dissertation. Special thanks go to my wife Angela who has been my rock and support from the very beginning. I love you, sweetheart!

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I would like to thank my committee chairperson Dr. Janet Booker, who provided valuable insights into the research topic and content. I would also like to thank my committee member, Dr. Brodie Johnson, for providing continued constructive criticism of my work and helping me to see my path clearly, and Dr. Matthew Knight, for giving me methodological direction.

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Section 1: Foundation of This Study

The focus of this study was the following research question: Does retail business leaders understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. Organizational leaders have a responsibility to uphold the highest standards of ethical conduct (Li & Madsen, 2011). Upholding the highest standards of ethical conduct involves relating ethical behavior to a leader's ability to make sound decisions (Li & Madsen, 2011).

Background of the Problem

Ethical behavior is a reflection process and a communal exercise that concerns the moral behavior of an individual based on an established and expressed standard of individual values (Bishop, 2013). Ethical behavior may enable workers to feel an alignment between their personal value and the values of the business. The feeling makes workplace ethics an integral part of fostering increased productivity and teamwork among employees (Suhonen, Stolt, Virtanen, & Leino-Kilpi, 2011). Ethical behavioral guidelines in the workplace often include placing a high level of importance on dedication and the belief that all organizational leaders specify what acceptable behavior is and what it is not when hiring employees (Yammarino, Mumford, Serban, & Shirreffs, 2013).

In fall 2013, leaders at JP Morgan Chase made the largest corporate settlement in U.S. history when they paid the federal government \$13 billion. The leaders acknowledged that bank personnel had made misrepresentations to the public about numerous residential mortgage-backed securities. The unethical behavior at JP Morgan

Chase led to a damaged reputation. Management's acceptance of unethical behavior affects employee morale (Kaptein, 2011).

Problem Statement

A focus on short-term profit as an exclusive measure of retail business success has eroded trust and opened the door for unethical behavior (Lin-Hi & Blumberg, 2012). Leaders in 41% of U.S. organizations do not view unethical behavior as a risk to their business (Ethics Resource Center, 2012). The general business problem was that unethical behavior affects a leader's ability to make decisions (McCormick, 2011). The specific business problem is that some retail business leaders do not understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to examine why some retail business leaders do not understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. The independent variables were leadership and decision making. The dependent variable was ethical behavior. The targeted population was retail leaders in various companies in the southwestern United States. The implications for positive social change from the results of this study may include encouraging future research on decision making and promoting a better understanding of the relationship between organizational leaders and ethical behavior.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative methodology was the method for this study. Researchers conduct quantitative studies to explain phenomena by collecting numerical data using

mathematically based methods (Christ, 2013). The quantitative method was appropriate for this study because the objective of the study was to analyze numerical data and apply the result to a large population. The qualitative method includes an emphasis on quality entities, processes, intensity, frequency, and meanings that cannot be experimentally examined or measured in terms of quality (Roulston, 2011). The qualitative approach was not appropriate for this study.

The correlation design was suitable for this study. Correlation research involves establishing a relationship or association between two or more variables that do not readily lend themselves to experimental manipulation (Hur, Sullivan, Callaghan, Pop-Busui, & Feldman, 2013). The correlation design was appropriate for this study because the aim of this study was to predict the relationship between a set of predictor variables (leadership and decision making) and a dependent variable (ethical behavior).

Research Questions

This quantitative correlational study involved asking the following research question: Do retail business leaders understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior?

Hypothesis

H_{10} : There is no relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

H_{1a} : There is statistically significant relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Theoretical Framework

The theory underlying this research was Drucker's (1960) theory of management. Leaders need a systematic analysis approach as part of their plan to determine how to make sound decisions regarding unethical behavior (Drucker, 1960). Sound decision making defines the scope of the leader's responsibility, which makes leaders accountable for determining what they must appraise and judge to protect the organization from unethical behavior (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). The theory of management involves two ethical assumptions regarding leadership and decision making. The first ethical assumption is that establishing priorities with a concentration on major areas will produce outstanding results. The second ethical assumption is that making effective decisions will positively affect the workplace (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

A constant focus on the human impact of management decisions does not always appeal to executives, but they notice how it helps foresee many major trends in business (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). The theory of management was applicable to this study because the theory complements the independent variables leadership and decision making measured by the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). The theory also complements the dependent variable ethical behavior measured by the Moral Potency Questionnaire (MCQ). Decision making, and ethical behavior served as a foundation for an examination of various factors that may explain the correlation between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Operational Definitions

Decision making: Decision making is the act of deciding on a position, option, or judgment after much consideration (Polasky, Carpenter, Folke, & Keeler, 2011).

Ethics: Ethics enable workers to feel a strong alignment between their values and those of the business (Sunhonen et al., 2011).

Ethical behavior: Ethical behavior is acting in ways consistent with what society and individuals typically think are good values (Suhonen et al., 2011).

Leadership: Leadership is the process in the context of a shared group membership in which Leadership effectiveness is contingent on followers' effectiveness (Van Knippenberg, 2011).

Unethical behavior: Unethical behavior is an action that falls outside of what an individual considers morally right or proper for a person (Chen & Lewis, 2010).

Workplace ethics: Workplace ethics is an integral part of increasing productivity and teamwork among employees (Beale & Hoel, 2011).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

The assumptions, limitations, and delimitations in this study serve as a way to clarify the connection between leaders, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Assumptions are postulates. Limitations are factors that are not under a researcher's control. Delimitations are factors that are under a researcher's control (Klem et al., 2014; Meivert & Klevenparr, 2014; Nkwake, 2013). The results in this study had the potential to show that no relationship exists between leadership, decision making, and ethical

behavior, or that a relationship does exist between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Assumptions

Assumptions are beliefs, belief systems, or a theoretical paradigm that lead to the acceptance of cause-and-effect relationships (Nkwake, 2013). The assumptions in this study were that the foundation of this study was sound, the variables were measurable, the instrument was a valid and reliable instrument to measure the variables, and the methodology was appropriate to the problem and the purpose of the study (Nkwake, 2013). Additional assumptions were that the participants would respond honestly to all instruments and be cognizant of their decision making practices. Results are generalizable beyond the scope of this study, and are meaningful (Nkwake, 2013).

Limitations

Limitations in this study were those characteristics of the design and methodology that affected the application and interpretation of the results (Klem et al., 2014).

Limitations are constraints on generalizability, the utility of findings, and the method used to establish internal and external validity. Possible methodological limitations were sample size, lack of available or reliable data, lack of prior research studies on the topic, the measure used to collect the data, and the use of self-reported data.

The four limitations in this research study could have resulted in weaknesses that might have prevented the completion of the study (Klem et al., 2014). The limitations related to having access to leaders who would participate in the study, choosing a topic that would not require an excessive amount of time to complete the literature review,

applying the methodology, and gathering and interpreting the results. Other limitations were trying not to have bias when communicating with individuals in retail business, which is the field in which I work, and needing an interpreter when presenting the survey to Spanish-speaking participants. Having limited empirical research information was one of the largest limitations in this research process (Klem et al., 2014).

Delimitations

Delimitations are conscious exclusionary and inclusionary decisions that I used to define the boundaries of this study (Meivert & Klevenparr, 2014). This quantitative research study had several delimitations. The participants were managers who worked in the southwestern United States. Demographics were the focus, and I excluded individuals who worked outside the southwestern United States from this study. The participants had the option to respond or not respond to questions about their experiences. The expected return rate of the questionnaires was in question. Measurement of self-efficacy took place on a scale of an instrument chosen specifically for this study. I used only the chosen instrument.

Significance of the Study

The importance of this research study was its potential to extend or contribute to the existing knowledge of a leader's ability to make sound decisions in an ethical or unethical environment. This study may be important to business leaders because there is a wide range of important perspectives on having ethical behavior in the business workplace. Workplace ethics contributes to ethical values such as service, honesty,

respect, integrity, justice, accountability, trustworthiness, cooperation, intuition, and quality (DiGrande, Neria, Brackbill, Pulliam, & Galea, 2011).

This study contributes to the efficient practice of business by addressing the viewpoint of leaders who make decisions involving unethical behavior. Leaders could address unethical behaviors in a way that enhances morale and boosts loyalty, which could lead to increased productivity and profitability (DiGrande et al., 2011). Results of this study may contribute to positive social change through the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative correlation study was to examine the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. The literature review includes a variety of educational resources from Walden University library databases, including ProQuest, EBSCOhost, PsycARTICLES, LexisNexis, PsycINFO, and ScienceDirect. Publication of the reviewed websites, books, and journals primarily occurred between 2011 and 2014. The literature review includes a minimum of 60 peer-reviewed sources, and 85% of the total sources have a publication date less than 5 years from the anticipated completion date for the study.

The study involved examining whether some retail business leaders do or do not understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

*H*₁₀: There is no relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

H1_a: There is statistically significant relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Management is an important endeavor according to Drucker (1960); however, Drucker did not focus on leadership throughout most of his career. Drucker's view of leadership was not particularly positive because he believed that effective management, not leadership, was the key to success. By the end of his life, Drucker acknowledged that leadership was important (Li & Madsen, 2011).

Six different leadership relate to Drucker's (1960) leadership philosophy.

Coercive leadership demands immediate compliance, *authoritative leadership* mobilizes people toward a vision, and *affiliative leadership* creates harmony and builds emotional bonds. *Democratic leadership* forges consensus through participation, *pacesetting leadership* sets a high standard of performance, and the final leadership *coaching leadership* that develops people for the future.

The philosophy of management presented by Drucker relates to participatory leadership, in which managers tend to believe that people are self-motivated to perform work that is satisfying to them (Baker & Comer, 2011). Participative leadership involves making sound decisions, sharing information with employees, and involving employees in the decision making process. Leaders with a participative style encourage employees to run their departments and make decisions regarding policies and processes. Employee encouragement promotes care for poor morale and low productivity. Drucker noted that employee encouragement is not appropriate for every organization and at every level. This research study involved assessing the strength of the relationship between

leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. According to Drucker, businesses have a responsibility to every employee (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). The emphasis on the results of managerial actions rather than on the supervision of activities was a major factor behind the choice of Drucker's theory of management for this study.

Leadership

Leadership determines the situation, the need, and the personality of a leader's employees and the culture of the organization (Drucker, 1960). Leadership is important, and the leader's job is to create the desired future for a company or organization (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Leaders need to develop intimate involvement with the strategic directions of their company (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Leaders examine the role of organizational learning capabilities in an effort to examine the links between the gaps that exist in terms of exploring factors that involve the future of the company (Deshpande, 2012; Li & Robertson, 2011).

Effective strategic leadership practices could help business leaders enhance performance while competing in turbulent and unpredictable environments (Harolds, 2011). A leader's job is to create the desired future for the organization. Character and ethical behavior are of central importance for leadership. In addition, leaders should participate in determining strategic direction (Harolds, 2011).

The goal for leaders is to strive to achieve a competitive advantage based on a derived theoretical framework and propositions (Deshpande, 2012). Drucker's assumption and belief are assumptions about an organizational environment that defined what organizational leaders consider meaningful results (Deshpande, 2012). Assumptions

about care competencies defined where an organization must excel to maintain effective leadership (Harolds, 2011).

Businesses and the leaders who manage them have a purpose that transcends the individual ethics of the capitalist ideology, which are self-interest and profit maximization (Peters & Reveley, 2014). The general workplace setting can be a learning environment (Van der Zwet, Zwietering, Teunissen, van der Vieuten, & Scherpbier, 2011). A business leader connects learning with ethical behavior (Van der Zwet et al., 2011).

The influence that organizational commitment may have on leaders is enhanced from unethical behavior climates (Vandenberghe, 2011). Organizational commitment affects employees' job performance, citizenship behavior, retention, and emotional well-being (Vandenberghe, 2011). The most effective way to measure climate is to measure the determinants of climate in the workplace (Gloede, Hammer, Ommen, Ernstmann, & Pfaff, 2013). Determinants of climate in the workplace include areas such as communication, social capital, trustworthiness, management decisions, and implementation of effective workplace management (Gloede et al., 2013).

Whenever organizations get into trouble, especially if they have been successful for many years, people blame sluggishness, complacency, arrogance, and mammoth bureaucracies (Rahimi, 2011). Drucker indicated that it was no longer only business ethicists who were calling for a return to virtue, character, and integrity; instead it was the American public (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). The manifest callousness of leadership,

decision making, and ethical behavior that is prevalent in the business milieu is similar to the business practices that enabled the generation of the Rockefellers (Rahimi, 2011).

The outcome of the Rockefellers generation is that business leader's focus on managing the bottom line and have lost a sense of responsibility for the well-being of the employee and society in general. Losing perspective often results in poor judgment and imprudent decision making (Rahimi, 2011). The most important factor mentioned by Drucker that determines whether a leader will be effective is integrity of character (Peters & Reveley, 2014).

Organizational politics plays an important part in the leadership integrity of character (Welch, 2012). Rising above organizational politics requires redefining success and progress to advance the view that many workers choose to have in highly political workplaces (Welch, 2012). Leaders in such workplaces draw out the differences between workplace ethics and workplace politics (Welch, 2012). The difference between workplace ethics and workplace politics is that workplace ethics adds value to a business's bottom line, whereas workplace politics does not (Dane, 2011).

Leaders following a business leadership model should consider building quality initiatives, efficiencies, and maximum use of employee strengths into day-to-day operations (Drucker, 1960). Financial and nonfinancial job characteristics play a part in the leadership integrity of character, which is where Drucker referred to three dominant theoretical frameworks (Geary & Trif, 2011). The results of three dominant theoretical frameworks categorize partnership as using both quantitative and qualitative case studies. When using quantitative and qualitative case studies in a business workplace the results

showed that mutual gains are pessimistic and constrains are mutuality perspective (Helliwell & Huang, 2011).

Stress has a part in the integrity and character of leadership. An example would be the conceptual and empirical study that was conducted on a targeted economy during a downward spiral. The downward spiral caused declining consumer confidence, rising unemployment, lack of access to affordable health care, and a crisis in the financial industry (Raqahin & Nirjar, 2012). Character and ethical behavior are of central importance for leadership (Drucker, 1960). Followers might forgive a leader for mistakes but will not forgive a leader for lack of integrity (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Leaders must strive to balance diverse and the often-contradictory demands of various public programs organized by the business community (Rahimi, 2011).

Communication should be a focus point in the workplace (Welch, 2012). Communication, as described by Drucker (1960), is an important part of leadership. As noted by Drucker, communication involves making sense to each other (Harolds, 2011). Communication between leaders and employees is not effective unless communication between leadership and management is positive (Sutherland, 2013). Leadership and management must go hand in hand; workers need their managers not just to assign tasks but also to define the purpose of their work (Drucker, 1960). Leaders must organize workers not just to maximize efficiency but also to nurture skills, develop talent, and inspire results (Peters & Reveley, 2014).

A discussion of six leadership ensued in Baker and Comer's (2011) study. A pacesetter leader expects and models excellence and self-direction. The pacesetter style

works best when the team is already motivated and skilled and the leader needs quick results. An *authoritative leader* mobilizes a team toward a common vision and focuses on end goals, leaving the means up to others. The *affiliative leader* works to create emotional bonds that bring a feeling of bonding and belonging to the organization. The *coaching leader* develops people for the future. The *coercive leader* demands immediate compliance. Finally, the *democratic leader* builds consensus through participation (Baker & Comer, 2011).

Focusing on communication logic, others have identified four basic leadership's styles (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). The first basic leadership *autocratic leadership*; is seldom effective in the workplace over a short period (Sahin, 2012). An autocratic style can be more effective when mixed and complemented with another leadership, there are both advantages and disadvantages to this style of leadership (Sahin, 2012). The advantages of *autocratic leadership* are that it drives rapid results, and it is effective when nobody else knows what to do (Sahin, 2012). The disadvantages of *autocratic leadership* are that leaders using this style do not build teams and do not communicate well (Sahin, 2012).

The second leadership is *democratic leadership*, which is the acceptable side of management, because every employee is given the opportunity to express their opinions and discussions is relatively free flow (Sahin, 2012). Training courses in effective management skills tend to promote many of the qualities of *democratic leadership* because it helps nurture talent, promote honesty, and develop teams over the longer term (Sahin, 2012). The advantages of *democratic leadership* are that it is usually a good fit

with business, is useful in solving complex problems, is good in creative environments, and builds strong teams. The disadvantages of *democratic leadership* are that it is time consuming, can appear indecisive, and can become apologetic (Sahin, 2012).

The third leadership is *bureaucratic leadership* (Sung & Choi, 2012). Even though many Americans dislike bureaucracy, the organizational model prevails. Most Americans either work in bureaucratic settings or cope with them in schools, hospitals, the government, and so forth (Sung & Choi, 2012). The advantages of *bureaucratic leadership* are that it discourages favoritism and has a positive effect on employees. The disadvantage of bureaucratic leadership is that it is democratic, and blind adherence to rules may inhibit the exact action necessary to achieve organizational goals (Sung & Choi, 2012).

The final leadership is *laissez-faire leadership*. Laissez-faire, also known as *delegating leadership*, involves hands-off leadership and allows group members to make decisions (Sung & Choi, 2012). The advantage of *laissez-faire leadership* is that it can be effective in situations in which group members are highly skilled, motivated, and capable of working on their own. The disadvantage of *laissez-faire* is that it is not ideal in situations where group members lack the knowledge or experience they need to complete tasks and make decisions (Sung & Choi, 2012).

The difference between Drucker (1960) and McGregor's (1960) viewpoint on leadership is that McGregor focus on four basic themes of communication logic. McGregor noted that employees need a push or reward to get work done (Harold, 2011).

A relationship exists in situation of democratic management that involves an entire company from the president to the sales representative (Harold, 2011).

Managers' basic beliefs have a strong influence on the way that organizations function. Managers' assumptions about the behavior of people are central to their beliefs (Drucker, 1960). Drucker described McGregor's belief that the average human being has (a) an inherent dislike of work, (b) seeks to avoid it if possible, and (c) would encourage people to dislike work. Leaders may coerce, control, direct, and threaten employees with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives (Harolds, 2011). External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means of bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with achievement (Harolds, 2011).

The conventional approach to managing leadership has three major propositions: (a) the interest of economic ends such as full employment or economic growth and prosperity, (b) managing materials such as the complete cycle flow of materials and the associated flow of information and (c) productive enterprise money such as controlling spending (Sahin, 2012). Leaders use Leadership to modify the behavior of individuals, control the action of individuals, direct the effort of individuals, and motivate individuals (Sahin, 2012). Leaders motivate individuals to accomplish tasks by using methods such as rewards, control, and punishment (Sahin, 2012).

Drucker's major propositions include managers arranging conditions and methods of operation to assist employees in achieving goals (Harold, 2011). The major

propositions also include leaders conveying the responsibility of organizing the element of equipment, productive enterprise money, and materials (Harold, 2011). Further, leadership includes bearing the responsibility to recognize, develop, and assist in the individual characteristics of employees (Sahin, 2012).

Drucker's theory can be applied effectively in military contexts and in times of stress or emergency (Harold, 2011). Drucker's theory advocates a one-way communication style. One-way communication does not allow fresh ideas to generate. The results of one-way communication in a working environment may be fear and resentment, which leads to high absenteeism and turnover and hinders innovation and creativity (Harold, 2011). Drucker's theory involves employees at all levels of the organization (Aydin, 2012) and include a series of management philosophies, such as slow promotion and evaluation procedures, long-term job security, individual responsibility that involves a group context, and consensual decision making (Aydin, 2012).

The theory presented by Drucker is the most prominent of theories and practices that defines the comprehensive system of management (Aydin, 2012). The theory presented by Drucker addresses the satisfaction of lower level needs such as incorporating group processes in decision making, the satisfaction of supporting employee needs, and encouraging employees to take responsibility for their work and decision (Aydin, 2012). When employees take responsibility for their work and decisions, they satisfy high-level needs and often increase productivity (Aydin, 2012).

Ethical and Unethical Behavior

For many business leaders, the best solution to an ethical dilemma is to have a predetermined role, objective principle, and principle reformulated as corporate policy (Yammarino et al., 2013). Drucker described ethical behavior as a reflection process and a communal exercise that concerns the moral behavior of individuals based on an established and expressed standard of individual values (Bishop, 2013). Ethical behavior is an absolute requirement of all organizational leaders (DiGrande et al., 2011).

Employees' moral behavior tends to show higher validity than knowledge-based measures (Thun & Kelloway, 2011). Drucker did not write a lot on ethics (Li & Madsen, 2011). Li and Madsen (2011) contended that the standard of one's behavior in business should be no different from the standards that apply to the individual in life in general. Drucker noted that ethics has traditionally involved applying principle-based reasoning and philosophy that connects to the complex problem associated with conducting business (Charalabidis, 2012).

Leaders of organizations have a responsibility to uphold the highest standards of ethical behavior (Li & Madsen, 2011). Responsibility indicates that corporate leaders are most at fault for ethical or unethical company behavior (Stanaland, Lwin, & Murphy, 2011). Only individuals can be responsible, and not corporations (Dacin, Dacin, & Tracey, 2011). Drucker contended that there is no such thing as business ethics and but what does exist is casuistry (Pot, 2011). In an article titled "The Matters of Business Ethics," Drucker imputed contemporary business ethics as a form of what he considered casuistry. Contemporary business ethics have a special code of ethics for people in

position of power who are required, or expected, to do certain things in the name of social responsibility (Laschinger, Finegan, & Wilk, 2011).

A number of situational variables have an influence on a leader's decision toward unethical behavior (Drucker, 1960). When making a decision on performance, unethical issues, or interpersonal conflict, leaders may make bad decisions (Stenmark & Mumford, 2011). There is a need to develop conceptual clarity around the subject of unethical behavior and the breadth of the context of ethical challenges (Suhonen et al., 2011). Stanaland et al. (2011) noted the concept of moral responsibility is in business ethics. Yang and Konard (2011) addressed issues that relate to the social responsibility of a business.

Four viewpoints affect the outcome of ethical behaviors (Drucker, 1960). One viewpoint is cost-benefit ethics, in which a leader has a higher duty to confer benefits on others. Drucker (1960) called this viewpoint the ethics of social responsibility and noted it was too dangerous to adapt as business ethics because business leaders can use it as a tool to justify accepting unethical behavior (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

The second viewpoint is the ethics of prudence, which means to be careful or cautious. The approach that Drucker (1960) presented did not address anything about the right kind of behavior, and leader must make decisions that are risky and that may be difficult to explain (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Drucker thought that this approach was good for leaders and that it would help develop self-management of an individual behavior (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). However, ethics of prudence is not much of a basis for ethical business decision making (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

The third viewpoint is the ethics of profit, in which it would be socially irresponsible and unethical if a business did not show a profit at least equal to the cost of capital. The profit is an ethical metric that rests on very weak moral grounds (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). The final viewpoint is what Drucker (1960) called Confucian ethics, which is the demands for equality of obligations of parents to children and vice versa or of bosses to employees and vice versa (Baker & Comer, 2011). Drucker pointed out that Confucian ethics cannot apply to business ethics. The Confucian ethics system includes individuals, not groups, and according to Confucian ethics, only the law can handle the rights and disagreement of groups (Baker & Comer, 2011).

Corporate social responsibility means that leaders may choose responsibilities most relevant to them, stakeholder responsibility indicates that other parties have responsibility toward the organization, and social responsibility is a belief in the notion of shared responsibility for the common good (Stanaland et al., 2011). Corporate executives are not free to engage in social responsibility. Dacin et al. (2011) noted the social responsibility of a business is to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profit. To increase profit, business leaders must stay within the rules of the game, which involves engaging in open and free competition without deception or fraud (Dacin et al., 2011).

Leaders should take responsibility for the same code of ethics as employees and should not reduce their unethical activity to employees or cost benefit analysis (Malik, Naeem, & Ali, 2011). Drucker (1960) noted one ethic should apply to all situations, regardless of status. Drucker also stated that contemporary authors in business ethics who

advocate a return to ethical principles as a foundation for leaders making effective decision discuss the inadequacy of traditional principle-based (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). Contemporary authors in business ethics recommend that leaders valuate the strengths and weaknesses of ethical and unethical approaches (Kossek et al., 2011).

The research by Toubiana and Yair (2012) indicated the continued viability of the field of workplace ethics. Ethical behavior guidelines in the workplace often include a high level of importance on dedication (Yammarino et al., 2013). Unethical behaviors enable workers to feel a strong alignment between their values and those of the business (Suhonen et al., 2011). Workplace ethics direct organizational leaders to achieve superior financial performance and productivity in harmony when facing unethical issues (Singh & Rathore, 2014).

The organization systems approach includes the best practices for determining unethical decision making by leaders (Singh & Rathore, 2014). Workplace ethics guide leaders to make sound decisions regarding business ethics (Singh & Rathore, 2014). Dyck (2014) concluded in a study involving 13 interviewers with prominent Sri Lankan business leaders, 87% of the leaders stated workplace ethics affected their ability to make sound decision. One hundred percent of the leaders used an array of leadership tools to make effective decisions in the workplace (Dyck, 2014). Workplace ethics played a significant role in influencing the Sri Lankan leaders' ability to make decisions (Dyck, 2014).

A study on workplace ethics in the United States conducted by Petrick, Cragg, and Sando (2011) included personal interviews, a literature review, online research, and survey questionnaires covering 15 years of data ranging from 1995 to 2009. The results of the study conducted by Petrick et al. included data from 150 respondents out of 325 surveys, which represented a 46.2% response rate (Petrick, Cragg, and Sando, 2011). Research on bullying showed that a relationship might exist between leaders, workplace ethics, and perception of bullying (Samnani & Singh, 2012). While associating bullying with unethical behavior, Samnani and Singh (2012) used noninterventionist leadership as a predictor when observing bullying.

Ethical leadership, according to Drucker, had a negative association with bullying (Stouten et al., 2011). Stouten et al. (2011) contended that researchers of workplace bullying have not examined the relationship between bullying and workplace ethics and the examination of bullying may reveal patterns of negative interaction. An account of a direct relationship between organizational change and bullying revealed certain regression analyses that affected job insecurity, frequency of conflict, role conflict, social leadership, workload, role ambiguity, and social support from colleagues (Stouten et al., 2011).

Bullying in the workplace is undesirable (Baillien, DeCuyper, & DeWitte, 2011). A leader's practice and role conflict are potent predictors of workplace bullying (Baillien et al., 2011). Environmental conditions create a climate that can encourage workplace bullying (Hauge et al., 2011). The appropriate level of inference regarding environmental conditions is the work group (Hauge et al., 2011).

The association of bullying with paternalistic leadership dimensions could lead to negative organizational outcomes and unethical practices at work. Drucker used examples such as bullying and counterproductive behaviors (Soylu, 2011). Workplace ethics has both practical and foundational problems (Trevino, den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014). Leaders' ability to make sound decisions regarding practical and foundational problems involving ethics in the workplace increased to 86% in companies in 2010 compared to 49% in 1999 (Kaptein, 2011).

Leaders should consider the fact that ethics help workers cope with stress (Kelly, Stout, Magill, Tonigan, & Pagano, 2011). Struggles can occur at the organizational level (Kelly et al., 2011). Exline and Bright (2011) contended that employees experience private ethical struggles at work. Ethical struggles at work consist of (a) the pursuit of virtue, (b) anger toward a high power of fellow employee, (c) crises of meaning, and (d) shifts in belief (Exline & Bright, 2011). In addition, Exline and Bright listed other conflicts that could surround interpersonal disagreement in ethical belief and value as leaders make decisions on how to encourage expression of ethics in the workplace.

Workplace ethics is a control measure for unethical behavior in the decision making process (Agbim, Ayatse, & Oriarewo, 2013). Curtis and O'Connell (2011) noted that effective leadership in society involves integrating decision making with the style of the leader. Drucker indicated that the principal of decision making could be a useful complement or alternative to analytical decision making, and the principal of decision making may or may not involve ethics (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

Ethical decision making involves using ethical principles to make decisions (Curtis & O'Connell, 2011). Drucker (1960) noted the principle of decision making could include all kinds of principles, such as the act of including unethical principles or decisions that lead to unethical outcomes. Agbim et al. (2013) noted the principle of decision making is essentially a two-step process. The first step is selecting and communicating the right principle to which decisions must adhere and the second step requires the decision maker to apply the appropriate principle (Agbim et al., 2013).

Decision Making Process

Decision making is the foundation of every management and business activity (Vohs et al., 2014). Gigerenzer and Gaissmaier (2011) contended that entrepreneurs and leaders do not achieve more than 50% correct results in their decision making and problem solving. Good decision making starts with a purposeful, consecutive, and strategic thinking process (Vohs et al., 2014). Vohs et al. (2014) stressed that good decision making invites lot of thinking and thinking is the ultimate human resource. A good decision is not an accident; it is always the result of high intention, sincere effort, intelligent direction, and skillful execution. A good decision represents a wise choice among many alternatives (Moss, 2011).

A significant part of decision making skills is in knowing and practicing good decision making techniques (Gigerenzer & Gaissmaier, 2011). Gigerenzer and Gaissmaier (2011) shared nine principles of decision making. The principles include good decision making such as assigning priorities, setting period, and gathering and reviewing up-to-date cold facts. Other principles include painting a scenario of the

desired outcome, weighting the pluses against the minuses, exploring the ramifications for all involved, using individual wisdom, and having courage. The final principles are going with individual gut instinct and decide, putting the decision into action, and evaluating the outcome of the decision and steps of action. Leaders can make as many as a hundred or more decisions in a day. Moss (2011) described seven principles to guide a leader into making the right decisions: time them, align them, balance them, instinct, do not decide without acting, and keep your decision under review.

Decision makers encounter decision points on a continuous basis (Guerra-Lopez & Thomas, 2011). Copious data are available for evaluating and determining the potential effectiveness of data use to inform decisions (Guerra-Lopez & Thomas, 2011). The impact for developing data for decision support systems is a focus and involves technological intervention (Danielsson & Alm, 2012).

One of the processes for decision making is creating a list of advantages and disadvantages. The magnitude of the decision may depend upon the situation, such as moving, making changes, starting a new job, selling or purchasing something, or replacing an item (Ishizaka, 2012). Whatever the situation is, it will involve selecting or developing options, which leads to decision making (Ishizaka, 2012). Ishizaka (2012) noted that an individual is not born knowing how to make decision and an individual learns how to make decision from watching others (Ishizaka, 2012).

The only theorist to mention the ability to be an effective decision maker is Drucker (1960), who noted the ability to be an effective decision maker is something that leaders can learn, and effective executives do not start with the facts but with opinions.

Drucker noted effective executives encourage differences of opinion. Opinions do not foster consensus; rather, they foster dissension (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Before following up on situations, leaders should take the time to recognize or identify the context that governs that particular situation (Schaltegger & Csutora, 2012). A leader's behavior and approach characterize the most effective style of achieving high-quality results from the decision making process (Rausch & Anderson, 2011).

Integrating the ability to make decisions to unethical behavior into the leadership allow leaders to apply logic and analytical skills (Manfredi, Pant, Pennington, & Versmann, 2011). Govaerts, Schuwirth, Vander Vieuken, and Muijtiens (2011) noted the key to applying logic and analytical skills is to influence long-lasting change in leaders; in addition, leaders will need to upgrade their style and approach to managing their people. This approach would be an effective way to identify the critical competencies necessary to make effective decisions in the business workplace (Govaerts et al., 2011).

Identifying the widespread emergence of unethical decision making in management is an important topic for future research in understanding when leaders are likely to make unethical decisions (De Cremer, Dick, Tenbrunsel, Pillutla, & Murnighan, 2011). The two main factors that influence ethical issues are the level of intercollegiate trust and employee conceptualization of business ethics (Trapp, 2011).

Decision making is an executive task, and effective executives do not make many decisions (Drucker, 1960). They concentrate on the important ones. Drucker (1960) noted that elements of the decision making process may (a) create a generic situation or a special situation, (b) state what the solution must accomplish, (c) build into the decision

the action to carry it out, and (d) determine feedback that tests the actual results against the desired results. He also said that executive salaries do not include doing things executive like to do; rather, their salary involves getting the right things done, including their specific task (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

Employees expect their leaders to know the daily routines to sustain their institutions (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Industrial organizational psychology and organizational behavior researchers and practitioners analyze workplace decisions to increase the application of theories, findings, and techniques from judgment and decision making (Dalal et al., 2010). Drucker noted that, conversely, business leaders welcome disagreement and suggestions for alternative solutions from their employees to propose decisions, which then appraises the leader of other potential solutions for the problems at hand (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

Leaders need to consider whether certain organizational activities are still viable and worth continuing (Drucker, 1960). Statements concerning the development of decisions by leaders could only be effective using a decision theory (Castillo & Dorao, 2013). Decision theories concern the study of preference, uncertainties, and other issues related to making optimal or relational choices (Castillo & Dorao, 2013). Economists, psychologists, philosophers, mathematicians, statisticians, and computer scientists have discussed decision theories (Castillo & Dorao, 2013).

The payoff table is the basic formalism of a decision theory that connects by mutually exclusive states of nature and with the connection of mutually exclusive decisions (Castillo & Dorao, 2013). Decision theory can be normative or descriptive

(Castillo & Dorao, 2013). Normative decision theory refers to theories about how leaders should make decisions if they want to maximize expected utility. Descriptive decision theory refers to theories that are complex and help teach the ways human decisions systematically go wrong (Castillo & Dorao, 2013).

Decision theory has four types of criteria, expected value or realist (Castillo & Dorao, 2013). The expected value picks the largest expected value after the nature. The maximax, also called optimist, picks the largest value after considering the best result that could happen under each action. The maximin or pessimist picks the largest payoff after looking at the worst that could happen under each action. In the minimax or opportunist stage, decision making relates to opportunistic loss. Minimax requires the use of a loss table, which means that the final calculations require an individual to take the minimum of the minimax or the best of the worst losses (Castillo & Dorao, 2013).

The following example serves as an explanation for decision theory. Emmett owns a small business that sells Christmas trees only between September and January, and he must order for the coming season in advance. Orders for the Christmas trees have to be in quantities of 20, and the cost per tree is \$70. He purchases trees in quantities of 40 for \$67, or 60 for \$65, or 80 for \$64. The trees will sell for \$100 each. The remaining trees at the end of the season will sell at a reduced price of \$45 each (Runyan et al., 2010).

If the business runs out of Christmas trees at any time during the season and Emmett does not replenish right away, he will suffer a goodwill loss of \$5 per customer. The estimated demand per customer per tree during the season is in quantities of 10, 30,

50, and 70 trees with probabilities of .10, .20, .30, and .40. The next step will be to determine the available actions: purchase 20, 40, 60, or 80 Christmas trees. Decision theory serves to show a person has control over which action he or she chooses (Castillo & Dorao, 2013).

The outcomes of decision theory are on the state of nature. The state of nature will consist of four possible states of nature that an individual has no control over. The state of nature will allow the basis of planning to be the appropriate decision criteria, whether the demand is 10, 30, 50, or 70 Christmas trees (Castillo & Dorao, 2013). Table 1 includes the number for each state of nature. Table 1 also shows the probability of the occurring state.

Table 1

Payoff Table

State of nature	Action			
	Purchase 20	Purchase 40	Purchase 60	Purchase 80
Demand 10 (.20)	50	-330	-650	-970
Demand 30 (.40)	550	770	450	130
Demand 50 (.30)	450	1270	1550	1230
Demand 70 (.10)	350	1170	2050	2330

The current season numbers for the business in selling Christmas trees will reflect previous seasons' numbers. For example, when the demand was 50, Emmett bought 60 at \$65 each for \$3,900. The results would be negative because that was money spent; however, when Emmett sold 50 trees at \$100 each for \$5,000, he had 10 trees left over at the end of the season. The Christmas trees sold at a reduced price of \$45 each, which made the total \$450. The season total was $\$5,000 + \$450 - \$3,900 = \$1,550$.

Another situation would be if the business had a demand for 70 and Emmett only purchased 40 at \$67 each for a total of \$2,680. The outcomes would be a negative, but when he bought 40 trees at \$100 each for \$4,000, he ran out. Thirty customers did not receive trees and for the lack of trees available to customers, he received a goodwill loss of \$5 each, or -\$150, which made $\$4,000 - \$2,600 - \$150$, which equals \$1,170.

The next step would be to calculate the opportunistic loss table from the payoff table. The payoff table complements the minimax criteria, and the maximum payoffs under each state of nature (Castillo & Dorao, 2013). In the opportunistic loss table (see Table 2), each element of the state of nature is subtracted from the largest payoff for that state of nature. Each number in a row is subtracted from the largest number in the row. The numbers in the table are losses, which mean smaller numbers are better.

Table 2

Opportunistic Loss Table

State of nature	Action			
	Purchase 20	Purchase 40	Purchase 60	Purchase 80
Demand 10	0	380	700	1020
Demand 30	220	0	320	640
Demand 50	1100	280	0	320
Demand 70	1980	1160	280	0

^a Maximum payoff under each state of nature.

The next step would be to calculate the expected value criteria, which involves multiplying the payoff by the probability of the payoff occurring and then adding them together. After placing the probabilities into a 1×4 matrix with the expected value and the purchase of 60 action would be $.20 (-650) + .40 (450) + .30 (1550) + .10 (2050) = 720$. Making the expected values for purchasing 20, 40, 60, and 80 Christmas trees would be

\$400, \$740, \$720, and \$460. The problem would mean that the best is \$740, which means Emmett would purchase 40 Christmas trees.

The next step would be to calculate the maximax criterion by taking the largest numbers in each column and then take the best of the largest numbers (Castillo & Dorano, 2013). If Emmett purchases 20, 40, 60, and 80 Christmas trees at \$550, \$1270, \$2050, and \$2330, the largest number will be \$2330, Emmett would purchase 80 Christmas trees. The next step would be to calculate the maximin criterion by taking the smallest numbers in each column. If Emmett purchases 20, 40, 60, and 80 Christmas trees at \$50, \$-330, \$-650, and \$-970, because the smallest is \$50, Emmett will purchase 20 Christmas trees.

The next step would be to calculate the minimax criterion by using the opportunistic loss regret table (see Table 3; Castillo & Dorano, 2013). Emmett will take the largest loss under each action and select the smallest of the large numbers. The largest loss if Emmett was to purchase 20, 40, 60, or 80 Christmas trees at \$1980, \$1160, \$700, or \$1020. The smallest would be \$700, so Emmett would purchase 60 Christmas trees. Table 3 sums everything.

Table 3

Opportunistic Loss Regret Table

Criterion	Action				Best action
	Purchase 20	Purchase 40	Purchase 60	Purchase 80	
Expected value	400	740 ^a	720	460	Purchase 40
Maximax	550	1270	2050	2330 ^a	Purchase 80
Maximin	50 ^a	-330	-650	-970	Purchase 20
Minimax	1980	1160	700 ^a	1020	Purchase 60

^a Maximum payoff under each state of nature.

An effective leader is likely to be a value-driven directive leader. Drucker defined value as the actions required, and the direction provides the focus for implementation (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Drucker (1960) defined decision as a judgment. A decision is rarely a choice between right and wrong. It is often a choice between almost right and probably wrong (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Right answers are not the result of brilliance of intuition. The right answers are the result of asking the right questions (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

Developing a program to demonstrate the contrast between ethical and unethical values establishes the first step in creating a company culture that emphasizes and reinforces ethical standards (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). There are many different approaches to unethical behavior, and none is 100% compatible with what I consider business ethics so far in this research. There was a struggle by Drucker (1960) in deciding on which approach, and he finally arrived at basic ethical principles that were essential because he believed that ethical behavior was an absolute requirement of all organizational leaders (Toubiana & Yair, 2012).

Transition and Summary

This section included a critical analysis on the different outcomes of research on the elements of leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior in the business workplace. This section also included an acknowledgment by Drucker (1960) that leadership is important and that the leader's job is to create the desired future for the company or the organization (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Drucker noted leaders determine the situation, the needs, and the personalities of their employees and the culture of the organization (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). He also believed that ethical behavior was an absolute requirement of all organizational leaders (DiGrande et al., 2011).

For many business leaders, the best solution to an ethical dilemma is having a predetermined role, objective principle, or principle reformulated as corporate policy and applying it to a particular circumstance (Yammarino et al., 2013). Ethical decision making involves using ethical principles to make decisions (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Decision makers encounter decision points on a continuous basis, and copious data are available for evaluating and determining the potential effectiveness of data use to inform decisions (Guerra-Lopez & Thomas, 2011). The impacts for developing decision support systems have been the technological possibilities and functions that facilitate storing the series of decisions made during the response should receive priority (Danielsson & Alm, 2012).

The focus of Section 2 is to use Drucker's (1960) management theory to obtain results in understanding the correlational findings from the ALQ and the MCQ. The focus of Section 2 is on diverse workplace effectiveness, conditions as common elements, and

the link of the components of meaning and purpose. The focus of Section 3 is to indicate how leaders in the business workplace with ethical behavior effectively use objective measures and intuitive methods to assist in the decision making process of unethical behavior. Section 3 contains the reported data collection and the interpretation of the data. Section 3 includes the descriptive statistics for the demographic variables, as well as the findings structured around the research question and hypothesis. Section 3 also includes the research outcomes applied to professional practice and the implication for social change.

Section 2: The Project

In this study, I focused on understanding the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. In this section, I applied Drucker's (1960) management theory in an effort to understand the correlational findings from the ALQ and the MCQ. In this section, I addressed the purpose statement, my role as the researcher, the participants, the research method, the research design, population and sampling, ethical research, instrumentation, the data collection technique, data analysis, and study validity, concluding with a transition and summary.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlation study is to examine the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. The independent variables were leadership and decision making. The dependent variable was ethical behavior. The targeted population consisted of retail leaders in various companies in the southwestern United States. This study has implications for positive social change, in that it may encourage future research on decision making, and promotion in order to develop a better understanding of the relationship between organizational leadership and ethical behavior.

Role of the Researcher

My role as the researcher was theoretically nonexistent, because the goal of the research was to have the participants independent of the researcher (Tonon, 2015). In this correlational study, data collection was without regard to the participants or the person collecting the data (Tonon, 2015). My role as the researcher allowed me to remain

detached from the study and from the sample in the study. I had no previous relationship with the topic or the participants (Tonon, 2015).

My role as the researcher as it related to ethics, the *Belmont Report* protocol, and federal regulations at 45 CFR and 21 CFR 50 was to protect the autonomy, safety, privacy, and welfare of human research subjects. The informed consent document (see Appendix A) clearly indicated that the study was a research study and not clinical therapy. Participation in the research was voluntary and was free of any coercion from me (Binik, 2014).

Participants

Quantitative research requires standardizing procedures and randomly selecting participants to remove the potential influence of external variables and ensure generalizability of results (Mustanski, 2011). Quantitative research involves making decisions based on the research questions, theoretical perspective, and evidence that confirm the study (Mustanski, 2011). Criteria for participation in this study included working with a retail business in the southwestern United States and functioning as an individual in a leadership position such as middle management or upper management for 5 or more years. I contacted each potential participant via e-mail (Isella et al., 2011).

I established a weekly working relationship with the participants until the conclusion of the research study. The purpose of the weekly working relationship was to give updated information that pertained to leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior (Bredenoord, Kroes, Cuppen, Parker, & van Delden, 2011). Strategies for establishing a working relationship with participants included developing greater

awareness of the possible benefits of cooperation and how to negotiate a mutually beneficial relationship (Cassa et al., 2011). The updating of information continued until the completion of this research. I will share the results with participants at the completion of the research by request only (Bredenoord et al., 2011).

Research Method

A quantitative method was suitable for this study because the study involved analyzing numerical data and I sought to generalize the results to a larger population (Christ, 2013). Researchers conducting quantitative studies can explain phenomena by collecting numerical data and analyzing them using mathematically based methods (Christ, 2013). Quantitative research primarily involves collecting quantitative data. The basic building blocks of quantitative research are variables, which are the opposite of constants (Basch et al., 2012). Variables take on different values, whereas constants cannot vary. This research study included two types of variables: independent variables, which are the personal cause of another variable, and a dependent variable, which is the presumed effort or outcome (Basch et al., 2012).

There are two major types of quantitative research. *Experimental research* has as its purpose the study of cause-and-effect relationships. *Nonexperimental research* does not involve manipulating the independent variable or randomly assigning participants to groups. An individual cannot jump to a conclusion of cause and effect because there are too many other alternative explanations for the relationship (Basch et al., 2012). Quantitative research is social research that includes empirical methods, statements, formal objectives, and a systematic process (Onwuegbuzie, 2012). Quantitative research

may result in a clear awareness of the relationship of unethical behavior and leadership's ability to make sound decisions (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013).

Qualitative research involves the collection of qualitative data and is a systematic approach used to describe life experiences and give meaning (Ostlund, Kidd, Wengstrom, & Rowa-Dewar, 2011). Thornberg (2011) listed five major types of qualitative research. The first type is phenomenology, in which a researcher attempts to understand how one or more individuals experience a phenomenon. The second type is ethnography, in which a researcher focuses on describing the culture of a group of people. The third type is a case study, in which a researcher focuses on providing a detailed account of one or more cases. The fourth type is grounded theory, in which a researcher focuses on generating and developing a theory from data collected. The final type is historical research, in which a researcher focuses on research about events that occurred in the past (Thornberg, 2011).

Qualitative research was not appropriate for this study because researchers using the qualitative method emphasize quality entities, processes, and meanings that they do not experimentally examine or measure in terms of quality, amount, intensity, or frequency (Roulston, 2011). Qualitative research may produce unclear generalizations, which means that results from a qualitative study may include personal biases that affect the results (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). Qualitative research is a systematic approach used to describe life experiences and give meaning (Ostlund et al., 2011).

Mixed methods research includes both quantitative and qualitative methods (Small, 2011). The two major types of mixed research are mixed method and mixed

model research (Small, 2011). Mixed method research is research in which a researcher uses the quantitative research paradigm for one phase of a research study and the qualitative research paradigm for another phase of the study (Small, 2011). In mixed model research, a researcher mixes both qualitative and quantitative research approaches within a stage of the study or across two of the stages of the research process (Christ, 2013; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012). I did not select a mixed method study because it would have been time consuming, and methodological purists recommend that researchers work with either a quantitative or a qualitative paradigm (Christ, 2013).

Research Design

The correlation design was suitable for this study. Correlation research includes an established relation or association between two or more variables that do not readily lend themselves to experimental manipulation (Hur et al., 2013). In a correlational research design, researchers may correlate the variables to determine whether a relationship exists between them (Hur et al., 2013). Advantages to the design are that researchers can collect a lot of information from many subjects at one time and study a wide range of variables and their interrelations (Dalvit & Vulpetti, 2011). The disadvantages are that correlation does not indicate causation, and there are problems with the self-report method (Fujiwara, Kano, & Hasebe, 2012).

I did not choose experimental or quasi-experimental designs because the experimental designs test cause-and-effect relationships between variables and the quasi-experimental designs includes a blend of correlational and experimental approaches (De Vignemant, 2013). Experimental design and quasi-experimental design both measure on

the same dependent variables (Handley, Schillinger, & Shiboski, 2011; Moffit et al., 2011). Advantages for both designs are that they minimize threats to external validity, and researchers must let manipulations occur on their own and have no control over them (Handley et al., 2011; Moffit et al., 2011). The disadvantages for both designs are that deficiencies in randomization make it harder to rule out confounding variables, they introduce new threats to internal validity, and the researcher does not have total control over extraneous variables (Handley et al., 2011; Moffit et al., 2011). The correlation design was appropriate for this study because the aim was to predict the relationship between a set of predictor variables, leadership and decision making, and a dependent variable ethical behavior (Basch et al., 2012).

Population and Sampling

The population included 98 managers who worked for a retail business in southwestern United States and who had been functioning in a leadership position such as middle or upper management for 5 years or more. Probabilistic sampling was the sampling method, because it is an archeological sampling method based on formal statistical criteria in selecting single units to investigate (Olson, Molloy, & Shehu, 2011). The advantage of using probabilistic sampling is that the whole process is unbiased, and it is good to use in smaller populations (Lowe et al., 2011).

The disadvantages of probabilistic sampling are that it cannot prevent bias, and sampling information from a large population involves too much time and patience (Olson et al., 2011). The specific subcategory was simple random sampling. Probabilistic sampling ensures an unbiased representation of the group (Cohen, Cohen, West, &

Aiken, 2013). The advantages of using simple random sampling are that it reduces bias and increases ease of sampling. The disadvantages are that it may involve sampling error and may be time consuming (Torgerson, Paul, & Lewis, 2012).

A power analysis using G*Power Version 3:1.9 software indicated the appropriate sample size for the study (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Faul et al. (2009) described G*Power as a statistical package used to conduct an a priori sample size analysis. An a priori analysis, assuming a medium effect size ($f = .15$), $\alpha = .05$, indicated a minimum sample size of 68 participants was necessary to achieve a power of .80. Increasing the sample size to 146 would increase power to .98. This study involved 98 participants. The use of a medium effect size ($f = .15$) was appropriate for the study. The medium effect size involved the analysis of several articles in which leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior were the outcome measurements (Pinsky et al., 2014).

Ethical Research

The consent process for the participants required employment with a retail business in the southwestern United States. The principle of informed consent requires that prospective participants understand the procedures and any possibility of risks or discomfort (Cassa et al., 2011). Potential participants received a copy of the consent form prior to completing the questionnaire and indicated their agreement to participate by signing the document. The potential participants signed a printed version, which I then scanned in electronic format. Participants read and replied to indicate their understanding of the consent process (see Appendix A; Cassa et al., 2011). The Walden Institutional Review Board approval number is 07-14-15-0364844. The documents did not include

names or any other identifiable information on individuals. Refusing to participate involved no penalty and participants could discontinue participation without penalty by notifying me via e-mail. Neither the participants nor I will receive any monetary compensation for this study (Robson, 2011).

The confidentiality of individual respondents was in place. No information they shared was available to anyone not directly involved in the study. The participants' responses remained anonymous (Bahl et al., 2012). To protect the rights of the participants, I stored the research records securely in a locked file cabinet at my home. I stored electronic files on my password-protected computer and backed them up on a thumb drive. I will have a password-protected hard drive for 5 years, and at the 5-year mark, I will shred the documents (Biggs & Stickney, 2011). No identifiers linking the participants or me to this study will appear in any report for publication, any consent form, or any DVD. Participants were able to withdraw from participating in this study at any time via e-mail (Abbott & Grady, 2011).

Instrumentation

Researchers use a variety of data collection instruments. These instruments include personality tests, aptitude tests, questionnaires, existing documents and records, attitude tests, leadership tests, and surveys (Pastore, Carr-Chellman, & Lohmann, 2011). The two data collection tools used in this study were the ALQ (Avolio, Gardner, & Walumbwa, 2007) to measure the independent variables leadership and decision making (see Appendix B) and the MCQ (Hannah, Avolio, & May, 2011) to measure the dependent variable ethical behavior (see Appendix C). The participants had 2 weeks to

complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires were sent to participants via e-mail. Each questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete. There were no special requirements or tools attached to the questionnaires. I purchased the questionnaires from MindGarden, Inc.

The data that comprised each construct and variable consisted of three underlying domains and eight subscales. The three underlying domains consisted of (a) leadership, which is transparent, moral, and ethical; (b) decision making, which is balance processing and self-awareness; and (c) ethical behavior, which is moral courage, moral ownership, and moral efficacy. An explanation of leadership and decision making domains and their five subscales is within the information generated for the ALQ (Avolio et al., 2007). Using the ALQ and MCQ helped in understanding the sample under study, and examined the relationship between the variables and determining a relationship exists between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

The first of the four subscales comprising the decision making domain is self-awareness, which refers to a leader's awareness of his or her strengths and limitations and how he or she affects others. The second of the four subscales comprising the decision making domain is transparency. Transparency refers to the degree to which a leader reinforces a level of openness with others that provides them with opportunities to be forthcoming with their ideas, challenges, and opinions. The third of the four subscales comprising the decision making domain is moral/ethical, which involves the degree to which a leader sets a high standard for moral and ethical conduct. The final of the four subscales comprising the decision making domain is balance processing, which is the

degree a leader solicits sufficient opinions and viewpoints prior to making important decisions (Avolio et al., 2007).

The ALQ measures authentic Leadership by assessing four components of the process self-awareness, relational transparency, moral or ethical perspective and balanced processing. By comparing scores, an individual can determine which are the stronger and which the weaker components in each category are. An individual can interpret authentic leadership scores using the following guidelines: high = 12-16 and low = 12 and below. Scores in the upper range indicate stronger authentic leadership, whereas scores in the lower range indicate weaker authentic leadership (Avolio et al., 2007).

The ALQ is a theory-driven survey instrument designed to measure the components conceptualized as comprising authentic Leadership (Avolio et al., 2007). The resources mentioned in this section cover the theoretical and empirical basis for the ALQ extensively. The ALQ is currently in some projects around the globe to augment other measures of leadership (Avolio et al., 2007).

The ALQ consists of 16 descriptive items and a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 to 4. On this scale, a 0 represents *not at all*, 1 represents *once in a while*, 2 represents *sometimes*, 3 represents *fairly often*, and 4 represents *frequently, if not always* (Avolio et al., 2007). The ALQ has items about different dimensions of authentic leadership. There is no right or wrong responses (Avolio et al., 2007). The scoring involves the sum of responses on Items 13, 14, 15, and 16 (self-awareness); the sum of responses on Items 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 (relational transparency); the sum of responses on

Items 6, 7, 8, and 9 (moral/ethical perspective); and the sum of responses on Items 10, 11, and 12 (balanced processing; Avolio et al., 2007).

Researchers have used the ALQ to test for reliability using the internal consistency approach. All studies yielded alpha values greater than .70, which indicates respectable reliability. Many measured alpha values are greater than .80, which demonstrated very good reliability (Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun, & Frey, 2012). Discriminant validity has demonstrated how authentic leadership, as conceptualized and measured by the ALQ. Results have been encouraging, especially in terms of predictive validity and reliability, and early global research has supported the generalizability of the ALQ across a variety of cultures and languages (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011).

The ALQ was the instrument chosen by Piaw and Ting (2014) in a study on school leaders in Malaysia. The study involved identifying factors of thinking and leadership of 85 Malaysian primary and secondary school leaders. The instrument ALQ, thinking, and leadership helped to identify thinking styles (critical or creative) and leadership (closed or open) of the subjects (Piaw & Ting, 2014). The majority of the school leaders implemented critical thinking with open leadership. School grade, type of school, gender, age, working experience, and educational background are significant predictors of leadership. The findings led Piaw and Ting to reject claims that leaders are purely born or purely made.

The purpose of the instrument was to conduct a study on principal leadership, school performance, and principle effectiveness in Dubai schools (Ibrahim, 2013). The study involved investigating whether a correlation exists between the principal's

leadership and both (a) performance level and (b) the principal's effectiveness in schools in Dubai (Ibrahim, 2013). A stratified representative sample conducted on the school performance level involved each of the four levels of performance (unsatisfactory, acceptable, good, and outstanding). A sample identified by the Dubai School Inspection Bureau 2010 report, from 10 (five male and five female) public school teachers at each school level (Ibrahim, 2013).

In each school, 20 teachers should have responded to the ALQ regarding their principal's leadership and effectiveness (Ibrahim, 2013). The sample included 490 teachers from 34 schools, with a response rate of 61.25%. The sample consisted of 219 (44.7%) male teachers and 271 (55.3%) female teachers (Ibrahim, 2013). The results indicated principals employed transformational leadership the most, followed by transactional leadership, and then passive or avoidant leadership. A positive correlation emerged between principals' leadership and effectiveness, but no correlation occurred with school performance (Ibrahim, 2013). Seyal and Rahman (2014) conducted a study on which leadership identify the approaches and dimensions of leaders in businesses.

Seyal and Rahman (2014) investigated the adoption of enterprise resource planning systems among 60 CEOs in small and medium-sized enterprises in Brunei. The study involved examining the effects of leadership at the organization level; the results led to a comprehensive understanding of leadership (Seyal & Rahm, 2014). The analysis revealed that 86% of the respondents had transformational styles with a mean of 3.04 compared with a mean of 2.90 for transactional styles among the CEOs (Seyal & Rahman, 2014).

The information generated for the MCQ includes an explanation of the ethical behavior domain and its three subscales. The first of the three subscales is moral ownership. Moral ownership refers to leaders feeling a sense of personal agency over the ethical nature of their actions, their organization, and others around them (Hannah et al., 2011). The second of the three subscales is moral efficacy, which refers to leaders organizing and attains ethical performance within a given ethical domain (Hannah et al., 2011). The final of the three subscales was moral courage, which refers to leaders requiring courage to overcome fears while facing threats (Hannah et al., 2011).

The basis of the MCQ is that moral judgment capacity accounts for only 20% of the variance in people's actual ethical behavior (Hannah et al., 2011). The basis indicates that an individual's ethical and unethical behavior in organizations is driven not just by the judgments they make. But also by whether they have both the desire and the inner fortitude or agency to move forward and act on their judgments (Hannah et al., 2011). Most individuals make many ethical judgments during the workweek. In dynamic organizations, they face many challenges, distracters, and risks that may deter them from stepping up and acting on their ethical judgments (Hannah et al., 2011).

Individuals in the position to address unethical acts may say that they do not feel motivated to make such decisions (Hannah et al., 2011). After making acceptable decisions, people need moral potency to counter the external forces that may inhibit them from taking action after they have made the correct ethical choice. Correct ethical choices involve the capacity to generate responsibility to take moral action in the case of adversity and persevere through challenges (Hannah et al., 2011).

Researchers have used the MCQ across some different contexts (Hannah et al., 2011). The MCQ identifies three primary moral capacities that underpin moral potency. In the first capacity, moral capacity, an individual feels and shows a sense of responsibility to take ethical action to combat ethical issues. The moral capacity refers to one's level of moral ownership (Hannah et al., 2011). In the second capacity, moral efficacy, individuals can make a moral judgment. Individuals have the desire to take action but decide not to take action because they lack confidence in their personal capabilities to develop solutions to ethical issues (Hannah et al., 2011). In the third capacity, moral courage, individuals encourage themselves to face threats and overcome fears (Hannah et al., 2011). Moral courage is a malleable character strength that provides the requisite potency needed to commit to personal moral principles (Hannah et al., 2011).

The MCQ consists of 12 descriptive items and uses a 5-point Likert-type scale. The scoring involves the sum of responses on Items 1, 2, 3, and 4 (moral courage); the sum of responses on Items 5, 6, and 7 (moral ownership); and the sum of responses on Items 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 (moral efficacy; Hannah et al., 2011).

For Questions 1 through 7, an individual should think about their typical actions and rate their level of agreement with how each question applies to their behavior (Hannah et al., 2011). Use the 5-point Likert-type scale to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement (Hannah et al., 2011). In this scale, 1 represents *strongly disagree*, 2 represents *disagree*, 3 represents *neither agree nor disagree*, 4 represents *agree*, and 5 represents *strongly agree* (Hannah et al., 2011). In

answering Questions 8 through 12, a score of 5 represents total confidence, a score of 3 represents moderately confident, and a score of 1 represents not at all confident.

Test–retest reliability for each of the moral factors ranged from .75 to .95 in the validation sample and from .74 to .94 in the cross-validation sample (Hannah et al., 2011). Moral potency as the result of research by various researchers positively related to ethical behaviors and negatively related to tolerance for the mistreatment of others (Hannah et al., 2011). Researchers have used the MCQ in some studies and applied projects to predict ethical thoughts and behaviors (Hannah et al., 2011). The MCQ self-ratings predict various ethical attitudes and behaviors of individuals (Hannah et al., 2011).

Questionnaires are the instruments chosen to conduct research studies. Questionnaires show that moral potency is a critical factor in developing leaders who have the understanding to act on their moral judgments and behave as leaders of character (Hannah et al., 2011). A cross-sectional field study complemented the questionnaires, with a sample of 2,484 U.S. Army soldiers assigned to 295 squads serving in combat in Iraq during 2009 (Hannah et al., 2010).

The sample provided a highly complex and ambiguous context where soldiers faced a high base rate of difficult moral challenges (Hannah et al., 2010). Unit battalion chaplains collected data and send them to the researchers in the United States. Results indicated that moral efficacy is a discriminant factor that reflects the confidence that one can act ethically, distinct from the understanding to act. Reliability of the moral efficacy

($\alpha = .95$) and moral ownership/courage (i.e., conation) scales ($\alpha = .93$) was high (Hannah et al., 2010).

The scale of measurement to measure a dependent variable is the interval scale. The interval scale of measurement has the properties of identity, magnitude, and equal intervals (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013). The standard survey rating scale is an interval scale (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013). An interval scale has equidistant points between each of the scale elements to interpret differences in the distance along the scale. In an ordinal scale, an individual can only talk about differences in order, not differences in the degree of order (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013).

Interval scale data include parametric statistical techniques. Statistical techniques include such as mean and standard deviation, correlation – r , t -test, regression, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and factor analysis (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013). Parametric means that data meet certain requirements with respect to parameters of the population. For example, data were normal, and the distribution paralleled the normal or bell curve. In addition, it means that an individual can add, subtract, multiply, and divide the numbers (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013).

The purchase of each survey from MindGarden, Inc. included permission to use both surveys and a license to reproduce both surveys (see Appendices D and E). I did not make any adjustments or revisions to the standardized research instruments. I stored raw data from this study on my personal computer with password-protected encryption to ensure the security of the participants (Bredenoord et al., 2011).

Participants must read and provide their understanding of the consent process (see Appendix A). Potential research participants received all information required for the informed consent process before the survey began (Subashini & Kavitha, 2011). I had ensured the protection and confidentiality of the responses before I administered the survey (Bredenoord et al., 2011).

Data Collection Technique

Within each general research approach, researchers may use one or many data collection techniques. The most popular data collection techniques include surveys, secondary data sources or archival data, objective measures or tests, and interviews (Mahfoud et al., 2011). The method of data collection for this research study was surveys. Surveys can include questionnaire or interviews. I chose questionnaires in the form of paper-and-pencil instruments that the respondents completed (Mahfoud et al., 2011).

The primary purpose of a survey is to elicit information that, after evaluation, results in a profile or statistical characterization of the population sampled. Questions may relate to behaviors, beliefs, attitudes, and characteristics of those who survey. A survey is a means of gathering information about a particular population by sampling some of its members, usually through a system of standardized questions. Surveys can be by mail, telephone, personal interview, or the Internet (Mahfoud et al., 2011).

Cost savings, accuracy, quick to analyze are advantages of using an online or e-mail questionnaire. In addition easy to use for participants, time savings, anonymity for respondents, and objective feedback are advantages (Roulston, 2011). Limited sampling and respondent availability are disadvantages. In addition, no interviewer, data errors due

to question nonresponses exist, inability to reach challenging populations, survey fraud, and possible cooperation problems are disadvantages (Roulston, 2011).

A pilot study was not necessary for this study. A pilot survey is a strategy used to test the questionnaire using a smaller sample compared to the planned sample size. In the pilot phase, researchers administer the questionnaire to a percentage of the total sample or a convenience sample in informal cases. A pilot study was not necessary for this study because the main objective of a pilot study is to determine whether conducting a large-scale survey is worth the effort (Mahfoud et al., 2011).

I used two self-assessment surveys developed by MindGarden, Inc. Data came from the answers to the survey questions. The survey was available online and via e-mail. The questions had numbers that accelerated data entry during the inputting process. There were no adjustments to the questions, and the instruments selected were appropriate for the research study (Atkeson, Adams, Bryant, Zilberman, & Saunders, 2011). The survey was available online, and the participants could receive, complete, and send the survey back to me via e-mail. Those who did not respond within 5 days of receiving the survey received a reminder e-mail (Gonzalez et al., 2013). The information and records from this research study will remain securely stored in a private location for 5 years. At the completion of the 5-year period, I will shred all documents (Gonzalez et al., 2013).

Data Analysis

The data gathered from the participants answered the research question and hypothesis from Section 1:

RQ1: Do retail business leaders understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior?

Hypothesis

H_{10} : There is no relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

H_{1a} : There is statistically significant relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

I conducted a statistical analysis that revealed a relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior in a retail setting by using the multiple linear regression analysis (MLR). The general purpose of MLR is to learn about the relationship between the predictor variables (leadership and decision making) and the dependent variable (ethical behavior). The general computational problem that is solved in MLR analysis is to fit a straight line to a number of points (Smoot et al., 2011).

A MLR is a statistical technique that uses several explanatory variables to predict the outcome of a response variable. The MLR attempts to model the relationship between two or more explanatory variables and a response variable by fitting a linear equation to observed data. The goal of MLR is to model the relationship between the explanatory and response variables. Every value of the independent variable x is associated with a value of the dependent variable y (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013). In each test, the p -value was .05 (Smoot et al., 2011).

The MLR involves assumptions, limitations, and practical considerations, and they involve the following: (a) assumptions, also called homoscedasticity, are considered to be the last assumption the linear regression analysis, (b) a limitation is limited to predicting numeric output, and (c) practical considerations are called “plug ins,” and are where an individual can insert many predictor variables. In addition, the MLR analysis includes a descriptive statistics (Xu & Li, 2014). Descriptive statistics help the researcher understand the data set in detail; the descriptive statistics also implies a quantitative summary of a data set that has been collected (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013). Descriptive statistics refer to means, ranges, some valid cases of a variable, and provide information about the distribution of a variable (He & Sun, 2014).

In descriptive statistics the mean (M) is the most widely used measure of central tendency; it is commonly called the average (Smoot et al., 2011). Standard deviation or SD is the square root of the variance, and it measures the spread of a set of observations (Smoot et al., 2011). Minimum is the minimum or smallest value of the variable, and maximum is the maximum or largest value of the variable (Smoot et al., 2011).

The MLR model summary will be used. Information in the model summary displays the regression line's ability to account for the total variation in the dependent variable (Smoot et al., 2011). R is the square root of R^2 and the correlation between the observed and predicted values of the dependent variables (He & Sun, 2014). R^2 is the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (ethical behavior), which that can be explained by the independent variables (leadership and decision making). Adjusted R^2 is an adjustment of the R^2 that penalizes the addition of extraneous predictors to the model.

The variance is measured as the sum of the squared differences between multiple respondents' predicted dependent variable values and the overall mean. The mean is divided by the number of respondents and is symbolized by R^2 .

Other statistical analyzes were not appropriate for this study, including the Mann-Whitney U-test because it compares medians. The Spearman rank correlation test because it shows the association between two variables, x and y , which do not have a normal distribution (Kumara, Aruna, Devi, & Kumaraswamidhas, 2014). The Kruskal-Wallis test because the purpose of the test is to compare the means between two or more samples when the data are ordinal or when the distribution is nominal. The Kruskal-Wallis test involves comparing the frequency count of what one expects in theory against observations (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013).

The purpose of the data cleaning and screening procedure was to determine, for every case. Whether each variable contains only legitimate numerical codes or values and whether the legitimate codes were reasonable (Smoot et al., 2011). I checked for normality and determined how to cope with nonmorality (Wei & Jin, 2014). To address missing data, I compared cases with and without missing values on variables of interest using the SPSS missing values analysis (He & Sun, 2014).

I can evaluate the normality assumption by looking at the distribution of the data via histograms or by performing a normality test. The equality of variance assumption verification involves the F test. If the data do not meet these conditions, then a researcher can evaluate the difference in means between the groups using one of the nonparametric alternatives (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013).

Testing and assessing assumptions involves running the type of regression specified in the problem statement on variables using the full data set. If data do not satisfy the criteria for normality, I can substitute the transformed variable in the remaining test that calls for using the dependent variable (Kumara et al., 2014). I interpreted inferential results by using standard error statistics because I could construct confidence intervals about the obtained sample basis. The confidence interval provides an estimate of the interval at which the population parameter will fall. The two most commonly used standard error statistics is the standard error of the mean and the standard error of the estimate (Smoot et al., 2011).

The standard error of the mean constructs a confidence interval at which the population mean is likely to fall. The formula $p < .05$ is the probability that the population means will fall in the calculated interval of 95%. Also, the standard error of the estimate is with the correlation measure because it can allow me to construct a confidence interval within which the true population correlation will fall. The standard error is an important indicator of having precise an estimate of the population parameter the sample statistic is (Smoot et al., 2011).

If the information input into the SPSS program violated the assumptions, I substituted transformations and ran regressions entering two the independent variables (He & Sun, 2014). The inferential results of a confidence interval indicated a 95% confidence interval. I could predict or infer the value or score of a population within a specified range based on the value or score of the sample (Smoot et al., 2011). The inferential results can help to determine if groups have significantly different means. If

the probability associated with the F statistics is .05 or less, then I asserted there was no difference in the manner (He & Sun, 2014).

I entered the data collected from each participant into the SPSS software program and performed several statistical analyzes. There are many different types of statistical software. Researchers have found SPSS to be one of the most preferred tools to present data in a research study (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013). I began by defining a set of variables and then entered data for variables to create some cases.

Every case has a value for each variable, the variables have types, and each variable contains a specific kind of number. After I had entered the data into SPSS, I defined the cases by the values stored in the variable that allowed me to run analyzes (Xu & Li, 2014). Running an analysis involved selecting the appropriate variables from the menu and clicking the okay button (Weaver & Wuensch, 2013). The SPSS software predicted with confidence the next step on how to solve problems or how to improve results (He & Sun, 2014).

Study Validity

Study validity reflects factors that provide plausible rival hypothesis to the treatment effect (Khoury, Baliban, & Floudas, 2011). External validity refers to results of a research study that are generalizable to a group that participates in the study. A threat to external validity indicates if the effect is generalizable based upon populations, settings, treatment variables, or measurement variables. The threat to external validity consists of four areas (Khoury et al., 2011).

The first of the four areas is the interaction of selection and experimental variable. Interaction of selection and experimental variable affects some groups from its treatment by the composition of the group; this treatment makes it more difficult to acquire participants (Khoury et al., 2011). The second area involves the precluding generalization to those exposed to treatments outside of the non-experimented settings. An example would be wholesale versus retail (Goggins, Mascaro, & Valetto, 2013). The third area involves the same group of respondents in which the effects of prior treatments are not erasable (Goggins et al., 2013). The final area considered a problematic area in experimental situations takes place on a particularly memorable day, such as September 11 (Goggins et al., 2013).

Internal validity refers to the extent to which the results obtained in a research study are a function of the variables. The researcher systematically manipulates, measures, and observes in a study (Cohen et al., 2013). Threats to internal validity involve 13 areas. The first area is history. History refers to the occurrence of events that could alter the results of the study and involves local events or the comparison of different managers (Cohen et al., 2013).

The second area involves the artifacts of respondents in comparison groups that use randomization (Cohen et al., 2013). The third area is maturation, which involves a function of time between pre- and posttest (Cohen et al., 2013). The fourth area is reactive or interaction effect of testing, which involves a pretest (Cohen et al., 2013).

The fifth, sixth, and seventh areas involve the calibration of an instrument or scores (Cohen et al., 2013). Treatment replication involves n as the number of individuals

in the group. Thus, reported results can be misleading if each subject in a group administration counts as an individual replication (Cohen et al., 2013). The remaining area is experimental mortality, and it involves differential rates of loss from comparison groups (Cohen et al., 2013).

The eighth, ninth, and 10th areas are a statistical regression. In which measurement error is the result of regression toward the mean, as they have no other direction in which to go (Cohen et al., 2013). The next area involves members of different groups meeting each other causing the treatment to diffuse (Cohen et al., 2013). The treatment spreads to the control group through the interacting of those in the treatment group (Cohen et al., 2013). The next area is the experimenter effects; this area involves the attribution and expectations of the researcher that influences the subjects (Cohen et al., 2013).

The 11th, 12th, and 13th areas involve subject effects that involve changes in the subject (Cohen et al., 2013). The next area includes interactions with the selection. Interactions with the selection include selection maturation interaction, selection history interaction, and selection interaction. They all involve the effects resulting from an interaction between the way the selection of the comparison groups and their maturation, history events, and testing effects over time (Cohen et al., 2013). The final area occurs when it is not clear whether A causes B or B causes A (Cohen et al., 2013).

I addressed the threats to external and internal validity by focusing on the randomized pretest–posttest control group design that controls for threats to internal validity if the randomization works. All potential independent variables including

reactive arrangements and nonspecific treatment effects are constant, and there is no differential mortality between groups (Cohen et al., 2013). Researchers control threats relating to the passage of time because they should manifest themselves equally in each group: maturation, history, mortality, instrumentation, and statistical regression (Cohen et al., 2013). Researchers control threats relating to selection because they randomly assign participants to groups so they should be equal with respect to any potential independent variables. Researchers control the testing threats because the threats should also manifest equally in both groups (Cohen et al., 2013).

When there is a pretest, researchers cannot control the reactive effects of testing external validity. Researchers do not know if they can get the same effects for treatment when participants are not pretested (Cohen et al., 2013). Therefore, pretests and posttests use the same control group design; and there is no pretest focus on the posttest-only control group design (Cohen et al., 2013). But changes related to time maturation and history are not measured because there is no pretest. So we cannot be sure that the groups is equaled at pretest. However, this design also controls for reactive effects of testing because there is no pretest (Cohen et al., 2013).

Researchers cannot control for threats to external validity. In an internally valid study, we can only demonstrate that the effects of a treatment hold under the specific conditions of the study. Researchers can only say that the effects of a treatment hold for pretested participants from the particular population sampled now in this particular place (Cohen et al., 2013).

Threats to statistical conclusion validity are conditions that inflate the Type I error rate, which refers to rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true (Goggins et al., 2013). Statistical conclusion validity is the appropriate use of statistics to derive an accurate conclusion. The validity with each statement about the association of two variables made based on statistical tests (Goggins et al., 2013). Type I error refers to the incorrect rejection of the null hypothesis when it is true. When researchers set an alpha level, they choose a level of probability making a Type I error (Goggins et al., 2013).

One threat to statistical conclusion validity is low statistical power, which is a threat when sample sizes are too large or when the set alpha is high. The threat exists because high statistical power decreases the likelihood of making a Type I error. Also, the emphasis on issues of significance and power may also be the reason that some sources refer to any factor that leads to a Type I error. Type I error as a threat to statistical conclusion validity (Goggins et al., 2013).

Violating assumptions of statistical tests is a threat when the assumption underlying statistical tests (i.e., normality) fails. Violations of assumptions occur because some statistical tests have no interpretation when violations to assumptions occur (Goggins et al., 2013). Numerous researchers have shown that the two-stage approach of testing assumptions first and subsequently testing the null hypothesis of interest has severe effects on Type I error rates. The two-stage approach causes more complex interactions of Type I error rates that do not have fixed probabilities across the cases. Which end up treated one way or the other according to the outcomes of the preliminary test (Goggins et al., 2013).

Fishing and error rate problems are a threat when researchers make numerous multiple comparisons when conducting a large number of statistical tests. Fishing and error rate problems are making a Type I error increases based on the number of comparisons a researcher makes (Goggins et al., 2013). Reliability of measures is a threat when measures of reliability for a scale are low. Researchers cannot rely on an unreliable scale for detecting true differences because low reliability for research purposes is less than .70 to .80 (Goggins et al., 2013). Type I errors are essential components of the statistical decision theory underlying null hypothesis significance testing; therefore, researchers can never expect data to answer a research question unequivocally (Goggins et al., 2013).

I addressed the threats to statistical conclusion validity by allowing each participant the freedom of self-control. Sample selection was as homogeneous as possible. The pretest measure collection involved the same scales that measure the effect (Goggins et al., 2013). Matching might take place before or after randomization or variables that correlate with the posttest. Reliability of dependent variable measures might increase (Goggins et al., 2013).

External validity refers to the result of a study that is generalizable beyond the sample. Threats to this generalization involve two validities: population and ecological (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Population validity is the extent to which the results of a study are generalizable from the sample studied to a larger group of subjects. Ecological validity is the extent to which the result of an experiment is generalizable from the set of

environmental conditions created by the researcher to other environmental conditions (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Researchers conduct studies using a sample of subjects rather than whole populations. The most challenging aspect of fieldwork is drawing a random sample from the target population to which the results of the study are generalizable. The decision on whether the results of a particular study are generalizable to a larger population depends on the sampling (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). I would not generalize the finding of this research to a larger population or apply it to different settings because when generalizing from observations made on a sample to a larger population, certain issues will dictate judgment.

Transition and Summary

The information presented in Section 2 of the research study was a description of the research methods and procedures used in this quantitative study, which included two surveys. I e-mailed the ALQ and the MCQ to 98 managers working for a retail business in the southwestern United States and took appropriate measures to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants. Section 3 includes the application for professional practice and implications for social change, along with conclusions drawn based on the findings and recommendations, which include practical application and future research.

Section 3: Application for Professional Practice and Implications for Social Change

The purpose of this quantitative correlation study was to help organizational leaders develop strategies to improve the decision making process involving ethical behavior. Data analysis included a systematic approach. The first step involved identifying the descriptive statistics of the individual items of each survey instrument to calculate the mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum of the variables, and if necessary, to discard outliers from the analysis. The discarding of outliers was an important precursor to determining the validity and reliability of this study.

The second step involved calculating a correlation matrix for the scale. Departures from normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity reduce the correlation between the items (Raush & Anderson, 2011). Based on the analysis, no remedial countermeasures were necessary. I entered the results from the questionnaires into SPSS. The independent variables were leadership and decision making. The dependent variable was ethical behavior. Section 3 includes the interpretation of the data. The research outcomes applied to professional practice, implications for social change, effective use of objective measures, and intuitive methods used by leaders who make decisions involving workplace ethics.

Presentation of Findings

Standard MLR was conducted to assess the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. Leadership and decision making were the independent variables. Ethical behavior was the dependent variable. The null hypothesis was that leadership and decision making would significantly predict ethical behavior. The alternative hypothesis was that leadership and decision making would significantly predict ethical behavior.

The assumptions of linearity, normality, independence of residuals were examined via normal probability (P-P) plot of the regression standardized residual (Figure 1) and scatter plot of the residuals (Figure 2). As seen in the plots, the hypotheses that there are severe violations of the assumptions are tenable. A histogram (Figure 3) of the dependent variable is further evidence of severe violations of the assumptions. A further review of a correlation matrix revealed there was severe multicollinearity ($p < .01$, $r = -.97$) between the two predictor variables. Therefore, bootstrapping using 1000 samples were computed and reported where appropriate.

The model as a whole was able to significantly predict ethical behavior ($F(2,95) = 12.79$, $p < .01$). The effect size of $R^2 = .21$ indicated that approximately 21% of the variance in ethical behavior is accounted for by the predictor variables. However, none of the individual predictors was significant. The existence of multicollinearity between the two-predictor variables perhaps offers a plausible explanation for this phenomenon. Therefore, these results should be viewed with caution. Descriptive statistics are presented at table 4. Table 5 depicts the regression results.

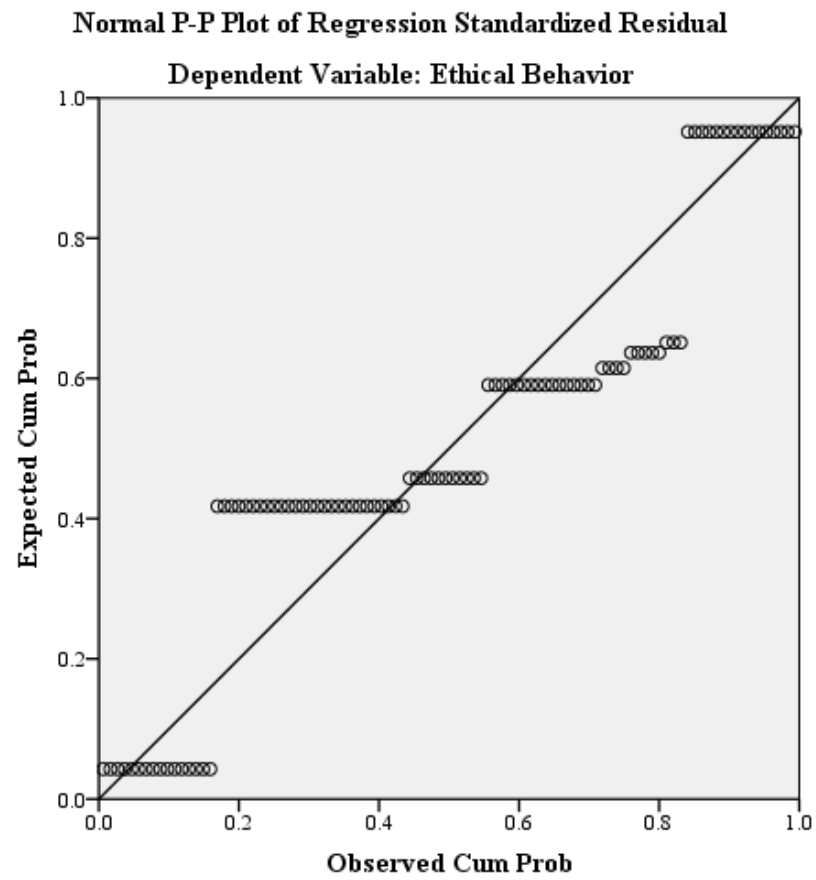


Figure 1. Normal P-P Plot of the Regression Standardized Residual.

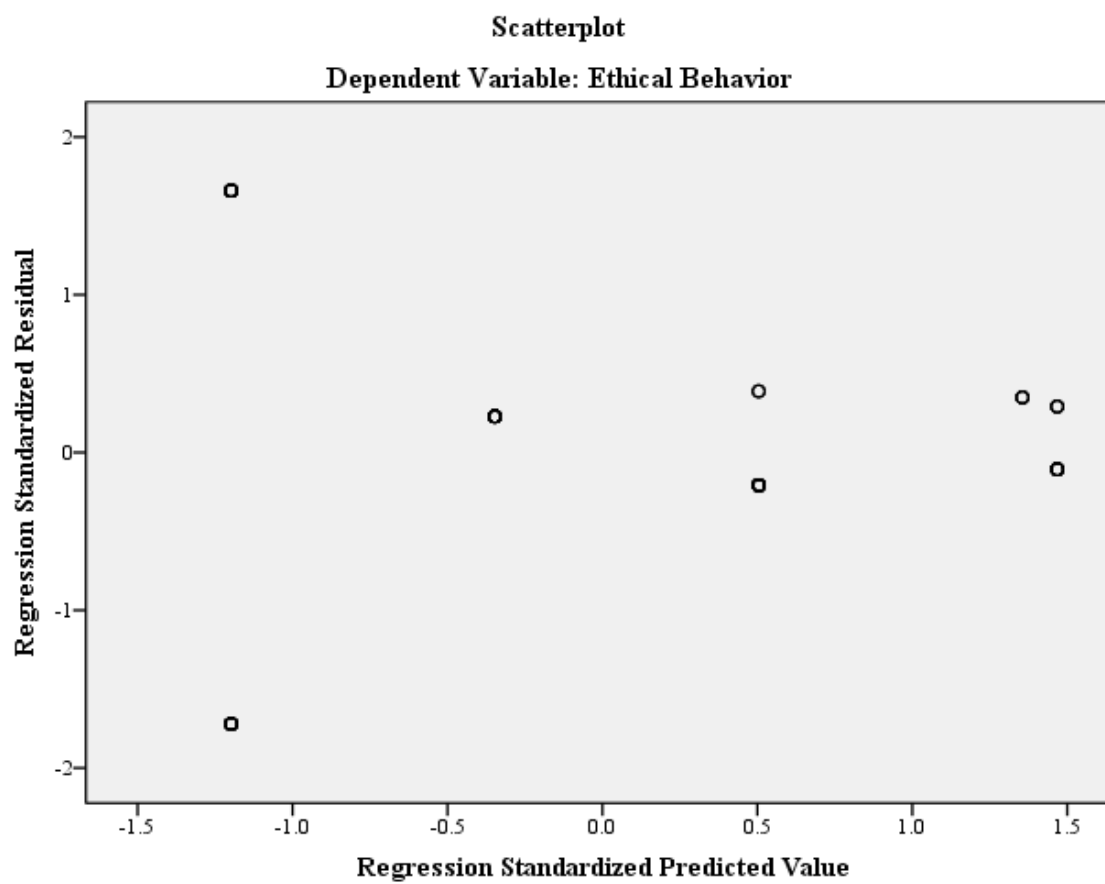


Figure 2. Scatterplot of the standardized residuals.

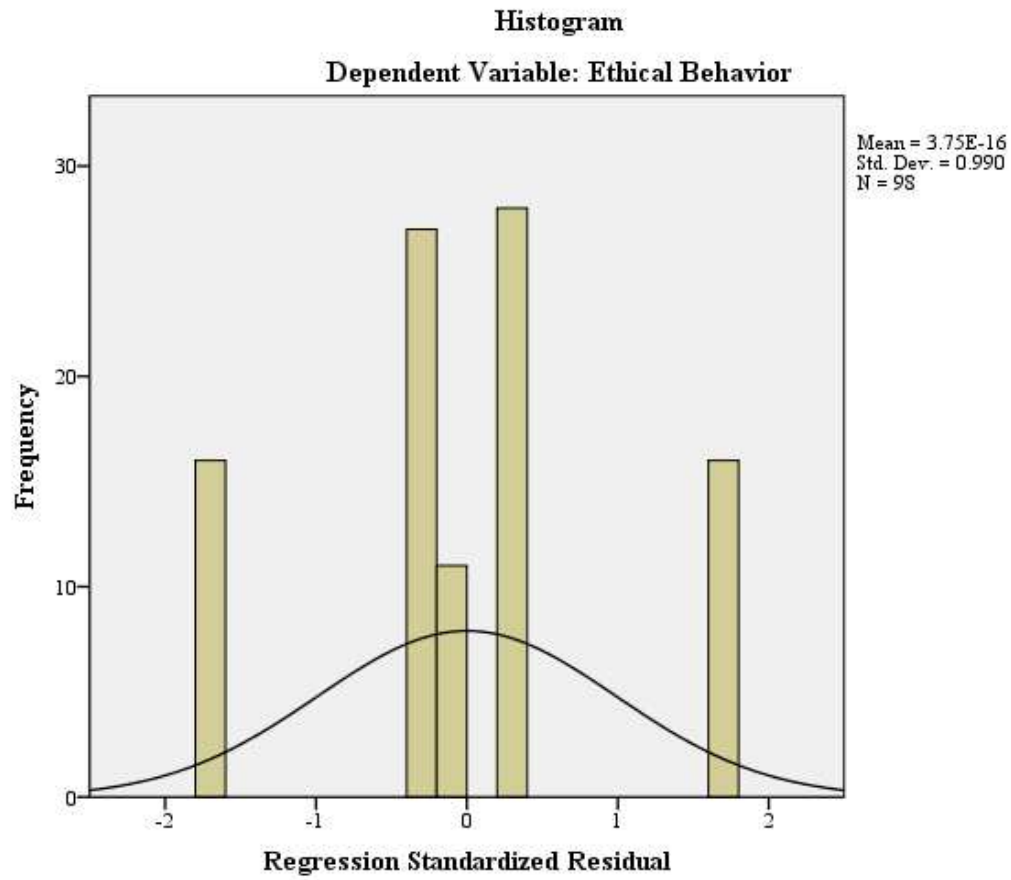


Figure 3. Histogram of the regression standardized residual.

Table 4

Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) for Study Variables (N = XX)

Variable	M	SD
Ethical Behavior	47.74	5.61
Leadership	27.38	2.1
Decision making	20.93	2.53

Table 5

Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables (N = 98)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i> 95% Bootstrap CI
Constant	44.3	43.2		1.025	0.308	[-41.47, 130.06]
Leadership	-0.405	0.97	-0.151	-0.416	0.678	[-2.34, 1.53]
Decision Making	0.694	0.81	0.313	0.86	0.392	[-.907, 2.30]

The findings were consistent with Drucker's (1960) theory that effective decision making is key to leaders making sound decisions regarding ethical behaviors. The results substantiated the findings of similar studies described in the literature review of this study. Leaders' behavior and approaches characterize the most effective leadership of achieving high-quality results from decision making processes (Rausch & Anderson, 2011).

The findings of this study supported Drucker's (1960) theory that effective management practices should serve as the principal objective of decision making. Also, the philosophy of management practices involves several proven management practices that can effectively influence the decision making process (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Management best practices may consist of selecting the right people, showing empathy, communicating effectively, being positive and constructive, and thanking and rewarding staff. Management best practices may also consist of being both aggressive and realistic when setting goals and objectives, holding individuals accountable in an effort to deliver

on the expectations one has of them, seeking to create an ethical workplace, and using metrics to evaluate individual performance and the organization diversity and inclusion program.

Before leaders address workplace situations, they should take the time to recognize or identify the context that governs that particular situation (Drucker, 1960). Making good decisions can help direct personnel and motivate the workforce through reward and punishment (Schltegger & Csutora, 2012). The cause and effect of unethical behavior relations are difficult to identify but not to handle. Unethical behavior can lead employees to believe that manageable patterns never existed. The belief by employees that manageable patterns never exist could be due to the inconstant shifting between cause and effect (Schltegger & Csutora, 2012).

The theory of management by Drucker (1960) applied to this study. The results showed that ethical behavior serves as a foundation to examine various factors that may explain the correlation between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. A need exists to develop conceptual clarity on the subject of ethical behavior (Suhonen et al., 2011). Unethical behavior may have an effect on leaders' interaction with employees and on how the outcome affects employees' job performance and emotional well-being (Vandenberghe, 2011).

Application to Professional Practice

The study may contribute to the efficient practice of business by addressing the viewpoints of leaders on making decisions that involve unethical behavior. Addressing

unethical behavior by leaders in the workplace leads to better workplace morale among employees, and boosts the loyalty of employees to management (DiGrande et al., 2011).

The findings are relevant to business practice in the following respects:

1. The independent and dependent variables each had acceptable reliability.

Leadership efficiency had an impact on the business, the customer, and preparation for the future.

2. Integrating behavior and approaches characterize the most effective leadership for achieving high-quality results from the decision making process.
3. Integrating leadership into the decision making process involving ethical and unethical behavior could assist leaders when applying logic and analytical skills.

This study may be important for businesses in the 21st century because business leaders are constantly seeking to develop options that will result in a competitive advantage. The competitive advantage brings a wide range of perspectives regarding reacting to unethical behavior in a retail business workplace (DiGrande et al., 2011).

The development options appear in the increasing number of publications on the topic of unethical behavior, which include authors such as, Kazemipour, Amin, and Pourseidi (2012), Kossek et al. (2011), Laschinger et al. (2011), and Malik et al. (2011).

When leaders make decisions on how to address unethical behavior in the workplace, the decision may involve the relationship to transform individual and organizational life in ways unrestricted by natural laws. The potentially groundbreaking nature of this research leaves no doubt about the intuitively positive relationships between ethical behavior and

leaders' ability to make sound decisions in a retail business workplace (DiGrande et al., 2011).

Implications for Social Change

Within a positive social change perspective, the findings reinforced the argument that business leaders can develop strategies to improve the decision making process involving ethical behavior. For example, the September 11, 2001, tragedy exposed challenges that leadership had in making decisions that involved unethical behavior. Business leaders were not ready for the aftermath of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks (DiGrande et al., 2011).

The social implication of the findings is that this study reinforced social change through demonstrating the significant role that ethical behavior plays in leaders' ability to make sound decisions. The results reaffirmed the importance of examining behaviors and leadership capabilities in individuals, communities, organizations, and institutions. The results relate to social behaviors given the emerging acceptance of the unethical behavior. The results may contribute to ethical values. Ethical values include unethical behavior in a business context. The results may also contribute to unethical behavior, such as service, honesty, respect, integrity, justice, accountability, trustworthiness, cooperation, intuition, and quality (DiGrande et al., 2011).

Therefore, the results of this study reinforce social change by encouraging future research on ethical and unethical behavior and leaders' ability to make sound decisions in a retail business workplace. The results promote social change through a better understanding of the relationship between ethical behavior, decision making, and

leadership. The promotion of social change can lead to increased leadership effectiveness, increased employee satisfaction, and a more productive workplace.

Recommendation for Action

The decision to employ a quantitative survey design was appropriate for this study and the results revealed the existence of positive correlations between Leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. The findings of this study revealed that unethical behavior could relate to leaders' ability to make sound decisions in the retail business workplace.

Therefore, further study on leaders of corporations who initiate programs, conferences, workshops, retreats, ethical behavior conferences, and offsite programs is necessary. The ideal method to disseminate the study and recommendation is to have further study on leaders of corporations to initiate mentoring and entrepreneurial programs to help new business owners identify the essential knowledge needed for success. In addition, publication can be used to challenge leader's experience in making decisions involving ethical and unethical behavior. The programs initiated by corporate leaders could enable leaders to inspire their employees to produce a more motivated, committed, and productive workforce. Positively influencing performance, turnover, output, and other relevant effectiveness standards could lead to improved production.

Recommendations for Further Research

Future studies are necessary to help organizational leaders develop strategies to improve the decision making process that involves ethical behavior in the business workplace. Researchers could replicate this study using the same instruments with many

different populations in the business arena. Replicating the study using the same instruments would demonstrate that the findings were not an accident or coincidence. Such research would reveal differences and commonalities among employees and leaders in a retail business workplace regarding their practices across diverse environments.

Recommendations for Further Study related to improved practice in business grounded in the literature related to:

1. Increasing importance of concepts regarding ethical behavior in a retail business workplace and leader's ability to make sound decisions
2. Leaders embracing the best practices for determining ethical decision making when confronting unethical behavior in a retail business workplace
3. Leaders focusing on doing the right thing when integrating ethics and decision making together.

The limitations that emerged from this study, such as the lack of access to leaders to participate, could be preventable when conducting future research. It took effort to obtain participants in leadership positions. The limitation of having a topic that required an excessive amount of time to complete the literature review, apply the methodology, and gather and interpret the results was addressed. Further research on the same topic may prevent the same limitations.

Researchers should conduct future studies globally, as well as in local business sectors, to gain an understanding of the relationship between Leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. Researchers should conduct a 1- to 5-year longitudinal study to examine the impact and to expand the existing body of literature. The

longitudinal study would involve tracking the participants' practice and would yield substantial quantitative data, findings, and understanding how future studies may assist in promoting social change.

Reflection

The research conducted for this study was different from the research I previously conducted while obtaining a master's degree. The material was difficult to research, and it was difficult to locate scholarly research documents. The difficulties consisted of (a) unfamiliar words or concepts and (b) the format and dialog of research.

Some of the insights I gleaned were the importance of adequately preparing for conducting research and the importance of understanding the format and structure of the American Psychological Association. Also, having a good committee chair who was willing to communicate with everyone involved in the research process and who was willing to work with uncertainty was important.

Conducting a quantitative study assisted in stating the research problem in specific and set terms. The strengths of conducting quantitative research connect to a firm set of research goals. The research goals assisted in developing objective conclusions, testing the hypothesis, and determining the issues of causality. The weakness of the quantitative method was the inability to control the environment where the participants provided the answers to the questions in the survey.

I gained experience from conducting the quantitative research study, and a functional paradigm served as a guide to the quantitative mode of inquiry. The basis of the mode of inquiry was the assumption that social reality has an ontological structure.

Leaders are responding agents when ethical behavior is the focus in their decision making process in a retail business workplace.

Conclusion

The findings of this quantitative study indicated the increasing importance of concepts regarding ethical behavior in a retail business workplace and leaders' ability to make sound decisions. The implication that leaders have the responsibility to uphold the highest standards of ethical conduct (Li & Madsen, 2011) means that leaders should focus on doing the right thing when integrating ethics and decision making together. Leaders should embrace the best practices for determining ethical decision making when confronting unethical behavior in a retail business workplace (Ferris et al., 2011).

The general business problem in this research study was that unethical behavior affects a leader's ability to make decisions (McCormick, 2011). The specific business problem was that some retail business leaders do not understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. The purpose of this quantitative correlation study is to examine that some retail business leaders do not understand the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior. The independent variables were leadership and decision making. The dependent variable was ethical behavior. The research question was as follows: What is the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior?

While conducting this study, I used various concepts of leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior to determine their necessity, effectiveness, and relevance in a retail business workplace. The theory of choice for the research study was Drucker's

(1960) theory of management. Drucker's philosophy of management provided value to the discipline of modern management practices. Drucker shared his theory that everything started at the management level. It is leadership's responsibility to make effective decisions, and it is leadership's responsibility to organize company resources to achieve the operational goal with customer and employee satisfaction (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Drucker's theory of management served as a foundation to examine various factors that explained the correlation between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior (Toubiana & Yair, 2012). Organizational leaders can use the results of this study to simultaneously improve the quality and effectiveness of the decision making process.

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Appendix A: Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a research study entitled *Ethical Behavior, Leadership, and Decision Making: Workplace Ethics*. Only senior and mid-level managers, working for a retail organization located in southwest Florida is invited to participate in this study. The intent is to respect other professions. The participants need to be in their position at least five years. This form is part of a process called “informed consent” to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part. A researcher named Emmett Emery, who is a doctoral student at Walden University, is conducting this study.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete two questionnaires, an Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ), and Moral Potency Questionnaire (MCQ) via e-mail. Leadership and decision making will be measured by the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ), you are asked to answer a total of 16 questions, and the commitment should be approximately 20 minutes. Example of the type of questions:

1. Ask you to take positions that support your core values.
2. Make difficult decisions based on high standards of ethical conduct.

The Moral Potency Questionnaire (MCQ) will measure ethical behavior. You are asked to answer a total of 12 questions, and the commitment should be approximately 20 minutes. Example of the type of questions:

1. Take charge to address ethical issues when I know someone has done something wrong.
2. Confront others who behave unethically to resolve the issue.

Once consent is agreed, you will be sent the questionnaires via e-mail. A word document of the questionnaire will be sent out via email. After the completion of the questionnaires, please return via e-mail. I will obtain a paper version of the questionnaire. After the completion of this study, a 1 to 2 —page summary of the findings will be e-mail to every participant.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you choose to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. You may stop at any time. Vulnerable populations are not excluded (such as elderly, pregnant, mentally disabled, or residing within a facility).

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

Being in this type of study involves some risk of the minor discomforts that can be encountered in daily life, such as stress or becoming upset. Being in this study would not pose a risk to your safety or well-being. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit from your being a part of this study is an increased understanding of leadership, decision making, and ethical behavior.

Payment:

There is no compensation.

Privacy:

Any information you provide will be kept confidential. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purpose outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study reports. Data will be kept secure by electronic files stored on the researcher password protected computer. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:

You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via 727-417-6451 or Emmett.emery@waldenu.edu. For questions about your rights as a study participant, or any concerns or complaints, please contact Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) via e-mail at IRB@Waldenu.edu. Walden University's approval number for this study is 07-14-15-0364844, and it expires on July 13, 2016.

Please print out and save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information, and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. By signing below, I understand that I agree to the terms described above.

Date of Consent _____

Participant Electronic Signature _____

Researcher's Electronic Signature Emmett Emery_____

Appendix B: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

1. Say exactly what I mean.
2. Admit mistakes when they are made.
3. Encourage everyone to speak in line with feelings.
4. Tell you the hard truth.
5. Display emotions exactly in line with feelings.
6. Demonstrate beliefs that are consistent with actions.
7. Make decisions based on my core values.
8. Ask you to take positions that support your core values.
9. Make difficult decisions based on high standards of ethical conduct.
10. Solicit views that challenge my deeply held positions.
11. Analyze relevant data before coming to a decision.
12. Listen carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions.
13. Seek feedback to improve interactions with others.
14. Accurately describe how others view my capabilities.
15. Know when it is time to reevaluate my position on important issues.
16. Show I understand how specific actions impact others.

Appendix C: Moral Potency Questionnaire (MCQ)

1. Confront my peers if they commit an unethical act.
2. Confront a leader if he/she commits an unethical act.
3. Always state my views about an ethical issue to my leaders.
4. Go against the group's decision whenever it violates my ethical standards.
5. Assume responsibility to take action when I see an unethical act.
6. Not accept anyone in my group behaving unethically.
7. Take charge to address ethical issues when I know someone has done something wrong.
8. Confront others who behave unethically to resolve the issue.
9. Readily see the moral/ethical implications in the challenges I face.
10. Work with others to settle moral/ethical disputes.
11. Take decisive action when addressing a moral/ethical decision.
12. Determine what needs to be done when I face moral/ethical dilemmas.

Appendix D: Permission to use the Moral Potency Questionnaire (MCQ)

For use by Emmett Emery only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on January 4, 2015



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Moral Potency Questionnaire*

Authors: *Sean T. Hannah and Bruce J. Avolio*

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for his/her thesis research.

Three sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Robert Most".

Robert Most
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Appendix E: Permission to use the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

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The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Robert Most", with a stylized flourish extending to the right.

Robert Most
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Appendix F: Protecting Human Subject Research Participants

Protecting Human Subject Research Participants

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