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Leader Self-Perceptions of Ethics In and Out of the Workplace and Personal Trustworthiness

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Abstract

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MS, Walden University, 2014

BS, Hawaii Pacific University, 2009

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Ethical breaches in many organizations can be traced to failures in ethical leadership, which undermine trust. If a leader's ethical behavior in their private life and settings is perceived as influencing workplace ethics, it may in turn affect organizational trust levels and the development of trust. A quantitative study based on the social learning and moral theory was conducted to determine whether a difference exists between a leader's self-perceptions of their ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace, and whether it affects their perceived personal trustworthiness. Participants' ($N = 94$) scores on work and nonwork versions of the ethical leadership scale were compared using a paired-samples t test, which determined no significant differences in their ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace. Then multiple regression analyses were conducted, which indicated that the model containing both independent variables regarding ethical behavior inside and outside the workplace significantly predicted changes in the dependent variable personal trustworthiness: $F(7, 86) = 6.025$, $p < .001$. The model explained 27% of the variance in personal trustworthiness. The model also significantly predicted changes in scores related to propensity to trust; $F(10, 83) = 3.692$, $p < .001$. The model explained 23% of the variance in propensity to trust. This research will aid leaders in understanding more about the perception of their own ethics and how this plays into the cultivation of trust. It also has implications that may influence leadership among all types of work environs, including government organizations and industry.

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Dedication

There are times when words are not adequate to express enough gratitude. This is one of those times, but I want to make an attempt, however inadequate my words may seem. The lion and hero of my life, my husband Rex, who supported me every step, in every way, deserves all possible thanks, and has all my love eternally. The One who inspired me to take on this endeavor, and was with me through every class, every paper, and every attempt at this endeavor, my God Almighty, whom I can never thank enough for my life, my family, and my future. The man who took my project on when others said I did not have the ability, my amazing chair Dr. John K. Schmidt, who epitomizes the example of the perfect chair. And finally, my family who cheered me on through thick and thin, who were patient when I had to study, and my friends who stuck by me even when I had little time to offer them. Thank you all from the bottom of my heart.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Trust is the basis for establishing a desirable, positive environment in an organization, but achieving trust has been shown to be challenging (Mollering, Bachmann, & Lee, 2004); currently, trust in the business environment and in business leaders is at an unprecedented low (Edelman, 2017; Heavey, Halliday, Gilbert, & Murphy, 2011; Wilson, 2009). Learning to cultivate a trusting environment is critical for the leader-follower relationship for it lends legitimacy to the leader's status, policies, and decision making (Stouten, Van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2012).

Trust is a psychological state that is crucial not only for leaders to understand but also for organizational psychologists to learn how to effectively cultivate and develop in their practice (Bagraim & Hime, 2007; Clarke & Payne, 1997). Riedl and Javor (2012) warned that trust deprivation is hazardous to communities and society, and that the lack of trust in political and business leadership was "among the strongest predictors of poverty" (n.p., paragraph 3). The authors clarified that in places of the world where trust is lowest, poverty is at the highest rates. Investors felt risks were too high, which resulted in reduced business growth and less employment (Riedl & Javor, 2012).

Earned trust in leaders is most influenced by ethical behavior (Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Stouten et al., 2012). Skubinn and Herzog (2016) indicated that the type of ethical leadership, which is based on internalized ethics, increases productive workplace behaviors; they clarified that if the "ethics" in ethical leaders' behavior were not fully internalized, then there are many circumstances where those leaders inevitably fall short, particularly in critical circumstances. Within an organization's construct, employees make deductions and inferences about the prevailing culture of the workplace and

interpret the value that is put on ethics and trust-making determinations about whether they will place trust in their coworkers and leadership, or whether they will simply comply with those to which they are required to report (Armour, 2016). If a leader's ethical conduct in their personal life is perceived as influencing workplace ethics, it may affect organizational trust levels. Increased trust levels have been found to initiate and sustain better leadership because elevated trust is a foundation for more effective followership (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014).

Lopez, Amat, and Rocafort (2016) related the importance of ethics to sustained success in a well-managed society and the alternative economic chaos that ensues when a lack of ethical behaviors of companies arises, along with the corresponding community trust issues that attend the lapse of ethics. The researchers found that the self-perceptions of companies' ethics were higher than their actions demonstrated, and the researchers called for more investigative studies on the self-perceptions of the ethical behaviors of leaders and executives (Lopez et al., 2016). The problem is that if self-perceptions of ethical behaviors of leaders are higher than actual behaviors displayed, then, because the actions displayed by leaders provide a base for employees' trust in their organization, it is important to examine how, why, and what leadership behaviors affect perceptions of trustworthiness both from the leader's and employee's perceptions (Xu, Loi, & Ngo, 2016).

In this chapter, I address the problem and background of the issue. Also included are the research questions and hypotheses, the statistical methods that I used to test the research hypotheses, and the theoretical framework for the research. I conclude the chapter with definitions, assumptions, limitations and implications of the study.

Background

Due to the excessive amount of fraud and scandalous management behaviors in recent decades, attention has turned to unethical behavior in organizations (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014). Brien (1998) explained that the cause of ethical breaches in many organizations could be traced to failures in ethical leadership, which undermines trust at many levels. Ethical behavior is a construct that comprises 62.5% of earned trust in leaders (Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Stouten et al., 2012). Skubinn and Herzog (2016) stated much of the tone of ethical behavior is set by uppermost leadership, and that current interest in ethical behaviors at this level has been elevated. Researchers have contended that answers to many related fundamental questions about ethical leadership remain unknown and they have called for further investigation (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014).

Downey, Roberts, and Stough (2011) observed that trust is the most vital element of relationship building and is essential to superior team performance. Marquardt and Horvath (2012) asserted there must be a high level of trust for organizations to achieve sustained success. The empirical literature on trust in leadership supports that trust is linked to workers' dedication or commitment (Flaherty & Pappas, 2000; Yang & Mossholder, 2010), communication (Sutherland & Yoshida, 2015; Willemyns, Gallois, & Callan, 2003), organizational citizenship behavior (Deluga, 1994; Xiaojun, 2014), and leadership effectiveness (Koohang, Paliszkiewicz, & Goluchowski, 2017; Zand, 1972), as well as job satisfaction (Dalati & Kbarh, 2015; Tan & Tan, 2000).

In smaller communities, the military, and in politics, there has been much scrutiny of professionals, leaders, and subordinates outside of the work environment (Barnett &

Yutrzenka, 1994; Campbell & Gordon, 2003). Consequently, if leaders are not ethical in their private lives away from work, or, if their ethical motivation at work is not originating from internally derived values, they may be perceived as less than trustworthy or hypocritical, which could then undermine workplace trust (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016; Stouten et al., 2012). High trust has been found to lead to better leadership for trust leads to better followership (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). Scholars currently call for more understanding of ethical leadership and followership (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012; Newman, Kiazad, Miao, & Cooper, 2014). The research suggests that the principal factors of trust in leadership include aspects such as formulated trust based on past experiences, the competency and skill of leadership, and supervisor-leader commitment (Atkins, 2011).

Acquiring the ability to develop and promote a trusting environment is vital for the leader-follower relationship (Stouten et al., 2012). Unfortunately, at present, trust in the business environment is situated at an unequivocally low level (Heavey et al., 2011; Wilson, 2009). Mollering et al. (2004) describe the construct of trust as being infamously elusive, particularly for organizational implementation, joining other scholars in calling for more in-depth research for broader development of understanding of trust in organizations as it relates to leaders' behavior and ethics (Mollering et al., 2004; Skubinn & Herzog, 2016; Stouten et al., 2012).

Problem Statement

Although there has been extensive investigation into leadership and trust, perceptions that employees have of the trustworthiness of subordinates and leaders is the crux of this issue, to which my investigation is related. The trouble is that current

research shows self-perceptions of ethical behaviors of companies to be higher than actual behaviors displayed (Lopez et al., 2016), so then it could follow that self-perceptions of some leaders' ethics and their trustworthiness are also overestimated by leaders than actual behaviors show. Understanding this situation, and underlying reasons why it may be so, would be important to leaders and their ability to accurately assess themselves and their effectiveness as leaders in their organizations. It would also prove important to the training and selection process of leaders.

The problem is that if a leader's ethical behavior in their private lives and settings is perceived as affecting workplace ethics, this may in turn affect organizational trust levels and the development of trust. Elevated trust levels have been found in the most recent literature to initiate and sustain better leadership because higher trust is an antecedent to better followership (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). Currently, scholars in the field are asking for better understanding of ethical leadership and followership (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Lopez et al., 2016; Mayer et al., 2012; Newman et al., 2014). Presently, no research has directly focused on the self-perceived ethical behaviors of leaders in a working versus nonworking environment, along with its relationship to self-perceived trustworthiness. In this research, I directly investigated and focused on these areas.

Purpose of the Study

My intent in this quantitative study was to determine whether a significant difference exists between a leader's self-perceptions of their ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace, and whether it affects their perceived personal trust and trustworthiness. My goal was to assess whether working to improve a leader's self-

perceptions of their ethical behaviors, on and off the job, can be used to influence individual perceptions of their trusting nature and trustworthiness.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

To determine whether leaders' self-perceived ethical behavior is significantly different due to environments inside and outside the workplace, and whether it correlates to their perceived personal trust and trustworthiness, I tested the following research questions using the corresponding hypotheses:

Research Question 1: Do leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors differently inside and outside of the workplace?

H_{01}: Leaders do not perceive their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace differently.

H_{a1}: Leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace differently.

Research Question 2: Do leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predict their personal trustworthiness?

H_{02}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work do not predict their personal trustworthiness.

H_{a2}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predict their personal trustworthiness.

Research Question 3: Do leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predict their personal trust?

H_{03}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work do not predict their personal trust.

H_{a3}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predicts their personal trust.

Theoretical Framework

Bandura (1977), the originator of social learning theory (SLT) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), noted that most anything that can be learned by direct experience can also be learned indirectly by observation of others and the consequences attending their conduct. Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005) proposed SLT as a foundation for studying and understanding ethical leadership, suggesting that most research on ethics has been based on it. They suggested that SLT depicts role modeling as an important part of learning, specifically designating those in leadership positions as being most influential over followers (Brown et al., 2005). SLT presents a perspective on ethical leadership, suggesting that leaders are exceedingly influential over the ethical behavior of followers by means of role modeling (Brown et al., 2005). Brown et al. (2005) also conceived a formalized definition of *ethical leadership*, and they have developed an ethical leadership scale (ELS) that measures the construct and assesses an estimate of its psychometric features.

Each generation of new leaders learns what behaviors are acceptable and unacceptable through rewards, through punishments, and by example (Brown et al., 2005). Consequently, if leaders are ethical only because they know that this behavior is conducive to better business success, and they are not ethical in their private lives away from work, or if their motivation is not originating from inner derived values, they can be perceived as hypocritical, which may undermine trust (Stouten et al., 2012). Therefore, the perceptions leaders hold about their own trustworthiness may be elevated even if their

off-the-job behaviors do not reflect the same values. These circumstances would be important to understand and to note under assessments (self-assessments or otherwise), because of the influence SLT suggests leaders have (including examples they set when off the job) (Brown et al., 2005). I investigated these issues to learn more about personal perceptions of ethical examples and the relationship they have to perceptions of trustworthiness.

Moral identity theory (MIT) is the other theoretical foundation that I used for this research. Moral identity is the amount of value people place on the importance of conducting themselves morally (Aquino & Reed, 2002). If moral behavior within a person's overall schema develops to the extent that it is internalized deeply, they are likely to adjust their own behavior to align with that moral schema (Blasi, 2005; Gu & Neesham, 2014). Aquino and Reed (2002) explained that the more intensely moral traits are adopted within the self-identity of an individual, the more probability there is that this identity will be enacted across a variety of circumstances.

Mayer et al. (2012) drew on SLT and MIT for grounding their research, which concluded that moral identity is positively related to ethical leadership. Theoretically, people may not actually behave as differently on/off the job as they may believe, because moral identities have tended to be consistently predictive of behaviors (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Prior research grounded in SLT demonstrated the influence of role models on prosocial and ethical behaviors of leaders in the workplace (Brown & Trevino, 2014). I also used SLT and MIT for their theoretical basis. I discuss SLT and MIT in greater detail in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

My rationale for the design of this quantitative study was to discover whether environment affects leaders' self-perceptions of ethical behaviors and, further, whether those perceptions predict or correlate to their self-perceptions of trust and trustworthiness. Quantitative research is consistent with investigating antecedents and other elements of ethical behaviors (Mayer et al., 2012) and is commonly used for investigations of trust as well (Mitrut, Serban, & Vasilache, 2013; Nirwan, 2014). The independent variable in this study was setting, specifically the participants' work and nonwork environments. The dependent variables were self-perceived ethical behavior and personal trust and trustworthiness.

I used survey methodology to access leaders in an array of diverse industries through SurveyMonkey. A survey or questionnaire is the most suitable method for acquiring information in a succinct and swift fashion (Dillman, 2008). Participants first either took the ELS (Brown et al., 2005) that measured ethics as a construct at work, or they took a modified version intended to measure ethics outside of work (at home, with friends, etc.), and then subsequently they took the one they did not complete first. This was done so the one version of the instrument would not influence the other; this way, it was effectively counterbalanced. I received permission through personal communication from the authors of the ELS to alter the test for nonwork environments, which should have no effect on validity or reliability to the instrument (D. Harrison, L. Trevino, & M. Brown, personal communication, September 20, 2016; see Appendix A). Appropriate instructions were provided for each version prior to its administration. Participants also took an additional questionnaire after taking both the ELS and the modified version,

which then measured overall self-perceptions of trust and trustworthiness, called the propensity to trust survey (PTS; Evans & Revelle, 2008).

For the first research question, the scores for work and nonwork versions of the ELS for each participant were compared. A paired samples *t* test was conducted to make the comparison for the paired scores for each of the participants in the study. The second and third research questions were addressed using a multiple regression analysis.

Definitions

The following terms are operationally defined:

Ethical behavior: As depicted by Ralston et al. (2014), "The standards of appropriate conduct that individuals use to guide decisions in both their work and non-work environments" (Ralston et al., 2014, p. 284). In the organizational context, *ethical behavior* is an encompassing category that includes and/or relates to an array of behaviors that occur in organizational settings, such as leadership, followership, organizational citizenship, decision making, and communication (Collins, 2000; Trevino, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006).

Leader trust: Trust of upper management and other leaders inside an organization which is founded on the character and standing of executive leadership (Ballinger, Schoorman, & Lehman, 2009).

Propensity to trust: Evans and Revelle (2008) described this concept, incorporating Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer's (1998) *trust* definition (above), but distinguished propensity to trust to be an enduring psychological *personality* trait "comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon the positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (p. 395).

Trust: "A psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon the positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 395).

Trustworthiness: Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) pinpointed three aspects of trustworthiness: Ability is "the group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence in a given domain. Benevolence is the general desire to help others, even when that help comes at her own expense. Integrity is associated with the desire to uphold rules and social norms. (Evans & Revelle, 2008, n.p.).

Assumptions

I assumed that the participants were willing to take part in filling out the questionnaires that I presented to them and that each participant was as honest and truthful as possible in answering the questions. To obtain the data for analysis to address the research questions, a survey methodology was an acceptable and practical way to collect data in a timely fashion (Dillman, 2008), but the researcher must rely on the willingness and the ability of those taking the surveys to be truthful, attentive, and earnest in answering. Also, I assumed that all participants were of reasonably sound mind and that they understood general ethical and unethical behaviors, along with understanding general principles of trust. In addition, I assumed that the selection of participants is inclusive of a diverse cultural and ethnic sample of people. I also assumed that participants have been leaders in organizations and had personal experience in leadership.

Scope and Delimitations

The boundaries of this study were in accordance with the topic and premise of the research, which was an evaluation of perceptions of ethics in work versus nonwork

environments, and, further, whether a correlation exists with self-perceptions of trustworthiness. Respecting the constructs of the surveys, SurveyMonkey and partners allowed for specifics in detailing exclusions and inclusions in the survey distribution process. Included within the scope of this research were populations of diverse ethnicities, ages, cultures, industries, and genders as well as individuals from different organizational leadership settings (employee leaders of low, middle, and upper management levels), which aided me in generalizing to the population at large. The invitation to participate in the survey was disseminated electronically online and involved examining the attitudes, behaviors, and values of individuals. In addition, the invitation reaffirmed the inclusion factors of age, employment leadership status, variety of industry, and cultural/ethical diversity.

Limitations

Limitations of this study involved certain characteristics frequently associated with self-reported, informational data. Those who participated in the self-report, survey questionnaires might not share the same extent or capacity of comprehension for the concepts used in the surveys; they also might have been deliberately misleading in their responses; or they may have been unintentionally distracted or otherwise disengaged during the process of providing their responses due to a variety of reasons and may not have provided as accurate answers as possible (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). Another limitation was that of bias, which may be reflected in the format and wording of the surveys themselves, the instructions for the questionnaires, the answers of participants, and the recommendations or conclusions of the study (Simon & Goes, 2013). An additional issue associated with causal/comparative methodologies is how to factor the

effect of an extra detected or undetectable variable. However, I mitigated issues with biases and extra variables, which were (a) to be cognizant of them, be cautious, and try to guard against them; (b) to assure that complete interaction with participants, survey instructions, and the survey itself was as neutral as possible; and (c) to neutralize, as much as was feasible, the phraseology of the study recommendations and conclusion (Armour, 2016).

When doing "in person" (such as face-to-face) interviews or other methods of research, personality and looks may present a problem for biases that could cause or lead participants and researchers to respond in certain ways (Armour, 2016). An example would be if a participant in an interview looks child-like, or has innocent and earnest type expressions, a researcher may be inclined to mark them higher on integrity or trustworthiness. However, this research conducted online in written word, so was more impartial. The measurements that I used were fixed and published, with established validity. Only nominal changes were made to the ELS wording to make it fit for other environments outside of the work/employment environs, and screening took place by those who are highly experienced at conducting and reviewing studies to be certain the changes were as neutral as possible. The ELS authors were contacted and both Harrison (personal communication, September 15, 2016, see Appendix A) as well as Trevino (personal communication, September 20, 2016, see Appendix A) were agreeable to making the small changes of wording to adapt this scale to the nonwork environment.

Significance of the Study

This study investigating whether a difference exists between a leader's self-perceptions of their ethical behaviors inside and outside of work, and whether it affects

their personal trustworthiness, begins to fill a significant gap in the literature scholars have called for about investigative studies on the self-perceptions of the ethical behaviors of leaders and executives (Lopez et al., 2016). It contributes to the discipline by helping leaders and followers more fully understand the dynamics of ethics on the concept of trust and provides an original contribution to knowledge about how trust is engendered or damaged. The current literature explains that ethical behaviors primarily make up the construct of trust; it does not address the area of ethics on and off the job and whether these are correlated to each other in terms of trust. Research in this area would aid leaders in understanding more about the perception of their own ethics and how this plays into the cultivation of trust. The understanding yielded from this research may aid in advancing better trust in relationships in the work environment and industry.

Summary and Transition

In Chapter 1, I provided an overall view of the direction in which this quantitative study proceeds, investigating whether a difference exists between a leader's self-perceptions of their ethical behaviors inside and outside of work, and whether it affects their personal trustworthiness. I used survey methodology to glean data in a succinct and timely fashion, conducting a paired samples *t* test and multiple regression for statistical analyses. The findings from this research might provide organizational leaders and followers more insight and understanding of the development of trust and how ethical behaviors influence the foundation of trust building. The understanding of ethical behaviors in relation to trust may also help in the selection and training of more effective organizational leaders, more accurate leadership assessment, as well as in developing better strategies to build trust in organizations and teams, which improves job

performance, innovation, and creativity (Zhu, Newman, Maio, & Hooke, 2013). In this chapter, I incorporated key elements for the study, including a short review of the background for the study, a concise depiction of the main purpose of the study, the problem addressed, the theoretical foundation, research design, and the research questions. The chapter also included information that showed how relevant this research was for the benefit of individuals, the field of organizational psychology, and society.

Chapter 2 features a review of the recent literature that pertains to organizational trust. I present key viewpoints regarding evidence and theory about how and why ethics is central to this topic. In addition, a historical overview is included along with benefits and challenges. In Chapter 3, I reiterate the purpose of the research and I provide a description of participants, study design, research methods to include instruments, data gathering techniques, and data analysis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of reliability, validity, and ethical considerations. Chapter 4 contains the results of the investigation. It also includes a concise introduction ensued by data collection and analyses. In Chapter 5, I discuss the summary, conclusions, and further recommendations of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The deterioration of trust from a macro-global and organizational viewpoint could be the outcome, or result, of several matters of concern, specifically corruption, fraud, financial misappropriation, and ethical betrayals and treachery (Armour, 2016; Iverson & Zatzick, 2011; Jason, 2014; Stevenson & Wolfers, 2011). Overall, organizational leaders must face issues with declining trust, inadequate leadership, and ethical apathy, which all interplay with one another to create a downward spiral that causes strain on the economic and wellbeing in organizations (Armour, 2016). *Ethical leadership* is defined as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120). This involves the field of organizational psychology and its affiliated spheres, which can address these issues on a personal and organizational level, such as in the training, hiring, and development of ethical leaders.

The degree to which followers perceive their leaders as ethical and trustworthy influences how followers place their confidence, trust, and belief in their leaders; ethical leadership is linked to trust due to the morally driven actions it fosters (Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2014; Van den Akker, Heres, Lasthuizen, & Six, 2009). Leaders at the top of organizations need to objectively evaluate their own ethical character traits first, then they need to adjust and correct their own actions and behaviors (Falk & Blaylock, 2012). Greenbaum, Mawritz, and Piccolo (2015) discuss ways in which leaders may misperceive their leadership as "good" when they may have misunderstood the way

they have “missed the mark” by not “walking the talk” and behaving themselves in the ways in which they tell their subordinates to behave. Few studies in this area of the literature have addressed the focus on the way leaders perceive their own moral/ethical identity and how this influences their behaviors (Engelbrecht et al., 2014; Mayer et al., 2012).

The problem is that if a leader’s ethical behavior in their private lives and settings is perceived as affecting workplace ethics, this may affect organizational trust levels and the development of trust. Xu et al. (2016) stated that leaders act in the name of their organizations and, therefore, the perceptions employees have of the ethical behaviors of their leaders can foster employees’ trust in their organization. Elevated trust levels have been found in the most recent literature to initiate and sustain better leadership (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). However, the literature is clear in delineating that the congruence of the leaders’ words and actions, along with the honorable reputation they have developed in the organization, makes a significant difference in the ability to initiate the promotion or advancement of trust (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007; Xu et al., 2016). Currently, scholars in the field are asking for better understanding of ethical leadership and followership (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Lopez et al., 2016; Mayer et al., 2012; Newman et al., 2014).

If leaders are not ethical in their private lives away from work, or, if their ethical motivation at work is not originating from internally derived values, the literature suggests that they may have been perceived by followers as less than trustworthy or hypocritical, which could then undermine workplace trust (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016; Stouten et al., 2012). The perception of hypocrisy in leadership also evidenced in current

research to be a cause of substantially higher turnover rates (Greenbaum et al., 2015; Philippe & Koehler, 2005). Furthermore, leaders whose ethical values are not genuinely and deeply internalized are more likely to make mistakes in leadership when the pressure is great (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016).

Falk and Blaylock (2012) contended that the 2007-2009 economic meltdown was the consequence of leader shortcomings in the areas of hypocrisy, honor, humility, honesty and other character traits (all starting with the letter *H*) they contend should be measured, and leaders screened, by a score they term the "H Factor." Some researchers suggest that deep moral identities in leaders, who therefore retain their ethical behaviors in and outside of their workplaces, are necessary for the development of the type of organizational trust that is critical during difficult and challenging periods and call for more investigations in this area (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016). One area that has yet to be examined is the self-perceptions of leaders' ethics on and off the job, and the relationship this may have to their propensity to trust and their trustworthiness.

This quantitative study investigated whether a difference exists between a leader's self-perceptions of their ethical behaviors inside and outside of work, and if it affects or predicts their trusting nature and their trustworthiness. If a leader's ethical behavior differs when on and off the job, this may affect organizational trust, or the development of trust at the workplace. Contemporary investigations have determined that self-perceived ethical behaviors of companies is often higher than their actual behaviors show (Lopez et al., 2016), so it is possible that the actual behaviors of current leaders could be less congruent with ethics and trustworthiness than their self-perceptions lead them to believe. Further knowledge about this topic, and the principles behind the reasons this

may occur, would be essential for leaders' abilities to correctly evaluate themselves and their effectiveness as leaders. In addition, this is important information for initiating, sustaining, and further understanding the development of trust in organizations, as well as for training and the selection of leaders.

In this literature review, I will feature a detailed account of the literature research strategy, including library databases and research engines that I used. I will list key terms and will discuss the scope of literature in terms of years reviewed. There will also be a section focused on the theoretical foundations used for this study and the application of those theories to the research questions and hypotheses. Finally, a summary and conclusion will end the chapter.

Literature Search Strategy

There has been a plethora of research on the topic of organizational trust. According to Mayer et al. (1995), trust is "The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform an action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 715). When typing in the words *trust in organizations* to the search engine EBSCO and Thoreau databases, more 23,000 articles were accessible on the topic reviewed from 1901 to the present. Notably, more than 13,000 of those articles were written and published in the past 5 to 6 years, showing much escalated interest and concern about this topic in recent and current times. Most articles that I scrutinized for this review and study were published within the past 10 years; however, there are some cited that are seminal works that were published prior to that time.

In addition to EBSCO and Thoreau, other databases that I searched were ProQuest, ProQuest Central, Directory of Open Access Journals, Google Scholar, Sage Publications/ Journals, PsycInfo, Sage Premier, Journal of Leadership, Accountability, and Ethics, and Business Source Complete. Terms used in searching for the information derived from these databases were *trust*, *ethics*, *leadership trust*, *leadership ethics and trust*, *leadership ethics*, *ethical leadership*, *personal trust*, *interpersonal trust in organizations*, *self-perceptions of trust*, *trust in organizations*, *self-perceptions of leadership trust*, *self-perceptions of leaders' ethics*, *social learning theory*, *social learning theory and role modeling*, *moral theory*, *moral identity theory*, *moral identity theory and trust*, *moral identity theory and ethics*, *moral theory and trust*, *moral theory and ethics*, *organizational hypocrisy*, *leader hypocrisy*, *leadership and hypocrisy*, and *follower perceptions of hypocrisy*.

The vast literature shows that a tremendous array of aspects and topics of organizational trust have been examined; from the cognitive and genetic aspects of trust to the mediating roles trust can have in differing types of leadership. Organizational trust has been researched in relation to different sectors of society (private and public), according to ethnicity or culture, and it has been explored with a macro lens of the effects of trust (or the lack of it) on a societal level, along with investigations of trust at a micro, or individual (personal relationship—such as leader-member exchange theory and personal identification theory), level. Further, trust has been examined to define the many facets of it as a construct, as well as many studies having been conducted on how it affects the functionality of organizations.

Most researchers agree that organizational trust, on varied levels, is vital to organizational success and moreover, that without trust, costs are high. Because trust has been found in the literature to be so essential to successful organizational development and leadership, and the understanding that ethical behaviors make up the largest portion of the construct of trust (Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Stouten et al., 2012), researchers are calling for more studies on the antecedents of ethical leadership behavior and role modeling (Brown & Trevino, 2014), leader hypocrisy and perceptions of hypocrisy, along with patterns of misalignment between leader behaviors and directives to their followers (Goswami & Ha-Brookshire, 2016; Greenbaum et al., 2015). Contemporary researchers have also suggested the literature would benefit greatly if future investigations could be found that focus on applicable theoretical perspectives on leader hypocrisy as it relates to trust, turnover intentions, stress, and organizations (Goswami & Ha-Brookshire, 2016; Greenbaum et al., 2015).

Theoretical Foundations

The theories this research is founded on are SLT and MIT. Together these theories provide a useful framework, which has been used in previous studies on ethical leadership, for understanding and investigating self-perceptions of ethical leadership, trust, and trustworthiness.

Social Learning Theory

SLT was originated by Bandura (1977) and suggests that individuals largely learn about behavior under social circumstances via the influence of others who serve as examples or role models. In the multi-step pattern outlined by Bandura (1977), a person observes something in the environment, then the individual recollects what was observed;

that individual then produces a behavior, which results in a consequence delivered by the environment (e.g. a punishment or an incentive) which alters or reinforces the probability of that behavior being repeated. A central tenet of this theory is that, instead of individuals' learned behaviors hinging on direct experiences of the consequences of their own deeds and conduct, people are cognitively capable of learning vicariously by their observation of others and the repercussions or rewards that may follow others' actions (Bandura, 1977; Manz & Sims, 1981; Ogunforwora, 2014). In this way, people can avoid unnecessary behavioral mistakes that may otherwise be encountered with direct experiences (Bandura, 1977; Ogunforwora, 2014).

Another key element of SLT is the concept of reciprocal determinism; reasoning that just as an individual's conduct is affected by the environment, so is the environment affected by the individual's behavior (Bandura, 1977). Psychological functions involve a constant reciprocal interaction between or amongst behavioral, environmental, and cognitive affects that influence the individual (Bandura, 1978; Williams & Williams, 2010). Bandura (1977) asserted that SLT is related significantly to individuals' perceptions of self-efficacy (the perception of one's ability to complete a specific task) and then, in turn, to their behavior.

The literature shows SLT to be a common theoretical foundation used for investigations of ethical leadership such as the one conducted here (Brown et al., 2005; Eisenbeiss & Giessner, 2012; Hanna, Crittenden, & Crittenden, 2013; Mayer et al., 2012). Therefore, the use of this theory was an acceptable perspective for the grounding of investigations in this area. The relationship of SLT to this study is two-fold. The first item is that SLT states that people learn from role models, such as people in leadership

positions, which may teach ethical or unethical behaviors to followers (Bandura, 1977). The concept relates to this research because leaders need to be able to evaluate perceptions of their own ethical behaviors to be ever mindful of the examples they are setting; which is critical to fully realize what behaviors they are exhibiting and teaching to followers. They also need to understand if their own evaluations are higher than their actions depict, or if there is a misalignment between what they do and what they say, which may be perceived as hypocritical in their organization (Greenbaum et al., 2015).

The second way SLT relates to grounding this research is that a trusting relationship with leaders is reciprocal (Asencio, 2016). Followers have been shown to be more willing to reciprocate the trust they feel toward leaders, as well as the trust they feel *from* leaders, by exhibiting added efforts (such as willingness to go the extra mile) and engaging in more risk behaviors (such as pointing out erroneous ways of action) when necessary (Asencio, 2016; Engelbrecht et al., 2014). However, if trust and ethical behavior are not displayed at a high level in the organization, then costly misbehaviors may be exhibited (de Wolde, Groenendaal, Helsloot, & Schmidt, 2014). These theoretical issues related to the research questions in the study because leaders need to comprehend how their behaviors (whether on the job or away from work) affect their organizations, and whether or not their perceptions of their ethical behaviors affect their trustworthiness and their own trusting nature, which may, in turn, affect the trust and ethical environment of their organizations. Further, this research could aid those in positions to select future leaders in organizations, and in teaching leadership constructs, by uncovering further facets in the understanding and recognition of role-modeling better ethical leadership behaviors.

Moral Identity Theory

MIT, building upon the works of Kohlberg (1969) and others, was first theorized by Blasi (1984) and was the other theoretical foundation used for this research. Moral identity means the level of value or significance placed by individuals, within their overall self-identity, to conduct themselves as a moral person (Aquino & Reed, 2002). This is a regulatory mechanism that prompts moral actions (Blasi, 1984). Aquino and Reed (2002) established empirically that people, in similarity to the manner in which persons structure their own social identities, likewise organize their self-conceived schemas as moral individuals by centralizing on a set of generally universal moral traits (e.g. helpful, honorable, fair-minded, etc.). Important to this theory is the tenet that some persons may perceive that being a moral individual is fundamentally crucial to their general self-schema (meaning that they have higher levels of moral identification), while others may consider it as a secondary or less essential element in their general self-schema (meaning that they have lower levels of moral identification) (Gu & Neesham, 2014).

Once behavior as a moral person develops to the point that it is deeply internalized and adopted into an individual's identity, and therefore dominates an individual's self-concept, that individual is more likely to adjust behaviors to coincide with their moral schema (Blasi, 2005; Gu & Neesham, 2014). If they behave against their moral identity, then that person will suffer cognitive dissonance and discomfort emotionally, which brings about an intense threat to a person's identity schema (Gu & Neesham, 2014). According to Gu and Neesham (2014) the accumulated literature shows evidence that those who display high moral identities exhibit more socially charitable

behaviors (donate more to charities, participate in more community service, display more prosocial behaviors, and are more honest in negotiations) than those who have low moral identification.

An assumption within the confines of this theory is that moral identity can be varied in content, depending on the preferences of the individual; so one person may see certain virtues (such as compassion) as more important to their moral identities than another person (who may see fairness as foremost in importance) (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Blasi, 1984). However, Blasi's (1984) ideology suggested that, although there might be separate moral characteristics that comprise each individual's distinctive moral identity, still, there is a general set of common moral attributes that are more liable to be key to most people's moral self-schemas. Another assertion in Blasi's (1984) theory is that behaving as a moral individual may be, or may not necessarily be, a chosen part of a person's overall self-concept. The self-importance of possessing a particular identity, according to MIT, may alter over time and thus, so also might its motivational intensity (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Importantly, it was Damon and Hart (1992) who asserted that there is empirical evidence that people, whose self-determination is centered on their moral principles, have a higher tendency to act in a manner consistent with those beliefs throughout their lives. In fact, Aquino and Reed (2002) suggest that the more strongly moral traits are internalized within the self-identity of an individual, the more probability that this identity will be enacted across an extensive range of conditions, and the more intensely will be its involvement with moral reasoning, perceptions, and moral behavior.

Leadership and Leadership Theory

Leadership is the character, skills, ability, and the compelling force of an individual to influence and motivate others in order to develop, or further expand, the effectiveness of an organization, navigating through potentially varied economic and political circumstances, to attain their objectives (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Horner, 1997; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). There are several key elements to successful leadership behavior, such as showing responsibility in judgement and decision-making, unambiguous communication, and uppermost: leaders must be excellent listeners to their employees (Drucker, 2004). In practicality, leaders must bear in mind the range of skills and actions (behaviors) necessarily involved for themselves, as well as their employees, to achieve the success desired in the ever-increasing and challenging global market (Marques, 2010). Essentially, specific action is required in order for the leader to set the direction of the organization and instigate the alignment of the best individuals to accomplish the desired outcome (Fiedler, 1967).

Currently, the scholarly literature on the topic of leadership includes an incredible array of theoretical models, which is particularly important to the leadership field (Meuser et al., 2016). A review of the contemporary literature revealed that an overwhelming abundance of theories have been asserted, totaling some 66 different theoretical ideologies in the published works since the year 2000 (Dinh et al., 2014; Meuser et al., 2016). The study of leadership has traversed across cultures (House et al., 2004), various demographics (Walker, 2015), and theoretical philosophies (Horner, 1997).

Great Man Theory

In the twentieth century the first trend of leadership theory was coined the Great-man trait theory, or simply trait theory, and dealt with explanations of internal qualities with which a leader was assumed to have acquired innately, rather than being taught, and that these characteristics were present intrinsically from birth (Horner, 1997). Horner (1997) explains that the thinking at the time was that if the identification of the characteristics (personality, physicality, and mentality) that distinguished leader personalities from follower personalities could be discerned; people could then be assessed in order to determine who would make good leaders, and subsequently place them in leadership positions. The idea was that there were people actually born to be great leaders; finding them was the key to success (Horner, 1997). The problems with this theory were that, although much research was done to identify the characteristics that made great leaders, some scholars suggested that nothing significant was found (Horner, 1997) while later interpretations proposed some particular leadership characteristics consisting of values, task proficiency, and personality traits that mark some leaders and their successful ability above others' ability for leadership (Zaccaro, 2012). However, trait theory failed to account for the circumstantial and environmental dynamics which are importantly associated with a leader's success (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Horner, 1997).

Behaviorist Leadership Theories

The next theoretical wave embraced the trend of the new behavioral theory which began to investigate the specific behaviors of successful leaders within the contexts of their organizations, in order to see and determine what behaviors improved the effectiveness of the organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Horner, 1997). During this time,

the most impacting research on leadership behaviors was undertaken by Ohio State University in 1945 (Horner, 1997; Rodriguez, 2013). They created a listing of about 1,800 leader behavioral traits, however, due to the cumbersomeness of the number of descriptors, the listing was condensed to 50 items which was termed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ); further, with the establishment of this research, other scholars began conducting studies that built along the same lines and similar results were obtained (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Horner, 1997; Rodriguez, 2013). The significance of this work was, in particular, the idea that leadership was not simply inborn, but rather, that effective leadership methodologies could be taught (Horner, 1997).

Situational Leadership Theory

Situational leadership was a third approach to solving the mystery about determining the best leadership methods. The theory dealt with the specific conditions that called for leadership which were situationally oriented, making one variable of a circumstance influential upon other variables, including leader traits and follower traits (Horner, 1997; Saal & Knight, 1988). This theoretical concept was significant at the time due to its indication that leadership could be different in varied circumstances, and that a leader's effectiveness is contingent upon situational conditions, bringing a more accurate view of leadership to the table (Horner, 1997). The idea was that leaders may need to change their methods of leading according to the dictates of the situation (Northouse, 2013).

Contingency Theory

Contingency theory is similar to situational leadership theory because they both emphasize the significance or impact of situations on leadership effectiveness

(Northouse, 2013). However, contingency theory specifies that the "right" leader should be placed in a position depending on the situation (Northouse, 2013). Fiedler (1967) thought that situational favorability for leaders was an important focus, theorizing that the amalgamation of leadership style, leader-member relations, task-structure, and position of power all influenced the level of that leader's ability to have influence over followers. Through Fiedler's research, certain leadership styles were determined to have better outcomes in certain circumstances (Horner, 1997; Northouse, 2013). These findings were important because they opened discussions and investigations about the compatibility of leadership styles to different situations, and the idea that matching certain leaders to certain circumstances according to style began to be considered (Horner, 1997).

This theoretical ideology has also impacted leadership concepts by attempting to address the ways organizations alter their structures in order to adapt to changing external environments (Karim, Carroll, & Long, 2016). Classic contingency theorists put forward that organizational alignment with external change must take place for continued success, and that with that alignment, organizational restructuring will occur (Karim et al., 2016).

Path-Goal Directive Theory

Scholars perpetuated the development of situational-based theoretical models throughout the decades which led to the conception of another important situational model by House and Mitchell (1974), called the path-goal directive theory. The theory proposed that a distinct connection from the leader to the follower was necessary for effective communication, along with incentives and rewards for accomplishments, which helped followers develop performances which led to organizational success (Horner, 1997). Placing strong emphasis on the leader/subordinate relationship, the theory

expected leaders to take into account certain traits, such as followers' abilities and personalities, the nature of the tasks required, worker motivation, etc. (Horner, 1997; House & Mitchell, 1974;). This methodology, which was built on the current leadership findings of the day, takes this leadership literature review through to about 1975 (House, 1996).

Situational Leadership II

At about the same time that the path-goal directive theory came about, two other contingency theorists, Hersey and Blanchard (1972), also proposed an important development in leadership theory. This theory suggested that those in leadership positions should consider the maturity levels of their followers, contending that the higher the maturity, the less directives would be necessary which then would develop the followers' independence and motivation. Their theory was introduced as the situational leadership II model, focusing on the leader/follower interaction that stressed the guidance and emotional support the leader provides, and the motivation and abilities that followers then show in their work (Hersey & Blanchard, 2003).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Another theory that began aiding the investigations of the nature of the leader-follower relationship was the leader exchange theory, by providing explanations of the impact of the leader-follower relationship on the process of leadership (Graen, 1976). Categorizing employees into two separate groups (the in-group and the out-group), Graen (1976) distinguished that the relationships between the leader and each group differed, impacting the type of work given to members of each of the groups. The importance of this research in the literature is the consideration reflected upon the leader-follower

relationship individually (Horner, 1997). These contingency/situational theorists denoted the commencement of a systematic approach to investigations of leadership, however, although they were further-reaching than the earlier theories, still, they failed to explain fully the varied interpersonal relationships implicated in leadership positions (Horner, 1997).

Culture

As research on leadership developed and broadened, a wider focus has arisen, particularly due to the influx of the global market, which is that of the influence of culture on leadership/followership relations (Schein, 2010). This viewpoint expects aspects of culture and the environment of the culture to be identified and considered in order to find leadership success (Schein, 2010). As this view of leadership evolved, organizational culture began to become an important aspect of leadership, such as encouraging flexibility and greater employee autonomy, defining specifics for organizational direction, and determining values for the organization (Horner, 1997). Although working within cultural specific domains has delivered success to organizations, and has proved necessary, defining cultural specifics has presented difficulty, making this facet of leadership often a challenge to manage (Horner, 1997).

All of the leadership theories discussed to this point have involved the need to develop, or initiate, and sustain motivation in followers. Most leadership literature is all about investigating and finding behaviors that aid in the creation of an organizational environment where followers are continually motivated to accomplish the tasks necessary in order for the organization to succeed in its goals. Motivational theories have had a large part in leadership theory, because the emphasis is on the followers and what

instigates their actions (Horner, 1997). Although this literature review will not address the field of motivational theory, it is important to note the foundation the literature on motivation has set, which has impacted the more current leadership theoretical ideologies. Recently, leadership theory has continued to develop from the support of motivational theories and former literature on leadership theory, which has resulted in a comparison/contrast between transactional and transformational leadership theories (Horner, 1997).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership derives from long-established, conventional ways of viewing employees and organizations, involving the leader's use of their position of power to instigate followers to complete required tasks (such as in the military) (Horner, 1997). Transactional leaders are oriented to primarily employ incentives and punishments to motivate workers (Caillier & Yongjin, 2017). Leaders of this type communicate clear goals, make careful observations of employees and how they are advancing toward the intended goals, granting rewards and penalties in regard to the progression toward attainment of those objectives (contingent rewards) (Caillier & Yongjin, 2017). This foundational leadership style uses extrinsic motivation, which is employed with a fundamental focus on individual performance achievements, as opposed to focusing on intrinsic motivation and group or organizational goals (Caillier & Yongjin, 2017).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership theories began to take on widespread acceptance in the scholarly arena, because they served as a blend, or synthesis, of each of the former theoretical methods (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership has several

distinct tenets such as entailing a sound, personal identification with the leader, leader-follower joint vision of the future, and moving beyond self-interest and the goal of personal reward, yet encouraging individual development, and coping well with change (Horner, 1997; Rosenbach & Sashkin, 2007). Transformational leaders purposely place the needs of followers ahead of themselves, take into account the best way to do things for the organization, community, and to focus on the organization's people with genuine care and concern (Avolio & Bass, 2002). This leadership style does not omit the practice of using incentives and rewards for performance, however, it focuses more on intrinsic motivation of followers (Caillier & Yongjin, 2017). Because of this, transformational leadership is regarded as complementary to--or as having been built on the foundation of-- transactional leadership theory (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010).

Super Leadership

Manz and Sims (1991) offered a theory called "SuperLeadership" which suggests leadership currently should be integrative, and that leaders today should lead others to learn to lead themselves. This view considers leadership to be within each individual (Manz & Sims, 1991). SuperLeadership extols that leaders become great by inspiring and bringing out the highest potential and abilities of others, therefore the leaders can glean knowledge from many, rather than relying on themselves or only a few (Horner, 1997).

As leadership theory has developed and progressed to our current day, other theories and issues have begun to permeate the field. One area that has received much recent focus relative to my research is ethical leadership, which has been defined and discussed earlier in this paper (and will be further addressed hereafter as well), and

theories that relate to this aspect of leadership. Although the subject of ethical leadership has historically been deliberated by academics and intellectuals, descriptive and factual investigations are relatively new (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Several of the initial, formal investigations of ethical leadership were aimed at descriptively defining ethical leadership and were conducted by Trevino and colleagues starting in the years 2000-2003 (Brown & Mitchell, 2010).

There are several theoretical designs that fall under the umbrella of ethical leadership, such as servant leadership (Parris & Peachey, 2013), authentic leadership (Dion, 2012), transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), moral leadership (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016), and more (Dion, 2012). Dion (2012) found that numerous and varied leadership approaches can correspond with the same ethical theory, suggesting that building a particular ethical theory (which suits a leader) into varied leadership methodologies is feasible.

Servant Leadership

Savel and Munro (2017) express the view that regardless of work position, most people are going to be called on in some capacity for leadership, therefore developing leadership skills is always valuable. They explained servant leadership in premodern times, relating the history of servant leadership as found both in ancient Chinese and early Christianity teachings, which suggested that to be a successful leader, one must initially have experience by becoming a servant (Savel & Munro, 2017). This theory, designed by Robert Greenleaf (1970) in modern times, originated from a fictional story; Hermann Hesse's *Journey to the East*, about a journeying group who have a servant accompanying them who does many of the menial chores, but who also motivates them

in several ways. When the servant disappears the group suddenly cannot function and they disband and do not finish the journey, but one of the group members finds the servant later, discovering that he is the eminent and noble leader of an Order (Greenleaf, 1970).

Greenleaf (1970) explained that the leader in Hesse's story was greatly successful because his internal schema was servant oriented. Integral to this theory is the difference this internal schema makes to the leadership style, suggesting that standard, autocratic leadership is top-down in its approach, whereas the servant leadership is bottom-up in its approach (Savel & Munro, 2017). The ideas and opinions of employees are communicated, examined, propagated, and applied, or implemented, with much less difficulty to leadership (Savel & Munro, 2017). In this leadership model, the primary work of the leaders is to nurture employees in such a way that they will develop to their highest potential (Savel & Munro, 2017).

Another tenet of servant leaders is that they work closely with subordinates in order to be certain they are in positions that are the best match for that person's strengths and weaknesses (Savel & Munro, 2017). Van Dierendonck (2011) delineated six different traits of servant leaders: humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, the empowerment and development of individuals, stewardship, and establishing direction. This style of leadership promotes the integrity and morality of individuals, and also includes portions of other leadership styles, such as ethical and authentic leadership (Ling, Fang, & Wu, 2016).

Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership, proposed by Luthans and Avolio (2003), has arisen in popularity mainly due to concerns about corporate corruption scandals in recent times. This theory centers its focus on authenticity, self-awareness, and self-regulation; these types of leaders encourage ethical behaviors and deter unethical conduct amid followers (Lyubovnikova, Legood, Turner, & Mamakouka, 2017). Stemming from the concept of authenticity, leaders under this theoretical model expect to understand their own behaviors and thought processes, and accomplish leading organizations by the instigation of four dimensions: self-awareness (which includes the understanding of one's own strong points and failings, as well as the impact of their own behaviors), objective analyses that utilize followers' advice prior to decision-making, open and genuine information-sharing, and internalized standards for high moral and ethical behaviors (Ling et al., 2016). Authentic leadership has been suggested as a foundational construct that can support all positive styles of leadership but is theoretically distinguished from other associated leadership models (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ling et al., 2016).

Interestingly, there are several ways that servant and authentic leadership models overlap; both types of leaders exhibit positive psychological characteristics, such as authenticity (behaviors are in symmetry with moral identities), they display psychological maturity, and both forms of leadership display high self-awareness of work ethics (Ling et al., 2016). In addition, both servant and authentic leaders are characteristic of having high levels of integrity, honesty, humility, and dependability; behaving accordingly to high moral identities and standards, regardless of external pressures (Ling et al., 2016). Further, both styles of leadership strongly focus on leader-follower rapport, specifically

for the promotion of the development of followers, which, to some extent, sets these leadership models apart from other styles (Ling et al., 2016). Although these two types of leadership are similar, servant leadership includes a fundamental characteristic of serving others, through self-sacrifice, which reflects a philosophy of higher moral principles that incorporate stronger altruism (Ling et al., 2016).

These leadership methodologies fall under the category of ethical leadership. Ethical leaders administer affairs of their organizations with a focus on ethical values that are based on a moral foundation which fosters social interest, as opposed to basing the bulk of the focal emphasis on maximizing the organization's revenues (Suk Bong, Ullah, & Won Jun, 2015). Examples would be such as prioritizing business issues, considerations beyond self-interest and stakeholders' interests, having respect to environmental concerns, collective well-being, societal and community well-being, and making decisions ethically (Brown & Treviño, 2006; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008). In addition, the literature describes ethical leadership behaviors to include behaving equitably and impartially, encouraging and fostering ethical conduct, listening to followers, displaying compassion for and involvement with employees, demonstrating consistency and integrity, and bearing responsibility for one's conduct and actions (Brown et al., 2005; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Skubinn & Herzog, 2016; Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003).

Summary and Synthesis

This review of the contemporary leadership literature showed that a prodigious quantity of theories has been established (Dinh et al., 2014; Meuser et al., 2016). The investigations on leadership have navigated across culture (House et al., 2004), through

various demographics (Walker, 2015), and theoretical beliefs (Horner, 1997). Regardless of the period of thinking, from great man theory (where the thought was that leadership was inborn and that good leaders simply had to be found), down through the stages of evolution of leadership philosophy to the idea that people could actually be taught to lead, as well as the discovery that culture played a part of leadership impact; all leadership theory involves the necessity of the development of motivation in followers. In order to develop motivation through leadership, trust has been delineated in the literature as being foundational for relationship building and is crucial for organizations to attain sustained success (Downey et al., 2011; Marquardt & Horvath, 2012).

This literature solidifies the conclusive evidence establishing the case for the need for this research by distinguishing a clear link in these constructs of leader behaviors and their impact on employee perceptions and organizational ethical climate (Asencio & Mujcik, 2016; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Additionally, the need to understand why and how leaders perceive their ethics (or internalize them) in relationship to their own leadership behaviors is vital (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016). Investigations into these issues bring forward knowledge needed for leader self-assessment capability and also for further knowledge for leader selection and training.

Due to the criticality of a leader's ability to motivate followers, the literature points conclusively to organizations' success as being expressly correlated to leadership trust (Downey et al., 2011; Marquardt & Horvath, 2012) and ethical behavior (Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Stouten et al., 2012). The implications involved in the absence of trust demands ongoing research for the betterment of the understanding of this building block of leadership, especially in this growing global business environment. In other words, the

literature validates that leaders will be faced with a continuous variety of situations requiring a solid relationship of trust with their employees and subordinates in order to achieve sustained success and commitment.

Leadership Ethics and Impact on Employees/Followers

Brown and Mitchell (2010) describe ethical leaders as best defined through a two-dimensional model: the moral person and the moral manager. The moral person aspect describes the traits of the ethical leader as an individual, and the moral manager aspect reflects the way the moral leader uses the power of the position of leadership to encourage workplace ethical behaviors in followers (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Morally strong individuals are honest and trustworthy, show concern for others, are fair and principled, and are amicably approachable (Brown & Mitchell, 2010).

Scholars have found ethical leadership to be linked to several advantageous, sought-after organizational outcomes such as work engagement and better change-oriented employee behavior (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012), higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog, & Folger, 2010), and follower motivation (Piccolo et al., 2010). Employee behaviors are influenced by ethical leadership because these behaviors elicit connections and identification with their leaders, which then generates motivation and learning processing in employees (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Skubinn & Herzog, 2016).

Ethical Behaviors at Work and Outside Work

The moral person is specified in the literature as morally consistent in both their private and professional environments (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Skubinn & Herzog,

2016). Powerful moral managers view themselves as role models and are aware of the examples they set, as well as accepting responsibility for setting ethical standards of practice in the workplace and making use of rewards and punishments to assure the standards they set are obeyed (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Trevino et al. (2003) contend that those in powerful positions must adopt both moral manager and moral person values and character traits in order to be seen as ethical leaders in organizations.

Ethical leaders and moral managers who exhibit weakness in the moral person dimension are most likely to be viewed as hypocrites who fail to "walk the talk" (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). These types of leaders talk about ethical behaviors to others, but do not exhibit the same actions in their own personal behaviors and, instead, are perceived as unprincipled hypocrites (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). On the other hand, strong moral persons who are weak moral managers are most likely to be perceived ethically as being neutral or reserved about ethical topics, which implies to followers that the leader is ambivalent about ethics in the organization (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Aquino and Reed (2002) asserted that the more strongly moral traits are internalized within the self-identity of an individual, the more probability that this identity will cause the person to behave in consistency with that identity across a large variety of circumstances, and the more strongly will that identity be involved with that person's moral reasoning, perceptions, and moral behavior.

Gap in the Literature

The way MIT applies to the research in this study is that if leaders' moral identities are internalized or displayed routinely when in their off-work environments, then, according to MIT, there should not be a difference found in at-work and off-work

ethical behaviors (Emery, 2016; Li & Madsen, 2011; Mayer et al., 2012; Skubinn & Herzog, 2016). However, as of yet, this author has found no research that investigates this area of leadership ethics and either substantiates or refutes this theoretical assumption, which signifies that this is a gap that needs to be filled. Therefore, this research added important information to the literature on moral identity, ethical leadership, trust, and trustworthiness.

Literature Review Related to Key Concepts and Other Studies

There have been previous studies conducted in a similar manner as to what was performed here, on facets of ethical leadership, such as Mayer et al. (2012), who, not only did quantitative, survey methodology for their research, using the ELS, but they also drew on both SLT and MIT to ground their research, which are the same theoretical foundations used for this research. Additionally, Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, and Chonko (2009), and Piccolo et al. (2010), also empirically examined ethical leadership constructs by conducting quantitative, survey studies on ethical leadership, both also using Brown et al.'s (2005) ELS as a measurement, along with other scales to add more dimensions, and investigated what, if any, statistical correlations and mediations existed. All of these studies were conducted on a variety of organizations, on a diverse sample of people within multiple demographics, in a wide range of industries, all of which was also the same plan for the research accomplished here.

Ethical leadership has been investigated in many ways (qualitative, quantitative, and meta-analyses methodologies) and on many facets, including leader hypocrisy (Falk & Blaylock, 2012; Greenbaum et al., 2015; Philippe & Koehler, 2005), decision making (Emery, 2016), role modeling (Brown & Trevino, 2014), the relationship to core job

characteristics (Neubert et al., 2009; Piccolo et al., 2010), culture (Resick et al., 2011), emergence, maintenance, and embeddedness (Eisenbeiss & Giessner, 2012), influence on others (Neubert et al., 2009), antecedents and consequences (Mayer et al., 2012), ethical leadership and trust (Engelbrecht et al., 2014; Kihyun, 2016), self-perceptions of ethical behavior (Lopez et al., 2016) and other topics.

Ethical leadership in relationship to trust is a topic that is rapidly developing with a growing (Johnson, Shelton, & Yates, 2012; Xu et al., 2016). What is known in the current literature is that ethical leadership is necessary to promote a trusting organizational environment (Johnson et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2016), and for promoting better overall organizational performance (Ascencio, 2016). Role modeling has been shown to be effective for ethical leadership (Johnson et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2009). Trust and ethical leadership in the organization is necessary for job satisfaction and organizational ethical climate (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Johnson et al., 2012; Nedkovski, Guerci, De Battisti, & Siletti, 2017), which also is conducive to lower turnover rates (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015), and ethical leadership has been found to promote higher organizational citizenship behaviors (Newman et al., 2014), as well as a higher work engagement, which is vital to success of organizations (Engelbrecht et al., 2014). Strengths in the research are many: research has been done on a variety of facets, with large samples of diverse participants, and excellent measurement instruments have been developed. Because much of the literature is grounded on SLT it is more easily comparable.

Facets we do not yet know related to ethical leadership and trust are numerous, such as researchers calling for more investigations on ethical leadership, trust, and

diverse cultures (Xu et al., 2016) Scholars have also currently called for more investigations in other various areas, for example, to investigate when and how leaders are more likely to make unethical decisions (Emery, 2016), and how ethical leadership and moral identity develops from childhood (Krettenauer & Hertz, 2015; Lapsley, 2015). More inquiry has been requested on ethical leadership and organizational ethical climate (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015) and on better, more effective teaching practices for encouraging ethical behaviors and moral identity development so that they can be taught and internalized (Krettenauer & Hertz, 2015).

Ogunforwora (2014) explains that much of the scholarly writing on ethical leadership has been theoretically focused or configured as qualitative investigations and suggests that more empirical investigations are needed to prove or disprove the theoretical suppositions; further, he suggests that the focus has often been individualistic in nature and calls for more investigations on different organizational levels. In addition, the theoretical foundation SLT is so commonly used in investigations of ethical leadership, it should be altered to view this topic through a different lens (Omoregie, 2016). De Wolde et al. (2014) found different results about ethical leadership influence, suggesting that ethical leadership, role modeling, and rewards and discipline had no statistical correlation, which challenges much of the field's other studies' conclusions on this topic. However, their study was much less diverse in participants than many of the others, so further investigations seems indicated.

Recent works have begun to question the way research on ethical leadership and moral identity development has been focused, suggesting the scope has been too narrow, and has not allowed for the developmental processes and progression of those who are

young coming from adolescence into adulthood, showing the trajectory of moral identity from childhood, and call for more investigations into these areas (Krettenauer & Hertz, 2015; Lapsley, 2015). Also, researchers have appealed for further research that investigates leaders' self-perceptions of their own ethics, how their own (leader) perceptions compare to followers' perceptions, company ethics and related behaviors, and the relationships these issues may have to trust and trustworthiness (Engelbrecht et al., 2014; Lopez et al., 2016).

Summary and Transition

This chapter began with introducing some of the overall issues organizational leaders must face as deteriorating trust environments continue to beset workplaces which causes strain on the well-being of organizations in general (Armour, 2016). Trust was shown to be vital as a foundation for the best organizational environments, which is why it is a clear choice as a focus in this research in relationship to ethical leadership. Ethical leadership was defined and established according to the literature as most influential over determining the manner that evokes confidence, trust, and belief from followers.

Hypocrisy and the fact that leaders may misunderstand or misperceive their own behaviors, and how their misperceptions about their behaviors can impact organizations, was shown to be a concern in the literature that is important to leadership, particularly for furthering the understanding about the ways trust is developed in organizations (Engelbrecht et al., 2014; Van den Akker et al., 2009). Further, the literature explains that leaders need to be able to accurately assess (perceive) their own ethical character to make proper adjustments, and yet, according to the literature, leaders' assessments of their organizational ethics tends to be higher than actual behaviors indicate (Lopez et al.,

2016). This may be an indication that they could also perceive their own personal ethical behaviors as higher than those behaviors truly show, which is problematic for making necessary personal changes to set appropriate role-modeling examples, as well as for setting the appropriate ethical tone or climate for the organization. These issues set the stage, showing the necessity for this research and the variables selected as important to this investigation.

A description of the literature research strategies was provided in this chapter, along with an account of the theoretical foundations of the research, explaining how they apply to the questions and variables selected. Chapter 3 details the purpose of the research, stipulates an explanation of participants, research design, research methodology to include instruments, data gathering techniques, and data analysis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of reliability, validity, and ethical considerations. Chapter 4 contains the results of the research. It also includes a concise introduction followed by data collection and analyses. Chapter 5 discusses the summary, conclusions, and further recommendations of the study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

This chapter comprises a detailed description of the research design along with the reasoning behind selecting this method. It includes a delineation of the population, recruitment procedures and data collection, analysis methodologies, and steps taken to safeguard ethical concerns. It closes with a summary that ties the planned study to the identified research gap.

Research Design and Rationale

A nonexperimental, quantitative, correlational design for this research was appropriate because the purpose was to determine whether self-perceptions of ethical behaviors in different environments (work vs. nonwork) vary significantly, and, if so, if this significantly influences or correlates to perceptions of trust. The two independent variables were the environmental surroundings, namely the participants' work and non-work settings. The three dependent variables were self-perceived ethical behavior and dispositional (propensity) trust and trustworthiness.

The research questions and associated hypotheses were as follows:

Research Question 1: Do leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors differently inside and outside of the workplace as measured by the ELS?

H_{01}: Leaders do not perceive their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace differently.

H_{a1}: Leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace differently.

Research Question 2: Do leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work as measured by the ELS predict their personal trustworthiness as measured by the PTS?

H_{02}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work do not predict their personal trustworthiness.

H_{a2}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predict their personal trustworthiness.

Research Question 3: Do leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work as measured by the ELS predict their propensity to trust as measured by the PTS?

H_{03}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work do not predict their propensity to trust.

H_{a3}: Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predicts their propensity to trust.

For the first research question, the scores for the two versions of the ELS, work and nonwork, for each participant were compared. A paired samples *t* test was conducted to make the comparison for the paired scores for each of the participants in the study. The second and third research questions were addressed by running a multiple regression analysis to the PTS. Originally, if there was no difference found between the two ELS surveys, then there was to be no multiple regression analysis for correlational examination.

Correlational studies are both ex post facto and nonexperimental, because the manipulation of the independent variable(s) is a condition that does not take place, and it

involves an attempt to determine whether a relationship is present between a minimum of two calculated variable groupings (Armour, 2016; Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2015; Morley, 2015). Because researchers refrain from the manipulation of independent variables, the dependent variables are established for a set or specific time, which is at the time the surveys are completed and submitted (Armour, 2016). Furthermore, research questions and a study design effectually interrelate an independent variable, in this study the work and nonwork environs, to dependent variables, currently trust and ethical behavior.

Time limitation factored into the decision to use a quantitative methodology, but it was not the reason for using a correlational design. These methods are consistent with the literature for investigating antecedents and other elements of ethical behaviors (Mayer et al., 2012). They are commonly used for investigations of trust as well (Mitrut et al., 2013; Nirwan, 2014). Finding and identifying relationships and associations between the independent and dependent variables in this study may help leaders, employees, and organizational psychologists in better understanding the development of trust in organizations.

Besides the time factor, other reasons exist for selecting to use quantitative methods rather than qualitative methodology to do this research. One reason was that the informational data accrued in the research was best characterized and termed in quantifiable demographic statistics, which fit with the Likert-type scale responses to the survey instruments involved. Another reason was that, although investigating through personal interviews may add insight and perceptions to the research, it may not produce definitive answers to the research questions, whereas all the necessary information was gathered more easily and succinctly, as well as in a timely fashion, by using internet

surveys. Creswell (2002) noted that a quantitative research design allows researchers to numerically count, classify, and analyze variables, along with the identification of relationships or differences between variables. Because my purpose in this study was to gather and measure numerical data, along with correlating the resultant material, quantitative methodology was appropriately used here. In addition, Peshkin (1992) stated that personal involvement and partiality is generally more prevalent in qualitative research, whereas quantitative research lends a focus that tends toward a more detached and impartial approach. In this study, I measured self-perceptions of ethics in work versus nonwork environments and the predictive nature of those ethics on self-perceived trust.

Methodology

A quantitative methodology was appropriate for the research on the investigation of self-perceptions of ethics in work vs. non-work environments and the predictive nature of those ethics on self-perceived trust. Creswell (2009) suggests that when investigating associations between and among variables, answering questions using survey instruments is fundamentally key. Demographic designations were given identifiable, specifically assigned values. Participants' responded to two Likert-type scale surveys which were recorded as the dependent variables of ethics. A survey measurement of trust was also taken by the participants. The goal for this research was to generate impartial and unbiased results that would be generalizable to a greater population.

Population

The participants in the study consisted of 94 full and part time employees over the age of 18 in the U.S. that had at least one year past or present experience serving in a

capacity of leadership in a public or private organization. All demographics were required (age, ethnicity, rank of leadership, gender, education level, work experience, etc.) to participate. Surveys were distributed on the internet through the SurveyMonkey and partners or affiliates participant pool, from which participants were recruited. The initial step on SurveyMonkey was the draft and construction of the surveys. Then, from a drop down menu, the requirement selection and deselection process was accomplished. From that point, the next step was to bring the survey instruments to the attention of the SurveyMonkey and partners or affiliates participant pools. Recruitment ended when the required sample size (from the power analysis) was fully attained with participants that met all requirements and answered the surveys completely. The initial instructions prior to beginning the survey explained that only partially filled out surveys would necessitate that the participant be omitted entirely. This sample size number was augmented by 10 percent further participants to assure a sufficiently reached, required sample size, and to address possible attrition.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

A straightforward, random sampling method was used where any person within the general population who meets the selection criteria had an equal probability of selection. Creswell (2009) identifies this type of selection as better for the likelihood of generalizing to a population and recommends that stratification will lend the research to be even more accurate for generalizability. The advantage of random sampling is that it reduces bias, but the downside is that this method may produce a sample that is not representative demographically of the general population (Armour, 2016). In addition, careful screening took place to continue to try to reduce bias, such as asking questions

that screened out those who work in professions that have codes of ethics (medical, legal, etc.) and if the potential participant had taken any professional courses or training in ethics. Another bias to account for (by asking ahead of the actual study) was to identify those who had little to no difference in home and work environments (such as those who work from home, or who work in a family owned business), who also were screened out as participants.

For a paired samples t-test, which was used prior to a multiple regression, the computed sample size according to Cohen (1992) was N =64 with a medium effect size, alpha =.05, and power of .80. The Pearson correlation coefficient was then used to show relationships among the variables, which, with a medium effect size, alpha = .05, and power of .80 showed a sample size of 85 according to Cohen (1992). For a multiple regression with two variables, a medium effect size, alpha =.05, and power of .80, the computed sample size was N=67 using Cohen's (1992) table. So, the larger sized sample (N = 85) was used for this research so that the Pearson correlation coefficient could be performed. Cohen (1992) specifies that a power size of .80 and an effect size of a = .05 are conventions for general usage. A smaller value would cause too great a possibility of a type II error, and a larger value would likely result in a stipulation for a sample size that would be too great for a researcher's resources (Cohen, 1992). This research used these conventional values. Adding approximately 10% for participant attrition brought the total sample size to N= 94.

Participants either first took the ELS (Brown et al., 2005) that measured ethics as a construct at work or a modified version intended to measure ethics outside of work (at home, with friends, etc.), and then took the one they did not complete first. This was done

to not have one version of the instrument influence the other; it was effectively counterbalanced. Additionally, the order of questions of both ELS versions were randomized to help reduce memory bias (permission was granted by the authors to slightly modify the scales as needed, see Appendix A, p. 90). Each scale item was presented separately, so that they were not influenced by the ability to view other items simultaneously. SurveyMonkey has capability of setting up the research with the particular designs mentioned here, and had been previously contacted in this regard, which affirmed their ability to comply with these conditions. Also, introductory paragraphs added to each ELS helped effectively transition the participant from the work to non-work environment and vice-versa, in order to aid in reducing environmental bias and memory bias, and a directive (Appendix D, p. 97) at the outset explained the requirement of reading all introductions and paragraphs prior to test-taking. They also took a questionnaire after taking both the ELS and the modified version, which then measured both the self-perceptions of propensity to trust and trustworthiness, called the PTS (Evans & Revelle, 2008).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The participants in the research involved 94 full and part time employees above the age of 18 in the U.S. that had past or present experience serving in a leadership position in a public or private organization. A leadership position entailed serving in a supervisory or managerial role over at least two or more adults (over 18 years of age) for a minimum of a year. Leader participants were specified as having a job title that included a term equal in meaning to that of "manager, team leader, supervisor" or above in the level of their organization. Variance of demographics was encouraged (age,

ethnicity, rank of leadership, gender, education level, work experience) for participation. Participants were selected from the SurveyMonkey and partners or affiliates participant pool, to fill out the three surveys, from which the data was gathered to complete the appropriate statistical analyses for this research. Requirements to reach the minimum sample size was met through these venues. Those who were willing to participate responded in affirmative (yes) to a document of consent that was administered online, prior to taking any of the surveys.

Preparation of Survey Instruments

The survey instrument was prepared using the SurveyMonkey site, which allowed the many configurations needed in order to minimize as much bias as possible with this type of research. The design outlined was followed exclusively. All projected screening questions (see Appendix H, p. 114) were placed at the forefront of the study and then the consent form was presented. Upon given informed consent, the questions to one of the ELS surveys began. The order of the two ELSs were block randomized as planned, so that 50% of the participants were given the non-work environment ELS first and the other half were given the work environment survey initially. In addition, all questions within both ELS questionnaires were singly displayed and randomized to reduce bias. Prior to each ELS survey, a detailed visualization exercise was interjected to help with mental transitioning from one environment (work vs. non-work) to the other environment. Then, the PTS portion of the questionnaire was completed by the participants.

Data Collection

Time Frame, Actual Recruitment, and Response Rates

Participants accessed 1,115 surveys through a SurveyMonkey affiliate audience during mid-December 2017 to January 2018 time frame. The process of collection through this audience usually takes 10 days for completed collection, but due to the rigorous screening questions, it took about a month to collect the full 94 responses required for this study, at which point the data collection was halted. Largely because of the design of the survey, which required all questions to be answered in order to receive benefits through SurveyMonkey or affiliates, all of the participants that made it through the screening fully completed the questionnaires. Therefore, all of the 94 collected surveys were usable for analysis due to the 100% completion rate.

Throughout the entire data collection phase of this project no communication, report, or commentary was received suggesting any psychological or physiological harm or difficulty occurring to any participant during the survey process. The most common recurring problems in the analysis of data usually are linked to (a) outliers that impact the location of the mean from the median values; (b) inadequate amounts of data due to missing values; (c) the form, skewness, and kurtoses of the distribution; and (d) the level or amount of linearity between the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Because the surveys were fully completed, no values were left missing on any of them, and additionally, there were no outliers, therefore, no necessary cleanings to the data needed to be performed.

Informed Consent

An informed consent form was used to apprise voluntary participants about this study. The form conveyed the aim of the research, benefits and risks to the participant, the approximate time it would take to complete their participation, and contact information in case there are queries or issues arise that pertain to the study (see Appendix D). Contact information was included for the occasion that questions arose about individual rights relating to the study. This informed consent form was positioned at the first page or forefront of the study on the SurveyMonkey and partners or affiliates site, and every participant was required to select a box agreeing (yes) to consent to voluntarily participate. There was also a directive which required all participants to read all paragraph headings or introductions prior to taking each test. These introductions consisted of two or three paragraphs which aided them in changing their visualization, or their mindset, of the environment of the survey (work vs. non-work). After the participant was finished, they were thanked for their willingness to participate and given contact information, conveying a tentative time frame for the projection of the conclusion of the study, if they should wish to know the outcome of the study.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

This research used two different measurements to evaluate the constructs of the study. The ELS (Brown et al., 2005) was used for the work environment ethical assessments, and it was slightly altered to fit the non-work environment ethical assessments. Permission was granted by the authors of the ELS to nominally alter the measurement to fit the non-work environment (see Appendix A). The PTS (Evans & Revelle, 2008) has two separate subscales that were used to measure both types of trust

(propensity to trust and trustworthiness). In addition, a demographic form was used for the study.

Ethical Leadership Scale

In places of work, leaders ought to be a source of ethical examples and guidance, yet, there is little known about the ethical dimension of leadership since most of the focus on this topic has reliance on a philosophical viewpoint that centers on how leaders *should* behave (Brown et al., 2005); but Ciulla (1998) noted that there has been minimal systematic investigation of ethical leadership on a scholarly level. Brown et al. (2005) not only have prepared the conceptual and empirical groundwork necessary to advance knowledge about ethical leadership, but also developed an instrument, the ELS, to measure this construct and its psychometric properties. The authors had several thoughts in mind when developing this instrument: a) to fully encompass the domain of the definition of ethical leadership, b) making the items comprehensible to workers (sixth grade reading level), c) and conciseness and adaptability to a variety of research settings (Brown et al., 2005). The measurement was developed employing seven separate studies using different samples to examine trait validity, internal coherence, nomological validity, and predictability (Brown et al., 2005). The ten-item scale demonstrated excellent internal consistency measuring ethical leadership as a coherent construct (a = .92), with a second study on confirmatory factor analysis again showing excellent internal consistency (a = .91) (Brown et al., 2005). When a comprehensive expert rating investigation was conducted on the items, all 10 items had means that rated above 5.0; nomological validity rated at a = .94, and in terms of discriminant validity, the ELS was found to be uncorrelated to age, gender, race or ethnicity, and similarity (“similar to me”)

biases (Brown et al., 2005). The ELS was also found to deliver unique prediction of important leadership results (.21, $p < .01$) (Brown et al., 2005).

The ELS measures overall ethical leadership (Kalshoven & Den Hartog, 2009), yet is concise and cognitively simple to comprehend. Used internationally, Kalshoven and Den Hartog (2009) found ELS reliability at a = .82 as well as having been successful domestically (Brown et al., 2005; Mayer et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2009). A sample item is: "Listens to what employees have to say." The items have a 5-point response scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This instrument can be easily adapted to various settings where a measurement was needed to accurately assess the same variable in two different settings yet would compare appropriately. Permission to use this instrument and to alter it for the study purposes was granted by two of the authors; no response was given from the third author (see Appendix A). In order to inhibit the tendency that may arise for participants to use the first scale completion to determine the responses on the second scale, the order of items was changed on the ELS that was altered to fit the non-work environment.

Propensity to Trust Survey

This measure (see Appendices C and E) was tested on 8,000 participants (Evans & Revelle, 2008). The PTS measures were statistically reliable, a= 0.73 for the trust scale (7 items) and a= 0.80 for the trustworthiness scale (14 items) (Evans & Revelle, 2008). The average inter-item correlations were r= 0.28 for trust items and r= 0.22 for trustworthiness (Evans & Revelle, 2008). The PTS consists of 21 items and a Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (strongly inaccurate) to 6 (strongly accurate).

Three raters familiar with the trust literature (two from social psychology and one from economics) rated the content; the average inter-rater correlation was 0.62 for trust items and 0.65 for trustworthiness items. The reliability and construct validity of the PTS scales were assessed, showing that trust and trustworthiness are separate constructs with a common association. The second study (N= 90) validated the PTS trust scale as a predictor of behavior. The instrument differs from previous measures of trust in treating the construct as both the generalized expectation of others and the willingness to accept vulnerability.

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Demographic Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed to explore demographics of the sample selected (see Appendix B). This information was included in the study, correlated with the independent and dependent variables. This questionnaire was neutrally worded, asking

about such demographics as age, gender, ethnicity, the participant's position in the organization, etc.

Threats to Validity

This study explored leadership ethics and trust, by requiring that participants were above the age of 18 and worked in leadership roles as supervisors, managers, directors, vice presidents, presidents or other leadership experience of at least a year. The likelihood of the results being a good representation of the general population was thought to be high because of the wide range of participants. The participants were recruited from the online SurveyMonkey and partners or affiliates participant pool. The research implemented a random sampling process.

Internal Validity

Creswell (2009) explains that internal validity threats are procedures during a study that threaten the investigator's abilities to obtain accurate inferences from the data about the population. Identification of potential threats helps, through researcher awareness, to minimize the difficulties by preventing them as much as possible. The internal threats that were addressed here encompassed those mentioned in Creswell's (2009) writings which are: history, maturation, selection, mortality, statistical regression, and diffusion of treatment.

History indicates that some event may occur while the participant is in the action of filling out the surveys that will alter the results of their survey answers (Creswell, 2009). Perhaps an intrusion could occur that would alter a person's self-perceptions of ethics or trust, whilst a participant is taking the surveys…but, although possibilities for this occurrence were minimally present, this circumstance was not likely to be

problematic for the study, since the time for filling out the succinct surveys was less than a half hour total. Maturation, which is the chance that participants may mature or change during the research proceedings, was not an issue in this study because: a) all participants were adults, and b) the timeline for this research was nominal and c) there was no pretesting, so testing was not problematical.

Statistical regression may occur when participants with extreme scores are selected for an experiment (Creswell, 2009). However, there were few requirements to qualify for entering this study as a participant, and scores were not part of those requirements, so since participants were selected randomly, this was not an issue, nor was there any criteria that influenced participants to enter who had characteristics that predisposed them to certain outcomes, which is a selection issue (Creswell, 2009). Mortality, which is when a participant drops out during the study proceedings, is a possibility if they are interrupted during the short time when they are involved taking the surveys, or other events may occur which keep them from finishing. For this reason, the determination was made to add 10 percent more to the sample size to cover this circumstance. In addition, SurveyMonkey has options for researchers to delineate up front the discarding of any unfinished participants' surveys, so that the only ones received to be used for the research were fully completed.

Diffusion of treatment is when those participating in research control groups communicate with one another. This can impact how the groups score on results (Creswell, 2009). Since I used online services, specifically the SurveyMonkey and partners or affiliates participant pool, where participants were located in many diverse

locations around the country, the likelihood of this creating a problem was extremely limited.

External Validity

External validity threats occur when researchers generalize inferences from studies to populations beyond the boundaries of the scope of the sample data (Creswell, 2009). According to Creswell (2009), interaction of selection and treatment happens due to the restricted nature of the characteristics of individuals selected for participation. The only real characteristics in this study were that they were above 18, were in the USA, and had some leadership experience. Since the study was about leadership ethics and trust, restricting the research to participants who have leadership experience was vital to the research and was therefore more able to be generalized to the population of employed leaders at large, but the study should not claim to be generalized to other groups with different characteristics, and it may be that generalization to other than western hemisphere cultures could be problematic, also. The writings of the results were carefully worded in order to convey the scope of the study appropriately.

Interaction of different treatment can also occur when participants in research have been given other treatments concurrently to the research treatment, which may cause a change not due to the research treatment, but is attributed as such (Trochim, 2007). This research was a post-hoc study, which involved measuring past and current factors at one period or point of time. The likelihood of other intervening treatments concurrently received actually changing the participants' determinations on the topics of self-perceived ethics and trust while they were participating in filling out the surveys for the study was small indeed.

Interaction of setting and treatment can create issues with generalization to people in other settings (Creswell, 2009). The action that researchers can take in regard to solving this problem is to conduct additional experiments in new settings to see if the outcomes are similar (Creswell, 2009). This study had two different environments (settings) as part of the study itself (independent variables) which will aid in furthering the understanding of ethics and trust in multiple settings, and therefore helps with generalization of the results.

Instrumentation occurs when there are pre-tests and post-tests involved, when the tests are changed during the process (Creswell, 2009). The testing during this study occurred at one single point, therefore, there are no pre-tests involved. To remedy this situation researchers can use the same instrument for both pre-test and post-test measurements (Creswell, 2009). In the instance of this study, the two tests on ethics were essentially the same test, one for each environment (work and non-work) and an additional instrument measured trust, all which were taken at the same moment of time.

Researchers can create biases when they have expectancies for certain results. This researcher had no such expectations and took care to stay as neutral as possible. When studies are conducted using face-to-face methodologies, expressions, appearances, tones-of-voice, etc., can bias the research (Armour, 2016). Since the study was undertaken online, these problems did not trouble this investigation. However, written bias can also occur when researchers have expectations of results, or wording can be such that participants react in a given way. Great care was taken to be as neutral as possible so that these events were not an issue. When making slight adjustments to the ELS, only a few words were changed, gender neutral, such as using the word “others” instead of

"employees", and in a way that would adapt it as simply as possible to the non-working environment. Any other writing necessitated in this study was addressed in similar, and as neutral fashion, as possible.

Ethical Procedures

This research followed the guidelines of the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the SurveyMonkey (and partners or affiliates) IRB to be certain that the methodologies used for the research were responsibly ethical and moral. Privacy is a right to all participants, as is autonomy, scientific integrity, and trust. No physical, psychological, financial, or other harm occurred in conducting this research. Although only one population and setting (online) was used in this research, the diversity of the online population, since it incorporated leaders from all around the U.S. who were in differing and varied leadership settings, the study should generalize well to the population.

Ethical Protection of Human Participants

There was no requirement for names or any other personal identification information to participate in the study. Although there was an identification number viewable for each participant through SurveyMonkey and partners or affiliates, there was no way I was be able to discern or identify any individuals or their singular responses to the survey questions or their surveys in total, therefore all data was recorded anonymously. IRB permission was received prior to contacting any participants, conducting research, or the collection of any data.

The study began with a consent form that was Walden University's standard form, customized to fit the specifics of this research. Requirements for participants were

specified and the consent form was described as an initial step in the process of informed consent. Further, the consent form contained my name and background, a summary of the research procedures, and examples of the items/questions on the surveys. In addition, the consent form included communication about the voluntary nature of the study and the option for participants to exit or terminate involvement in the study at any time.

This study was conducted electronically online, in such a way that all personal information regarding participants was obscured from anyone involved, including myself. There was no danger or risk that any agency or employers/employees would have any access to the information. The consent form also included the benefits of participation, and privacy was upheld and explained. Although the source of information was obscured for me and any others who might observe it, all electronic and printed data and materials will be kept for 5 years in a hidden, fireproof safe, with a security system guarding it. After that time, the information will be destroyed. A copy of the Informed Consent document is included in the appendices (see Appendix D).

Summary and Transition

The purpose of this study was to investigate important aspects of leader trust, which is the component of ethics, specifically exploring to find out if perceived ethics on and off the job are different, and if this predicts self-perceptions of trust and trustworthiness. Chapter 3 was inclusive of a detailed explanation of the quantitative, correlational design of this study. The quantitative methodology selected was explained and substantiated as appropriate for the research. The independent and dependent variables were delineated, and the research questions presented, along with the reasons for the chosen design. Participant requirements were presented and generalization to the

population was addressed. The study included three tests; two for ethics and one (inclusive of two subscales) for trust. These tests were discussed and described regarding their use appropriateness and validity. Threats to validity were discussed in depth, along with procedures to maintain ethical protection of participants, research data, and results. Chapter 4 contains the results of the investigation. It also includes a concise introduction ensued by data collection and analyses. Chapter 5 discusses the summary, conclusions, and further recommendations of the study.

Chapter 4: Results

The issue of violations of ethical behavior by leaders and followers in the workplace has overarching implications for the ability of employees and employers to develop a trusting environment, which is important for the success of organizational and team functionality (Downey et al., 2011; Marquardt & Horvath, 2012). Therefore, the capacity of leaders to effectively (and accurately) examine and assess themselves in terms of trustworthiness and ethics is important in them developing leadership skills.

Preview of Chapter Organization

I conducted this quantitative study to determine whether a significant difference exists between a leader's self-perceptions of their ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace, and whether it affects their personal trust and trustworthiness. Chapter 4 commences with a reiteration of the purpose and the questions for this study, and then I proceed with the data collection and results of the research. I also record the application of the research blueprint in the entire dissertation, and I discuss any issues that may have impeded or modified the execution of the investigation, including any added statistical analyses conducted and findings.

Sample Demographics

All of the sample consisted of leaders in the United States older than 18 years, with more than 1 year of leadership experience. The majority of the participants (66%) were 18 to 44 years of age, whereas the rest of the participants (34%) were 45 to 64 years of age. Further descriptive statistics for the 94 leader-participants are as follows: 56 males (59.6%) and 38 females (40.4%) organizational leaders participated in the study. White/Caucasian participants (79.8%) comprised the majority of the sample. The

participants (20.2%) consisting of other ethnicities were Black/African American 7.4%, Hispanic 6.4%, Asian/Pacific Islander 4.3%, and American Indian/Alaskan Native 2.1%. Participants from all industries and professions (except those who had prior professional ethical training) were in the sample.

Income and educational levels were representative of all grades of salary and education, showing many participants (56.4%) below or at the $75,000 range, whereas a slightly smaller amount of the sample (43.6%) made $75,001 or more; income was specifically as follows: $0-$25,000 (5.3%), $25,001-$50,000 (24.5%), $50,001-$75,000 (26.6%), $75,001-$100,000 (18.1%), $100,001-$250,000 (21.3%), and $250,001 and above (4.2%). Educational levels showed that only a couple leader-participants (2.1%) had not completed high school, approximately a third (38.3%) had graduated from high school and had some college, and the majority (59.5%) had a bachelor's degree or above, specifically broken down as follows: did not complete high school (2.1%), high school graduate (23%), some college (16%), completed bachelor's degree (34%), completed master's degree (20.2%), and completed doctorate degree (5.3%).

Organizational position and years in management showed that almost half (48.9%) of the participants were in midlevel leadership positions and that more than third (38.3%) had 6 to 10 years of leadership experience. Leadership position variables were broken down specifically as follows: lower-level leadership (19.2%), mid-level leadership (48.9%), and senior leadership (31.9%). Years in management were as follows: participants with 1 to 5 years of experience (26.6%), participants with 6 to 10 years of experience (38.3%), participants with 10 to 20 years of experience (24.5%), and participants with more than 20 years of experience (10.6%).

An additional area that I measured as a variable was religiosity. Nonreligious participants (43.6%) were fewer than those (56.4%) who considered themselves as being religious, showing that slightly more than half of the sample were religious. The aforementioned statistics comprise the demographic variables measured in this research (see Table 1).

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Demographic	Percentage	Frequency
Gender		
Male	59.6	56
Female	40.4	38
Age (y)		
< 18	0.0	0
18-44	66.0	62
45-64	34.0	32
> 65	0.0	0
Household income		
$0 - $25,000	5.3	5
$25,001 - $50,000	24.5	23
$50,001 - $75,000	26.6	25
$75,001 - $100,000	18.1	17
$100,001 - $250,000	21.3	20
$250,001+	4.2	4
Education		
Less than high school degree	2.1	2
High school degree	23.0	21
Some college	16.0	15
Bachelor's degree	34.0	32
Master's degree	20.2	19
Doctorate degree	5.3	5
Religiosity		
Religious	56.4	53
Nonreligious	43.6	41
Position		
Lower-level leadership	19.2	18
Mid-level leadership	48.9	46
Senior leadership	31.9	30

Sample Representativeness

The U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017) listed statistics for the ethnicities of management across all professional and related occupations, which comprised a total of 40% of all U.S. employment, showing White (80%) as the ethnic majority in leadership across the U.S. and also described women (51.6%) as being the majority in leadership/management positions. My research sample was slightly different than the U.S. statistics of ethnic diversity in leadership. This difference may be due to the screening used, which required all participants to have had no professional ethical training, which would affect anyone in professions such as medical, legal, military, etc. and keep them from qualifying for participation in this study.

The leadership majority in my sample shows men as the majority (59.6%), and White/Caucasian (79.8%) as the ethnic majority, but all ethnicities are represented to some extent in my sample. The U.S. 2017 statistical listing representation is listed with the caveat that their estimates for the groups do not sum to totals of 100% because data are not presented for all races, but their listing is as follows: women (51.6%), White/Caucasian (80%), Hispanic (16.9%), Black/African American (9.4%), and Asian (8.1%). Although the properties of ethics, trust, and trustworthiness assessed in this research are considered to be universal in nature (Brown et al., 2005; Evans & Revelle, 2008), these slight cultural/ethnic differences in the sample used in this study should be taken into some account when considering the generalization of this research to the population, keeping in mind that it is challenging to find research that is truly culture-free (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010).

Addressing Research Questions

Research Question 1

Do leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors differently inside and outside of the workplace?

H_{01}. Leaders do not perceive their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace differently.

H_{a1}. Leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace differently.

A paired samples *t* – test was conducted between the mean scores on the surveys for personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace. This analysis was done to determine if there are significant differences in the total or mean scores for measures of ethical behaviors inside and outside the workplace. There were not statistically significant differences between total scores for ethical behaviors inside (M = 42.85, SD = 5.00) or outside (M = 42.79, SD = 5.02) the workplace; t (93) = 0.228, p = 0.820. Additionally, there were not statistically significant differences between mean scores for ethical behaviors inside (M = 4.29, SD = 0.50) or outside (M = 4.28, SD = 0.50) the workplace; t (93) = 0.228, p = 0.820. This suggests that there are no differences in scores on these measures. As such, this research question retained the null hypothesis.

The original plan for this study determined that if the first research question retained the null hypothesis, no multiple regression or other analyses would be performed. The reason was because the second and third questions were to be addressed by using the difference in scores between the work and non-work ELS (p. 46). The

thought was that having no difference between the scores negates the ability to perform those analyses.

However, upon finding no difference between the work and non-work ELS scores, I chose to run a statistical analysis in order to investigate if any relationships exist between personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work, personal trustworthiness, and propensity to trust. In order to accomplish this, I ran a Pearson moment correlation between inside and outside ethical behaviors, personal trustworthiness, and propensity to trust. All assumptions associated with a correlation analysis were tested; none were violated, nor were there were any outliers. Interestingly, the scatterplot indicated an expected relationship between the variables considered in the analysis and the results of the correlation analysis indicated positive and significant correlations between all variables considered.

Specifically, the results indicated a strong, positive, and significant correlation between work environment and non-work environment ethical behaviors, $r = 0.85$, $n = 94$, $p < 0.001$. The coefficient determination indicated that 72% of the variance is shared between these two variables. Additionally, the results also indicated a strong, positive, and significant correlation between work ethical behaviors and personal trustworthiness, $r = 0.44$, $n = 94$, $p < 0.001$. The coefficient determination indicated that 20% of the variance is shared between these two variables. Further, the results also indicated a strong, positive, and significant correlation between work ethical behaviors and propensity to trust, $r = 0.313$, $n = 94$, $p < 0.01$. The coefficient determination indicated that 10% of the variance is shared between these two variables. These results suggest that there is a relationship between these variables and that proceeding to test the relationship

between these variables using multiple regression is justified from a data analysis perspective. Table 2 shows the significance in the correlations among ethical behaviors, personal trustworthiness, and propensity to trust.

Table 2

Correlations Among Ethical Behaviors, Trustworthiness, and Trust Propensity

Variable	1	2	3	4
Work ethical behavior	–			
Non-work ethical behavior	0.853*	–		
Personal trustworthiness	0.440*	0.438*	–	
Propensity to trust	0.313*	0.377*	0.393*	–

Note. $p < .01$ (2-tailed).*

Research Question 2

Do leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predict their personal trustworthiness?

H_{02}. Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work do not predict their personal trustworthiness.

H_{a2}. Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predict their personal trustworthiness.

A multiple regression was performed testing inside ethical behaviors and outside ethical behaviors as independent variables against the dependent variable personal trustworthiness. All assumptions were tested that were associated with a multiple regression analysis (see Appendix I, p. 120). Most assumptions were not violated, however, there was a violation with regards to the relationship between work and non-

work ethical behaviors. The correlation between these variables was outside the acceptable range, $r > 0.70$. There were no issues with outliers impacting the results.

The results of the analysis indicated that the model containing both independent variables regarding ethical behavior inside and outside the workplace significantly predicted changes in the dependent variable personal trustworthiness; F (2, 91) = 11.968, $p < 0.001$ (see Table 3). The model explained 19% of the variance in personal trustworthiness, using adjusted R^2. However, a closer examination of the coefficients associated with ethical behaviors inside the workplace ($\beta = 0.244$, $p = 0.176$) and in the non-work environments ($\beta = 0.230$, $p = 0.203$) indicated that neither variable, when considered as a total score, were individually predictive of changes in personal trustworthiness, as expected due to the issues with multicollinearity. As such, I elected to run a multiple regression with all items related to ethical behaviors inside and outside the workplace to better decipher which aspects of these constructs predicted changes in personal trustworthiness.

Table 3

Summary of Predictor Variables for Personal Trustworthiness

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Inside ethical behaviors: Total score	.343	.251	.176
Outside ethical behaviors: Total score	.322	.251	.230

Note. Adjusted R^2 = 19%, F (2, 91) = 11.968, $p < .001$. *$p < .05$.

The results of the second multiple regression indicated that the model containing all independent variables, listed below, regarding ethical behavior inside the workplace and in the non-workplace environments significantly predicted changes in the dependent

variable personal trustworthiness; F (7, 86) = 6.025, $p < 0.001$ (see Table 4). The model explained 27% of the variance in personal trustworthiness, using adjusted R^2. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained and is void. However, of the seven variables included in the analysis, there were only two that significantly predicted changes in personal trustworthiness. Those items were 'can be trusted' (β = 0.348, $p < 0.01$) and 'asking the right thing to do when making decisions' (β = 0.254, $p < 0.05$).

Table 4

Summary of Predictor Variables for Personal Trustworthiness

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Can be trusted: Workplace environment	3.356	1.045	0.348*
When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?": Nonwork environment	2.630	1.097	0.254*
Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained: Non-work environment	1.955	1.164	0.196
Has the best interests of employees in mind: Work environment	-1.842	1.202	-0.178
Listens to what others have to say: Nonwork environment	1.845	1.268	0.170
Makes fair and balanced decisions: Work environment	-1.371	1.207	-0.137
Discusses business ethics and values with employees: Work environment	0.766	0.712	0.105

Note. Adjusted R^2 = 27%, F (7, 86) = 6.025, $p < .001$. *$p < .05$.

Research Question 3

Do leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predict their personal trust?

$H_{03.}$ Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work do not predict their propensity to trust.

$H_{a3.}$ Leaders' perceptions of their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of work predicts their propensity to trust.

A multiple regression was conducted testing work environment ethical behaviors and non-work environment ethical behaviors as independent variables against the dependent variable propensity to trust (personal trust). All assumptions associated with a multiple regression analysis were tested with most assumptions not being violated (see Appendix I, p. 120). However, again, there was a violation with regards to the relationship between at-work and outside-work ethical behaviors. As previously shown in RQ 2, the correlation between these variables was again outside the acceptable range, $r > 0.70$. There were no issues with outliers impacting the results. The results of the analysis indicated that the model containing both independent variables regarding ethical behavior inside and outside the workplace significantly predicted changes in the dependent variable propensity to trust; $F\ (2, 91) = 7.564$, $p < 0.01$ (see Table 5). The model explained 12% of the variance in propensity to trust, using adjusted R^2. However, a closer examination of the coefficients associated with ethical behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = -0.031$, $p = 0.868$) and outside the workplace ($\beta = 0.404$, $p < 0.05$), when considered as a total score, indicated that the total score related to behaviors inside the workplace did *not* predict changes in personal trust. Interestingly, the total score related to ethical behaviors outside the workplace (non-work environments) significantly predicted changes in personal trust scores. Again, these results are not surprising given the issues mentioned above regarding multicollinearity. As such, I chose to run a multiple regression with all

items related to ethical behaviors inside and outside the workplace to better determine which aspects of these constructs predicted changes in propensity to trust.

Table 5

Summary of Predictor Variables for Propensity to Trust

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Inside ethical behaviors: Total score	-0.050	.296	-0.031
Outside ethical behaviors: Total score	.641	.296	.404*

Note. Adjusted R^2 = 12%, F (2, 91) = 7.564, $p < 0.01$. *$p < .05$.

The results of the second multiple regression indicated that the model containing all independent variables, listed below, regarding ethical behavior inside and outside the workplace significantly predicted changes in the dependent variable propensity to trust; F (10, 83) = 3.692, $p < 0.001$ (see Table 6). The model explained 23% of the variance in propensity to trust, using adjusted R^2. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not retained and is void. However, of the ten variables included in the analysis there were only two that significantly predicted changes in scores on propensity to trust. Those items were 'asking the right thing to do when making decisions' ($\beta = 0.257$, $p < 0.05$) and 'setting an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics' ($\beta = 0.284$, $p < 0.05$). These results again suggest that the model significantly predicted changes in scores related to propensity to trust.

Table 6

Summary of Predictors for Propensity to Trust

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*
When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?": Non-work environment	3.012	1.422	0.257*
Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics: Work environment	3.405	1.619	0.284*
Has the best interests of others in mind: Non-work environment	2.351	1.234	0.209
Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner: Non-work environment	-1.876	1.078	-0.194
Discusses business ethics and values with employees: Work environment	-1.293	0.862	-0.156
Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained: Non-Work environment	1.766	1.290	0.157
When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?": Work environment	-1.587	1.190	-0.152
Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards: Work environment	1.322	1.076	0.141
Makes fair and balanced decisions: Non-work environment	-1.401	1.511	-0.117
Can be trusted: Work environment	0.919	1.158	0.084

Note. Adjusted $R^2 = 23\%$, $F\ (10, 86) = 3.692$, $p < 0.001$. *$p < .05$.

Summary and Transition

The quantitative investigation of the research questions in this study show the results to be answered as follows:

For Research Question 1, the paired samples *t* – test conducted between the total as well as the mean scores on the surveys for personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace found there were not statistically significant differences between

these scores for ethical behaviors inside or outside the workplace. As such, this research question retained the null hypothesis. A Pearson moment correlation was conducted between inside and outside ethical behaviors, personal trustworthiness, and propensity to trust which indicated positive and significant correlations between all variables. The coefficient determination indicated that 72% of the variance was shared between work environment and non-work environment ethical behaviors. I therefore determined to proceed with the multiple regression analyses to determine answers for the other two research questions.

For Research Question 2, a multiple regression was performed testing inside ethical behaviors and outside ethical behaviors as independent variables against the dependent variable personal trustworthiness. The correlation between these variables was outside the acceptable range. The results of the analysis indicated that the model containing both independent variables regarding ethical behavior inside and outside the workplace significantly predicted changes in the dependent variable personal trustworthiness. The model explained 19% of the variance in personal trustworthiness. Neither variable, when considered as a total score, was individually predictive of changes in personal trustworthiness, as expected due to issues with multicollinearity. So, another multiple regression was run with all items related to ethical behaviors inside and outside the workplace in order to delineate which aspects of these constructs predicted changes in personal trustworthiness. The results of the second multiple regression indicated that the model containing all independent variables regarding ethical behavior inside the workplace and in the non-workplace environments significantly predicted changes in the

dependent variable personal trustworthiness. The model explained 27% of the variance in personal trustworthiness. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not retained and is void.

For Research Question 3, a multiple regression was conducted testing work environment ethical behaviors and non-work environment ethical behaviors as independent variables against the dependent variable propensity to trust. The results of the analysis indicated that the model containing both independent variables regarding ethical behavior inside and outside the workplace significantly predicted changes in the dependent variable propensity to trust. The model explained 12% of the variance in propensity to trust. Again, a second multiple regression was run, with all items related to ethical behaviors inside and outside the workplace, to better determine which aspects of these constructs predicted changes in propensity to trust. The results of the second multiple regression indicated that the model containing all independent variables regarding ethical behavior inside and outside the workplace significantly predicted changes in the dependent variable propensity to trust. The model explained 23% of the variance in propensity to trust. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not retained and is void.

This chapter provided an overview of the results of the statistical analyses of the research questions addressed in this study. The demographic data and characteristics of the sample were discussed and presented in a table, including: age, gender, income level, leadership level, educational levels, years of experience, ethnicity, and religiosity. Generalization and representability of the results is then addressed, prior to the presentation of the results of the statistical analyses for the first research question. An explanation was given for the paired samples t-test used to determine the results of the first research question, and then the reasons and justification were given for the

determination to conduct the Pearson moment correlation, and the ensuing multiple regressions for the other research questions. The results of the research questions were each individually presented with tables for further depiction and clarification. Chapter 5 discusses the summary, conclusions, and further recommendations of the study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

My purpose in this quantitative study was to determine whether a significant difference exists between a leader's self-perceptions of their ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace, measured by the ethical leadership scale, and whether it influences their perceived personal trust and trustworthiness as measured by the propensity to trust survey. The population involved in this study was composed of leaders in various industries older than 18 years with at least 1 year of experience. A total of 94 participants were involved in this study through SurveyMonkey and an affiliate.

Based on both SLT and MIT, I addressed whether a difference exists in how leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors inside and outside of the workplace, and whether a relationship exist between how leaders perceive their personal ethical behaviors and their personal trust and trustworthiness. I found no statistically significant differences between the scores for ethical behaviors inside or outside the workplace, and the model measuring ethical behaviors in both environments (work and nonwork) was correlated to individuals' trustworthiness and their propensity to trust others. In this chapter, I present conclusions, a discussion of implications for social change, and suggestions for future research recommendations.

Interpretation of Findings

The research questions and hypotheses in this study were designed to test for a difference between work and nonwork ethical behaviors in leadership, and whether a relationship exists between that difference, and trustworthiness and propensity to trust. I hypothesized that a difference would exist between work and nonwork scores on ethical

behaviors, on which the rest of the research questions of the study were somewhat predicated. The planned use of those differentiated scores was to examine whether the scores made it possible to predict trustworthiness and/or propensity to trust. However, no statistical difference was determined between work and nonwork ethical behaviors; nevertheless, a significant correlation was found between work and nonwork ethical behaviors, personal trustworthiness, and propensity to trust.

The findings in this research aligned with the literature in Chapter 2. The literature explains that the extent to which followers perceive their leaders as ethical and trustworthy affects how followers engage their confidence, trust, and belief in those leaders; ethical leadership is connected to trust because of the morally driven actions it promotes (Engelbrecht et al., 2014; Van den Akker et al., 2009). The moral person is specified in the literature as morally (or ethically) consistent in both their private and professional environments (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Skubinn & Herzog, 2016). Aquino and Reed (2002) suggested, in conjunction with MIT (on which this research was based), that the more strongly moral traits are internalized within the self-identity of an individual, the more probability that this identity will be enacted across an extensive range of conditions, and the more intensely will be its involvement with moral reasoning, perceptions, and moral behavior. Damon and Hart (1992) have also asserted that people have a higher tendency to act in a manner consistent with their internalized moral beliefs. However, I found no research that investigated the area of leadership ethics related to inside and outside the work environment, and either substantiated or refuted this theoretical assumption, which signified that this was a gap that needed to be filled. The findings of my study uphold the MIT, showing that ethical behaviors inside and outside

the work environment had no statistical difference from each other. Therefore, this research adds important information to the literature on moral identity, ethical leadership, trust, and trustworthiness.

SLT, the other theory on I based this research, was originated by Bandura (1977) and proposed that individuals largely learn about behavior under social circumstances via the influence of others who serve as examples or role models. Moral leaders view themselves as role models and are aware of the examples they set, as well as accept the responsibility for setting ethical standards of practice in the workplace (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). The information from this research is useful because it aids in understanding that ethical behaviors of leaders (or unethical behaviors) are most likely to be consistent both inside and outside of the working environment. This information can be used as an important key to understand ways to carefully screen and select leaders whose choices at work will be predicted to be ethical and trustworthy, if, according to this research findings, their at work and nonwork past and present behaviors align with their professional ethics.

Selecting ethical leaders is vital to maintaining trust in the organization and to inspiring follower confidence in the leaders (Engelbrecht et al., 2014; Van den Akker et al., 2009). Trevino et al. (2003) contended that those in powerful positions must adopt both moral manager and moral person values and character traits to be seen as ethical leaders in organizations. The results from this study not only support this ideology, but also help to clarify that when considering leadership in many venues (not just corporate), such as politics and government. This aspect of character (both work and non-work behaviors) should be scrutinized and regarded as important.

Another key element of SLT is the concept of reciprocal determinism; reasoning that just as an individual's conduct is affected by the environment, so is the environment affected by the individual's behavior (Bandura, 1977). One of the important aspects of this study, in relation to this theory, is that a trusting relationship with leaders is reciprocal (Asencio, 2016). This study's findings supported that those leaders who were more ethical were also shown to have higher levels of propensity to trust in others, which is important to leadership because followers have been shown to be more willing to not only reciprocate the trust they feel toward leaders, but also reciprocate the trust they feel *from* leaders (Asencio, 2016; Engelbrecht et al., 2014).

The literature suggests that ethical leaders and moral managers who demonstrate weakness in the moral person facet are most likely to be viewed as hypocrites (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). These types of leaders discuss ethical behaviors with others, but fail to express the same actions in their own personal behaviors and, therefore, are looked upon as frauds or charlatans (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). This research is particularly important because the results supported this assessment of leadership character, since the ethical behaviors measured in this study not only showed behavioral consistency in both environments, but also the results demonstrated ethical behavioral correlations to trustworthiness. This means that the hypocritical perceptions toward these types of leaders may be correct, because, according to the outcome of this study, those leaders who fail to act ethically in their own behaviors are most likely to demonstrate ethical weakness in both work and non-work environments, and to be less trustworthy.

Some current researchers have suggested that much of the scholarly writing on ethical leadership has been configured as qualitative investigations and have called for

more empirical investigations to prove or disprove the theoretical suppositions; further, they have suggested that the focus has often been individualistic in nature and they requested more investigations on different organizational levels (Ogunforwora, 2014). This study has answered those calls. In order to do so, this research used a quantitative, empirical methodology and investigated leadership ethical behaviors in work and non-work environments at all levels in diverse industries. In addition, the results support the theoretical assumptions involved, all of which adds to the importance the results of this study brings to the literature.

Limitations of the Study

The measurements used for constructing the surveys for this research were fixed and published, with established validity, and only very minor changes were used on the ELS to adapt it to the non-work environment, which should have no effect on validity. As suggested in Chapter 1, limitations of this study involved certain characteristics frequently associated with self-reported, informational data. Those who participated in the self-report, survey questionnaires might not share the same extent or capacity of comprehension for the concepts used in the surveys; they also might have been deliberately misleading in their responses; or they may have been unintentionally distracted or otherwise disengaged during the process of providing their responses due to a variety of reasons and may not have provided as accurate answers as possible (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). However, since this was a survey directed toward leadership/management personnel, it stands to reason that they would have the comprehension skills to satisfactorily fill the capacity for understanding the concepts

used in the surveys. The survey took little time to complete, so distractions should have been minimal.

To avoid bias, this study was restricted to the selection of participants who had no professional ethical training. However, this limited the study in such a way as to eliminate many professions, such as the military, legal, medical, and other professions who undergo ethics training. The restriction made it exceptionally difficult to obtain the participants needed, which took over 3 times longer than usual for SurveyMonkey and affiliates, suggesting that finding enough of the management/leadership population at large who have not undergone any professional ethical training is difficult because ethical training has become so prevalent. This limitation should be taken into account because it may impact generalization to a broader spectrum of the population.

While the assessment instruments used for this research were valid and reliable, still the ELS was altered (with permission from the authors and approval from Walden University IRB) to fit an environment (non-work) for which it was not originally intended to be used. Care was taken during the assessment phase to rotate question items randomly, and to display them each singly, in order to try to reduce bias. However, since the ELS was only slightly modified and was used in conjunction with the original version (for work environments), it is possible that the two measurements were similar enough to each other to create a bias that contributed to the lack of significant difference in the results obtained.

The sample selection was drawn from the SurveyMonkey and affiliates participant pool, and therefore was limited to those who were involved in the participation of that entity. Although the pool was sizable and diversified, this may still

be a limitation for generalization of this research to the population at large, since that participant pool may not exhibit the same dynamics and composition reflective of the general population. Examples would include the fact that no part-time employees were likely involved in this research, sizes of organizations were not taken into consideration, nor were locations, or amount of direct influence and interaction of the leaders and followers. These are important considerations because issues, such as the influence of leaders on those who work in organizations which allow much of the work to be done from remote sites, where interaction between leaders and followers is very limited, may have substantial influence on the information gleaned on this topic.

Collectively, these specific limitations could all have significant influence on the results obtained from this research. As such, this investigation should be denoted as a preliminary study rather than viewed as a definitive work based on ample former research. Additionally, although the measurements used for this research are based on broadly accepted ethical and trusting behavioral concepts, this study used a sample from the U.S. only, so the results may not generalize well to a population outside those boundaries, or at the very least, may not be generalized well to populations outside the western hemisphere.

Recommendations

Future studies in this area should incorporate a participant sample that includes those who have had professional ethical training because they would likely generalize to the population better, and also in order investigate if that ethical training makes a difference, or is comparable, to the results found in this research. In addition, although the sample size (N=94) for this study was adequate for the research parameters here, a

larger sample size drawn from many cultures outside the U.S. would also be desirable for better world-wide generalization purposes.

Elevated trust levels have been found in the most recent literature to initiate and sustain better leadership (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). However, the literature is clear in delineating that the congruence of the leaders' words and actions, along with the honorable reputation they have developed in the organization, makes a significant difference in the ability to initiate the promotion or advancement of trust (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2016). Currently, scholars in the field are asking for better understanding of ethical leadership and followership (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Lopez et al., 2016; Mayer et al., 2012; Newman et al., 2014). Future studies should investigate the dynamics of followers and components of their trust in leadership in conjunction to their perceptions of ethical or unethical behaviors of their leaders.

Contemporary researchers have also suggested the literature would benefit greatly if future investigations could be found that focus on applicable theoretical perspectives on leader hypocrisy as it relates to trust, turnover intentions, stress, and organizations (Goswami & Ha-Brookshire, 2016; Greenbaum et al., 2015). Advancing along these lines, examinations of leadership examples, from good as well as poor leadership circumstances, on followers and the impact the leaders' examples have on followers' ethical behaviors and trustworthiness, would be an excellent determination of SLT tenets.

Falk and Blaylock (2012) discuss how leaders need to be able to objectively evaluate their own character traits in order to then be capable of making appropriate adjustments. Greenbaum et al. (2015) consider ways in which leaders may misperceive their leadership as "good" when they may have misunderstood the way they have 'missed

the mark'. Few studies in this area of the literature have addressed the focus on the way leaders perceive their own moral/ethical identity and how this influences their behaviors (Engelbrecht et al., 2014; Mayer et al., 2012). Studies investigating the perceptions of leaders' own behaviors in comparison to the perceptions their followers have of them as leaders, would be helpful insights for leaders, in order to determine if leaders are able to accurately ascertain how their behaviors impact organizational climate.

Some researchers contend that deep moral identities held by those in leadership, who therefore maintain their ethical behaviors inside and outside of their workplaces, are essential for the development of the type of organizational trust that is critical during difficult and challenging periods; they call for more investigations in this area (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016). Revealing antecedents to the development of ethical behaviors and strong moral identities is paramount to finding ways to instill a deeply internalized ethical and moral identity. Further research could also include longitudinal studies that may investigate leadership ethical behaviors and how they are learned, even from youth or childhood. For example, studying perceptions of leadership ethics, trustworthiness, and moral behaviors at different developmental stages, and what traits are most displayed at various phases of leadership development, would be desirable. Studies could also investigate if ethical and moral behaviors of leaders change or alter in the lower, middle, or at the highest levels of leadership.

Studies along these lines are necessary for the development of the knowledge needed in order to select and develop better leaders, who foster a trusting environment in workplaces, industries, and who will move the future toward a more trustworthy global environment.

Implications

Contemporary investigations have determined that self-perceived ethical behaviors of companies is often higher than their actual behaviors show (Lopez et al., 2016), so it is possible that the actual behaviors of current leaders could be less congruent with ethics and trustworthiness than their self-perceptions lead them to believe. The results of this study is applicable to organizational psychology because it could help leaders crucially judge their behaviors differently than they may otherwise have done, giving them an opportunity to comprehend the necessity to make needed adjustments.

Upon learning that ethical behaviors, both inside and outside of work, are usually consistent with an individual's moral identity, and that inconsistency of ethical behaviors in these two environments can cause followers' perceptions of their leaders to be associated with hypocritical behaviors (Brown & Mitchell, 2010); leaders may be more inclined to be more aware of the example they set during off-work times and make behavioral adjustments. Additionally, contradictory behaviors displayed with what leaders say at work vs. what they actually do, can also create the perception of hypocrisy and can lead to lessening of trust in an organization (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). In addition, results of this study supported this assessment of leadership character, since the ethical behaviors measured in this study not only showed ethical consistency in both environments, but also the results demonstrated empirical evidence of ethical behavioral correlations to trustworthiness.

The knowledge this study brings to the table, suggesting that the hypocritical perceptions toward these types of leaders is correct, may therefore be more of an impetus toward social change in leadership selection in organizations, including the de-selection

of political and governmental leaders whose personal or other history is loaded with scandal or involvement in unethical dealings. The fact that MIT was upheld in this research, suggesting that a high moral identity is more conducive to better leadership and a more trusting/trustworthy environment (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016; Stouten et al., 2012), may cause an inner reflection of some leaders who find the need to make alterations in their behaviors and perspectives to further deepen and internalize their moral identities in order to become better leaders. And, if this knowledge were to be brought forward in schools and communities, the average citizen may decide to choose more carefully to elect leaders with ethical and moral backgrounds, as opposed to those options whose personal and professional backgrounds reflect an unethical and immoral dimension.

Fostering higher trust and trustworthiness has been shown in the literature to create a better organizational climate (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). The information from this research may help leaders and employers in the process of training, as well as with the selection of, more effective and trustworthy future leaders. Specifically, this information could have influence because, upon learning that ethical behaviors, both inside and outside of work, are both impacting in the ability to predict individuals who will be able to better foster trust and trustworthiness; current leaders may change their perspectives and priorities about what they require as they learn to seek for, train for, and value these characteristics in potential leaders. The results of this study is important information for initiating, sustaining, and further understanding the development of trust in organizations.

Conclusions

This research established that no statistical difference was determined between work and non-work ethical behaviors. A significant correlation was found between work

and non-work ethical behaviors, personal trustworthiness, and propensity to trust. This information has been described, scrutinized, analyzed, and examined in the above 5 chapters of this paper. However, the bottom line is: Trust has been delineated in the literature as the basis for establishing a desirable, positive environment in an organization, but achieving trust has been shown to be widely elusive (Mollering et al., 2004); currently trust in the business environment and in business leaders is at all-time record lows (Edelman, 2017; Heavey et al., 2011; Wilson, 2009). The deterioration of trust from a macro-global and organizational viewpoint could be the outcome, or result, of several matters of concern, specifically corruption, fraud, financial misappropriation, and ethical betrayals and treachery (Armour, 2016; Iverson & Zatzick, 2011; Jason, 2014; Stevenson & Wolfers, 2011).

This is serious business for the reason that trust deprivation can lead to great hazards in communities and society; a lack of trust in political and business leadership has been an accurate economic gauge of poverty (Riedl & Javor, 2012). It behooves all of us to investigate and find out as much as we can in order to develop trust in families, neighborhoods, communities, societies, and globally. Then, we each need to become that trustworthy individual, because every community is made of individuals, and every single one makes a difference.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use and Alter the Ethical Leadership Scale

Email Communications Regarding Ethical Leadership Scale

Wed, Sept 14, 2016 @ 12:16 PM

Subject: Permission to use Ethical Leadership Scale

Good morning Dr. Harrison, I am contacting you to ask if we might use the Ethical Leadership Scale described in Ethical Leadership: A Social Learning Perspective for Construct Development and Testing (2005 Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Making Processes 97(2), 117-134. We would like to use the scale as part of dissertation research I am conducting. I have attempted to contact the first and second authors but have had difficulty locating them. We would appreciate any help you could provide.

Thu, Sept 15, 2016 @ 12:16 PM

Subject: re: Permission to use Ethical Leadership Scale

(Marcia) I'm certain it would be fine; what institution and program do you represent?

Tue, Sept 20, 2016 @ 8:20 PM

Subject: re: Permission to use Ethical Leadership Scale

Hello Dr. Harrison, Dr. Trevino, and Dr. Brown,

Thank you for your quick response and for sending this to the other concerned properties. We represent Walden University's Doctoral program in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. May we assume we can move forward with your permission? We may need to slightly modify the scale to adapt it for a non-work environment as well if that is ok?

Tue, Sept 20, 2016 @ 8:35 PM

Subject: re: Permission to use Ethical Leadership Scale

(Marcia) Just cite it and explain how you adapted it.

Appendix B: Demographic Questionnaire

Directions: Please take a few moments to answer the following demographic questions:

Organization Position: _____ Age: _____ Gender: _____

Ethnicity: _____ Years of Experience in leadership: _____

Years with this Organization: _____ Education level: _____

Yearly salary: _____ Are you religious? Yes ____ No _____

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study!

Appendix C: Permission to Use Propensity to Trust Survey

Email Communications Regarding Propensity to Trust Survey

Tue, Mar. 21, 2017 at 7:56 PM:

Hi Dr. Evans, My name is Marcia Vanderwood and I am working on my dissertation at Walden University. My research is on the topic of trust, and I was hoping to use your Propensity to Trust Survey as part of the measurements in my proposed study. I have a true appreciation for all your work on this measurement and I really hope to be able to use it. However, when reading about the scale in your study that presents the PTS, I can see that the subscales (trust and trustworthiness) seem to be separated in the treatment of them during the first study. However, I wasn't sure in the second study if there was an overall trust score? I need a test that will be able to give an overall scoring of individual trust... Or must they be separated as two distinct subscales in this measurement? If so, is using one or the other of the subscales (as a separate entity) acceptable as validated and reliable when conducting research? Sincerely, Marcia Vanderwood

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Thu, Mar. 23, 2017 at 4:59 AM:

Dear Marcia, Thanks for your email! I would recommend using the two separate subscales (this is what we did in the paper). There is also a recent paper with another new trust instrument that might be interesting to you:

Yamagishi, T., Akutsu, S., Cho, K., Inoue, Y., Li, Y., & Matsumoto, Y. (2015). Two-component model of general trust: predicting behavioral trust from attitudinal trust. *Social Cognition*, 33(5), 436-458.

Please feel free to get in touch if you have any more questions, and good luck with the research, Tony Evans

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Mar. 21, 2017, at 2:19 PM

Hi Dr. Revelle, My name is Marcia Vanderwood and I am a PhD student working on my dissertation at Walden University. My research is on the topic of trust, and I was hoping to use your Propensity to Trust Survey as part of the measurements in my proposed study. I have a true appreciation for all your (and Dr. Evans') work on this measurement and I really hope to be able to use it. However, when reading about the scale in your study that presents the PTS, I can see that the subscales (trust and trustworthiness) seem to be separated in the treatment of them during the first study. However, I wasn't sure in the second study if there was an overall trust score? I need a test that will be able to give an overall scoring of individual trust... Or must they be separated as two distinct subscales in this measurement? If so, is using one or the other of the subscales (as a separate entity), particularly the trustworthiness subscale, acceptable as validated and reliable when conducting research? I hope you will be able to help me with the pertinent information I am seeking. Thank you for your time and for all your work on this topic. Sincerely, Marcia Vanderwood

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Apr. 6, 2017 at 11:11 PM

Dear Marcia, Sorry not to have answered sooner, your question got lost in my email que. I think you will find that we show two separate scales. Trustworthiness and trustingness are somewhat different. As you can see from the article, the two scales are reasonably reliable and fairly independent. The experimental evidence suggests that high trust actually leads to more trust worthy behavior (study 2). As we conclude: The trust scale predicts both trusting and trustworthy behavior. We did not form an overall trust scale, but rather compared the validity of the two scales separately. (We gave the items as part

of a larger set of items). I think you could just give the trust items although including the other scale (trustworthiness) might be interesting. William Revelle

Appendix D: Propensity to Trust Survey

Test Format: Survey; consists of 21 items and a Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (strongly inaccurate) to 6 (strongly accurate).

Source:

Evans, A. M., & Revelle, W. (2008). Survey and behavioral measurements of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Research in Personality,42*(6), 1585-1593. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2008.07.011

Permissions:

Propensity to Trust Survey

Please select the answer by placing an "X" over or next to the number corresponding to your answer to each question. Example:

I like dessert.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5 X	6

Items

1. Listen to my conscience.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. Anticipate the needs of others.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. Respect others.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. Can get along with most people.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

5. Have always been completely fair to others.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

6. Stick to the rules.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

7. Believe that laws should be strictly enforced.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

8. Have a good word for everyone.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

9. Value cooperation over competition.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

10. Return extra change when a cashier makes a mistake.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

11. Would never cheat on my taxes.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

12. Follow through with my plans.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

13. Believe that people are basically moral.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

14. Finish what I start.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

15. Retreat from others.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

16. Am filled with doubts about things.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

17. Feel short--changed in life.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

18. Avoid contacts with others.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

19. Believe that most people would lie to get ahead.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

20. Find it hard to forgive others.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

21. Believe that people seldom tell you the whole story.

Strongly Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Slightly Accurate	Accurate	Strongly Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix E: Ethical Leadership Scale (Work Environment--Unmodified)

Test Format: Survey; each item is followed by a 5-point Likert-type response format. *(5-point Likert scale responses: (1) Strongly disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Partly agree; (4) Agree; (5) Completely agree.)*

Source:

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *97*(2), 117-134. doi: 10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.03.002

Ethical Leadership Scale (A)

Directions. Before beginning to answer the questions on this survey, a visualization exercise will be conducted. Please follow instructions as completely as possible. *If you are not in the working environment at the moment, these instructions are particularly vital for you to follow prior to starting this survey.* People spend much of their time at their work places, so visualizing ought to be relatively easy. Take a deep breath and relax. Clear your mind of all worries and concerns for the next few minutes. After reading these

directives, you will need to *close your eyes* after each numbered paragraph and follow the instructions outlined:

1. Visualize your work area. Consider the textures and surfaces in the area you work…first thinking of the light in the room. Visualize the light, where it comes from, the time of day you are in that area, and how the light falls on the items surrounding you in your work area. Ponder the colors that are around you in that work area…the color and texture of the desk, chair, carpet, walls, and outside the window, etc. Think of the work you do and what your responsibilities are while you are there, and how the light in the room affects your work ability.

2. Continuing to visualize your work area, now consider the sounds you normally hear when you are at work. Is the telephone ringing, or machinery running that you can hear? Are people talking? If so, ponder the voices that you hear and to whom they belong. Are they muffled or are they close/loud enough to understand what they are saying? Consider other sounds that are in your work surroundings.

3. As you continue to visualize your work environment, picture in your mind all the ways you touch that environment. Recall how your fingers feel as you do your work: are you working on a computer, telephone, or writing on a desk surface? What is the temperature in the room? Is the window open and a breeze blowing, or is the air conditioner/heat on? Is your seat hard or soft?

4. In your mind, you are sitting in your work environment, and you are now able to smell the environment. What smells are there? Coffee? Someone's perfume/cologne? Some kind of cleaning or medicinal agent? Does someone often bring baked goods? Can you

smell the carpeting and draperies? Recall and visualize as many scents from the work environment that you can.

When you feel that you are well transitioned to mentally visualizing your work environment as best you can, please begin answering the survey questions.

Each question is to be answered according to how you consider your behavior in your work environment. Please select the answer by placing an "X" over or next to the number underneath your chosen answer. The selection of "neutral" indicates that you neither agree nor disagree. Example:

I like dessert.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2 X	3	4	5

Items

1. Listens to what employees have to say.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

2. Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

3. Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

4. Has the best interests of employees in mind.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

5. Makes fair and balanced decisions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

6. Can be trusted.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

7. Discusses business ethics or values with employees.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

8. Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

9. Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

10. When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?"

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F: Ethical Leadership Scale (Non-work Environment—Modified)

Test Format: Survey; each item is followed by a 5-point Likert-type response format. *(5-point Likert scale responses: (1) Strongly disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Partly agree; (4) Agree; (5) Completely agree.)*

Source:

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97(2), 117-134. doi: 10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.03.002

Ethical Leadership Scale (B)

Directions. Before beginning to answer the questions on this survey, a visualization exercise will be conducted. Please follow instructions as completely as possible. *If you are in the working environment at the moment, these instructions are particularly vital for you to follow prior to starting this survey.* People widely differ in the context of their *non-work places*, but visualizing ought to be relatively easy. Much of that time is spent sleeping, as well as relaxing with family and friends. Take a deep breath and relax. Clear

your mind of all worries and concerns for the next few minutes. After reading these directives, you will need to *close your eyes* after each numbered paragraph and follow the instructions outlined:

1. Visualize your non-work area. Consider the textures and surfaces in the area where you relax…first thinking of the light in the room. Visualize the light, where it comes from, the time of day you are in that area, and how the light falls on the items surrounding you in your non-work area. Ponder the colors that are around you in that area…the color and texture of the furniture, carpet, walls, windows, etc. Consider the views outside. Think of the things you do (watch TV, play computer games, eat supper, sleep, walk or run outside, hobbies, etc.) and what your responsibilities are while you are there.

2. Continuing to visualize your non-work area, now consider the sounds you normally hear when you are there. Is the telephone ringing or TV, music, vacuum, laundry, sprinkler etc. going that you can hear? Are people talking? If so, ponder the voices that you hear and to whom they belong. Do you have pets? Consider other sounds that are in your non-work surroundings.

3. As you continue to visualize your non-work environment, picture in your mind all the ways you touch that environment. Recall how your fingers feel as you do your hobbies: are you reading, cooking, or perhaps doing something in the garage or outside? What is the temperature in the area? Is a breeze blowing, or is the air conditioner/heat on? Is your seat hard or soft, or is gravel crunching under your feet as you walk/run?

4. In your mind, you are sitting in your non-work environment, and you are now able to smell the environment. What smells are there? Coffee? Food cooking? Freshly mowed

grass? Some kind of cleaning or medicinal agent? Recall and visualize as many scents from the non-work environment that you can.

When you feel that you are well transitioned to mentally visualizing your non-work environment as best you can, please begin answering the survey questions.

Each question is to be answered according to how you consider your behavior in your off-work environments. Please select the answer by placing an "X" over or next to the number corresponding to your answer. The selection of "neutral" indicates that you neither agree nor disagree. Example:

I like dessert.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2 X	3	4	5

Items

1. Has the best interests of others in mind.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

2. Makes fair and balanced decisions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

3. Can be trusted.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

4. When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?"

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

5. Discusses ethics or values with others.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

6. Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

7. Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

8. Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

9. Disciplines/corrects others who violate ethical standards.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

10. Listens to what others have to say.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix G: Further Screening

These questions will be applied to potential participants prior to reading the consent form and taking any of the measurements.

Screening Questions

1. Do you work in a profession that has a specific code of ethics, such as in the medical or legal profession?
2. Have you undergone any work-related courses or professional training in ethics?
3. Is your employment environment separate from your home or off-work environments?
4. Do you work from home, or do you have a family owned business?
5. Do you have at least one year past or present experience serving in a capacity of leadership in a public or private organization, where your job title included the words "supervisor, team leader, manager" or an equivalent (or above) in stratification?

Note. *If answers to any of the questions 1, 2, or 4 are "yes" the potential participant will be screened from the research. If answers to questions 3 or 5 are "no" the potential participant will be screened from the research.*

Appendix H: Tests of Assumptions

Prior to conducting multiple regressions, the assumptions of this statistical analysis were tested. The following section presents the tests of the assumptions for regression for each of the research questions.

Research Question 1 Regression Assumption Tests

The data indicated a violation of the assumption of multicollinearity as the independent variables of inside ethical behaviors and outside ethical behaviors were strongly and positively correlated, $r = .853$. These results suggest that the two independent variables are so similar that parsing out the influence each variable has on the dependent variable in the regression model will be difficult due to the multicollinearity.

An examination of the normal probability plot and the scatterplot for the regression suggested that there were no violations of the assumptions of normality or linearity. The probability plot indicated no deviations from a straight line, confirming linearity within the data. The scatterplot also indicated the data formed the standard rectangular shape with no deviations in the residuals, this again confirmed normality within the data.

Regarding outliers, using the Mahalanobis distance value of 13.82, for two independent variables, there was one data case that had a Mahalanobis distance outside the expected value, 17.43. Furthermore, an examination of the Cook's distance (.147) indicated that this data case, while an outlier, did not unduly influence the results of the regression. These results indicated no need to delete the case from the analysis.

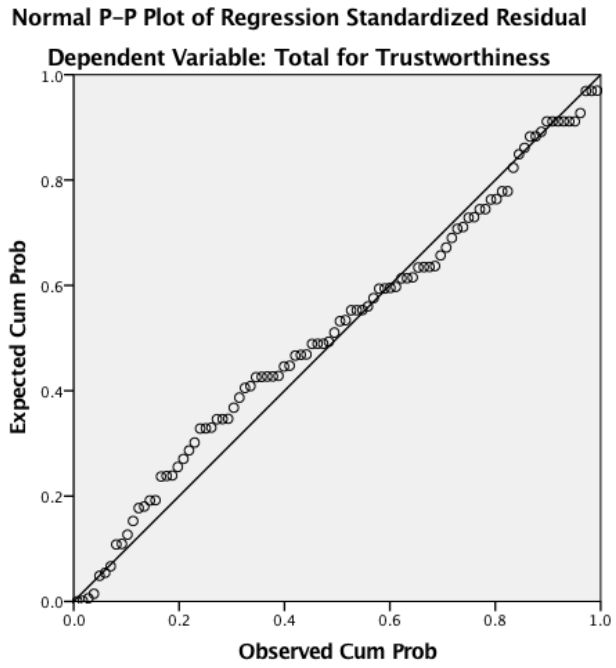

Figure 1. Normal probability plot: Regression 1 total for trustworthiness

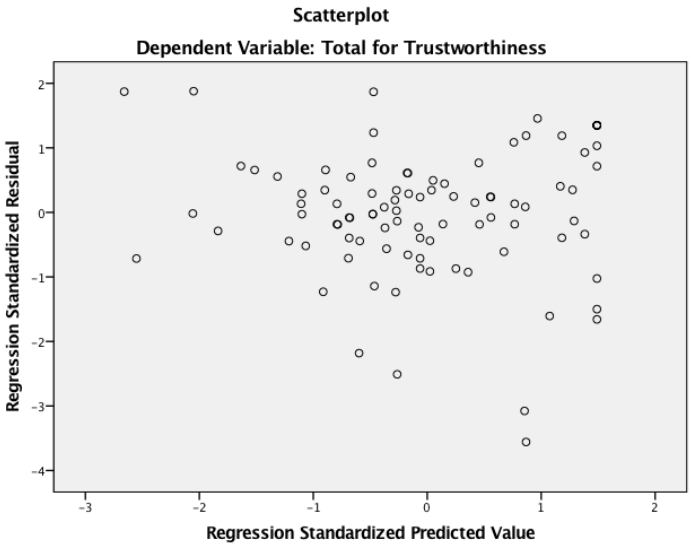

Figure 2. Scatterplot: Regression 1 total for trustworthiness

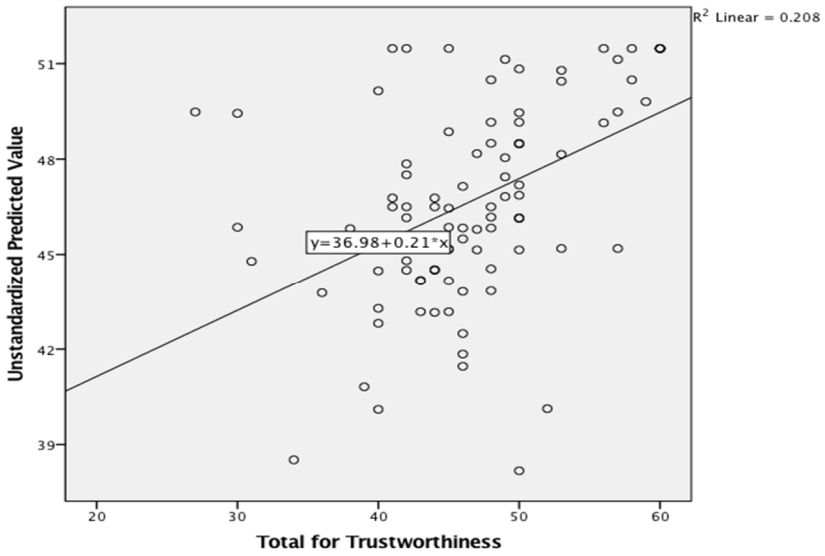

Figure 3. Scatterplot: Predictors and total trustworthiness

Research Question 2 Regression Assumption Tests

The data indicated there were no violations of the assumption of multicollinearity for the second regression containing various independent variables pertaining to inside and outside ethical behaviors. An examination of the normal probability plot and the scatterplot for the regression suggested that there were no violations of the assumptions of normality or linearity. The probability plot indicated no deviations from a straight line, confirming linearity within the data. The scatterplot also indicated the data formed the standard rectangular shape with no deviations in the residuals, confirming normality within the data.

Regarding outliers, using the Mahalanobis distance value of 24.32, for seven independent variables, there were two data cases that had a Mahalanobis distance outside the expected value, 28.48 & 27.13. Furthermore, an examination of the Cook's distance (.114) indicated that this data cases, while considered outliers, did not unduly influence

the results of the regression. These results indicated no need to delete the case from the analysis.

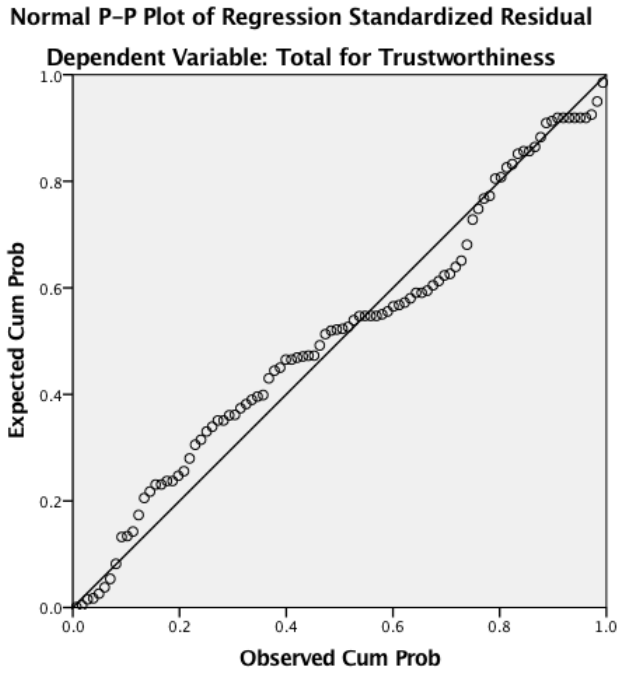

Figure 4. Normal probability plot: Regression 2 total for trustworthiness

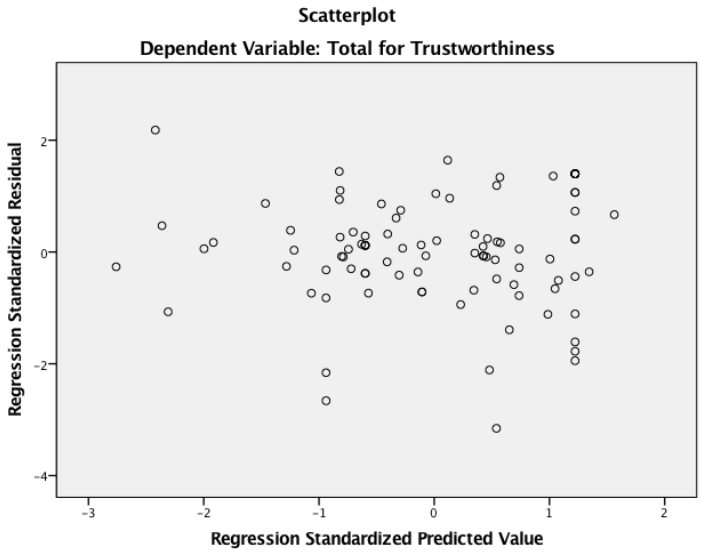

Figure 5. Scatterplot: Regression 2 total for trustworthiness

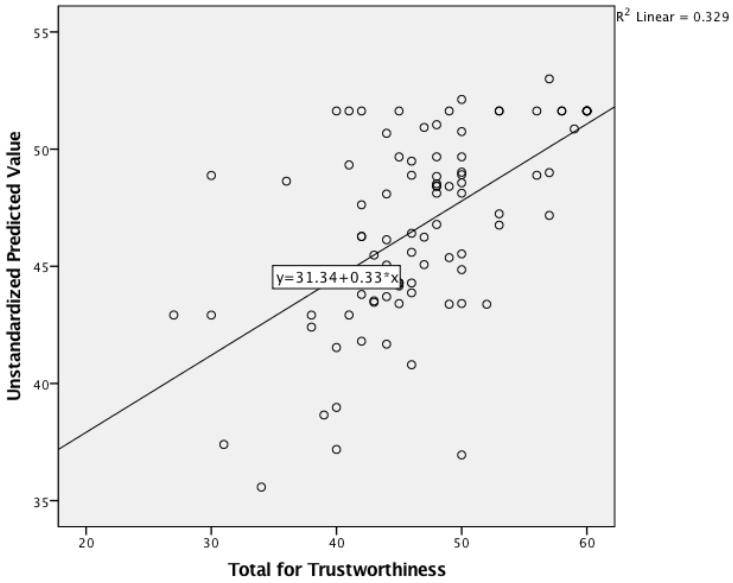

Figure 6. Scatterplot: Predictors and total trustworthiness

Research Question 3 Regression Assumption Tests

The data for the first regression indicated a violation of the assumption of multicollinearity as the independent variables of inside ethical behaviors and outside ethical behaviors were strongly and positively correlated, $r = .853$. These results suggest that the two independent variables are so similar that parsing out the influence each variable has on the dependent variable in the regression model will be difficult due to the multicollinearity.

An examination of the normal probability plot and the scatterplot for the regression suggested that there were no violations of the assumptions of normality or linearity. The probability plot indicated no deviations from a straight line, confirming linearity within the data. The scatterplot also indicated the data formed the standard rectangular shape with no deviations in the residuals, this again confirmed normality within the data.

Regarding outliers, using the Mahalanobis distance value of 13.82, for two independent variables, there was one data case that had a Mahalanobis distance outside the expected value, 17.44. Furthermore, an examination of the Cook's distance (.097) indicated that this data case, while an outlier, did not unduly influence the results of the regression. These results indicated no need to delete the case from the analysis.

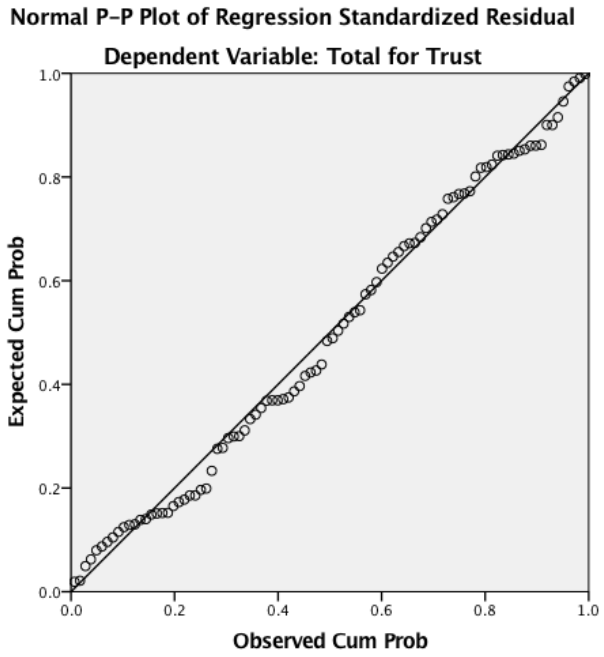

Figure 7. Normal probability plot: Regression 1 total for personal trust

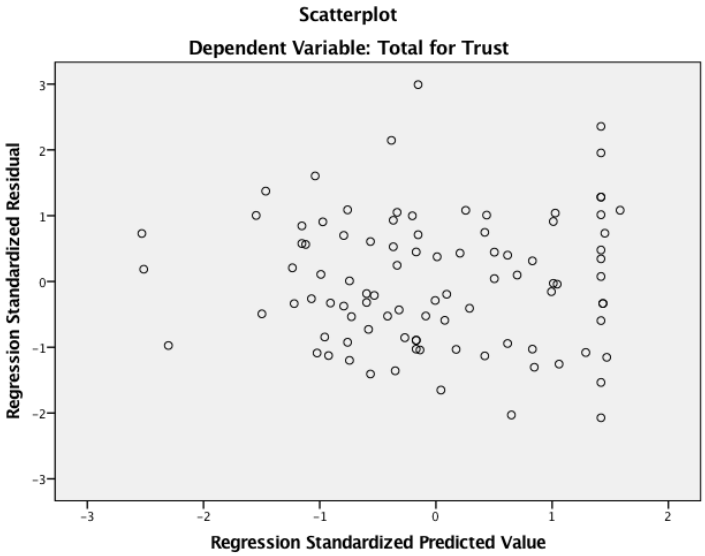

Figure 8. Scatterplot: Regression 1 total for personal trust

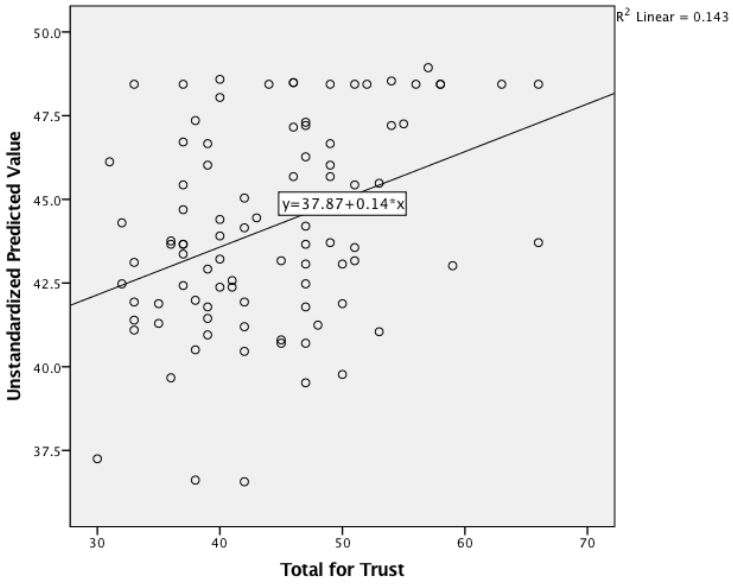

Figure 9. Scatterplot: Predictors and total personal trust

The data for the second regression indicated there were no violations of the assumption of multicollinearity for the second regression containing various independent variables pertaining to inside and outside ethical behaviors. An examination of the normal probability plot and the scatterplot for the regression suggested that there were no

violations of the assumptions of normality or linearity. The probability plot indicated no deviations from a straight line, confirming linearity within the data. The scatterplot also indicated the data formed the standard rectangular shape with no deviations in the residuals, this again confirmed normality within the data.

Regarding outliers, using the Mahalanobis distance value of 29.59, for ten independent variables, there were several data cases that had a Mahalanobis distance outside the expected value, 29.90 – 41.96. Furthermore, an examination of the Cook's distance (.305) indicated that this data cases, while considered outliers, did not unduly influence the results of the regression. These results indicated no need to delete the case from the analysis.

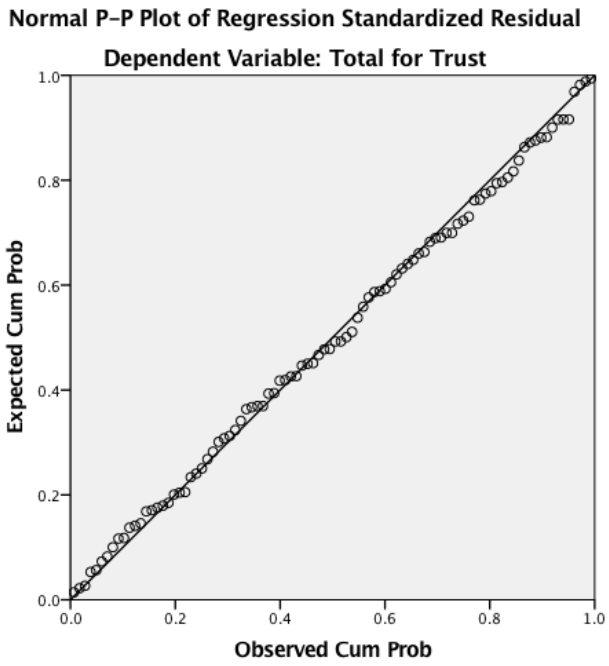

Figure 10. Normal probability plot: Regression 2 total for personal trust

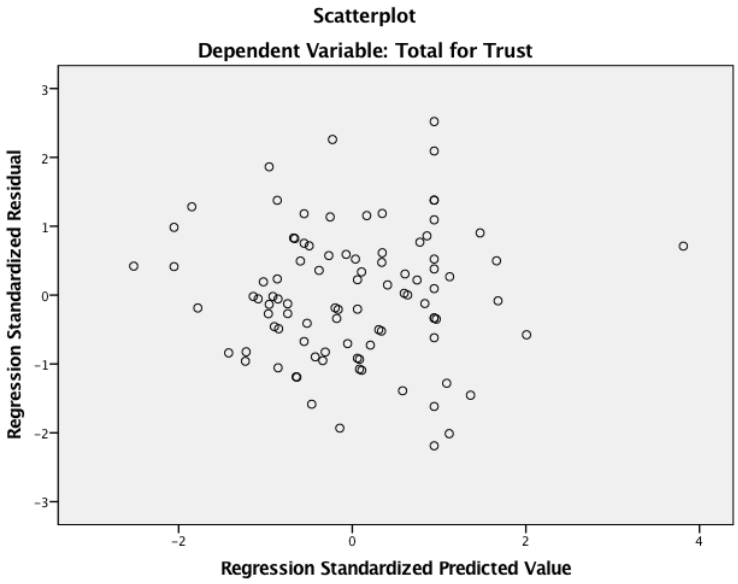

Figure 11. Scatterplot: Regression 2 total for personal trust

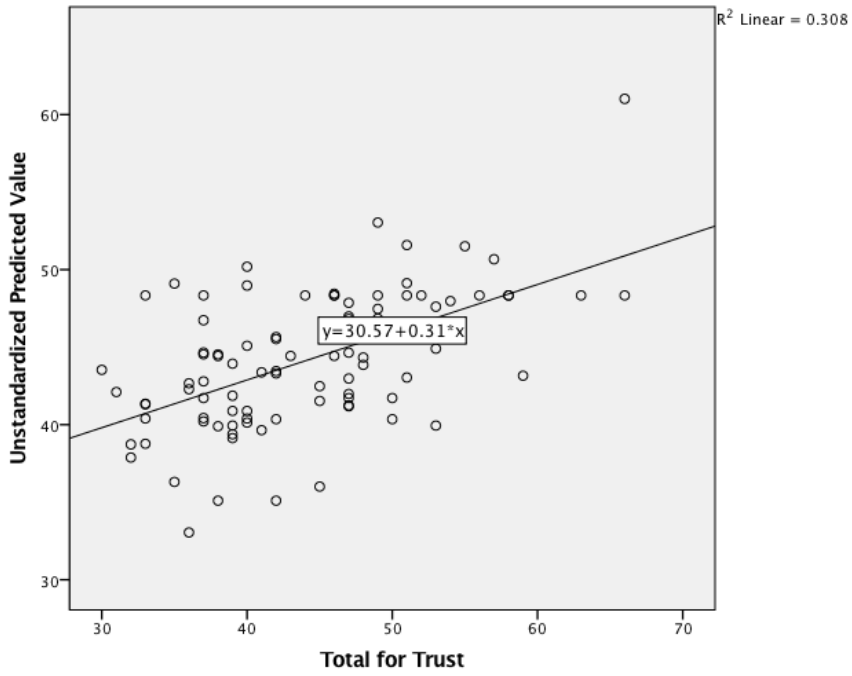

Figure 12. Scatterplot: Predictors and total personal trust