

Understanding Ethical Leadership:
An Integrative Model of its Antecedents, Correlates,
Contingencies, and Outcomes

Dissertation

Submitted to the

Faculty of Business, Economics and Social Sciences

TU Dortmund University

Dortmund

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor Rerum Politicarum

Submitted by

Kai Christian Bormann

26.04.2013

Reviewer

1. Prof. Dr. Jens Rowold
2. Prof. Dr. Andreas Hoffjan

Acknowledgements

“Take me down to the paradise city...”

With these few words Rock N’ Roll Hall of Famers’ Guns N’ Roses attune one of the very famous anthems about struggle and desire. Approaching the end of this dissertation, I certainly feel that a long road is nearing its end. I sincerely enjoyed working on this thesis with all its setbacks, challenges, and excitement. By finalizing this work, I may not come down to a paradise city – this would be a little too martial – but I definitely reach a goal that was my glaring drive for the last three plus years. Therefore, I would like to use this section and thank all those who were involved in taking me down this road.

First, I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. Jens Rowold for giving me the opportunity to develop as an independent and self-confident academic personality. I really appreciated each and every advice and encouragement and I am grateful for him being enthusiastic and open to my ideas. Also, I thank Prof. Dr. Andreas Hoffjan and Prof. Dr. Andreas Engelen for offering their time and experience by being part of the examination board.

Very special thanks go to my colleagues at the Chair of Human Resource Development and Change Management I worked with during the last three years; the first generation of Dr. Carolin Abrell-Vogel, Dr. Lars Borgmann, Dr. Susanna Maria Krisor, and Dr. Claudia Krüger, the second generation of Carina Cohrs and Mathias Diebig, and the steady and calm anchor Katja Brado.

I heartily thank my family. Therefore, the reader may excuse the variation in language. *Si tacuisses, philosophum fuisses.* Aus vollem Herzen danke ich meinen Eltern Marita und Detlef Bormann, die mich in jeglicher Hinsicht auf meinem Weg unterstützt haben und mit denen dieser ein so viel leichter war. Especially, I would like to dearly thank my sister Carolyn for being the best sibling there is, period!

지난 몇 해 동안 저에게 아낌없는 지원과, 맛있는 한국 음식들로 격려를 베풀어 주신 장은민 님 그리고 장형태님께 진심으로 감사드립니다.

And to conclude, of course, I sincerely thank So Rim Jang for all her love, encouragement, and support during those last years. I am looking forward to all the new roads ahead of us.

Table of Contents

I. Summary	V
II. Zusammenfassung	X
III. List of Tables	XV
IV. List of Figures	XVI
V. List of Equations.....	XVII
VI. List of Abbreviations.....	XVIII
1. Introduction	1
1.1 Goals of the Dissertation and Research Questions	4
1.2 Outline of the Dissertation.....	7
2. Theoretical Background	11
2.1 Leadership.....	11
2.2 Contemporary Approaches to Ethical Leadership	14
2.3 Ethical Leadership – Bridging the Disciplines	17
2.3.1 Ethical leadership in organizational leadership research.	17
2.3.2 Ethical leadership in business ethics research.....	20
2.4 Development of the Research Agenda.....	22
2.4.1 Multiple perspectives on ethical leadership impact.	26
2.4.2 Antecedents of ethical leadership.....	30
2.4.3 Ethical leadership and the leadership context.	33
3. Study 1: Elucidating the ‘Black Box’ of How Ethical Leadership Works – Trust and Organizational Justice as Mediators for the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Organizational Outcome Criteria	35
3.1 Study 1: Introduction	35
3.2 Study 1: Theoretical Background	36
3.3 Study 1: Method.....	47
3.4 Study 1: Results	50
3.5 Study 1: Discussion	56

4. Study 2: On the Relationship between Leader Personality Traits, Ethical Leadership, and Leadership Effectiveness: A Two-Face Study.....	61
4.1 Study 2: Introduction	61
4.2 Study 2: Theoretical Background	63
4.3 Study 2: Method.....	75
4.4 Study 2: Results	79
4.5 Study 2: Discussion	85
5. Study 3: Leadership in Professional Basketball: The Effects of Transformational Leadership, Laissez-faire, and Ethical Leadership on Athletes' Performance in German Basketball.....	92
5.1 Study 3: Introduction	92
5.2 Study 3: Theoretical Background	93
5.3 Study 3: Method.....	102
5.4 Study 3: Results	108
5.5 Study 3: Discussion	113
6. Overall Discussion.....	121
6.1 Summarization of Findings.....	121
6.2 Contribution to Existing Research.....	127
6.3 Limitations and Avenues for Future Research	134
6.4 Implications for Practitioners.....	143
6.5 Conclusion	149
7. References	151
Appendix	174
Appendix A: Instructions and Questionnaires applied in Study 1.....	174
Appendix B: Instructions and Questionnaires applied in Study 2.....	183
Appendix C: Instructions and Questionnaires applied in Study 3.....	187
Appendix D: Declaration.....	192

I. Summary

In the past two decades, we have witnessed a growing interest in ethics related topics in both the mass media as well as academic literature. Amid regular reports about corporate greed, irresponsible managerial behavior, or social recklessness in recent years an understanding is evoking that economic activities may not be evaluated in terms of sheer rational effectiveness, solely, but also in terms of their ethical and normative appropriateness. This development also takes its toll on leadership literature. Leadership – regardless of hierarchical level or organizational setting – is closely linked to the exhibition of authoritative powers towards subordinates and therefore bears the risk of potential misuse. With the focus on ethical leadership, researchers are interested in how the exhibition of those depicted authorities can be thoughtful, responsible, and caring – in short *good*. Today, we can refer to an increasing body of research – both theoretically and gradually empirically. In line with academic literature, ethical leadership accentuates ‘the walk of the ethical talk’. It focuses on the normatively appropriate conduct of leaders, referring to attributes such as dependability, honesty, and integrity (‘ethical role modeling’), and the promotion of that same behavior towards followers through reinforcement and visible actions (‘promoting ethical conduct’).

Although academic interest in studying ethical leadership is growing there are still ways to go, especially with regards to empirical research, in order to understand its nature, comprehensively. The aim of this dissertation is to systematically deepen our understanding of ethical leadership by developing and validating an integrative model covering its antecedents, effects, facets, mediating mechanisms, and contingencies. In the following, the respective research fields are delineated more detailed.

Does ethical leadership pay off and how do these effects occur? How ethics and economic motives shape opposite poles or how they coincide plays an ongoing vivid role in the many years of research on business ethics. Similarly, linking ethical leadership to means of enhanced organizational effectiveness is equally crucial as it provides the economic rationale and consequent legitimacy for the implementation in corporate reality (e.g., codes of conduct, human resources development programs, etc.). Therefore, a major goal of this dissertation is to address the potential impact of ethical leadership from a multitude of angles, including diverse methods and sources. While the gen-

eral question if ethical leadership has beneficial impact captures most academic attention a closely related, thus rather untapped field of interest is about how those effects prevail. Therefrom, I will also investigate the effects of different facets of ethical leadership to examine which components are most crucial in terms of enhancing organizational effectiveness. On top, the question how ethical leadership works will be further addressed by studying mediating effects on leadership outcome.

While the potential impact of ethical leadership captures most academic attention, I will take a more comprehensive stance by also examining antecedents of ethical leadership. *What makes people act ethically? Why do some leaders conduct themselves ethically while others do not?* To answer these questions I will draw on inter-individual characteristics of a leader. More precisely, my research interest lies upon leader personality traits. Considering the limited attention the relationship between personality traits and ethical leadership has received in the past both theoretically and empirically, this dissertation exceeds previous literature by exploring this dependence further.

Are the emergence and impact of ethical leadership influenced by contextual variables? Examining how situational aspects alter or facilitate the impact and prevalence of leadership behavior has a long tradition in extant leadership literature. However, insights on ethical leadership and contextual boundaries are still missing. Therefore, the third major field of this dissertation is the exploratory examination of the emergence and preservation of ethical leadership considering differences in situational contexts.

The empirical validation of the above depicted research field is carried out through three distinct studies and constitutes the core of this dissertation. Thereby, each of the studies addresses only excerpts from the overall research agenda

The first study “*Elucidating the ‘Black Box’ of How Ethical Leadership Works – Trust and Organizational Justice as Mediators for the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Organizational Outcome Criteria*” focuses exclusively on the impact of ethical leadership. As important measures of organizational impact, this study applies indicators for employee occupational efficacy (job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior) and also for inefficacy (counterproductive work behavior). To carve out a more detailed perspective on the exact processes the exhibition of ethical leadership implies, the leadership style is modeled multifaceted (distinguishing between ‘ethi-

cal role modeling' and 'promoting ethical conduct'). The first study also examines mediating mechanisms. Based on organizational leadership literature, trust and justice are developed as potential mediating variables for the relationship between ethical leadership and the chosen organizational outcome criteria. The sample comprised 470 participants from different organizations. Structural equation modeling techniques were used to test the assumed relations. Results indicated that ethical leadership, most notably the facet promoting ethical conduct to be related to the different criteria – enhancing employee job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior and reducing employee deviance. Interestingly, exceeding correlational results, the second facet ethical role modeling was not related to any of the applied criteria. Also, trust and justice were confirmed as full mediators for the relationship between ethical leadership, i.e. promoting ethical conduct, and outcome criteria.

The second study titled “*On the Relationship between Leader Personality Traits, Ethical Leadership, and Leadership Effectiveness: A Two-Face Study*” also examines the impact of ethical leadership. While applying job satisfaction as an important indicator for organizational outcomes as done in the first study, the second study exceeds by also implementing objective performance data to model the impact of ethical leadership more comprehensively. Next to ethical leadership impact, the second study also deals with leader personality traits as important antecedents of ethical leadership. In detail, four personality traits are presented to be crucial in terms of the emergence of ethical leadership: agreeableness, dependability, achievement, and extraversion. Furthermore, this study is the first to address the aspect of leadership context. The posited relational model was tested for two data samples, separately. The first sample captured all departments from an industrial company in Germany (1263 employees in 173 teams) and addressed the relation between leader traits, ethical leadership, and employee job satisfaction as a subjective measure of leadership effectiveness. The second sample – a subsample of the first – covered sales forces only (107 employees in 24 teams), an organizational department with rather unique contextual features such as high extrinsic motivation high ethical sensitivity. I tested the same relational model as in the first sample, thus, substituting job satisfaction through sales performance data as an objective effectiveness measure. In both samples, PLS-path modeling techniques were applied to examine the hypothesized model. Results indicated a distinctive positive relation between

leader personality – namely agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion – and ethical leadership. Additionally, ethical leadership was shown to exhibit substantial effects on both organizational outcome criteria. The differences in the relational patterns between both data sample, however, give preliminary insights on contextual affection related to ethical leadership. Most notably, while agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion all were significantly related to ethical leadership in the first sample, only the latter remained in the sales forces segment.

The third study “*Leadership in Professional Basketball: The Effects of Transformational Leadership, Laissez-Faire, and Ethical Leadership on Athletes’ Performance in German Basketball*” gauges the usefulness of ethical leadership impact in an alternative setting. It investigates ethical leadership in a non-traditional but vivid leadership context: professional basketball in Germany. Team sport asserts itself as it implies a plain dyadic leadership relationship between a team’s head coach and the players. This study is the first to transfer ethical leadership to a sportive context. With regard to the impact of ethical leadership, the setting of basketball allows for significant contribution to existing research as it enables exceptional coverage of occupational, i.e. sportive performance. By using advanced sport economic metrics, I am able to model the objective development of player performance over time. Additionally, the third study also examines leadership effects on objective team performance enabling an extensive depiction of leadership effectiveness by covering individual and team performance. On top, the study also investigates the effects of transformational and laissez-faire leadership, thus, giving a chance to oppose ethical leadership to such leadership constructs. The sample encompassed data on coaches ($N = 22$) and their respective players ($N = 200$). At the team level, I tested whether coaches’ leadership behavior was directly linked to overall team performance measured by team standings with OLS-regression analyses. At the individual level, I examined the influence of the leadership styles on the development of players’ individual objective performance using multi-level techniques, i.e. latent growth models. Across levels, results did not reveal any significant influences from coaches’ ethical leadership on the performance measures. Conversely, facets of transformational leadership, most notably visionary leadership behaviors, were shown to be positively related to both individual and team level performance.

Summarizing the findings, all three studies provide important insights on the nature of ethical leadership. Focusing on ethical leadership impact, my results indicate that it is necessary to differentiate between traditional organizational settings and non-traditional ones. Regarding the latter, with professional sports as such a non-traditional organizational setting, ethical leadership impact failed to materialize. In contrast, conventional organizational settings strongly call for the display of ethical leadership behavior as this dissertation showed considerable relationships with a multitude of criteria. Most crucial, this work is the very first to link ethical leadership to objective measures of leadership effectiveness. Accordingly, practitioners are well-advised to implement ethical leadership practices in corporate reality not only from a normative or ethical perspective but also from an economic rationale. With the examination of ethical leadership facets and mediating mechanisms, this work also identifies important starting points to transfer the concept of ethical leadership into actual behavior.

Studying the antecedents of ethical leadership is also crucial as they allow us to gain insights on the emergence of ethical leadership. With the personality traits of agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion as predictors of ethical leadership practitioners are more capable of identifying those candidates likely to exhibit such desired leadership behaviors. As the resulting patterns varied among two organizational settings, researchers and practitioners are urged to account for the respective contexts when applying personality traits as antecedents of ethical leadership behavior.

However, this work also raises several important questions for future research. Most importantly, as ethical leadership was non-efficient in sports and, in that course, could not be confirmed as contributing beyond transformational leadership, more work is needed in order to understand the nature of ethical leadership considering different contexts and to plainly oppose ethical leadership from existing leadership constructs.

Notwithstanding, this dissertation showed that studying ethical leadership and putting it into actual practice is worthwhile and continuously needed. The limitations depicted above must not discourage researchers' interest. Moreover they should serve as road signs for researchers and their future research in order to fortify the inevitability of the ethical use of given powers in today's society.

II. Zusammenfassung

In der öffentlichen Wahrnehmung wird das Spannungsfeld zwischen wirtschaftlichem Handeln und ethischen Einflussgrößen immer dann zu einem zentralen Thema, wenn in den Medien über etwaige ethische Versäumnisse von Unternehmen, Unternehmensvertretern oder auch von Politiker berichtet und diskutiert wird. Gerade in Deutschland konnten wir in der jüngeren Vergangenheit bspw. im Zuge der Bankenkrise, dem Rücktritt Christian Wulffs oder, ganz aktuell, den Vorwürfen der Steuerhinterziehung gegen Uli Hoeneß viel lesen über Themen wie Gier, Verantwortungslosigkeit und Leichtsinnigkeit von Entscheidungsträgern. Was diese meist negativen Fälle bewirken, ist, dass in der heutigen Gesellschaft zunehmend über Sinn und Legitimität wirtschaftlichen Handelns diskutiert wird. Es wächst das Verständnis, dass sich wirtschaftliches Handeln eben nicht ausschließlich an ökonomischen Maßstäben messen lässt sondern auch moralischen oder ethischen Größen gerecht werden muss. In der Wissenschaft manifestieren sich diese Entwicklungen in einem seit Jahren steigenden Interesse an wirtschafts- und unternehmensethischen Fragestellungen. Insbesondere die Führungsforschung spielt hier eine zentrale Rolle. Personalführung impliziert die Ausübung von Weisungsbefugnissen gegenüber direkt unterstellten Mitarbeitern und bürgt daher stets die Gefahr des Missbrauchs besagter Befugnisse. Aus diesem Grund setzt Forschung zur ethischen Führung an eben dieser Stelle an und untersucht, wie Personalführung gewissenhaft, rücksichtsvoll und verantwortungsbewusst – kurz gesagt *gut* – sein kann. Ethische Führung wird verstanden als das normativ angemessene Verhalten einer Führungskraft in Bezug auf Handlung und Kommunikation („Ethisches Rollenmodell“) und das Verstärken eben diesen Verhaltens bei den Mitarbeitern („Ethische Mitarbeiterführung“).

Obwohl Forschung zum Paradigma der ethischen Führung in den letzten Jahren zunimmt, sind bis heute noch viele Fragen unbeantwortet. Das Ziel dieser Arbeit ist es, die Befunde innerhalb des Themengebiets der ethischen Führung systematisch zu erweitern, indem ein Modell der Antezedenzen, Führungsfacetten, Wirkmechanismen und Konsequenzen entwickelt und empirisch validiert wird. Die einzelnen Forschungsschwerpunkte werden im Folgenden vorgestellt.

Zahlt sich Ethik aus bzw. was bewirkt ethische Führung? Die Frage, wie und ob ethisches Führungsverhalten von Führungskräften einhergeht mit größerem Erfolg von

Organisationen, bestimmt seit jeher einen Großteil der einschlägigen Forschung. Der Nachweis der ökonomischen Rationalität von ethischem Engagement ist von so zentraler Bedeutung, da auf diese Weise die betriebliche Umsetzung einschlägiger Maßnahmen (bspw. bei der Einführung ethikbezogener Kompetenzmodelle für Führungskräfte oder Führungstrainings) erleichtert wird. Aus diesem Grund liegt einer der Schwerpunkte dieser Dissertation bei der Untersuchung der Effekte ethischer Führung. Dabei werden bestehende Befunde durch die Verwendung unterschiedlicher Quellen (subjektive und objektive Quellen), Erfolgskriterien (bspw. Arbeitszufriedenheit, Organizational Citizenship Behavior oder Leistung) und Betrachtungsebenen (Individual- und Teamleistung) erweitert. Da Führungsverhalten Mitarbeiterverhalten prägt, beziehen sich besagte Kriterien des Führungserfolgs vor allem auf arbeitsrelevante Einstellungen der Mitarbeiter. Zusätzlich wird auf die exakten Wirkmechanismen und zugrunde liegenden, vermittelnden psychologischen Prozesse eingegangen. Auf diese Weise soll überprüft werden, wie die Effekte von Führung auf Führungserfolg zustande kommen.

Wenngleich die Untersuchung der Effekte ethischer Führung den vermeintlich größten Anteil innerhalb der einschlägigen Forschung ausmacht, soll im Rahmen dieser Arbeit der Fokus auch auf den Prädiktoren, also den Antezedenzen von ethischem Führungsverhalten liegen. *Warum handeln manche Führungskräfte ethisch, warum andere nicht?* Bei dieser Frage rücken stabile Personeneigenschaften der Führungskraft in den Mittelpunkt. Insbesondere Persönlichkeitsmerkmale der Führungskraft spielen hier eine wichtige Rolle, blieben in der Diskussion um ethische Führung allerdings bisher kaum beachtet. Diese Arbeit erweitert den Forschungsstand somit, indem der Zusammenhang zwischen Persönlichkeit und Führung systematisch untersucht wird.

Ist ethische Führung in jeder Situation effektiv? Gibt es situative Einflüsse auf die Antezedenzen und Konsequenzen ethischer Führung? In der Vergangenheit ist im Rahmen der *allgemeinen* Führungsforschung diese Frage der Situations- oder Kontextgebundenheit intensiv untersucht worden. Interessanterweise sind diesen Einflussgrößen im Rahmen der ethischen Führung kaum Beachtung geschenkt worden. Um diese Forschungslücke zu schließen, bezieht sich das dritte Forschungsfeld dieser Dissertation auf die Untersuchung ebendieser situativen Einflüsse.

Die empirische Überprüfung der drei skizzierten Forschungsfelder erfolgt im Rahmen von drei eigenständigen Studien, die den Kern dieser Arbeit bilden. Jede Studie betrachtet dabei jeweils nur einen Ausschnitt des übergreifenden Forschungsmodells.

Die erste Studie „*Elucidating the ‘Black Box’ of How Ethical Leadership Works – Trust and Organizational Justice as Mediators for the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Organizational Outcome Criteria*“ befasst sich mit den Effekten ethischer Führung. Als zentrale Indikatoren für den Führungseinfluss werden innerhalb dieser Studie Maße sowohl für organisationale Effizienz (Arbeitszufriedenheit und OCB der Mitarbeiter) als auch für Ineffizienz (kontraproduktives Verhalten der Mitarbeiter) verwendet. Um die exakten Prozesse des Führungseinflusses möglichst genau zu modellieren, wird zwischen den zwei Facetten ethischer Führung unterschieden: Ethisches Rollenmodell und Ethische Mitarbeiterführung. Zudem besteht durch die Betrachtung potentieller Mediatoren die Möglichkeit, die zugrunde liegenden psychologischen Mechanismen des Zusammenhangs zwischen Führungsverhalten und Führungserfolg genauer zu beleuchten. Hierbei werden Vertrauen und organisationale Gerechtigkeit als derartige vermittelnde Variablen geprüft. Die der Analyse zugrunde liegenden Daten ($N = 470$) entstammen Mitarbeiterbefragungen mehrerer Organisationen. Die Ergebnisse zeigen anhand von SEM-Analysen bedeutsame Zusammenhänge zwischen ethischer Führung und den Kriterien Arbeitszufriedenheit, OCB (jeweils positiv) und kontraproduktivem Verhalten (negativ). Insbesondere die Führungsstilfacette ethische Mitarbeiterführung erwies sich als relevant. Des Weiteren konnte eine vollständige Mediation des Zusammenhangs zwischen ethischer Mitarbeiterführung und den Kriterien durch die Variablen Vertrauen und organisationale Gerechtigkeit bestätigt werden.

Die zweite Studie “*On the Relationship between Leader Personality Traits, Ethical Leadership, and Leadership Effectiveness: A Two-Face Study*” untersucht ebenfalls den Einfluss ethischer Führung auf Organisationen. Wie schon in der ersten Studie, wird die Arbeitszufriedenheit der Mitarbeiter als Indikator für Führungserfolg herangezogen. Studie zwei geht dabei durch die Verwendung objektiver Leistungsdaten über bisherige Befunde hinaus. Neben den Effekten ethischer Führung behandelt die zweite Studie auch mögliche Antezedenzen. Dabei werden vier Persönlichkeitsmerkmale von Führungskräften als Prädiktoren ethischer Führung postuliert: Verträglichkeit, Zuverlässigkeit, Leistungsstreben und Extraversion. Ein dritter Fokus der Studie liegt bei der Rolle des Führungskontextes. Das vorgeschlagene Strukturmodell wird für zwei Stichproben getrennt getestet. Die erste umfasst alle Bereiche eines deutschen Industrieunternehmens (1265 Mitarbeiter in 173 Teams) und wird genutzt, um den Zusammenhang zwischen der Persönlichkeit der Führungskraft, ethischem Führungsverhalten und Ar-

beitszufriedenheit der Mitarbeiter zu untersuchen. Die zweite Stichprobe – eine Teilstichprobe der ersten – umfasst ausschließlich den Vertrieb des Unternehmens (107 Mitarbeiter in 24 Teams). Der Vertrieb stellt aufgrund seiner einzigartigen strukturellen Merkmale, wie bspw. der hohen extrinsischen Motivation der Mitarbeiter, einen Sonderfall dar. In dieser zweiten Stichprobe wurde das gleiche Modell getestet wie zuvor; allerdings wurden die Verkaufszahlen der Vertriebsteams anstelle der Mitarbeiterzufriedenheit als Maß des Führungserfolges genutzt. Ausgewertet wurden die Daten mittels PLS-Pfadmodellierung. Die Ergebnisse zeigen positive Zusammenhänge zwischen einzelnen Persönlichkeitsmerkmalen – Verträglichkeit, Leistungsstreben und Extraversion – und ethischer Führung. Hinzu kommt, dass ethische Führung einen positiven Effekt sowohl auf die Arbeitszufriedenheit der Mitarbeiter als auch deren Vertriebs Erfolg hat. Die Unterschiede bei den Zusammenhangsstrukturen zwischen den beiden Stichproben lässt einen Einfluss der unterschiedlichen Kontexte vermuten. Während in der ersten Stichprobe Verträglichkeit, Leistungsstreben und Extraversion jeweils signifikante Zusammenhänge mit ethischer Führung aufwiesen, war in der zweiten lediglich der Einfluss von Extraversion bedeutsam.

Die dritte Studie *“Leadership in Professional Basketball: The Effects of Transformational Leadership, Laissez-Faire, and Ethical Leadership on Athletes’ Performance in German Basketball”* untersucht die Effektivität ethischer Führung im professioneller Mannschaftsport als Beispiel eines alternativen Führungskontexts. Hier wird geprüft, ob sich die ethische Führung von Trainern – gerade auch im Vergleich zu alternativen Führungsstilen wie bspw. der transformationalen oder Laissez-faire Führung – auf die Leistungsentwicklung der Athleten auswirkt. Der erhebliche Beitrag dieser Studie zu bestehender Forschung ergibt sich aus der Verwendung sportwissenschaftlicher Leistungsstatistiken als objektive Leistungsmaße der Spieler. Forschung, die ethische Führung mit objektiven Leistungsmaßen verbindet, fehlte bisher nahezu vollständig. Außerdem wird bei der Auswertung zwischen Kriterien der Individual- und der Teamleistung unterschieden. Die Stichprobe zur dritten Studie umfasst Daten von Trainern ($N = 22$) und zugehörigen Spielern ($N = 220$). Auf der Teamebene wurde mittels linearer Regressionen der Einfluss des Trainerführungsverhaltens auf die Tabellenplatzierung zum Saisonende ausgewertet. Auf der Individualebene wurden latente Wachstumsmodelle angewendet, um den Effekt des Führungsverhaltens auf die Leistungsentwicklung der Spieler zu untersuchen. Innerhalb beider Datensegmente zeigte sich keine Effekt

von ethischer Führung auf das jeweilige Leistungskriterium. Demgegenüber zeigte sich transformationale Führung, allen voran die Führungsfacette Visionen Aufzeigen, als besonders leistungsfördernd auf beiden Analyseebenen.

Die Ergebnisse aller drei Studien liefern wichtige Erkenntnisse über die Entstehung und Wirkungsweise ethischer Führung. Demnach empfiehlt es sich, bei der Betrachtung der Führungseffekte zwischen traditionellen unternehmerischen Organisation und nicht-traditionellen zu unterscheiden. Letztere wurden innerhalb dieser Arbeit durch den Kontext des Mannschaftssports abgebildet. Hier zeigten sich keine Effekte ethischer Führung. Demgegenüber untermauern die Befunde aus unternehmerischen Settings die ökonomische Rationalität von ethischem Führungsverhalten. Neben den positiven Zusammenhängen zu wichtigen arbeitsrelevanten Mitarbeiter Einstellungen wie der Arbeitszufriedenheit, erweitern insbesondere die positiven Relationen zu den objektiven Leistungsdaten die bisherige Forschung.

Die Arbeit liefert zudem wichtige Einblicke bezüglich der Prädiktoren ethischer Führung. Die Persönlichkeitsmerkmale Verträglichkeit, Leistungsstreben und Extraversion konnten als wichtige Antezedenzen eines ethischen Führungsverhaltens identifiziert werden und bieten sich daher als Kriterien in der Führungskräfteauswahl an. Da die Zusammenhänge zwischen Persönlichkeit und Führung von der einen Stichprobe zur anderen variierten, sei Forschern wie Praktikern empfohlen, bei ähnlichen Betrachtungen den Einfluss des jeweiligen Kontextes zu berücksichtigen.

Ausgehend von den Befunden dieser Arbeit ergeben sich verschiedene Empfehlungen für die künftige Forschung. Da ethische Führung keine Effekte im Sportkontext hatte und in diesem Zuge auch nicht von anderen Führungsstilansätzen empirisch abgegrenzt werden konnte, besteht zusätzlicher Forschungsbedarf zur Einordnung des Konstrukts ins nomologische Netz verwandter Führungsansätze und Konsequenzvariablen.

Insgesamt hat die vorliegende Dissertation gezeigt, dass ethisches Führungsverhalten von Führungskräften wertvoll ist; wertvoll sowohl aus einer ethischen Sichtweise, aber eben auch aus ökonomischer Rationalität heraus. Die bestehenden Limitationen dieser Arbeit schmälern dieses Gesamtbild nicht. Sie dienen vielmehr als wichtige Wegweiser für kommende Forschung mit dem Ziel, die Notwendigkeit und die Bedeutung von ethischem Verhalten in der heutigen Gesellschaft, gerade auch das ethische Verhalten von zentralen Entscheidungsträgern, aufzuzeigen.

III. List of Tables

Table 1.	Focal points of the three studies.....	8
Table 2.	Overlap and distinction between ethical leadership and related leadership constructs	20
Table 3.	Study 1: Means, standard deviations, and correlations ($N = 470$)	51
Table 4.	Study 1: Comparison of structural equation models ($N = 470$)	54
Table 5.	Study 1: Standardized direct and indirect effects ($N = 470$).....	55
Table 6.	Study 2: Means, standard deviations, and correlations in <i>Sample 1</i> ($N = 173$) and <i>Sample 2</i> ($N = 24$)	80
Table 7.	Study 2: Measurement statistics of constructs in <i>Sample 1</i> ($N = 173$) and <i>Sample 2</i> ($N = 24$)	82
Table 8.	Study 2: Standardized direct and indirect effects in <i>Sample 1</i> ($N = 173$) and <i>Sample 2</i> ($N = 24$)	84
Table 9.	Study 3: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations at the team level ($N = 22$)	109
Table 10.	Study 3: Summary of OLS-regression analyses at the team level ($N = 22$) ..	111
Table 11.	Study 3: Deviance statistics and model comparison for the multi-level analysis.....	112
Table 12.	Study 3: Multi-level analysis of individual performance development: conditional model.....	113
Table 13.	Overview of results from Studies 1, 2, and 3	125

IV. List of Figures

Figure 1. Integrative Research Proposals on Ethical Leadership..	24
Figure 2. Research Model of the Dissertation.	34
Figure 3. Research Model of <i>Study 1</i>	47
Figure 4. Research Model of <i>Study 2</i>	74
Figure 5. Proposals for Future Research on Ethical Leadership..	143

V. List of Equations

(1) <i>Game Score</i>	104
-----------------------------	-----

VI. List of Abbreviations

cf.	confer/compare
AD	average deviation index
As	assists
AV	articulating a vision
AVE	average variance extracted
BIP-6F	Business Focused Inventory of Personality - 6 Factors
Blk	blocked shots
CFI	comparative Fit Index
CSR	corporate social responsibility
CWB	counterproductive work behavior
<i>df</i>	degree(s) of freedom
DReb	defensive rebound
e.g.	exempli gratia/for example
EL	ethical leadership
ELS	ethical Leadership Scale
ELS-D	German validated version of the Ethical Leadership Scale
ERM	ethical role modeling
et al.	and others (lat. et alii)
etc.	et cetera/and so forth
FGa	field goals attempted
FGm	field goals made
FOR	frame of reference
FTa	free throws attempted
FTm	free throws made
GS	Game score
G-WTS	German validated version of the Work Trust Survey
HR	human resources
i	player
i.e.	that is
ICC	intraclass correlation coefficient
IS	providing individual support

ISN	intellectual stimulation
JS	job satisfaction
KLD	Kinder, Lydenberg, & Domini
LMX	leader member exchange
M	mean
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MML	Multidimensional Model of Leadership
MTMM	Multi-Trait-Multi-Method
<i>N</i>	sample size
NBA	National Basketball Association
<i>ns</i>	nonsignificant
OCB	organizational citizenship behavior
OReb	offensive rebound
p.	page
PAM	providing an appropriate model
PEC	promoting ethical conduct
PER	player efficiency rating
PF	personal fouls
PLS	partial least square
Pts	points scored
R	recoded
<i>r</i>	correlation coefficient
R^2	determination coefficient
r_c	correlation corrected for unreliability
RMSEA	root mean squared error of approximation
RQ	research question
r_{wg}	index of interrater agreement
<i>SD</i>	standard deviation
<i>se</i>	standard error
SEM	structural equation modeling
SRMR	standardized root mean square residual
St	steals
<i>T</i>	T-value

TLI	Tucker-Lewis index
TMT	top management team
To	turnovers
US	United States of America
vs.	versus
WTS	Work Trust Survey
α	Cronbach's alpha
β	standardized regression coefficient
γ	multi-level coefficients

1. Introduction

"Nearly all men can stand adversity, but if you want to test a man's character, give him power."

— *Abraham Lincoln (cf. Weiss, 2006, p. 32)*

Abraham Lincoln, the 16th president of the United States, is widely regarded as one of the great leaders in modern history (Howell, 2013; Rubenzer, Faschingbauer, & Ones, 2000). The life of Lincoln, most notably his later years, recaptured our major attention only recently with Daniel Day Lewis' Academy Award winning portrayal of Abraham Lincoln in the critically acclaimed motion picture 'Lincoln'. Fittingly, the above stated quote of adversity, character, and power can easily be regarded as the credo of Lincoln's life. Growing up in rather ordinary circumstances, Lincoln experienced personal loss early in life by losing his mother at the age of nine, his sister and brother before he was 20 years old, and later in life two of his infant sons. Lincoln gained the ultimate epitome of power by becoming president of the United States in 1861 and, thus, becoming one of the most powerful men of his time. During his tenure he faced historical challenges like the Civil War between Southern and Northern States and his relentless fight for the abolishment of slavery. As conveyed through coeval history, the president successfully maneuvered through those difficult times by holding firm to his personal convictions, by using his authorities very thoughtfully, by being honest and caring, and by listening to his inner circle of trusted companions. Portraying his character, he put his strong political conviction of human dignity over his personal health and, at times, even over his own family's sake (Goodwin, 2005).

However, dating the year 2013, Abraham Lincoln is history. Almost 150 years have passed since his death, the US-Civil War is described in history books, slavery fades as one of the dark chapters in human memory, and Lincoln's accomplishments have granted him a position as one of the greatest leaders, ever. Notwithstanding, his introductory words remain just as relevant nowadays as they have been in the past.

Today, the potential misuse of power is at the forefront of public awareness. Scandals surrounding political as well as economic leaders entail substantial conse-

quences, capture major media attention, and antagonize the public. A striking example from German politics is the fall of former Federal President Christian Wulff. Accused of bribery and the acceptance of benefit, Wulff resigned from his political duties amid months of public dispute; prosecution pressed charges only recently (Eddy, 2013). Taking a look at the corporate world, most notably the recent global financial crisis generated numerous documented sequels of integrity violations from banks and their leaders (United States, 2011). On top of all immediate economic loss those cases of personal and corporate greed reduced trust from customers and employees. Reminiscing Lincoln's quote, he used the term 'character' to address the manner in which people utilize their given power. What the above mentioned political and economic examples have in common, is that the protagonists are – rightfully or not – accused of handling their authorities recklessly, irresponsibly, and in self-seeking manners. Researchers have shown interest in studying such unethical behaviors (from organizations as a whole, from leaders, and employees; cf. Kish-Gephart, Harrison, & Trevino, 2010) for years. But what is the opposite? What is the thoughtful, responsible, and caring – in short *good* – use of power? With these questions of how one 'ought' to exhibit power practitioners and researchers enter the fields of business and corporate *ethics* (Ciulla, 1998; Trevino, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006).

In this dissertation the field of power is designated towards the dyadic relationship between leader and follower. The leader has by hierarchical status the obligation to exhibit certain directive authorities towards his subordinates like ordering and distributing tasks, demanding compliance, rewarding efforts, and punishing misconduct. How he approaches such issues captures academic interest since decades and eventuates in a profound body of literature on leadership (see for an overview Yukl, 2010). Concentrating on the corporate scenario, most attention is spent towards ethical failures from members of top management teams. However, focusing exclusively on these agents of economic activity would be shortsighted.

Literature suggests that leaders at all levels within an organization set the tone for ethical behavior. Leadership is therefore one of the most important factors in studying ethics (Kalshoven, 2010, p. 13).

Combining the fields of business ethics and leadership, respective research has been receiving increased academic attention in recent years. Most notably, with the emerging field of ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a) researchers are increas-

ingly capable of studying its nature. This conceptualization of ethical leadership focuses on the normatively appropriate conduct of leaders and the promotion of that same behavior towards followers (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005). Although preliminary empirical results are promising, there are still ways to go in order to understand the emergence and impact of ethical leadership behavior, comprehensively.

What can be achieved through good, through ethical leadership? Drawing back on Lincoln, his mastery in political skills and leadership were major reasons for the eventual reunion between the warring states and the sustained abolishment of slavery. Certainly, in today's society and economy, the impact of ethical leadership behaviors in day-to-day business may not be as dramatically, at first sight. Conversely, literature suggests decisive impact from executive ethical leadership such as enhanced employee attitudes towards work, enhanced ethical sensibility, and less deviant conduct (e.g., Brown & Trevino, 2006a). But what else does ethical leadership entail and how can this influence be modeled sophisticatedly? Additional work is highly warranted in terms of understanding the *impact* of ethical leadership by, for instance, modeling impact criteria and mediating mechanisms, thoroughly. Accordingly, the first major field of interest lies upon the investigation of ethical leadership impact.

Literalizing Lincoln's quote, to identify a leader's true intentions one should equip him with power and see how he handles it. Obviously, this could be a very costly approach. To wait for a bad leader to exercise his given power in self-seeking manner, recklessly and irresponsible, much harm could have already been done. Therefore, it should be our spur, both academically and practically, to find ways to differentiate good from bad, i.e. ethical from unethical leadership before potential detriment occurs. Though, how can this selection take place? I argue that leader personality traits are at the forefront of such approaches of examining ethical leadership *antecedents*. Drawing on the thorough research on leader traits (cf. Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009), personality is posited to be stable and unchanging across situation and time. Therefore, this dispositional basis of concurrent leadership behavior comes as a promising approach to Lincoln's stated 'man's character'. Thus, identifying leader personality traits predicting ethical leadership would enable us to pinpoint such desirable leaders. Therefrom, a second aim of this dissertation is to investigate leader personality traits as antecedents of ethical leadership.

Before leaving the references to Abraham Lincoln for good, some reason for his highly praised portrayal as a great leader in history certainly is due to the critical circumstances that accompanied his four years as the president of the US. Being a successful political leader in time of war and historic change certainly catalysis our perceptions of his accomplishments. Turning the page back to organizational leadership research, how certain situational aspects can alter or facilitate the impact and prevalence of leadership behavior has been addressed extensively in extant literature (Fiedler, 1967). Are the emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership similarly influenced by contextual variables? Empirical insights are still missing in previous literature. Therefore, the third major field of this work is the exploratory examination of the emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership considering differences in situational contexts.

1.1 Goals of the Dissertation and Research Questions

The overall goal of this dissertation is to deepen our understanding of ethical leadership by examining its effects, processes, antecedents and contingencies from an array of different perspectives. Particularly, building on the three fields of interest stated above, I pursue six distinct research questions which are deduced in the following.

Do ethics pay off? In the more than thirty years of research on business ethics this provocative question plays an ongoing vivid role. How ethics and economic motives shape opposite poles or how they coincide has been discussed rather controversially. Different authors argue that linking ethics to means of economic success erodes the core purpose of an ethical discourse (cf. Voegtlin, Patzer, & Scherer, 2012). More precisely, an ethical commitment must not lead to success in traditional economical terms (Ulrich, 2008). On the opposition, forwarding a comprehension that ethics do have economic impact, it fosters legitimacy and subsequently lessens potential barriers when it comes to implementing ethic related structures in corporate reality (e.g., codes of conduct, human resources development programs, etc.). With the conception of ethical leadership forwarded by Brown, Trevino and colleagues (2005), I tie in with the letter approach to corporate ethics. Ethical leadership is expected to have positive impact on individuals, teams, and the organization as a whole. Therefrom, a very first and essential goal of this dissertation is to investigate the potential (beneficial) impact of ethical leadership on organizational outcome criteria. As this topic is so crucial to academic litera-

ture, I contribute to existing research by addressing the consequences of ethical leadership extensively combining a plethora of sources (subjective and objective measures) and methods (performance status-quo and development).

Research Question 1: Does ethical leadership relate to organizational outcome criteria of leadership effectiveness?

Ethical leadership as conceptualized in this work captures different facets of leadership contents ranging from *intrapersonal* attributes such as altruism or integrity to *interpersonal* behavioral features dealing with the leader-follower interaction like rewarding ethical and disciplining unethical employee conduct, respectively. Traditionally, ethical leadership is modeled one-dimensional combining all related contents into one single measure. In an explorative approach, I draw on existing work (e.g., Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Rowold, Borgmann, & Heinitz, 2009), calling for a more multi-faceted depiction in order to foster a better understanding of which facets of ethical leadership are crucial in terms of impact on different relevant criteria. Therefore, a second goal of this dissertation is to extend existing research by studying the impact of different facets of ethical leadership.

Research Question 2: Which facets of ethical leadership conduct are crucial with regard to leadership effectiveness?

Examining *if* ethical leadership has beneficial impact on organizations is arguably the most popular theme in practice-oriented as well as academic literature on ethics and leadership. Nonetheless, I argue that limiting the scope of examination on this question of principle is preliminary. If the forthcoming delineation does link ethical leadership to criteria of leadership effectiveness such as employees' job satisfaction, a second central question closely accompanied is *how* these positive effects from ethical leadership occur. To date, only very little is known about the psychological mechanisms and processes the display of ethical leadership implies (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Consequently, with regard to empirical work, the way ethical leadership works is figuratively speaking still much of a black box. Consequently, the third important research goal of this dissertation is to elucidate this black box of leadership process beyond existing findings. Based on organizational and business ethics literature a model of full mediation will be developed.

Research Question 3: Which variables mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and leadership effectiveness?

The theory of ethical leadership forwarded by Brown, Trevino, and colleagues is the manifest documentation that the ethical dimension of leadership is nowadays viewed as a distinct field of research. Yet, alternative approaches to leadership as transformational (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), authentic (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005) or servant (Graham, 1991) leadership are also to some extent related to a leader's virtues and ethics. But as they punctuate different aspects of the leader-follower dyad, ethical leadership is postulated to be a distinct leadership construct. There is theoretical work on the overlaps and distinctions between all those constructs (Brown & Trevino, 2006a). However, empirical work opposing ethical leadership to other leadership approaches is still very sparse although so crucial in terms of construct validation. Accordingly, the fourth goal of this dissertation is to empirically disclose the unique contribution of ethical leadership to leadership research. To offer a comprehensive picture, the independent and joint relationships of ethical leadership with both, effective and ineffective approaches to leadership will be examined for the first time.

Research Question 4: How does ethical leadership relate to other leadership styles?

So far, the aforementioned research questions predominantly addressed the consequences of ethical leadership. As it is the claim of this dissertation to investigate the nature of ethical leadership comprehensively, I will also consider its antecedents.

What makes people act ethically? Why do some leaders conduct themselves ethically while others do not? Referring to leadership literature, one appealing line of arguments for answering these entering questions draws on inter-individual characteristics of a leader. While ethical leadership stands in line with other behavioral approaches to leadership, it is assumed that ethical leadership is not solely related to stable personal characteristics and, thus, can be learned and developed. On the other hand, identifying stable personal traits that are closely tied to ethical leadership gives us important insights on the emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership. Therefrom, identifying stable personal traits predicting ethical leadership validly is especially intriguing with regard to personnel selection. My research interest lies upon leader personality. Person-

ality has a long tradition in leadership literature dating back to for instance the *great man theory* (Carlyle, 1907). While situational and behavioral approaches have surpassed trait theories of leadership in contemporary literature, behavioral traits – predominantly the Big Five – have remained usual suspects of dispositional basis for leadership behavior (Yukl, 2010). Considering the limited attention the relationship between personality traits and ethical leadership has received in the past both theoretically and empirically, this dissertation exceeds previous literature by exploring this dependence further.

Research Question 5: Which personality traits are valid dispositions of ethical leadership?

As stated earlier, ethical leadership is to some extent understood as a behavioral approach to leadership. Behavioral approaches stress the comprehension that neither specific constant leader traits predict leadership effectiveness nor do situational contingencies. On the contrary, specific behavioral features are posited to be crucial. Consequently, such approaches blind out the context of leadership, thus, claiming the effectiveness of the identified behavioral features in a magnitude of settings. For instance, research has shown transformational leadership, at the forefront of behavioral leadership approaches, to be rather context-invariant (Bass, 1997). Yet, the interdependence of ethical leadership and leadership context has been addressed only insufficiently. Most of theoretical work operates in a traditional corporate organization-like setting. Likewise, most of empirical research examines business settings. Interestingly, several reviews address situational factors potentially affecting the emergence and impact of ethical leadership, indirectly questioning the context-invariance, i.e. the universalism, of ethical leadership (cf. Eisenbeiß & Giessner, 2012; Yukl, 2010). Considering these implications, I see an inevitable need to further examine the effects of leadership context on ethical leadership. In that order, the sixth research goal of this dissertation is to investigate ethical leadership's antecedents and impact in different settings.

Research Question 6: Is ethical leadership context-bound?

1.2 Outline of the Dissertation

The overall objective of this dissertation is to systematically deepen our understanding of ethical leadership. Bearing this goal in mind, a comprehensive research

model is developed covering aspects of antecedents, correlates, situational contingencies, and consequences of ethical leadership. The empirical validation of this model carried out through three distinct studies constitutes the core of this dissertation. Each of the three studies addresses three of the above depicted research questions. Table 1 gives an overview of the exact focal points of the respective studies.

Table 1. Focal points of the three studies

Study	Research Questions (RQ) addressed
Study 1	<i>RQ 1: Impact of Ethical Leadership</i> <i>RQ 2: Impact of Ethical Leadership Facets</i> <i>RQ 3: Mediating Mechanisms of Ethical Leadership Impact</i>
Study 2	<i>RQ 1: Impact of Ethical Leadership</i> <i>RQ 5: Personality and Ethical Leadership</i> <i>RQ 6: Context-boundary of Ethical Leadership</i>
Study 3	<i>RQ 1: Impact of Ethical Leadership</i> <i>RQ 4: Ethical Leadership and Other Leadership Styles</i> <i>RQ 6: Context-boundary of Ethical Leadership</i>

The presentation of every single study follows a common order starting with a brief specific introduction to the respective topic, followed by an explanation of the theoretical background, study method, results, and a pertinent discussion of the findings. While each of the three studies addresses only certain excerpts, the goal of the general theoretical background prior to the studies is to systematically develop the overall research model. The general discussion at the end of the dissertation centralizes the merits and implications of the three studies.

The introductory chapter is followed by the overall theoretical background in chapter two. This starts with a summarized overview of leadership theory and, more specifically, leadership ethics. The construct of ethical leadership is introduced and elucidated in the midst of organizational leadership and business ethics literature. Moreover, the research model of the dissertation is developed in chapter two. Potential impact, mediating mechanisms, correlates and opposites, antecedents, and context-boundaries of

ethical leadership are addressed and synthesized into the overall research agenda for this dissertation.

Chapter three deals with the *Study 1* entitled “*Elucidating the ‘Black Box’ of How Ethical Leadership Works – Trust and Organizational Justice as Mediators for the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Organizational Outcome Criteria*”. This study focuses on the first three research questions. Concerning the beneficial impact of ethical leadership (RQ 1), study one applies important indicators of employees’ subjective job perception. Hence, it utilizes indicators for occupational efficacy (job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior) but also for inefficacy (counterproductive work behavior). Based on organizational leadership literature, trust and justice are developed as potential mediating variables for the relationship between ethical leadership and the chosen organizational outcome criteria (RQ 3). A third feature of *Study 1* is the multi-faceted modeling of ethical leadership (RQ 2). This approach carves out a more detailed perspective on the exact processes the exhibition of ethical leadership implies. After depicting the goals of the study and developing the hypotheses in course of study one’s theoretical background, the empirical approach to validate the posited relations is illustrated in the method section. Structural equation modeling techniques are used to test the hypotheses in a cross-sectional data sample. The findings are presented and thoroughly discussed at the end of chapter three.

Study 2 with the title “*On the Relationship between Leader Personality Traits, Ethical Leadership, and Leadership Effectiveness: A Two-Face Study*” is presented in chapter four. This study broaches the issue of research questions one, five, and six. While applying job satisfaction as an important indicator of organizational outcome criteria as done in the first study, *Study 2* exceeds by also implementing objective performance data to model the impact of ethical leadership more comprehensively (RQ 1). Next to ethical leadership impact, *Study 2* also deals with leader personality traits as important antecedents of ethical leadership (RQ 5). In detail, four personality traits are presented to be crucial in terms of the emergence of ethical leadership: agreeableness, dependability, achievement, and extraversion. Combining the research questions one and five, i.e. the antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership, I tested an integrative model of ethical leadership again using path modeling techniques. Furthermore, *Study 2* is the first to address the aspect of leadership context (RQ 6). The posited rela-

tional model is tested for two data samples, separately. While the first sample is a cross-section from a survey carried out in an industrial company, the second one – a subsample of the first – does only cover sales forces, an organizational department with rather unique contextual features such as high extrinsic motivation high ethical sensitivity. Differences in the relational patterns of both data sample give important insights on contextual affection related to ethical leadership and are discussed along with the other results of this study at the end of chapter four.

Chapter five deals with the third and final study “*Leadership in Professional Basketball: The Effects of Transformational Leadership, Laissez-Faire, and Ethical Leadership on Athletes’ Performance in German Basketball*”. The three research questions addressed relate to the impact of ethical leadership, the comparison to other leadership styles, and the leadership context. The merit of *Study 3* is that it investigates ethical leadership in an alternative and non-traditional but vivid leadership context: professional basketball in Germany. Team sport asserts itself as it implies a plain dyadic leadership relationship between a team’s head coach and the players (RQ 6). To my knowledge, this study is the first to transfer ethical leadership to a sportive context. With regard to the impact of ethical leadership, the setting of basketball allows for significant contribution to existing research as it enables exceptional coverage of occupational, i.e. sportive performance. By using advanced sport economic metrics, I am able to model the objective development of player performance over time, systematically. Additionally, *Study 3* also examines leadership effects on objective team performance (team standings) enabling an extensive depiction of leadership effectiveness (RQ 1). Third and finally, the study also examines the effects of transformational and laissez-faire leadership (RQ 4), thus, giving a chance to oppose ethical leadership to such leadership constructs as has been called for repeatedly (cf. Trevino & Brown, 2007). Chapter five ends with the delineation of the findings followed by the respective discussion.

While the different studies’ scope is limited to the respective research questions, the overall discussion of chapter six conjoins the findings and puts them into perspective. The merits and limitations of the overall dissertation are addressed along with implications for future research and practice.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Leadership

The advancements in modern leadership research manifest themselves in a broad landscape of different leadership paradigms. The most important lines of research since the mid-20th century are depicted in course of this chapter.

Early research on leadership stressed the importance of leader characteristics (cf. Mann, 1959). Accompanied to such *trait theories of leadership* was an understanding that effective leadership is a mere function of specific personal traits owned by successful leaders (Yukl, 2010). Effective leaders incorporate certain stable characteristics ineffective leaders lack. Accordingly, leaders are rather born than made as most characteristics discussed in this context relate to stable, rather latent personal dispositions such as charisma, prevalence, or personality. While history has repeatedly generated prominent examples of exceptional leaders underpinning a trait approach to leadership such as Mahatma Gandhi or the above mentioned Abraham Lincoln, the empirical validation of such theories of leadership is insufficient leading to profound critique of these trait theories (Stogdill, 1948; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004).

Due to the disappointing results regarding leader traits, research on leadership increasingly focused on *behavioral theories of leadership*. Those theories stress an understanding that leader behaviors rather than leader attributes are relevant for fostering leadership effectiveness. The most prominent concepts of leadership behavior refer to the differentiation between initiating structure (or task-oriented behaviors) and consideration (or relations-oriented behaviors). Based on seminal work – become known as the so called Ohio State studies (e.g., Fleishman, 1953) and Michigan Leadership studies (e.g., Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950) – initiating structure covers behaviors such as organizing activities, assigning work tasks to followers, providing necessary resources, monitoring performance, and providing contingent feedback. On contraire, consideration indicates a distinct people orientation. Key to this leadership approach are behaviors like helping and supporting followers, being friendly towards them, and being open to their advices. In the past decades, much has been debated over the relatively weak theoretical foundation of this leadership taxonomy (cf. Yukl, 2010). Nevertheless, the

initiating structure - consideration differentiation has maintained academic interest until today (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Rowold & Borgmann, 2013).

At quite the same time as the behavioral approaches, *situational approaches to leadership* hit the leadership research landscape. They tie in with a mere behavioral perspective on leadership effectiveness. On top, they explicate the role of situational influences. While certain leadership behaviors are effective in one situation but not in another, situational theories of leadership posit an interaction between leadership behavior and the situation. For example, Fiedler (1967) distinguished between three different situational factors (leader-member relation, task structure, and position power) favoring or disabling the positive effects of initiating structure and consideration, respectively. Similarly, several other authors postulated related conceptions of situational leadership (e.g., Hersey & Blanchard, 1988; House, 1971; Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

Another paradigm shift has emerged since the 1980's. The leadership approaches capturing most of recent research interest regarding leadership cover and combine aspects from all those three more ancient lines of leadership research. Accordingly, these fields of research have been named *new paradigm* (Bryman, 1992) of leadership or *hybrid theories* (Sashkin, 2004). Respective approaches synthesize behavioral aspects of leadership and leader characteristics while also addressing situational influences. Several prominent concepts in this area are transformational, servant, and authentic leadership and will be delineated in the following.

Transformational leadership is arguably the most studied leadership approach of the last thirty years. Its main proposition is that it transforms employees' short-term and extrinsic motives into higher order intrinsic needs. Transformational leadership is characterized through several core dimensions. While Bass (1985a) distinguishes four aspects, this work builds on Podsakoff's (1990) differentiation of six components of transformational leadership. *Identifying and Articulating a Vision* refers to the positive and attractive long-term vision depicted by the leader along with his efforts to get his employees into this vision. *Providing an Appropriate Model* delineates the leader as an accurate role model. By displaying reliable and accurate conduct the leader becomes a source for orientation and inspiration. *Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals* emphasizes a leader's capability to foster a sense of group coherence and team-spirit. On top, transformational leadership is also characterized by *High Performance Expectations* the

leader displays towards his employees. At fifth, *Providing Individualized Support* is about a leader's sense for follower consideration. Transformational leaders show concern for their followers' individual needs. Finally, through *Intellectual Stimulation* a leader encourages his subordinates to think creative and to consequently challenge prior assumptions concerning work tasks and their fulfillment. Transformational leadership has been scrupulously investigated in various settings and meta-analytic results indicate a substantial relation with a variety of criteria indicating leadership and organizational effectiveness (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Servant leadership stands in line with approaches to mere ideal leadership (Graham, 1991). In the theory of servant leadership, the key focus of leader attention is towards his respective followers rather than economic goals of the team or organization. Servant leaders' main motivation towards the exhibition of leadership influence is the development, empowerment, and nurture of followers. Accordingly, a vital characteristic of respective leaders is a strong sense of concern for others. Additionally, important behavioral facets refer to the delegation of working tasks or providing task autonomy. Recent empirical work investigated the potential beneficial impact of servant leadership on organizational outcome criteria and revealed positive relations with followers' organizational citizenship behavior, self-efficacy, commitment to the leader, and perceived justice climate (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010).

Authentic leadership builds on the central tenet of "to thine own self be true" (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2008, p. 228). Research on this dimension of leadership has gained increased academic research interest in the last decade (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Luthans, Norman, & Hughes, 2006). More recently, authentic leadership was defined as "...a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development" (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008, p. 94). Accordingly, authentic leadership is built around four core elements. The first component, *Balanced Processing*, relates to accurately analyzing all relevant data prior to making decisions. At second, *Internalized Moral Perspective* addresses a leader's inner

moral standards which guide and regulate one's actual behavior. Thirdly, *Relational Transparency* refers to presenting one's authentic self towards others by openly sharing information or expressing true feelings and thoughts. At fourth and finally, *Self-Awareness* reflects a leader's understanding of his own weaknesses and strengths, his impact on others, and how he is perceived by others (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Similar to the aforementioned leadership concepts, authentic leadership has been shown to be associated to important criteria indicating organizational effectiveness including followers' organizational citizenship behavior, commitment, satisfaction, and performance (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

2.2 Contemporary Approaches to Ethical Leadership

Naturally, at its core leadership is related to power. Baring an organizational setting, a leader has by hierarchical status the legitimate right and obligation to exhibit a certain amount of decisive authority towards his subordinates (Ciulla, 2004; Gini, 1998). He allocates scarce resources, distributes working tasks, rewards, and disciplines. In order to understand leadership comprehensively, one has to acknowledge that the exhibition of leadership always bears the risk of potential misuse of those authoritative privileges. Academic literature delivers several examples of those 'dark or toxic sides' of leadership (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Following that notion, leadership can also be gazed with regard to ethical sensitivity.

The study of ethics is about what we should do and what we should be like as human beings, as members of a group or society, and in the different roles that we play in life. It is about right and wrong and good and evil. ... By understanding the ethics of ... [leadership], we gain a better understanding of leadership, because some of the central issues in ethics are also the central issues of leadership. They include the personal challenges of authenticity, self-interest, and self-discipline, and moral obligations related to justice, duty, competence, and the greatest good (Ciulla, 2004, p. 302).

Recapitulating contemporary approaches to leadership behavior, transformational, servant, and authentic leadership are discussed in terms of ethical influence. In all those conceptions, the ethical component attended refers to fairly altruistic motives of a leader such as honesty, integrity, and trustworthiness. However, in each case, this ethical dimension is incorporated into a broader understanding of leadership with ethics being only one of several facets.

In general, transformational leadership is argued to have an ethical component as such leaders motivate their subordinates to overcome self-interests in order to work for a common goal (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; Burns, 1978). Foremost, Idealized Influence (e.g., being an ethical role model, gaining trust and respect, Avolio & Bass, 2004) as one important building block of transformational leadership is hypothesized to have considerable overlap with a more ethical stance on leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a). On top, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) addressed the potential misuse of leadership by distinguishing between authentic and pseudo transformational leaders. Especially the latter undercut the ethical foundation as pseudo transformational leaders use their authority in manipulative ways towards egocentric motives.

Servant and authentic leadership likewise broach the issue of ethics. But again, in both cases the ethical dimension is only a sub-element of the respective leadership style as the mere focus lies somewhere else. In case of servant leadership, leaders' priority is the service to his followers. A servant leader encourages his subordinates, empowers, and nurtures them, all in pursuit of their personal growth. The ethical dimension implied is straightforward as such degree of employee consideration implies leader attributes such as empathy, altruism, or humility (Graham, 1991; Hale & Fields, 2007).

Literature on authentic leadership lays emphasize on the importance of consistency in a leader's words, actions, and espoused values (Chan, 2005; Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Hence, the ethical dimension attached can therefrom be characterized as integrity. On top, staying true to one's words leads to enhanced employee trust, which makes trustworthiness another vital ethical dimension of authentic leadership (cf. Peus, Kerschreiter, Frey, & Traut-Mattausch, 2010a).

Only recently, the perspective on leadership and ethics is changing. From being just one of several aspects of leadership style as denoted above it has emerged as a distinctive construct – related to others approaches to leadership thus unique on its own (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; Peus et al., 2010a; Trevino & Brown, 2007). As depicted before, the ethical dimensions of different leadership styles is built upon basic aspects such as selflessness or trustworthiness. Still, ethical leadership promotes a comprehension that goes well beyond this understanding. The exact overlaps and, more importantly, the distinctions between ethical leadership and those related leadership construct will be depicted more detailed in chapter 2.3.1.

The most common approach to leadership and ethics stems from Brown, Trevino, and colleagues (Brown & Trevino, 2006a). In their seminal work, based on both qualitative (Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2000) and quantitative (Brown et al., 2005) research, they define ethical leadership 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 approach to leadership and ethics is the most prominent delineation in academic literature as most of respective theoretical and empirical work is built on this comprehension. The definition, as stated above, illustrates that ethical leadership covers a multitude of personal attributes and behavioral features. First of all, an ethical leader asserts himself by possessing traits that are consistent with ethical principles like integrity, honesty, or altruism. This dimension, labeled as “Moral Person” (Trevino et al., 2000) or “Ethical Role Modeling (ERM)” (Rowold et al., 2009), refers to a leader’s strives to do the right thing personally and professionally. On top, ethical leaders also put “ethics at the forefront of their leadership agenda” (Trevino et al., 2000, p. 133). Importantly, they demand and facilitate the ethical conduct of their followers. They serve as visible and credible role models by, for instance, being open to suggestions and criticism, by making just decisions and by actively avenging ethical miscues (Trevino et al., 2000). This second dimension can be labeled as “Moral Manager” (Trevino et al., 2000) or “Promoting Ethical Conduct (PEC)” (Rowold et al., 2009)¹. One of the core assumptions of ethical leadership is that it enhances ethical conduct of followers. As an ethical leader strives for personal integrity (ERM) and by actively demanding and facilitating ethical conduct (PEC), followers are guided towards ethical sound behavior. This comprehension builds considerably on

¹ The original German speaking article labels the second facet of ethical leadership as “Ethische Mitarbeiterführung” which had been translated with “Ethical Leadership” itself. To avoid confusion between the label of a facet and the overall construct, the present work uses the term “Promoting Ethical Conduct” to address the second facet of the overall construct of ethical leadership. Consequently, if the term ethical leadership is applied, it addresses both facets of the leadership style: Ethical Role Modeling and Promoting Ethical Conduct.

Bandura's social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1991) prompting ethical leaders to be regarded as attractive and credible role models for emulation.

2.3 Ethical Leadership – Bridging the Disciplines

Overcoming the investigational boundaries of different research disciplines, the examination of leadership and ethics can be found predominantly in two fields of research: organizational leadership research and research on business ethics. The claim of this work is to delineate ethical leadership systematically. Hence, the approach to ethical leadership as depicted above is discussed towards both academic disciplines, separately.

2.3.1 Ethical leadership in organizational leadership research.

Referring to the distinction of leadership approaches described in chapter 2.1, ethical leadership belongs to the cluster of new leadership styles which are difficult to be labeled explicitly as trait, behavioral, or situational. As ethical leadership refers to attributes of a leader such as honesty, altruism, or integrity, a proximity to trait theories of leadership is imminent. On top, an integral part of ethical leadership is the two-way interaction with subordinates. An ethical leader engages in visible actions such as communicating about ethical challenges in the workplace, empowering subordinates through delegation, and disciplining ethical miscues. Accordingly, ethical leadership features attributes of behavioral leadership approaches. Moreover, situational influences can also be identified. As elaborated repeatedly, contextual features such as ethical culture, uncertainty, or power distance of the organizational setting play a role in the emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Eisenbeiß & Giessner, 2012). Subsuming, ethical leadership combines elements of all three basic categories of leadership theories.

The contemporary landscape of leadership approaches offers a variety of different leadership styles with all of them drawing considerable academic interest. Earlier on, leadership styles, namely transformational, servant, and authentic leadership, were all discussed in terms of their respective ethical domain. Now in a second step, it is useful to oppose such leadership constructs to ethical leadership carving out the distinctions to ethical leadership.

Compared to transformational leadership, academic literature carves out three mere characteristics of construct divergence from ethical leadership. On the first part, the fundamental basis of transformational leadership refers to rather traditional means of leadership effectiveness such as enhanced productivity and performance. Ethical leadership does not ground on such an economical rationality, exclusively. More importantly, it is the purpose of ethical leadership to shape an ethical sensitivity within the organization (e.g., guiding employees to conduct ethically) (Brown et al., 2005). Thus only in the next step, this non-economical motivation is argued, both directly (Peus et al., 2010a) and indirectly (Brown & Trevino, 2006a), to be linked to classical measures of rational effectiveness (e.g., employee job satisfaction, citizenship behaviors, commitment, performance). Subsuming, a first important difference between ethical and transformational leadership is the core motivation for exhibiting leadership conduct. A second difference relates to visionary behavior. For a leader to develop and maintain an attractive and appealing vision towards his subordinate is one of the core characteristics of transformational leadership (Bradford & Cohen, 1997). In several studies this element of transformational leadership was diagnosed to be crucial with regard to leadership effectiveness (cf. Podsakoff et al., 1990). Opposing to this, ethical leadership as defined in this work does not imply visionary conduct (Trevino & Brown, 2007). Thirdly, what ethical leadership indicates as opposed to transformational leadership is the active influence on followers labeled as ‘moral manager’ or ‘promoting ethical conduct’. Ethical leaders use rather transactional elements of leadership behaviors such as communicating what is (in-)appropriate at work or by avenging ethical shortcomings (Brown & Trevino, 2006a) which are not in line with a transformational approach to leadership.

The main difference between ethical and servant leadership is the scope of investigation. Servant leadership, in its hypothesized ideal form, limits the focus on employee matters. As this is a vivid expression of empathy and altruism, ethical leadership as conceptualized in this work broaches an understanding exceeding this rather limited perspective. While servant leadership aims at empowering and developing followers, thus, putting these goals over the ones of the organization (Graham, 1991), ethical leadership fosters a comprehension highlighting ethical awareness not just towards the in-

teraction with subordinates ('moral manager' or 'promoting ethical conduct' facet) but also towards corporate goals and strategies (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008).

Reviewing literature on authentic literature, existing work raises two main areas of differences to ethical leadership. First, the latter stresses the importance of a leader actively influencing followers' behavior by applying so-called transactional patterns. On the opposite, authentic leadership does not imply such an influential element. Second, authentic leadership focuses even more on leader characteristics and capabilities. Most importantly, authentic leadership emphasizes the significance of authenticity and self-awareness which are somewhat less related to ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; Peus et al., 2010a; Trevino & Brown, 2007).

Recapulating up to this point, in chapter 2.2 similarities between ethical leadership and other related leadership styles were discussed. On top, chapter 2.3.1 now rounds the construct comparison off by taking a closer look at eventual divergences. To conclude, grounding on the works of Trevino and Brown (2006a; 2007) and Peus et al. (2010a) plus the prior delineation, Table 2 gives an overview of the most important overlaps and differences.

Table 2. Overlap and distinction between ethical leadership and related leadership constructs

Leadership Style	Parallels with Ethical Leadership	Divergence from Ethical Leadership
Transformational Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Overcoming self-interests - Concern for Others - Role modeling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transformational leadership follows economical motivation, first handedly - Transformational leadership emphasizes role of vision - Ethical leadership incorporates ‘transactional’ behavioral patterns (e.g., accentuating ethical standards)
Servant Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Concern for Others - Empathy - Integrity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ethical leadership exceeds sole employee orientation
Authentic Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ethical decision-making - Role modeling - Integrity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ethical leadership emphasizes other-awareness; authentic leadership self-awareness - Ethical leadership incorporates ‘transactional’ behavioral patterns (e.g., accentuating ethical standards) - Ethical leadership less related to authenticity

2.3.2 Ethical leadership in business ethics research.

Research on business ethics takes a much broader approach to the stress field of economic activities and ethical sensitivity than ethical leadership or related leadership constructs which are limited predominantly to the dyadic relationship between leader and follower. Baring the dissent concerning a commonly accepted definition, I draw on Noll (2002), Küpper (2006) for a rather broad comprehension: Business ethics can be understood as the study of ethical or moral sensitive issues concerning economic decision in and around organizations. Accordingly, business ethics incorporates perspectives of economic system, the corporate organization as an entity, and the individuals attached to this greater context.

- Ethics and the economic system (Macro-Level): At the most distal level of business ethics research areas of academic interest refer to the influence of national and international legislation (Homann, 1992; Homann & Lütge, 2005). If and how legislation should, could, and must impact corporate activities are common areas of research (e.g., Hahn, 2012)
- Ethics and the corporate organization (Meso-Level): This level can be attributed as business ethics in the narrow sense of the word. Research in this area merely treats the corporation as one organizational entity. Fields of interest predominantly relate to corporate policies and strategies made by top management teams. Typical constructs investigated are Corporate Social Responsibility (e.g., Lockett, Moon, & Visser, 2006; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001) and Corporate Sustainability (e.g., van Marrewijk, 2003).
- Ethics and the individual (Micro-Level): At this level, research breaks the interplay between economics and ethics down to the individual. Accordingly, at the center of this area stand the conduct, the privileges, and the responsibilities of individuals in the corporate context (e.g., Ulrich, 2008).

As ethical leadership is clearly related to characteristics and behaviors of a person in the corporate context, ethical leadership as suggested by Brown, Trevino and colleagues is best located inside the last research field of business ethics. As a matter of their hierarchical status and accompanied obligations, corporate executives are discussed as essential pillars of bearing ethical responsibility (Minkes, Small, & Chatterjee, 1999; Paine, 1997). Traditionally, business ethics literature is stamped by normative discourses concerning economical activities. These examinations are dominated by theoretical or, at best, case-based approaches rather than large-scale empirical work. In view of that, several authors criticize the big gash between normative sermon and empirical validation (Homann, 1992; Osterloh & Tiemann, 1995; Sharp Paine, 2000). Therefore, ethical leadership can be interpreted as an important contribution as it enables an empirical and tangible access to business ethics at the individual level.

While recent empirical research (Brown et al., 2005) makes ethical leadership accessible and gaugeable, this approach can also be viewed critically in the light of business ethics literature. The main argument refers to the interplay between ethics and economic goals. Several authors (e.g., Patzer & Scherer, 2010; Voegtlin et al., 2012)

criticize the mere instrumentalized comprehension accompanied by Brown, Trevino and colleagues' approach. By doing so, leadership ethics are degraded to a meager subdimension of economic success. Furthermore, compared to the profound theoretical fundament of several business ethics theories (cf., Steinmann & Löhr, 1994; Ulrich, 2008), ethical leadership with its relation to social learning theory is somewhat superficial. Hence, several authors criticize construct ambiguity and call for additional conceptual refinement (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008).

2.4 Development of the Research Agenda

In the last decade, the number of published work on ethical leadership, both theoretically and empirically, is growing steadily. Most of existing work focuses on excerpts covering certain aspects of for instance the emergence of ethical leadership or the processes and outcomes. Still, sophisticated work integrating and combining those multiple perspectives into more integrative models and consequently examining them empirically is severely limited.

The overall aim of this dissertation is the development and consequent empirical validation of such an *integrative model* of ethical leadership. For the purpose of this work, I define a model to integrative if it (a) covers aspects of causes and effects of the respective variable of interest (here ethical leadership), (b) combines different levels of or perspectives on criteria (e.g. employee attitudes and performance data as different indicators of leadership impact), and/or (c) takes mediating and moderating influences into account.

Out of existing work, most integrative takes on ethical leadership are constituted as theory and research reviews accompanied by nuanced research proposals (cf. Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Brown & Trevino, 2006a; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Eisenbeiß & Giessner, 2012). What most of these models have in common is the profound focus on predictors and outcomes of ethical leadership. This recurring structure, shaping ethical leadership as a mediator, along with the specifics of the different approaches is delineated in the following.

Brown and Trevino (2006a) hypothesize a model of antecedents, moderating influences on the emergence of ethical leadership, and its outcomes. They suggest the

differentiation between situational (e.g., ethical context) and individual antecedents (e.g., leader personality or moral reasoning), posit interaction effects between both of them with regard to the emergence of ethical leadership, and delineate outcomes such as followers' ethical sensitivity (e.g., ethical decision-making and prosocial behaviors) and work related attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment). As Brown and Trevino are arguably the most influential authors in this research field, the majority of empirical investigations conducted after this review article takes reference to this source (cf. Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009) take a similar approach. With regard to antecedents, they also stress the importance of leader personality. Likewise, relevant criteria of leadership effectiveness or impact are posited, for instance positive (e.g., commitment) and negative (e.g. counterproductive behavior) work attitudes, occupational productivity, and extra-role behaviors. De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009) differ from Brown and Trevino as they model ethical leadership multi-faceted posit trust facets as important mediating variables, and environmental uncertainty as a moderating variable for the impact of ethical leadership.

Brown and Mitchell (2010) refine previous reviews by introducing additional antecedents and outcome variables. More precisely, they argue leader emotions to be of importance. On top, the leader-follower fit with regard to moral values and moral reasoning are discoursed as influential. Supplementing the range of potential outcomes of ethical leadership, Brown and Mitchell (2010) add employee identification at the individual (e.g., moral identity), group, and organizational level.

Eisenbeiß and Giessner (2012) focus exclusively on the emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership. They in particular emphasize the embeddedness of ethical leadership and delineate the influence of the leadership context. In this rather situational approach, contextual antecedents such as societal (e.g., spirit of human rights or cultural values such as justice, responsibility, humanity, and transparency), industry (e.g., stakeholder networks, complexity of environment), and intra-organizational characteristics (e.g., formal and informal infrastructure regarding ethics) are discussed in terms of favoring and preventing the preservation of ethical leadership.

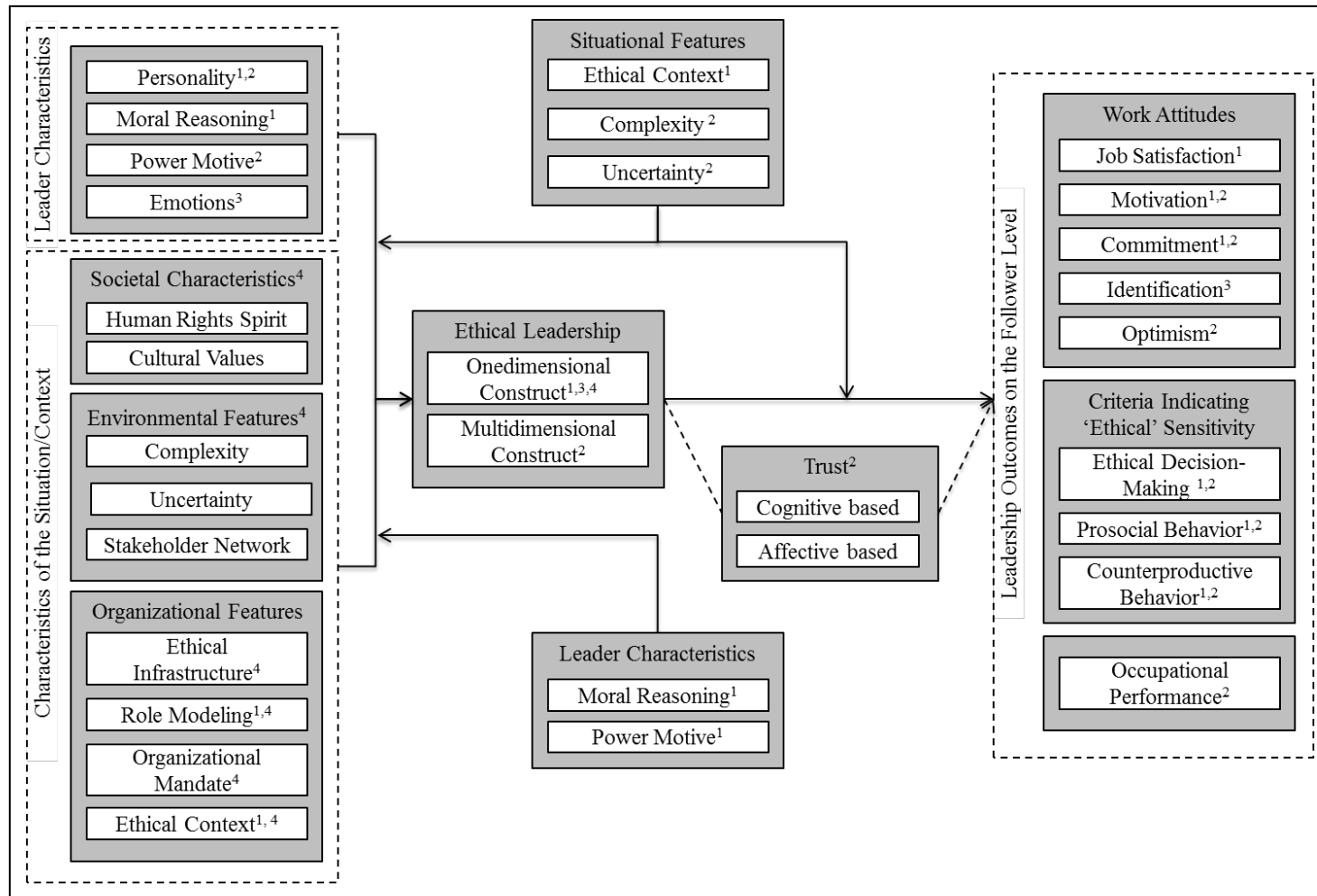


Figure 1. Integrative Research Proposals on Ethical Leadership. ¹⁾ Brown and Trevino (2006); ²⁾ De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009); ³⁾ Brown and Mitchell (2010); ⁴⁾ Eisenbeiß and Giessner (2012).

Figure 1 subsumes those different integrative, theoretical approaches and synthesizes them into one global scheme. Unfortunately, the concurrent empirical support of all those posited cause-and-effect models is still quite thin. Only in two additional cases, the derivation of more complex models is complemented by its subsequent empirical validation (Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Fittingly, those two studies come as close of an empirical validation of those previously posited models as there is.

Drawing especially on Brown and Trevino's (2006a) proposed research agenda, Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) investigated leader personality as potential antecedents of ethical leadership. Regarding organizational outcomes, they chose follower psychological safety and voice behavior. Their results indicate that the Big Five factors of agreeableness and conscientiousness were positively related to ratings of ethical leadership. Moreover, ethical leadership was positively related to follower psychological safety and voice behavior. Ethical leadership was also confirmed as the mediator for the effects between leader personality traits of agreeableness and conscientiousness and employees' psychological safety.

Mayer et al. (2012) focused on leader moral identity as predictors of ethical leadership. Reporting the results from two samples, leader moral identity was positively linked to ethical leadership, with the latter also being negatively related to followers' unethical behavior and perceived role conflict. However, ethical leadership mediated the effects from leader moral identity on unit outcomes only partly.

The purpose of this dissertation is to build on those existing integrative approaches and excel by developing and validating a sophisticated and comprehensive model of ethical leadership. Due to the various variables posited to be related to ethical leadership in recent literature, this present work does not assert a claim of completeness. Yet, the previous overview serves as the initial point for the development of this dissertation's integrative research model. In the following, three key characteristics closely linked to the initial research questions from chapter 1.1 are described in detail. These features build the basis for the upcoming studies and are crucial for the contribution to ethical leadership literature. In particular, I will differentiate between multiple perspectives on ethical leadership impact, antecedents of ethical leadership, and finally contextual influences on ethical leadership.

2.4.1 Multiple perspectives on ethical leadership impact.

Traditionally, much of research interest concerning leadership styles, not just an ethical one but in general, gathers around the potential impact on organizational life. This comes in hand with the understanding that a leader exerts major influence on the motivation, satisfaction, and most importantly on the occupational performance of his followers. Unsurprisingly, those models described above (chapter 2.3.1) and their accompanied research agendas stress the importance of investigating ethical leadership impact. Accordingly, this field plays a major role in this dissertation, as well. In the claim of developing a comprehensive research model and contributing considerably to existing literature, I will approach ethical leadership impact from a multitude of perspectives:

- (1) Content of ethical leadership impact
- (2) Methodological takes on capturing ethical leadership impact
- (3) Impact of ethical leadership facets
- (4) Mediating mechanisms of ethical leadership impact
- (5) correlates to ethical leadership

(1) Content of ethical leadership impact. Reviewing the different sentiments of those existing ethical leadership research models, outcome criteria of ethical leadership relate to both, conventional means of leadership outcomes indicating enhanced *organizational effectiveness* and rather *'ethical' outcomes*. The former refers to variables such as follower job satisfaction, commitment or occupational performance. The latter, in contrast, exceeds traditional boundaries of organizational impact. Features such as followers' ethical decision-making, prosocial behaviors, counterproductive conduct or moral identity shed light into more ethical means of measuring leadership impact.

In the claim of elaborating a comprehensive model of ethical leadership, I install both perspectives on leadership outcomes. This work's conventional approach to leadership impact refers to the usage of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is one of most studied variables of work attitudes. Recent meta-analytical (Ricketta, 2008) work revealed substantial correlations with actual performance leaving job satisfaction as arguably the most prominent subjective indicator for occupational merit. As actual occupational (leader and follower) performance is so crucial to leadership research, I supplement the

conventional category of organizational outcomes with different measures of actual performance. The diverse approaches and sources applied will be discussed later.

What makes research on ethical leadership so intriguing is the altered perspective on organizational processes. Normatively appropriateness of conduct and values such as fairness and altruism complement the fields of rational, economical effectiveness. As elaborated before, literature on business ethics spends a great deal of attention on the conflicting and coinciding interests of ethics and economics, respectively. One important and recurring argument is that corporate ethical engagement must not lead to enhanced economic success. Therefrom, limiting ethics to a mere instrumentalized mean of enhancing performance bears the risk of eroding the pure character attached to corporate ethics. Transferring this thought on ethical leadership, investigating its effects on those conventional criteria of organizational outcome would be preliminary. For this reason, I also focused on different work attitudes indicating ethical sensitivity. In particular, I chose organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as one of such criteria. As OCB refers to prosocial behavioral patterns such as helping and supporting colleagues, per definition, exceeding one's own core job tasks (Organ, 1997), this outcome criteria is an important addition to the previous measures. While OCB depicts follower altruism, the normatively appropriateness of personal conduct is implemented through counterproductive work behaviors (CWB, Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). CWB refers to deviant behavioral facets against the organization as a whole (e.g., stealing corporate property, skipping work) and against individuals (e.g., sexual harassment, mobbing).

(2) Methodological take on capturing ethical leadership impact. With the choice of outcome criteria I am capable of capturing substantial thus different aspects of organizational life. On top, this dissertation excels through the use of a multitude of sources and methodological approaches to measuring those criteria. Following recommendations by Yukl (2010) and DeRue et al. (2011), I apply *subjective* and *objective* measures of leadership impact in order to depict this variable systematically.

As the case in the vast majority of leadership research, I partly rely on follower ratings of relevant work-related attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, OCB, CWB). Due to their accessibility, such *subjective* indicators of leadership impact and effectiveness are the most common used criteria applied in leadership research (Yukl, 2010). Thus, as

those variables depend on each rater's moods and attitudes subjective measures are suspected with regard to their accuracy and validity (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). To overcome this limitation, I install several *objective* measures of leadership impact, i.e. of leader and follower performance. Research on ethical leadership's impact is still scarce, yet, highly warranted (Peus et al., 2010a). The challenge with objective measures of leadership impact is that they are naturally scarce. Only in very few occupational branches such as sales departments impartial measures of individual or group performance are identifiable. Furthermore, the causal relation between leadership behavior and objective data might be highly contaminated as third-variables like conjuncture, innovational change, or branch competition can hardly be controlled (Judge & Long, 2012; Yukl, 2010). Preempting the role of leadership context, I overcome these difficulties by conducting a part of my research in organizational settings with exceptional potential for capturing occupational performance objectively: sales departments and professional basketball.

On top of the subjective vs. objective differentiation, a second appealing methodological aspect refers to the hierarchical level of analysis; in this case the level of measuring leadership impact. With regard to the leader - follower dyad two levels of examination remain possible: individual, i.e. follower level and team level. Recent literature stresses the importance of separating between both in hypotheses formulation, measurement and subsequent data analyses (Dionne et al., 2012; Gooty, Serban, Thomas, Gavin, & Yammarino, 2012). The vast majority of extant empirical work on ethical leadership limits the scope of interest on only one of the two levels. Therefore, to exceed existing literature I apply measures of both categories in the forthcoming studies. Criteria at the individual level are follower job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and basketball players' performance development. With regard to team level, I use sales teams' sales numbers and basketball teams' standings as means of team criteria.

Another methodological feature contributing to existent ethical leadership research is the incorporation of not just performance but *performance development*. The potential impact of leadership behavior on followers' performance development has been discussed from a theoretical point of view before (House & Aditya, 1997). Thus, empirical validation is somewhat sparse. Transformational leadership, on its part, has

been experimentally confirmed to be related to followers' performance development (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Ethical leadership has not been investigated in a comparable research setting, yet. Empirical research on ethical leadership impact has been conducted mostly in static and nonexperimental designs. To fill this void, one study focuses explicitly on the relation between ethical leadership and objectively measured follower performance development.

(3) Impact of ethical leadership facets. Much academic attention has been spent and will also be spent inside of this research model on ethical leadership's effects on different outcome criteria. Nevertheless, only little is known about which behavioral facets or leadership attributes are most crucial to the beneficial effects of ethical leadership. Therefore, such aspects ought to be considered in a comprehensive research model. Seminal relevant work suggests the differentiation between two key pillars of ethical leadership (Trevino et al., 2000): moral person and moral manager. Moral person refers to key characteristics attributed to ethical leaders such as integrity, honesty, altruism or trustworthiness. Conversely, the moral manager component reflects certain behavioral patterns like guiding followers to ethical conduct through communication and avenging unwanted behavioral patterns. Transferring ethical leadership to German research, Rowold et al. (2009) coined a similar distinction, thus, labeling the facets quite differently: ethical role modeling for the moral manager pillar and promoting ethical leadership for the moral person pillar. As the upcoming empirical investigation builds on the German measure of ethical leadership, I apply these latter terms. Literature on ethical leadership increasingly criticizes the predominantly one-dimensional depiction of ethical leadership and subsequently calls for more diverse research (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). In an experimental approach in course of this dissertation, ethical leadership will be modeled two-dimensionally according to the previous delineation in one of the studies. With this design, I will be able to gain insights if it are leader attributes such as altruism or trustworthiness that cause beneficial organizational impact or the interpersonal behavioral facets such as communicating about ethics or avenging ethical misdeeds.

(4) Mediating mechanisms of ethical leadership impact. Another remarkably underdeveloped research field has been the question of *how* ethical leadership shapes enhanced organizational outcome criteria. In other words, only very little is known

about the psychological mechanisms and processes underlying the relationship between ethical leadership and ethical leadership impact. To date, this interlink can figuratively speaking be compared to a mere stimulus-response relation with the intervening coupling still a black box. In most of relevant research, the delineation is solely theoretically driven with little empirical support for the proclaimed processing mechanisms. In one of the very few works addressing that black box, Walumbwa et al. (2011) confirmed leader-member-exchange, self-efficacy, and organizational identification as mediators for the interlink between ethical leadership and employee performance. In this dissertation I will contribute to this research area by extending current findings. In particular, I will put the emphasis on two recurring and substantial variables in the field of leadership and ethics: *trust* and *justice*. Both play a significant and regular role in explaining beneficial impact. For example, through their keen follower consideration (e.g., individual empowerment and granted work-related autonomy) ethical leaders gain the trust of their followers. Likewise, by promoting transparent decision-making and rewarding or penalizing (un-)ethical behavior ethical leaders also signal a distinct urge for justice.

(5) Correlates to ethical leadership. As has been elaborated in previous sections of this work, ethical leadership has some construct overlap with other leadership styles such as transformational leadership. While the theoretical demarcation clearly depicts both leadership styles as distinct (Table 1), empirical work confirming this assumption is still rather sparse (as an exception Mayer et al., 2012). For that reason, I will examine the impact of ethical leadership on organizational outcome criteria while controlling for the different facets of transformational leadership. On top of transformational leadership, I elected also to insert an opposing approach to leadership. *Laissez-faire* defined as the mere absence of leadership activity gives another important benchmark to the effects of ethical leadership.

2.4.2 Antecedents of ethical leadership.

The extant research proposals from chapter 2.4 differentiate between personal and situational characteristics as predictors of ethical leadership. In this dissertation, I elected to focus merely on the former ones. Personal dispositions have a well-documented standing in leadership literature (cf. Day & Antonakis, 2012; Judge & Long, 2012). Furthermore, I argue that the role of situational or contextual influences

is crucial not only with regard to the emergence of ethical leadership but also concerning the consequences of ethical leadership conduct. Accordingly, those effects will be addressed more specifically as the third key characteristic of my research model.

Out of the possible personal antecedents of executive ethical leadership, my focus lies on leader personality traits. Personality, at the forefront of personal dispositions, has received arguably the most academic attention when it comes to predicting leadership (e.g., leadership behaviors, leadership effectiveness, etc.), generally (for a review: Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Personality traits are posited to be stable dispositions. Linking those non-changing personal characteristics to means of organizational and, more precisely, leadership effectiveness has captured researchers' interest for decades. Besides early research on trait theories of leadership, personality traits have been revived especially with the emergence of the Big Five differentiation (Digman, 1990). Likewise, three of those traits are captured in Brown and Trevino's (2006a) and De Hoogh and Den Hartog's (2009) models: agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism. Preliminary research on the linkage between those traits and ethical leadership has been conducted. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) and Kalshoven, Den Hartog, and De Hoogh (2010) revealed substantial relationships from ethical leadership with the leader traits of conscientiousness and agreeableness, but no such with neuroticism².

Apparently, my work builds on those two studies, but, at the same time, I raise doubt that those investigations line in with more scrupulous research on personality and other leadership styles that, in the long term, belie expectations. For example, the relation between transformational leadership and Big Five personality traits has been investigated in various ways. Summing up, relational patterns have been unstable and meta-analytical approaches revealed correlations surprisingly weak (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge et al., 2002, p. 774). "Previous research notwithstanding, however, we have a relatively poor idea of not only which traits are relevant, but why" (Judge et al., 2002,

² In their two-face article, Kalshoven et al. (2010) reported no significant correlations between emotional stability (as the counterpart of neuroticism) and ethical leadership. However, in sample 2, after controlling for LMX, regression analysis indicated a significant influence from emotional stability on ethical leadership.

p. 774). Researches have debated about the causes on these shortcomings (e.g., Krüger, 2012). Two lines of arguments have been forwarded. In this work, I tie in with both efforts.

First, one possible explanation refers to content-wise pitfalls. The Big Five dimensions constitute a manageable amount of personality dimensions. Thus, one critical implication is the amplitude of characteristics merged into too broad traits (Hough, 1992). For example, conscientiousness covers aspects of both job accuracy and career orientation. Fittingly, several researchers suggest a consequent differentiation between these two elements (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Digman, 1990; Kalshoven et al., 2010). In line with this, I elected to model the trait of conscientiousness two-folded and made the distinction between dependability and achievement.

Next to this content-related approach, a second limitation of previous research on ethical leadership and personality is of methodological nature. As personality is viewed to be non-contextual, applied questionnaires of personality are rather universally verbalized. Drawing on for instance Schmit, Ryan, Stierwalt, and Powell (1995), I argue that the predictive validity of personality traits on leadership behavior might be significantly increased by offering an ‘at-work’ frame of reference to the applied questionnaires. Extant empirical work has shown that this on-work referential does increase the validity of questionnaires applied (Bing, Whanger, Davison, & VanHook, 2004; Huthausen, Truxillo, Bauer, & Hammer, 2003; Schmit et al., 1995; Shaffer & Postlethwaite, 2012). Therefrom, I followed a business focused approach to measure personality traits (Hossiep & Krüger, 2012).

In line with Brown and Trevino’s (2006a) and De Hoogh and Den Hartog’s (2009) proposals, I examined the roles of agreeableness and conscientiousness, i.e. dependability and achievement. Diverging from existing literature, I also included leader extraversion in my model. Ethical leadership literature stresses the importance of fostering a so-called reputation for ethical leadership by, for instance, being a visible role model and by making ethic related issues an important task of one’s leadership agenda (Trevino et al., 2000). Building on Bandura’s social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1991), I argue that a leader high on extraversion is much more likely to be perceived as such a visible character. Interestingly, the role of extraversion is rather untapped in ex-

tant literature on ethical leadership, which I see as a limitation. Therefrom, introducing extraversion to the fields of ethical leadership is a major contribution.

2.4.3 Ethical leadership and the leadership context.

In the research proposals from Brown and Trevino (2006a), Eisenbeiß and Giesen (2012), and De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009), the authors theorize on situational or contextual influences on the emergence and impact of ethical leadership. Several variables are postulated to be either favoring or detrimental with regard to ethical leadership. Surprisingly, sophisticated empirical research addressing these research fields is missing. Therefore, the third general key feature of this dissertation is the examination of contextual effects on the antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership.

With regard to the emergence of ethical leadership, in one of the three studies I examine the role of leader personality traits. To install a situational perspective on this field, the relationship between the different personality traits and ethical leadership is examined in two different contexts, separately: one of them is a company-wide cross section while the other refers to sales departments, solely. Potential differences in result patterns give preliminary insights on the influence of situational factors such as environmental uncertainty or ethical context.

The situational influences on ethical leadership impact will be examined even further. Firstly, in the same study as the interdependence between personality and ethical leadership is investigated, the effects from ethical leadership on different indicators of leadership effectiveness are emphasized. Again, the consequent differentiation between the company-wide cross section and the sales departments allows for insights on the altering influence of situational characteristics. Secondly, this dissertation extends the scope of existing research substantially by being the first to transfer ethical leadership to an alternative, thus ideal leadership context: professional basketball in Germany. Professional sport, especially basketball, provides an exceptional setting for leadership research due to the apparent dyadic relationship between leader and follower accompanied by the availability and accurateness of performance data (cf. Hopton, Phelan, & Barling, 2007; Keidel, 1987; Wolfe et al., 2005, p. 185).

Figure 2 visualizes the overall model of ethical leadership with its antecedents, various outcome perspectives, and the contextual integration developed through chapters 2.4.1 to 2.4.3. The empirical validation of this proposed integrative model is carried out through *Studies 1* to *3*. Each of these studies focuses merely on excerpts from the overall model. The emphasis of the respective studies is also depicted in Figure 2.

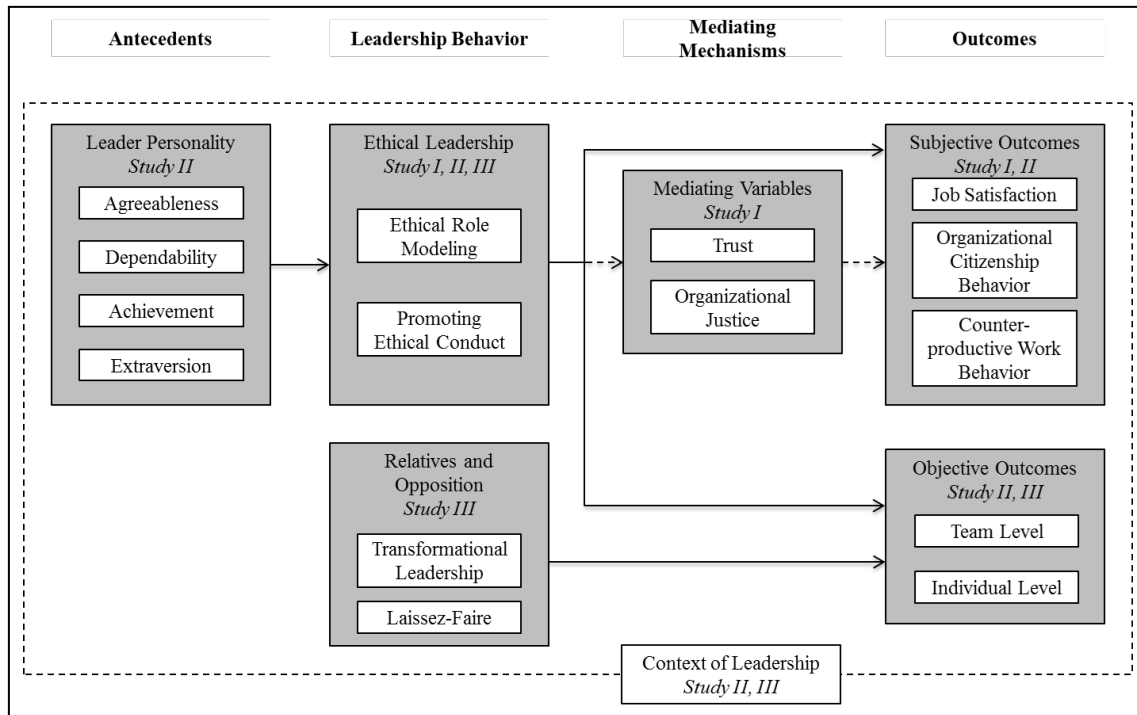


Figure 2. Research Model of the Dissertation

3. Study 1: Elucidating the ‘Black Box’ of How Ethical Leadership Works – Trust and Organizational Justice as Mediators for the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Organizational Outcome Criteria

3.1 Study 1: Introduction

In the past two decades, the ethical dimension of leadership has gained an increased level of interest in scholarly as well as practice-oriented literature. The claim to understand how leader behavior may not only be efficient but also ethically sound and normatively appropriate yielded into the evolvement of a distinct research agenda. The theoretical reference point of most of current research on leadership and ethics is the concept of ethical leadership forwarded by Brown, Trevino, and colleagues (Brown et al., 2005; Trevino et al., 2000). Their definition of ethical leadership which focuses on normatively appropriate conduct of leaders and the promotion of that same behavior to followers serves as the theoretical foundation numerous studies ground on. Subsequently, recent scholarly work focused on investigating the effects ethical leadership may have on the organization. Empirical results concerning the relationships between ethical leadership and job satisfaction (Brown et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008), organizational citizenship behavior (Walumbwa et al., 2008), and commitment (Rowold et al., 2009) give a preliminary answer to the question *if* the leadership style has decisive effects. On the contrary, existing literature still lacks the examination of the question *how* ethical leadership works.

Whilst the cited empirical findings indicate the beneficial impact of ethical leadership, the explanation for these relations is – in most cases – solely theoretically driven. Arguing from an empirical point of view, the way ethical leadership works is still a figuratively speaking much of a ‘black box’. Only very little is known about the psychological processes and mechanisms ethical leadership entails and about what subordinates percept (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Accordingly, Brown and Trevino (2006a) admit that “we have certainly not exhausted the possible underlying process explanations that might explain these relationships. Therefore, additional work will be needed to tease

out these underlying mechanisms and provide evidence of them and their effects” (p. 612).

The purpose of the present study is twofold. Firstly, the impact of ethical leadership on several employee criteria with organizational relevance which had previously been explored in foremost Anglo-Saxon samples is investigated for a German sample. Secondly, the present study aims at elucidating the aforementioned black box as it focuses on mediating aspects of the relation between ethical leadership and the organizational outcome criteria – in particular job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior. The approach to the study is to center around two theoretical models which are rather dominant in leadership and business ethics literature: trust and justice. Numerous authors refer to the trustworthiness of ethical leaders or their fairness in decision-making and interaction (e.g., Brown et al., 2005; Mayer et al., 2009; Trevino et al., 2000). Although the linkage between ethical leadership, trust and justice is manifest with regard to content, studies combining those elements are scarce.

Consequently, and for the first time, the present study uses a structural equation model approach to test the relation between ethical leadership and the three outcome criteria considering the mediating role of trust and organizational justice.

3.2 Study 1: Theoretical Background

Ethical leadership

Research on the ethical dimension of leadership in leadership literature has been well documented. Ethical or responsible conduct of leaders is incorporated into several theories of leadership styles including transformational (Rowold & Heinitz, 2007), servant (Graham, 1991), or authentic leadership (Chan, 2005; Gardner et al., 2005). Nevertheless, in the last decade the perception of leadership ethics has changed. From being just one of several aspects of leadership style it has emerged as a distinctive construct – clearly related to other leadership styles but unique on its own (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; Trevino et al., 2000). While there has long been a consensus that leadership ethics contain certain personnel characteristics of leaders such as honesty or trustworthiness, ethical leadership promotes a comprehension that goes well beyond the notion of simple altruistic attributes (Trevino et al., 2000). Ethical leadership, as stated

by Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005), 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” (p. 120). Contentwise, this definition sums up a pool of personal traits and behavioral characteristics. An ethical leader asserts himself displaying traits that are consistent with ethical principles like integrity, honesty, altruism, or trustworthiness. Hence, an ethical leaders also put “ethics at the forefront of their leadership agenda” (Trevino et al., 2000, p. 133). Behavioral features linked to the latter are visible role modeling, a strong verbal commitment to ethic related topics, and rewarding ethical whilst disciplining unethical conduct (Trevino et al., 2000).

Traditionally, most of quantitative empirical work on ethical leadership conceptualizes the leadership construct one-dimensionally using Brown, Trevino, and Harrison’s ethical leadership scale (ELS, Brown et al., 2005) despite the profound range of contents incorporated. Yet, there has been a shift in recent years to picture ethical leadership more-dimensionally (Colquitt et al., 2007). For example, Rowold et al., (2009) revealed a two-dimensional structure of the German validated version of the original ELS – distinguishing between *Ethical Role Modeling* and *Promoting Ethical Conduct*³. While the dispartment had been empirically driven, the two facets nevertheless coincide substantially with the original definition of ethical leadership with regard to content. Ethical role modeling relates to a leader’s task of role modeling. By explicitly communicating about ethics with employees combined with a high personal claim for morality and integrity, an ethical leader demonstrates ethical principles. On the other hand, promoting ethical conduct focuses more on interactional aspects of the relation between supervisors and subordinates. Accordingly, leaders strive for fairness and trustworthi-

³ The original German speaking article labels the second facet of ethical leadership as “Ethische Mitarbeiterführung” which had been translated with “ethical leadership” itself. To avoid confusion between the label of a facet and the overall construct, the present article uses the term “promoting ethical conduct” to address the second facet of the overall construct of ethical leadership. Consequently, if the term ethical leadership is applied, it addresses both facets of the leadership style: ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct.

ness in their decision-making and nurture their employees through assistance and empowerment.

Compared to the original ELS and other conceptualizations of ethical leadership the differentiation between ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct has several advantages. First, it allows for a more detailed and multi-faceted view of ethical leadership than the unidimensional approach. Nevertheless, ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct do not exceed the original concept contentwise (as opposed to e.g. De Hoogh and Den Hartog's (2007) approach) which, in turn, assures the comparability of results to findings from prior studies using the ELS.

Ethical leadership and organizational outcome criteria

Job satisfaction. One core aspect of organizational outcome criteria is the extent of employee's satisfaction with the job. Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001) underlined the importance of job satisfaction as being a key indicator of employee's job perception. Furthermore, they were able to show that job satisfaction is positively related to job performance. Given the notion that ethical leaders strive to reach fair decisions, are considerably as well as trustworthy, and treat employees in a just way, employees are expected to be positively affected by showing higher job satisfaction. Additionally, as ethical leaders engage in transparent communication along with fostering and rewarding ethical sound behavior, they earn and enrich their followers' confidence and loyalty, leading to more positive attitudes towards the leader. The outlined relation between ethical leadership and job satisfaction has been confirmed in previous studies (Brown et al., 2005; Rowold et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Accordingly, a positive relation between ethical leadership and job satisfaction is predicted.

Organizational citizenship behavior. Building on the previous argumentation, employees who experience ethical leadership from their supervisors may be positively affected not only by showing increased job satisfaction. Moreover, they will be willing and capable of exhibiting more effort concerning work tasks. To determine the effort by employees, especially effort that goes beyond the regular workload, organizational citizenship behavior was applied as a second outcome criteria. OCB describes employee behavior that excels the formal duties and tasks. As it is largely discretionary and sel-

dom included in job compensation schemes, OCB is also known as extra-role behavior. Aggregately, OCB enhances the effectiveness of an organization (Organ, 1997).

As Brown, Trevino and colleagues put forward (Brown & Trevino, 2006a), ethical leadership grounds on social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) as well as on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Social learning theory argues that people learn and evolve through imitating the behavior of role models. Concerning the dyad of leader and follower, a leader serves as role model well for reasons such as status or success in the organization. As ethical leaders show concern for their subordinates and strive to behave appropriately towards their surroundings, social learning theory hypothesizes that followers tend to internalize such behaviors (Brown et al., 2005) which, subsequently, leads to more prosocial behavior of their own (e.g. treating colleague's just, offering help).

Likewise, social exchange theory further solidifies the notion of followers imitating and internalizing observed leader behavior. The theory bases on the norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964). It suggests that if someone does something beneficial to another person, an obligation to reciprocate the same conduct is generated (Organ, 1990). Again considering the organizational context, if a subordinate feels appreciated and treated fair by his supervisor, he will act similarly not only towards his supervisor but also towards his colleagues (and subordinates).

While there has been previous research on the effect of leadership on OCB (e.g. Ehrhart, 2004), empirical findings concerning ethical leadership are sporadic. Only two prior studies combined ethical leadership and OCB. Mayer et al. (2009) and Walumbwa et al. (2008), both showed significant effects of supervisor's ethical leadership on employees' OCB. As both studies were conducted in the US, empirical insights concerning European work settings is nonexistent. Therefore, further research is needed.

In line with theoretical and empirical findings, a positive relation between ethical leadership and OCB is predicted.

Counterproductive work behavior. At its core, research on leadership in general focuses on investigating what 'good' leadership is. What do leaders do to motivate their employees, how do they acknowledge accomplishments or hold employees responsible for each other? As a matter of fact, leadership is ought to minimize if not abandon be-

haviors that are counterproductive or, even worse, harmful to the organization. Research on counterproductive work behavior meanwhile focuses on those undesired aspects of organizational life. As Marcus and Schuler (2004) state “all counterproductive behaviors share the common feature of violating the legitimate interests of an organization by being potentially harmful to its members or to the organization as a whole” (p. 648). Potentially harmful actions against organizations appear in a variety of facets, ranging from minor harm like gossiping about co-workers or taking excessive breaks to serious harm such as stealing from the company or sexual harassment (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Due to the hierarchical superior status, followers view their supervisor as “linking pin between the organization and employees and therefore represent the organization” (Brown & Trevino, 2006b, p. 955). If a leader’s behavior is perceived as being ethically correct and considerate, employees’ attitudes towards the organization as a whole should be more positive and, in turn, should lead to less incentives for deviant or counterproductive behavior (Brown & Trevino, 2006b). Social learning theory and social exchange theory illustrate the underlining processes which lead to subordinates imitating their leader’s behaviors. As an ethical leader displays normatively appropriate conduct (e. g. making decisions transparently, being honest, and trustworthy) and promotes that same attitude towards his followers, ethical leadership can be considered as the mere counterpart of CWB. Consequently, if subordinates adopt those behaviors, they will show systematically less counterproductive behavior.

To date, there are only very few empirical findings concerning the effects of ethical leadership on CWB. Detert et al. (2007) set high stakes as they applied a longitudinal design with objective outcome criteria (food loss as measure of CWB in fast food restaurants). Yet, they could not reveal significant effects from ethical leadership on counterproductive work behavior. In contrast, Mayer et al. (2009) confirmed the hypothesized effects of ethical leadership on CWB, albeit their focus was solely on counterproductive behavior against the organization and thus ignoring CWB against individuals. In sum, existing work is still rather limited with, to date, unattained potential. Therefore, the approach to the present study – combining CWB against the organization and individuals – is a necessary step to further solidify research on ethical leadership.

Summarizing the prior argumentation, a negative relation between ethical leadership and CWB is predicted. Regarding the relations between ethical leadership and all the three organizational outcome criteria, the following hypotheses can be deduced:

Hypothesis 1a: Ethical role modeling has beneficial effects on organizational outcome criteria. Job satisfaction and OCB will be positively associated with ethical role modeling. CWB will be negatively associated with ethical role modeling.

Hypothesis 1b: Promoting ethical conduct has beneficial effects on organizational outcome criteria. Job satisfaction and OCB will be positively associated with promoting ethical conduct. CWB will be negatively associated with promoting ethical conduct.

Mediators of the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Organizational Outcome Criteria

One of the main focuses of this article is to investigate the underlying processes that characterize the perception of ethical leadership regarding the organizational dyad of supervisor and subordinate. While the previous theoretical and empirical derivations aimed at arguing why there is a relationship between employee criteria and ethical leadership, the following section may serve as possible explanation of *how* those effects progress.

Recapitalizing the argumentations outlining the effects of ethical leadership on job satisfaction, OCB, and CWB, two recurring and decisive elements were trust and justice. As ethical leaders stay true to their word and are considered trustworthy and honest, employees are expected to exhibit enhanced job performance resulting from increased job satisfaction and OCB while avoiding counterproductive behavior. Similarly, ethical leaders promote transparent decision-making and reward or penalize (un)desired behavior which, in turn, signals an urge for justice. Hence, the framework of this present study does not simply inspect effects of ethical leadership facets on the three organizational outcome criteria. Moreover, trust and justice are viewed as interlinks between the leadership style and the dependent variables of job satisfaction, OCB, and CWB. In other words, if a supervisor excels through ethical leadership he shapes an organizational climate which not only values but also exhibits features such as trust and justice. Thus, it is this enhanced level of organizational trust and justice which leads to

improved job perception indicated through employees' outcome criteria. Correspondingly, Hollander (1998) states that the relation between leader and follower can be described as a unified interdependent relationship held together by trust, and rooted in the leader's commitment to principles of justice and equity in the exercise of authority and power.

To further explain the notion of trust and justice as mediators, both variables will be addressed in terms of (a) influence from ethical leadership and (b) effects on the three outcome criteria, separately.

The role of trust

Ethical leadership and trust. The existence of trust in organizations as a whole, in departments or in work groups is elementary arguing with regard to effectiveness (Bijlsma & Koopman, 2003). It simplifies intern (between different groups or departments) and extern cooperation (between different organizations) and systematically reduces costs for potential control mechanisms (Brock Smith, & Barclay, 1997). From an employee's point of view, one important beneficial of trusting co-workers or supervisors is that it enhances individual job perception. According to Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) trust can be described as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (p. 395). As employees depend frequently on colleagues, supervisors, and the organization as a whole, being able to trust them conveys security and serenity regarding work settings (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006).

As ethical leaders are defined to be honest, integer, and trustworthy, a strong relation to employee's perceived trust seems inherent. To further exemplify the proclaimed relation, a look at empirical evidences regarding antecedents of trust is useful. In particular, these antecedents are participative decision-making, meeting expectations of followers (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), and followers' perceived organizational support (Connell, Ferres, & Travaglione, 2003). Firstly, citing Brown et al. (2005), ethical leaders correspond with the request for participative decision-making as they provide followers with voice. Likewise, De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2007) argue in their conceptualization of ethical leadership, which builds on Brown and Trevino's approach, that the empowerment of followers is a key characteristic of ethical leadership. They entitle this

behavioral aspect ‘power sharing’. Empirical evidence for the linkage between ethical leadership and participative decision-making or power sharing comes from Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009). Their study revealed a positive relation between ethical leadership and followers’ voice behavior: “they [ethical leaders] encourage their followers to voice opinions and suggestions ... about ... work-related processes and work context” (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009, p. 1276). Secondly, with regard to meeting expectations as an antecedent of trust, ethical leaders value transparency highly (Brown et al., 2005), engage in open communication with followers and clarify expectations and responsibilities (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008). Doing so, leaders and followers adjust their respective perception of what is expected from the follower which, consequently, enriches the probability of followers’ expectations to be met. Thirdly, followers’ perceived organizational support is another antecedent of organizational trust (Connell et al., 2003). Trevino and colleagues showed that displaying care and concern for people contributes to ethical leadership. In an earlier work, they entitled the behavioral aspect of treating people right as a core element of the pillar of ‘moral person’ (Trevino et al., 2000). Organizational support stems not solely from supervisors. Other important sources of help are followers’ colleagues. As a subordinate usually interacts more frequently with his colleagues than with his supervisor, the support coming from peers appears to be a predictor of perceived organizational trust. Mayer et al. (2009) showed that ethical leadership is positively related to group-level helping behavior which further punctuates the notion of a positive relation between the leadership style and trust.

In addition to the theoretical relationship between ethical leadership and organizational trust, first empirical evidence was found by Brown et al. (2005) and (van den Akker, Heres, Lasthuizen, & Six, 2009). Those findings serve as preliminary starting points. Yet, further and more detailed research on the effects on trust is needed.

In sum, a positive relation between ethical leadership and organizational trust is predicted for the current study.

Hypothesis 2a: Ethical role modeling is positively related to trust.

Hypothesis 2b: Promoting ethical conduct is positively related to trust.

Trust and organizational outcome criteria. Several studies investigated the effects trust has on a variety of criteria indicating job performance and organizational ef-

fectiveness. The underlying notion is that in work settings where social interaction (inter- and intra-hierarchical) is characterized by reciprocal trust, working partners are more willing to take risk with one another (e.g. engage in cooperation and sharing information). Those risk taking behaviors are expected to be positively associated with subjective as well as objective measures of performance (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Conducting a meta-analytical approach Dirks and Ferrin (2002) examined consequences of trust on the basis of 108 different samples. Their results revealed high correlations with job satisfaction and OCB. In line with those findings, a positive relation between trust and job satisfaction as well as with OCB is predicted for the current study. In another meta-analysis, Colquitt et al. (2007) also focused on outcomes of organizational trust. In difference to Dirks and Ferrin (2002), they also included counterproductive work behavior as an organizational outcome. Their findings grounding on 132 independent samples indicated a significant negative relationship between trust and CWB. Accordingly, in the present study a negative relation between the two variables is predicted.

Hypothesis 3: Trust is positively related to job satisfaction and OCB, and negatively to CWB.

Hypothesis 4a: Trust mediates the relationship between ethical role modeling and organizational outcome criteria.

Hypothesis 4b: Trust mediates the relationship between promoting ethical conduct and organizational outcome criteria.

The role of justice

Ethical leadership and justice. Justice plays a significant role not only in social but also in economical and organizational life. Arguing from the perspective of followers, it inevitably influences followers' job perception if promotional decisions, monetary compensation schemes (e.g. pay raises and pay negotiations), work scheduling, or the assessment of performance are converted (un)justly (Maier, Streicher, Jonas, & Woschée, 2007). Accordingly, research on organizational justice attempts "to describe and explain the role of fairness and consideration in the workplace" (Greenberg, 1990, p. 400).

Analyzing followers' perception of organizational justice, an influence from supervisors' leadership behavior is assumed. As Colquitt and Greenberg (2003) state, "perhaps the most natural connection can be made between justice and leadership" (p. 196). A core task of exhibiting leadership is the carrying of responsibility for decisions that directly or indirectly affect followers in numerous ways (e.g., promotion decisions, layoffs, pay increases, or distribution of resources and work tasks). In turn, followers are concerned by the way those decisions are made in terms of just and unjust (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008). The aforementioned relation could be confirmed through several studies (e.g., Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2003).

Contentwise, a core facet of ethical leadership is the distinct care for followers (Brown et al., 2005). Ethical leaders will likely treat their subordinates considerately which, in consequence, will lead to a more positive perception of organizational justice. Further, the underlying leadership theory grounds on the notion that an ethical leader strives to conduct his life in an ethical manner (Brown et al., 2005). In turn, he is ought to relinquish any kind of bias in his decision-making. Followers experiencing this authentic and fair behavior should exhibit higher perception of organizational trust.

To date, empirical findings supporting the theorized relationship are scarce. Only Brown et al. (2005) explicitly addressed the prescribed relationship, revealing a positive link between ethical leadership and interactional justice. As their measure for justice consisted of only two items, the scope of this operationalization is mere limited with regard to content. In one of the few further attempts to predict justice at the hands of specific leadership styles, Mayer et al. (2008) showed a significant relation between servant leadership and the perception of justice. Similarly, Ehrhart (2004) found a correlation between the aforementioned servant leadership and follower procedural justice climate. As there are some similarities and overlaps between servant and ethical leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2010) those findings can be viewed as supplementary empirical hints for the relation. With the prescribed limitation of prior empirical work, the present study broadens the understanding of ethical leadership.

In line with previous delineation a positive relationship between ethical leadership and employees' perceived trust is assumed.

Hypothesis 5a: Ethical role modeling is positively related to organizational justice.

Hypothesis 5b: Promoting ethical conduct is positively related to organizational justice.

Justice and OCB, job satisfaction, and CWB. Research interest on the examination of organizational justice stems from the notion that just or unjust in work-settings exhibit decisive influence on the functioning of organizations. Much research in the last three decades has inspected the effects different justice dimensions exhibit on important organizational outcome criteria. Regarding followers' view of work-settings, much interest has been on the examination of variables such as job satisfaction, OCB, or counterproductive behavior. Meta-analytical research revealed positive effects from justice on OCB and job satisfaction and negative relations with CWB (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

In line with those findings a positive relation concerning justice and OCB and job satisfaction is posited, whereas the relation is postulated to be negative regarding CWB.

Hypothesis 6: Justice is positively related to job satisfaction and OCB, and negatively to CWB.

Hypothesis 7a: Justice mediates the relationship between ethical role modeling and organizational outcome criteria.

Hypothesis 7b: Justice mediates the relationship between promoting ethical conduct and organizational outcome criteria.

Hypotheses 1 through 7 posit a structural model illustrated in Figure 3.

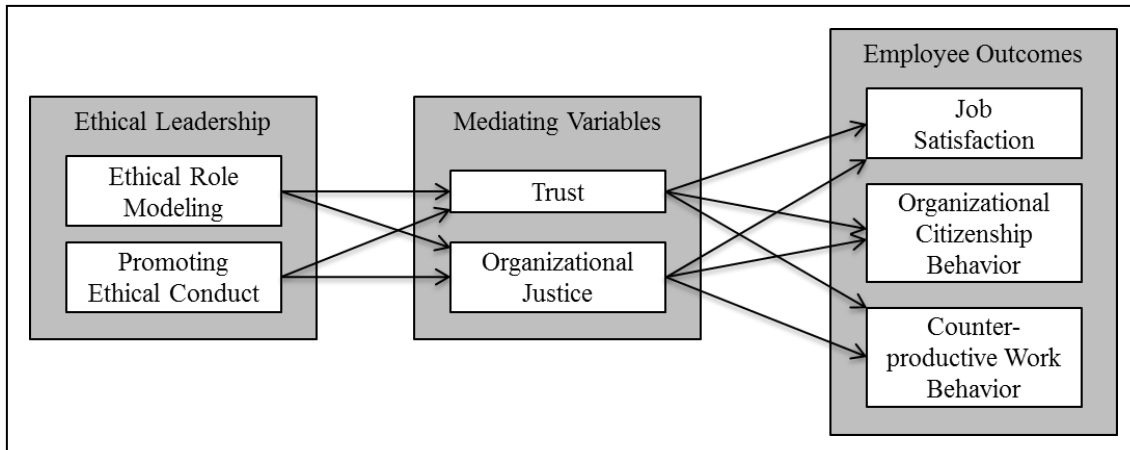


Figure 3. Research Model of *Study 1*

3.3 Study 1: Method

Sample and Procedure

For the present study, participants from different organizations were recruited using an Internet-based snowball survey. The invitation e-mail as well as the prologue to the survey obtained an introduction to the content of the study along with the assurance of anonymity of participation. Participants were asked to answer questions about personal aspects of work (e.g., job satisfaction and OCB), their perception of their most recent supervisor (ethical leadership, i.e. ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct), questions about perceived organizational characteristics (e.g., trust and organizational justice) of work settings, and questions regarding demographics.

The sample consisted of 470 participants. 54% of the respondents were male and the average age was 29.94 years ($SD = 8.74$). 60% worked on a full-time basis. The employees' tenure was 4.86 years ($SD = 5.86$) on average. Out of the respondents, 24% reported to lower-level management, 32% to middle, and 44% to upper-level management. The immediate supervisor worked in the respective organizations for 10.74 years ($SD = 7.78$), 67% were male. 66% of the sample came from private sector organizations while 34% from public sector organizations.

Measures

Ethical leadership. Ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct were measured using the 9-item ELS-D (Rowold et al., 2009), a German validated version of Brown et al.'s ELS (2005). A 5-point Likert-type scale was used ranging from 1,

“strongly disagree” to 5, “strongly agree”. Ethical role modeling contained four items, for example “Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics” or “Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner” with a Cronbach’s Alpha of .79. Five items built the scale of promoting ethical conduct including, e.g., “Listens to what employees have to say” or “Makes fair and balanced decisions”. The reliability was .91. While the original ELS is a one-dimensional scale as described earlier, Rowold et al. (2009) demonstrated that in case of the German adaption a two factor structure distinguishing between promoting ethical conduct and ethical role modeling rather than a one factor solution showed a better fit. Concerning the present study, a confirmatory factor analyses was performed comparing the aforementioned different measurement models. The differences in chi-square ($\Delta \chi^2 = 144.88$, $p < .01$) indicated that the two factor solution recommended by Rowold and colleagues had a better fit than the one factorial solution. Consequently, the following analyses will address both leadership facets of promoting ethical conduct and ethical role modeling, separately.

Trust. Trust was assessed using a German validated version of the Workplace Trust Survey (G-WTS, Lehmann-Willenbrock & Kauffeld, 2010). On a 6-point Likert-type scale (1, “strongly disagree” to 6, “strongly agree”), 27 items covered the fields of trust in leader, trust in organization, and trust in coworker with sample items “My supervisor listens to what I have to say”, “My colleagues appreciate my work” or “In my organization I voice my opinion knowing that subordinates opinions are appreciated”, respectively. Due to the high complexity of the proposed model, trust was operationalized as a unidimensional variable, as opposed to the original three-dimensional structure of the G-WTS. Nevertheless, the scale’s high reliability of .97 along with the high inter-correlations between the three subfacets of trust (ranging from .59 to .77) provides empirical support for that approach.

Justice. The construct of organizational justice was measured using Colquitt’s 20-item scale (2001) in a German validated adaption by Maier et al. (2007). The inventory assesses the dimensions of procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1, “strongly disagree” to 5, “strongly agree”). Sample items included “Have those procedures been applied consistently?” or “Has your supervisor been candid in his/her communications with you?”. As the case for trust, organizational justice was assessed as a one-dimensional construct as a result of

the model's high complexity. Again, a high internal consistency score of .92 along with high intercorrelations between the facets of justice (ranging from .48** to .69**) supported this procedure.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using Neuberger and Allerbeck's (1978) job satisfaction survey. The scale encompasses the dimensions of satisfaction with work in general, with supervisors, with colleagues, satisfaction with pay, and career opportunities. Sample items were "How satisfied are you with your colleagues?" or "How satisfied are you with your pay?" with a 5-point Likert-type answering scheme from 1, "completely unsatisfied" to 5, "completely satisfied". The internal consistency of the scale was .89.

Organizational citizenship behavior. OCB was measured using a 25-item scale developed by Staufienbuhl and Hartz (2000) for German work settings. The inventory grounds on the conceptualizations by Organ (1997). A 5-point Likert-type scale was used ranging from 1, "strongly disagree" to 5, "strongly agree". "I gladly help integrating new colleagues" and "I participate regularly and actively in meetings of the franchise system" were exemplary items comprised in the scale. The reliability was .89.

Counterproductive work behavior. For the assessment of CWB Bennet and Robinson's (2000) Measure of Workplace Deviance was used. Since the present study was conducted in Germany, the original scale was translated from English into German and subsequently back-translated into English (Pfennig, 2010) ensuring equivalency of meaning (Brislin, 1980). The 19-item scale measured the dimensions of interpersonal and organizational deviance with sample items such as "Acted rudely toward someone at work" or "Taken property from work without permission". As counterproductive behavior is a low-based phenomenon, respondents were asked how often they show each of the described behaviors (1, "never" to 7, "daily"). The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .83.

Data Analyses

Correlations between the latent variables as well as structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques were used to test the posited hypotheses. Concerning the latter, several fit indices were computed to examine the quality criteria of measurement and structural models. In addition to the χ^2 values, the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Com-

parative Fit Index (CFI) were calculated. For both indices a value close to .95 indicates good fit. Furthermore, the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) as well as the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) were taken into consideration. A value close to .06 in case of the RMSEA and a value below .08 concerning the SRMR are postulated as good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

3.4 Study 1: Results

Measurement Model

In the first step of SEM-analyses, the factorial validity of the measurement model was tested. Due to the high number of indicators for each of the studied variables, the items were pooled into two parcels per latent variable (Bandalos, 2002; Landis, Beal, & Tesluk, 2000). This resulted in a combined number of 14 measures for the proposed model. The measurement model showed good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 168.45$, $df = 56$; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .02; TLI = .97; CFI = .98).

Table 3 shows the means, standard deviations and correlations for the applied constructs.

Table 3. Study 1: Means, standard deviations, and correlations ($N = 470$)

Construct	M	SD	Intercorrelations						
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. ERM	3.24	0.92	(.79)	.86**	.69**	.72**	.64**	.39**	-.20**
2. PEC	3.60	0.98	.74**	(.91)	.79**	.82**	.68**	.41**	-.14*
3. Trust	4.25	1.02	.63**	.74**	(.97)	.85**	.79**	.54**	-.17**
4. Justice	3.24	0.68	.64**	.73**	.80**	(.92)	.80**	.53**	-.19**
5. JS	3.42	0.84	.55**	.61**	.73**	.73**	(.89)	.51**	-.28**
6. OCB	3.90	0.53	.31**	.35**	.53**	.46**	.47**	(.89)	-.08
7. CWB	1.65	0.60	-.18**	-.13**	-.16**	-.16**	-.25**	-.23**	(.83)

Note: ERM= ethical role modeling; PEC = promoting ethical conduct; JS = job satisfaction; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; CWB = counterproductive work behavior; zero-order correlations are depicted below the diagonal, correlation between the latent variables (obtained from the measurement model) above the diagonal; Cronbach's α are indicated in parentheses.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

Hypotheses Tests

The significant latent-variable-correlations between ethical role modeling and the organizational outcome criteria of job satisfaction ($r = .64, p < .01$), OCB ($r = .39, p < .01$), and CWB ($r = -.20, p < .05$) offered preliminary support for hypothesis 1a stating a positive relation between ethical role modeling and the mentioned dependent variables. Correspondingly, promoting ethical conduct and each of the three outcome criteria also correlated significantly (job satisfaction, $r = .69, p < .01$; OCB, $r = .41, p < .01$; CWB, $r = -.14, p < .01$) supporting hypothesis 1b.

The approach to test the hypotheses regarding the effects of ethical leadership on trust (Hypothesis 2) and justice (Hypothesis 5) and from the latter two to the organizational outcome criteria (Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 6) did not only comprise correlations between the latent variables but also standardized direct effects taken from the structural model (Table 5). To obtain those, the proposed model of full mediation (Figure 1) was modeled using SEM. The fit indices of the target model shown in Table 4 indicated good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 179.74, df = 62$; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .03; TLI = .97; CFI = .98).

Concerning hypothesis 2a which stated the positive relation between ethical role modeling and trust correlations showed significant relations in the intended direction (trust, $r = .69, p < .01$). But as the coefficients of the paths were not significant (trust, $\beta = .08, ns$) hypothesis 2a could only be partly confirmed. In case of promoting ethical conduct and trust, the correlations ($r = .79, p < .01$) as well as the coefficients of the paths from promoting ethical conduct to trust ($\beta = .72, p \leq .01$), thus, providing support for hypothesis 2b

In support of hypothesis 3, significant correlations were found between organizational trust and job satisfaction ($r = .79, p < .01$), OCB ($r = .54, p < .01$), and CWB ($r = -.17, p < .01$). The coefficients for the paths from trust to job satisfaction ($\beta = .41, p \leq .01$) and OCB ($\beta = .32, p \leq .01$) were positive and significant while the path to CWB ($\beta = -.04, ns$) was negative as expected but not significant. In conclusion, hypothesis 3a could be partly confirmed.

Hypothesis 5a and 5b posited positive relations between the ethical leadership facets and justice. Concerning ethical role modeling and justice (hypothesis 3a), signifi-

cant correlations showed the proposed relation ($r = .72, p < .01$). Nevertheless, the coefficients of the paths were not significant ($\beta = .09, ns$). Therefore, hypothesis 3a could be partly confirmed. Significant correlations between promoting ethical conduct and justice ($r = .82, p < .01$) along with the significant path coefficients ($\beta = .74, p \leq .01$) lead to the confirmation of hypothesis 3b.

The notion that justice relates positively to the outcome criteria of job satisfaction and OCB and negatively to CWB (hypothesis 6) was supported considering the correlations (job satisfaction, $r = .80, p < .01$; OCB, $r = .53, p < .01$; CWB, $r = -.19, p < .01$). Further, the paths from justice to job satisfaction ($\beta = .45, p \leq .01$) and OCB ($\beta = .25, p \leq .01$) were significant, whereas the path to CWB was not significant ($\beta = -.15, ns$) leading to the conclusion that hypothesis 6 could be partly confirmed.

The approach to test Hypotheses 4 and 7 which predicted the mediating role of trust and justice was twofold including both the comparison of different nested models as recommended by James et al. (2006) as well as the examination of indirect effects in the fully mediating model outlined by MacKinnon et al. (2002). In the first step, the proposed fully mediating model (Model 1 in Table 4) served as the target model and was put up against a number of nested models which subsequently added direct paths from ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct to the organizational outcome criteria (Table 4). In Model 2, direct paths from both leadership facets to job satisfaction were added to the structure of Model 1. Model 3 and 4 again had the same structure as Model 1 thus specifying one additional path to OCB and CWB, respectively. The last nested model, Model 5, added direct paths to each of the three outcome criteria. Due to the described structure, the target model was nested within Models 2 to 5. Table 4 shows that the differences in chi-squares were not significant comparing Models 2, 3, 4 and 5 with the target model. Therefore, parsimony (James et al., 2006) suggests that the fully mediating model fits these particular data best providing preliminary evidence to support both hypotheses.

Table 4. Study 1: Comparison of structural equation models ($N = 470$)

Model and Structure	χ^2	df	$\Delta \chi^2$	RMSEA	SRMR	TLI	CFI
<u>Target Model</u>							
1: ERM + PEC → Trust + Justice → JS + OCB +CWB	179.74	62		.06	.03	.97	.98
<u>Nested Models</u>							
2: ERM + PEC → Trust + Justice → JS + OCB + CWB and ERM + PEC → JS	178.54	60	1.2	.07	.03	.97	.98
3: ERM + PEC → Trust + Justice → JS + OCB + CWB and ERM + PEC → OCB	175.60	60	4.14	.06	.03	.97	.98
4: ERM + PEC → Trust + Justice → JS + OCB + CWB and ERM + PEC → CWB	175.03	60	4.71	.06	.03	.97	.98
5: ERM + PEC → Trust + Justice → JS + OCB + CWB and ERM + PEC → JS + OCB + CWB	168.45	56	11.29	.07	.02	.97	.98

Note: ERM= ethical role modeling; PEC = promoting ethical conduct; JS = job satisfaction; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; CWB = counterproductive work behavior.

Table 5. Study 1: Standardized direct and indirect effects ($N = 470$)

	Trust	Justice	Job satisfaction	OCB	CWB
ERM	.08 ^{a)}	.09 ^{a)}	.07 ^{b)}	.05 ^{b)}	-.02 ^{b)}
PEC	.72 ^{**a)}	.74 ^{** a)}	.63 ^{** b)}	.42 ^{** b)}	-.14 ^{** b)}
Trust			.41 ^{** a)}	.32 ^{** a)}	-.04 ^{a)}
Justice			.45 ^{** a)}	.25 ^{** a)}	-.15 ^{a)}

Note: ERM= ethical role modeling; PEC = promoting ethical conduct; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; CWB = counterproductive work behavior; a = standardized direct effects; b = standardized indirect effects.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

Whilst the previous analyses supported the notion of the fully mediating role of justice and trust, it did not specify results between the two leadership facets of ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct. To test the fit of trust and justice as mediators for ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct, separately, the indirect effects were examined (Table 5). A significant indirect effect supports the notion that the relationship between the independent variable and the outcome occurs through the mediating effect (MacKinnon et al., 2002). In the case of ethical role modeling, none of the indirect effects on the outcome criteria of job satisfaction ($\beta = .07$, *ns*), OCB ($\beta = .05$, *ns*) or CWB ($\beta = -.02$, *ns*) was statistically significant, thus leading to the rejection of hypotheses 4a and 7a. Concerning promoting ethical conduct, results showed significant indirect effects on job satisfaction ($\beta = .63$, $p \leq .01$), OCB ($\beta = .42$, $p \leq .01$), and CWB ($\beta = -.14$, $p \leq .01$). Consequently, hypotheses 4b and 7b stating the mediating role of trust and justice for promoting ethical conduct could be confirmed.

In a last step of analyses, the potential impact of common method biases on the presented results was controlled. As all data (independent, mediating, and dependent variables) stem from one common source and were obtained at only one point in time, the present sample faces the risk of methodological distortion. Following the recommendation by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003), the structure of the

fully mediating model was enlarged by another latent variable. That particular latent variable loaded on all applied indicators and thus could be labeled as a factor of common method variance. The fit indices of the enlarged model indicated a model fit similar to the target mode 1. But as none of the paths from the common method variance factor to the indicators was statistically significant, conclusion was drawn that a common method variance did not bias the prior results profoundly.

3.5 Study 1: Discussion

Prior research on ethical leadership mainly focused on potential consequences of supervisors' ethical leadership behavior. The present study tied in with those findings but excelled prior work by explicitly focusing on the investigation of potential psychological processes and mechanisms underlying ethical leadership. Therefore, the purpose of this study was twofold. Firstly, it was tested if the two facets of ethical leadership – ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct – were related to different criteria of organizational relevance. Secondly, a model was posited in which trust and organizational justice served as mediating variables for the relationship between ethical leadership facets and the three outcome criteria of job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior.

In general, the results showed thoroughly positive effects from ethical leadership behavior. Supervisors who inject ethical values in their leadership behavior and encourage and foster ethical sound behavior from their fellows are able to enhance subordinates' job perception. Enriched work related trust and perception of justice as well as heightened job satisfaction and OCB were positively related to ethical leadership. Additionally, a leader's urgency, sensitivity, and strive for ethical sound behaviors lead to less counterproductive behaviors at the hands of employees.

Furthermore, trust and organizational justice were confirmed as mediators for the relationship between ethical leadership, i.e. promoting ethical conduct, and the three outcome criteria of job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior. By actively fostering and encouraging ethical sound conduct, ethical leaders enrich trust and organizational justice. This sense of trust and justice then translates into higher job satisfaction, improved OCB, and less deviant behaviors. Sur-

prisingly, those posited effects could only be confirmed for one facet of ethical leadership. On the contrary, no such effects could be shown for ethical role modeling.

Implications for leadership theory

The results of the study have important implications on ethical leadership literature. First, the data supported the notion that ethical leadership provides benefit to the organization. As both leadership facets were positively associated to job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior and negatively to counterproductive work behavior, the present study confirmed prior empirical findings. As job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001) and organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) as well as counterproductive work behavior (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002) are all extensively discussed in terms of up- or degrading organizational effectiveness in organizational literature, the presented results strongly relate ethical leadership to overall organizational performance as posited by several authors (e.g., Peus, Kerschreiter, Traut-Mattausch, & Frey, 2010b).

Second, a point of criticism on existing ethical leadership research had been the excessive focus on investigating *what* ethical leadership behavior accomplishes while neglecting the psychological mechanisms and processes underlying both the execution as well as the perception of ethical leadership. Usually, the deviation of relations stemmed from theoretical driven argumentation with up to now limited empirical support. Therefore, the aim of this study was also to bring light into the figuratively speaking ‘black box’ of *how* ethical leadership works. Grounding on theoretical literature on leadership and ethics, trust and organizational justice were posited as mediating variables for the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational outcome criteria. With this approach, the gap between theoretically postulated relations and the empirical confirmation could be lessened. Leaders, who engage in promoting ethical conduct, positively affect employees through delivering trust and organizational justice. As no such effects could be found regarding ethical role modeling, those findings need further attention. Promoting ethical conduct focuses on interactional aspects of the relationship between supervisor and subordinate. Promoting ethical conduct comprises rather visible behavior such as showing care for employees (assistance, empowerment) and an aspiration for fair judgment in decision-making which makes it an explicit feature of ethical leadership. Correspondingly, employees who percept that leadership behavior experi-

ence an enriched job perception grounding on heightened justice and trust. On the contrary, ethical role modeling apparently is more implicit – not equally tied to the constructs of trust and justice. There may be different explanations for that. Focal components of that facet are for example leader's personnel morality (a leader's morality in personal life) or his anxiety to actively communicate about ethics. While a leader's personal claim for integrity and morality as well as his ambition to make ethics an integral part of his verbal management agenda do have an influence on employees' job perception (i.e. relations to job satisfaction, OCB, and CWB), those aspects apparently do not exhibit through delivering trust and justice. As a consequence, the conclusion can be drawn that the psychological processes ethical role modeling exhibit concern other theoretical constructs than the two posited ones. For instance, personnel authenticity of a leader (Henderson & Hoy, 1983) might be a more accurate effect of ethical role modeling than his trustworthiness or his fair judgment.

A third implication on ethical leadership literature concerns the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational or ethical culture. The predominant role of leader behavior on an organization's culture has been discussed intensively (e.g. Trevino, Butterfield, & McCabe, 1998). The results of the present study tied in with those findings. Trust and justice were measured using one-dimensional constructs. In case of trust for example, the measure did combine the three facets of trust in supervisor, colleagues, and in the organization as a whole. Accordingly, the two facets of ethical leadership did not only foster trust in supervisor but also trust in peers and the organization. In line with the theoretical fundamentals of social learning theory and social exchange theory, ethical leadership behavior leads to more ethical sound behavior by employees. Doing so, leaders are able to sustain the norms and values in an organization – i.e. altering the organizational culture.

Limitations and directions to future research

In this study, all data stemmed from only one source of respondents, i.e. employees. Therefore, the primary limitation of the study was the reliance on same-source data, giving rise to concern about common source bias in the results. While several authors questioned the severity of common method effects (Conway & Lance, 2010; Spector, 2006) this topic should not be left unaddressed. Following recommendations by Podsakoff et al. (2003) the structural model of the posited full mediation was enlarged

by an additional variable of common method variance. Results indicated no profound bias through the common method design. Closely tied to the prescribed bias is the question of causality in the presented study. As all data was collected from the same person at the same time, causality of the presented relations cannot be determined.

A point of deviation of this present study compared to similar studies addressing the topics of trust, organizational justice, and counterproductive work behavior was the dimensionality of all three variables. As they are typically conceptualized multidimensionally, the present approach diverged. Due to the high complexity of the proposed structural model, those variables were modeled as unidimensional measures. As this approach enables the consideration of all related facets, differentiated implications could not be drawn upon, thus limiting the impact of the study in terms of detail.

Some of the applied measures include wordings that are also noteworthy. For example, the applied measure of ethical leadership (ELS-D) contains several items addressing the term “ethics” directly (e.g. “ethical manner” or “business ethics”). As “ethics” is quite an ambiguous phrase, respondents have to individually develop their own idiosyncratic meaning. Likewise, scholars have argued before that the use of rather ambiguous items might increase random responding or central tendency (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, two items of the ELS-D are quite similar to the scales of trust and justice as they address a leader as “being trustworthy” and “making fair and balanced decisions”. Those wordings apparently correlate strongly with the measures of trust and justice. Therefore, the similarity of the measures has to be accounted for when investigating the decisive effects of ethical leadership on the mediating variables of trust and justice.

Based on the present study, several recommendations for future research on ethical leadership can be made. First of all, approaching the leadership construct more dimensionally seems appealing. The presented results revealed rather different and divergent effects of the distinguished facets of ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct. Thus, conclusion can be drawn that facilitating ethical leadership one-dimensionally, which is still the predominant norm in current research, comes with a loss of potential in terms of explaining variance. Secondly, this study combined ethical leadership with two of its most important and closest related variables: trust and organizational justice. Future research should build on this and investigate the relationships

with ethical leadership more detailed, thus taking into consideration the multidimensionality of trust and justice. Thirdly, the present study focused solely on subjective outcome criteria implying the need for future work integrating criteria of objective measure as there has been concern concerning other leadership constructs (Rowold & Laukamp, 2009).

4. Study 2: On the Relationship between Leader Personality Traits, Ethical Leadership, and Leadership Effectiveness: A Two-Face Study

4.1 Study 2: Introduction

In the past two decades, we have witnessed a growing interest in ethics related topics in both the mass media as well as the academic literature. Recent public reports about corporate greed, irresponsible managerial behavior, or social recklessness have fostered the understanding that economic activities may not only be evaluated in terms of sheer rational effectiveness but also in terms of their ethical and normative appropriateness. This development has also taken its toll on leadership literature. Today, we can refer to a broad landscape of research – both theoretically and increasingly empirically – examining the nature and impact of ethics in leadership theory. Arguably the most influential work stems from Brown, Trevino, and colleagues (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; Brown et al., 2005; Trevino et al., 2000). Their conceptualization of ethical leadership stating the normatively appropriate conduct of leaders and the promotion of that same behavior towards followers is the base almost every related piece of work grounds on. Accordingly, recent empirical research addressed questions of *who* engages in ethical leadership (individual antecedents, Mayer et al., 2012), *how* ethical leadership excels (mediating variables, Walumbwa et al., 2011), and, arguably most notably, the potential *beneficial impact* on organizational processes and outcomes (e.g., Mayer et al., 2009; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009). However, *integrative approaches* to ethical leadership combining those different perspectives are still rare (Mayer et al., 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

In this present work, I focus on developing an integrative model of ethical leadership covering questions of who displays ethical leadership and what does it accomplish. Researchers have been eager to understand why some executives display ethical leadership behaviors while others do not. One appealing line of arguments draws on inter-individual characteristics of leaders. Previous research indicates that personal dispositions do affect leadership behavior (Anderson, Spataro, & Flynn, 2008; Judge et al.,

2002). For example, a leader's level of moral development and locus of control have been suggested to be important antecedents of ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; Jordan, Brown, Trevino, & Finkelstein, 2013). However, my research interest lies upon leader personality (Digman, 1990). Personality traits – predominantly the Big Five – have been scrupulously discoursed in more ancient as well as recent leadership research (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge et al., 2002). In the field of ethical leadership, we find theoretical support for the suggestion that different leader traits - namely conscientiousness, agreeableness, and neuroticism - are correlated to ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). Thus, the remaining two traits of extraversion and openness to experience go along rather unnoticed. Citing empirical research, the relational affirmation is likewise preliminary. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) and Kalshoven, Den Hartog, and De Hoogh (2010) found relationships with the leader traits of conscientiousness and agreeableness but no such with neuroticism⁴. Kalshoven et al. (2010) recommended future research to investigate the effects of more specific personality traits referring to the discourse of broad versus narrow traits (Hough, 1992). Further, the rather “low but significant relations between the Big Five and ethical leadership” stated by Kalshoven et al. (2010, p. 360) subsuming both articles article might be due to the respective methodological approach. I argue that the predictive validity of personality traits on leadership behavior might be significantly increased by offering an on work frame of reference in the applied questionnaires. Besides leader personality as antecedents of ethical leadership, my research interest also lies in the examination of possible consequences. Prior research indicated correlations between executive ethical leadership and a range of favorable outcome criteria. Interestingly, those outcome criteria are predominantly limited to means of employees' attitudes. Although attitudinal criteria like job satisfaction and commitment are valued in contributing to organizational performance and effectiveness, objective measures subsequently aug-

⁴ In their two-study article, Kalshoven et al. (2010) reported no significant correlations between emotional stability (as the counterpart of neuroticism) and ethical leadership. However, in the second sample, after controlling for Leader Member Exchange (LMX), regression analysis indicated a significant influence from emotional stability on ethical leadership.

ment the comprehensiveness of this understanding (DeRue et al., 2011; Yukl, 2010). Therefore, research combining attitudinal and objective means of ethical leadership impact seems warranted and needed.

Baring these limitations in the existing body of research, the contribution of this present research lies in developing and testing an integrative model combining multiple perspectives on ethical leadership. More precisely, I focus on three aspects. First, I tied in with prior attempts to predict ethical leadership behavior at hands of supervisor's personality traits. Differentiating from existing findings, I model the personality trait of conscientiousness multi-dimensionally, thus, distinguishing between achievement and dependability. Besides the latter two and leader agreeableness, I also include the personality trait of extraversion in my model. Methodologically, I diverge from existing research as I comprise leader personality business focused offering an on-site frame of reference.

Second, the present research contributes to the much debated claim of enhanced organizational effectiveness through the exhibition of ethical leadership. This work extends the existing empirical landscape by combining subjective (i.e. job satisfaction) with objective measures (i.e. sales performance data), allowing for a more comprehensive delineation of leadership effectiveness.

Third and finally, I test whether ethical leadership mediates the relationship between personality traits and leadership effectiveness.

4.2 Study 2: Theoretical Background

Ethical Leadership

Considering leadership literature, there has long been a strive to incorporate ethical aspects of organizational behavior into more comprehensive understandings of leadership addressing not only questions of effectiveness but also those of morally appropriateness and responsibility. For example, leadership styles like transformational (Bass, 1985a; Bass & Bass, 2008) or authentic leadership (Chan, 2005; Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008) are both discussed in regard to broach the issue of ethical conduct of leaders. While in both cases ethic related issues are by design only part of a broader leadership concept, the last decade has brought up an alternative approach to

ethics and leadership. Instead of being just one of several aspects of leadership, concepts have been discussed addressing ethics at the heart of decisive leadership theories. With the emergence of this distinctive research agenda, the most common approach to leadership and ethics stems from Brown, Trevino, and colleagues (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; Brown et al., 2005; Trevino et al., 2000). They define ethical leadership 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). Following this definition, an ethical leader asserts himself through characteristics such as honesty, integrity, and trustworthiness. In extension to those personnel characteristics, for a leader to be perceived as ethical, certain visible behavioral features are required. By visible role modeling, transparent communication, and acknowledging employee behavior, i.e. rewarding ethical and disciplining unethical conduct, an ethical leader promotes ethics to the "leadership agenda" (Trevino et al., 2000, p. 133) of his.

By definition, ethical leadership grounds on social learning theory (Brown et al., 2005). Social learning theory suggests learning achievements through the emulation of credible and attractive role models (Bandura, 1977). In regard to the dyadic relationship between supervisor and employees, the former serves the notion of role model well for reason such as hierarchical status. Transferring social learning theory to ethical leadership, leaders' conduct characterized by altruism, trustworthiness, and integrity, is observed by the immediate subordinates who, in turn, emulate those patterns. Therefore, by exhibiting ethical leadership a leader fosters employees' ethical behavior accompanied.

For years, there has been academic interest in the examination of personal prerequisites predicting ethical leadership. Thus, several theoretical (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Brown & Trevino, 2006a) as well as empirical work (Jordan et al., 2013; Kalshoven et al., 2010; Mayer et al., 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) addressed the individual antecedents of ethical leadership. Leader morality has been identified as one important antecedent. For example, Jordan et al. (2013) investigated the relation between moral reasoning (Rest, 1986) and ethical leadership. They revealed that the higher an executive's level of moral reasoning is (i.e. more autonomous thinking, consideration of the greater good) the more likely his employees will perceive him as an ethical

leader. Mayer et al. (2012) focused on the moral identity of a leader. They showed that a leader's moral identity defined as a person's self-schema settled around a set of moral trait associations like benevolence and honesty (Aquino & Reed, 2002) is positively associated to ethical leadership. Besides morality, a second appealing predictor of ethical leadership is a leader's personality. As this will be one of the main focuses of this article, I will go into detail on this in the upcoming section.

Personality and Ethical Leadership

Traditionally, leadership literature in general has long been partial to relate leadership behavior to the personality of the leader. Multiple researchers have addressed the issue of linking (extraordinary) leadership behavior to personal attributes, i.e. personality traits (for a review: Judge et al., 2002). As personality traits are stable and non-changing personal dispositions, predicting leadership behavior at hands of those traits promises a significant contribution to the understanding of organizational effectiveness. The re-emergence of trait approaches to leadership in organizational literature (e.g., Judge et al., 2002; Zaccaro, 2007) is in large part due to the evolvement of one widely accepted conceptualization of personality, namely the Big Five (Digman, 1990): agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness. In this work, I argue relations with ethical leadership from the three traits of agreeableness, conscientiousness (split up into dependability and achievement), and extraversion.

Agreeableness. Agreeableness refers to the tendency of an individual to be generous, kind, appreciative, altruistic, and trusting (Digman, 1990). Leaders who rank high on agreeableness value social relations highly. Accordingly, they tend to be sensitive to the needs of their subordinates. Hence, appreciative, altruistic, and trusting conduct in relationship to subordinates is also an integral part of ethical leadership. By definition, behavioral attributes of ethical leadership are trustworthiness and a distinct care and concern for others (Trevino et al., 2000; Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003). Therefore, a relation with agreeableness seems inherent. Correspondingly, Brown and Trevino (2006a) postulate agreeableness to have the strongest influence of all personality traits on ethical leadership.

First empirical evidence for the posited relationship stems from Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) who found a moderate correlation of $r = .43$ ($p < .01$) between the

two variables. Additionally, Kalshoven et al. (2010) reported positive but weaker correlations from two independent samples ($r = .15, p < .05$; $r = .24, p < .05$). In line with the theoretical and empirical derivation, I expect a positive relation between leader agreeableness and ethical leadership.

Hypothesis 1: Agreeableness will be positively related to ethical leadership.

Conscientiousness - dependability and achievement. Conscientiousness reflects an individual's tendency to be responsible, organized, thorough, and striving for achievement (Digman, 1990). Considering this array of attributes comprised covering aspects of both accuracy and career orientation, respectively, it has been useful to distinguish between two facets of conscientiousness, namely dependability and achievement (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Digman, 1990; Kalshoven et al., 2010). Like agreeableness, the relation between conscientiousness and ethical leadership has been empirically investigated only twice. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) ($r = .39, p < .01$) as well as Kalshoven et al. (2010) ($r = .23, p < .01$; $r = .26, p < .01$) revealed significant correlations. In both studies, conscientiousness had been modeled one-dimensionally. Comparing those findings with the relations between the other personality traits and ethical leadership, one can state that conscientiousness had the most stable influence on ethical leadership. With regard to all three samples (Kalshoven and colleagues' study comprised two different samples), conscientiousness was the only trait with consistently significant relation to ethical leadership throughout (zero-order correlations varied between $r = .23$ to $.39, p < .05$). Baring these results, I argue that it is most appealing to look at the relation more detailed in a next step. Therefore, neglecting conscientiousness as a one-dimensional construct, I want to investigate whether dependability, achievement, or both exhibit effects on ethical leadership.

Dependability reflects the individual's task competence. Related personal dispositions are reliability, self-discipline, thoroughness, and dutifulness (Digman, 1990). A leader to be perceived as ethical is required to embrace those attributes. His strive for making fair decisions and holding people accountable for themselves (Trevino et al., 2000) symbolizes his strong dedication to personal dispositions such as reliability, thoroughness, and dutifulness. Furthermore, his concern for his employees and the society as a whole shows his long-term orientation which is again anchored in his high ranking

in dependability. Accordingly, I expect a positive relation between dependability and ethical leadership.

Hypothesis 2: Dependability will be positively related to ethical leadership.

Achievement relates to the career orientation of an individual. A person ranking high on achievement strives for professional success embracing attributes like endurance and discipline (Digman, 1990). By setting ambitious personal goals and steadily comparing own attainments to those goals, I see an inevitable relation to ethical leadership. Ethical leaders assert themselves not only by preaching ethical values and requesting employees' to act adequately but by acting as visible and credible role models (Brown et al., 2005). They don't just 'talk the ethical talk, they walk the walk' (Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003; van den Akker et al., 2009). By striving to do the right thing, acting justly and honestly regardless the context, and by being open to self-criticism (Trevino et al., 2000), ethical leaders set high goals to themselves and are determined in terms of the conversion of these objectives. In line with the previous derivation, I posit a positive relation between achievement and ethical leadership.

Hypothesis 3: Achievement will be positively related to ethical leadership.

Extraversion. Extraversion refers to the tendency to be active, talkative, and outgoing. Individuals who rank high on this personality dimension tend to be attention seeking and gregarious (Digman, 1990). Regarding previous literature on ethical leadership, the prediction of a relationship between the two is not self-evident. Citing Brown and Trevino (2006a) whose avenues and recommendations for future research still are starting points for most empirical research today, a relationship between extraversion and ethical leadership should not be expected. They state that extraversion is more closely related to leadership attributes such as charisma which is by definition not part of ethical leadership. Considering these assumptions, neither of the two prior empirical investigations of the relationship between leader ethical behavior and Big Five personality traits (Kalshoven et al., 2010; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) derived relationships for the two variables. Nevertheless, Kalshoven and colleagues did include extraversion as a control variable to their research. Results showed no significant correlation ($r = .02, ns$).

I argue that despite these theoretical as well as empirical disputes it is quite appealing to reconsider the relation between extraversion and ethical leadership. More

precisely, I understand extraversion as an important prerequisite for being perceived as an ethical leader. I constitute this argument citing the leadership's theoretical basement of social learning theory. Adopting the latter on ethical leadership, leaders who are perceived as ethical serve as credible role models for imitation (Brown et al., 2005). Here, I see an appealing knotting to extraversion. In his theoretical framework of social learning, Bandura (1977) identifies different important phases of the learning process. One of them is the visibility of the role model. Attributes such as clarity and complexity of the modeled behavior make it for observers more salient to emulate certain behavioral features. Trevino et al. (2000) address the topic of visibility akin. They argue that the ability to build a reputation for ethical leadership aside from personal dispositions such as integrity and altruism is also an integral aspect of being perceived as ethical. "We now understand that reputation and other's perception of you are key to executive ethical leadership. ... Values are the glue that can hold things together, and values must be conveyed from the top of the organization" (Trevino et al., 2000, p. 128). I argue, that it is quite more likely for leaders who rank high on extraversion - i.e. are outgoing and talkative - to achieve such a reputation as opposed to others who tend to be less active in social interaction. Therefore, I expect a positive relation between leader extraversion and the perception of ethical leadership.

Hypothesis 4: Extraversion will be positively related to ethical leadership.

Potential Pitfalls Concerning Personality in Leadership Research

Considering the theoretically tempting approach to link leadership behavior to individual personality traits, contemporary empirical justification for this relation is somewhat disappointing. While the two presented studies from Walumbwa et al. (2009) and Kalshoven et al. (2010) give first insights into the relationship with ethical leadership, the investigation of the link between other leadership styles (e.g., transformational and transactional leadership) and the Big Five is far more extensive. Summarizing the most important results, correlation patterns have been rather unstable and different meta-analytical investigations revealed correlations surprisingly weak (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge et al., 2002, p. 774). "Previous research notwithstanding, however, we have a relatively poor idea of not only which traits are relevant, but why" (Judge et al., 2002, p. 774). Researchers have conceded that those results might be due to methodological miss-conceptions in research design (Salgado, 1998).

One of those methodological pitfalls has been named the so-called frame-of-reference (FOR; Schmit et al., 1995). FOR suggests that the validity of personality measurement can be increased by shaping a more accurate and tangible scheme of reference for the respondents. As personality is expected to be non-contextual, usual questionnaires of personality are rather universally verbalized. However, researchers argue that the accuracy of those instruments could be improved by providing situational references and, thus, implementing an “at-work” reference the research participants can relate to. In line with this argumentation, Schmidt et al. (1995) and Bing, Whanger, Davison, and Van Hook (2004) appended situational references to each of the questionnaire’s items and showed that the validity of conscientiousness was increased by offering at-work FOR. Likewise, Hunthausen, Truxillo, Bauer, and Hammer (2003) confirmed the same notion regarding the Big Five facet of extraversion. Summarizing, a recent meta-analysis (Shaffer & Postlethwaite, 2012) revealed a superior validity of contextualized personality measures compared to non-contextualized ones. Therefore, I tied in with this FOR approach and applied work-related questionnaires for the assessment of the leader personality traits of agreeableness, dependability, achievement, and extraversion.

Approaches to Leadership Effectiveness

While personality traits are arguably the most notable and most discussed antecedents of leadership behavior, leadership effectiveness as a consequence has received even more academic attention. The prominence of leadership literature stems from the notion that specific aspects of leadership (behavioral styles, traits, or contingencies) exhibit direct influence on the performance of organizations and its members. Hence, citing organizational literature, there are multiple approaches of assessing leadership effectiveness.

In general, those different approaches can be divided into two broad categories: a) subjective and b) objective measures. Both are viewed as substantial in comprehensively assessing leadership effectiveness with each incorporating certain strengths and limitations (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2009; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008; Yukl, 2010). Subjective measures refer to individuals’ attitudes towards aspects of the work serving as distal or proximal indicators of effectiveness. Common examples are job satisfaction, affective commitment, and extra-role behaviors (e.g., organizational citizen-

ship behavior) (Yukl, 2010). Due to their accessibility and their meta-analytical approved relation to actual performance (with regard to job satisfaction e.g., Riketta, 2008), subjective measures are the most common used indicators of leadership effectiveness in organizational literature. Nevertheless, in their nature lies their weakness. As they depend on the rater's attitudes and moods subjective indicators are suspected in terms of their accuracy (Hogan et al., 1994). Objective measures, on the contrary, avoid such an attitudinal bias. They refer to the 'hard' outcomes of the organizational processes such as sales numbers, market share, or return on investments (Yukl, 2010). Notwithstanding, those objective measures incorporate drawbacks as well. At first, objective measures are scarce. With the exception of sales departments, objective measures indicating individual or group performance are seldom identifiable. Second, the causal relation between objective measures and the expected independent variable might be contaminated (Judge & Long, 2012). For example regarding the interlink between leadership behavior in sales forces teams and sales performance, the influence of contingencies (conjuncture, economic crisis, technological innovation) or third variables (branch competition, team cohesion) can be hardly controlled for.

Keeping in mind those attributes of subjective and objective indicators, research addressing leadership effectiveness, at best, should take both categories into consideration (DeRue et al., 2011; Yukl, 2010). In accordance, this present work incorporates employee job satisfaction as a subjective indicator of leadership effectiveness and sales performance data as an objective one.

Ethical Leadership and Leadership Effectiveness

In literature on business ethics, the discourse on the relation between ethical engagement and organizational (i.e. financial) benefit – whether they are contradicting poles or go hand in hand - has a long tradition (e.g., Friedman, 1970; Sharp Paine, 2000). Narrowing the focus on leadership ethics, several researches forwarded the notion that engaging in ethical leadership fosters organizational performance accompanied (Bass & Bass, 2008; Peus et al., 2010b; Trevino & Nelson, 2004). Tying in with those presumptions, in the following section, I center on job satisfaction and sales performance as indicators of ethical leadership effectiveness.

Job satisfaction is defined as the positive (or negative) reaction to and evaluation of one's job with regard to cognition and affection (Brief & Weiss, 2002). It is arguably the most commonly applied criteria of subjective effectiveness (e.g., for team performance or leadership effectiveness; Riketta, 2008). Referring to meta-analytical findings, job satisfaction is a valid predictor of job performance (Judge et al., 2001; Riketta, 2008). Individuals satisfied with their job are more motivated which again leads to enriched accuracy and preciseness of work (Judge et al., 2001). Accordingly, job satisfaction serves as a facilitator and energizer of productive behavior. In nature, if an employee is satisfied with his job depends largely on the role of his immediate supervisor. As the latter is the one making decisions, ordering tasks, showing concern for individual needs, and acknowledging effort (both rewarding and punishing), his leadership behavior is essential to whether an employee is job satisfied or not. Citing ethical leadership theory, ethical leaders are keen in addressing their responsibilities with respect to their employees thoughtfully. Ethical leaders show high concern for the individual needs of their followers. They are considerate, trustworthy, and strive for fairness and impartiality. Further, by granting latitude and offering accurate feedback they foster the individual development of employees (Brown et al., 2005; Trevino et al., 2000). Summarizing, an employee who perceives his supervisor to be ethical is more likely to be job satisfied than someone whose leader is viewed as less ethical. Therefore, I expect a positive relation between executive ethical leadership behavior and employees' job satisfaction. In accordance, several studies delivered first empirical support for this position (Brown et al., 2005; Rowold & Borgmann, 2009; Rowold et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Considering past empirical research on ethical leadership, primary academic interest has lied on investigating the impact on measures of organizational performance and efficacy. However, a large part of this work focused on different forms of relevant employee *attitudes*; e.g., towards the leader (trust: Brown et al., 2005; Dadhich & Bhal, 2008; LMX: Bhal & Dadhich, 2011; Dadhich & Bhal, 2008; Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2011), the organization (OCB: Avey, Palanski, & Walumbwa, 2011; Brown et al., 2005; Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011; Mayer et al., 2009; culture: Shin, 2012; Toor & Ofori, 2009; CWB: Avey et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 2009; commitment: Neubert et al., 2009), or work in general (job satisfaction: Brown et al., 2005; Dadhich & Bhal, 2008; Neubert et al., 2009). Unfortunately, considering ob-

jective measures of leadership effectiveness, empirical device is up to now thoroughly limited. To my knowledge, only one study within the research field of ethical leadership unsuccessfully tried to link the leadership behavior to an objective indicator of organizational performance (Detert et al., 2007). Considering this lack of empirical support, I see an inevitable need to examine ethical leadership's impact on objective indicators of leadership effectiveness more extensively. In this present research, I applied sales performance data of sales department teams as such an objective criterion. Sales departments have repeatedly been the focus of leadership research due to the task's conditions and the proximal distance to quantifiable outcomes. As sales departments are often characterized by performance based pay and financial incentive schemes, sales people might be argued to be rather egocentric and short termed orientated (Stewart, 2003; Strout, 2002). Linking this field of work to the topic of ethical leadership, with the latter emphasizing the consideration of the long term consequences, responsibility, and overall appropriateness of individual conduct, seems intriguing.

Why should executive ethical leadership foster employees' sales performance? A first argument targets supervisory feedback. Ethical leaders pay great attention to a transparent and contingent exchange with their employees. They explicitly communicate which sort of behavior is desired and which is not and hold employees accountable to those expectations (Trevino et al., 2000). By valuing and rewarding ethical conduct and by punishing corresponding flaws, ethical leaders give transparent feedback on normative appropriate conduct which relates to somewhat *transactional* aspects of leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a). Referring to sales management literature, transparent and contingent feedback is essential in terms of sales forces' performance. The linkage has been repeatedly addressed (e.g., Becherer, Morgan, & Richard, 1982; Jaworski & Kohli, 1991; Kohli, 1985), following the notion that feedback fosters behavioral certainty and successively enhances the efficacy of sales conduct. Therefore, I posit ethical leader's feedback as a first potential explanation for the positive relationship between ethical leadership and sales performance. A second line of argument draws on the perception of the leader as a role model for imitation. Leaders perceived as ethical change the culture of their organizational unit by altering the behavior of their followers (Brown & Trevino, 2006a). If a supervisor asserts himself through honesty, fairness, a sense of responsibility, and altruistic thinking – all central components of ethical leader-

ship - he becomes, by definition, a credible, high-status role model in the work environment. Subordinates internalize and imitate those behavioral features which, in turn, fosters the overall work unit's ethical culture (Shin, 2012). If subordinates internalize ethical virtues, they act upon them in sales interactions. Rather than focusing on short termed and egoistic goals, i.e. the completion of a sale or sales volume (e.g., by applying pressure, embellishing product features, lying about product availability), they are eager to find the best solution for their customers. While Trevino, Brown, and colleagues (Trevino et al., 2000, Trevino et al., 2003) highlighted the importance of a supervisor's reputation for ethical leadership, research evidence on sales management likewise suggests the favorability and benefit of sales persons' reputation for ethical behavior (Weeks, Loe, Chonko, & Wakefield, 2004). Ethical behavior of sales forces increases customer satisfaction, trust, and loyalty (Román, 2003; Román & Ruiz, 2005). Returning to the role of the leader, Rich (1997) fittingly referred to "social cognitive theory [which] suggests that sales people will more quickly learn and more accurately engage in effective work behavior (e.g., proper selling techniques) when the sales manager provides a model of that behavior" (p. 322). In line with this argument, it's the adoption of the supervisor's ethical behavior, that makes sales forces credible and, in turn, successful. Therefore I posit a positive relation between ethical leadership and sales performance.

Hypothesis 5: Ethical leadership will be positively related to leadership effectiveness.

Leader Personality and Leadership Effectiveness: The Mediating Role of Ethical Leadership

Research on personality has been eager to examine the impact of leader traits on measures of leadership and organizational effectiveness (Lord, Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Zaccaro, 2007). However, while there is scattered support for this suggestion, previous empirical evidence is by and large rather inconsistent (Judge et al., 2002). One possible explanation for these findings refers to the distance between leader traits and employee perception (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011). Personality traits refer to rather latent, individual dispositions, consistent across-situations, which are difficult to be monitored purely. Nevertheless, personality traits become salient to the beholder through their manifestation into visible behavior. For example, as stated in hy-

pothesis 5, employees feel satisfied about their job in large part due to the received supervisor individual consideration. Again, as this distinct care for others originates from a leader's high ranking on agreeableness (see hypothesis 1), leader personality traits and employee outcomes are related, thus merely indirectly. Similarly, leaders who rank high on extraversion are more capable of shaping a reputation for ethical leadership. It is the establishment of this visible role model behavior which, in turn, enhances employees' sales performance (see hypothesis 5). In sum, leader traits are predictors of leadership effectiveness, but rather distal and indirect, respectively. They are the grounding dispositions of leadership behavior, which as a proximal predictor directly fosters leadership effectiveness (Hoffman et al., 2011). This mediator conception of leader personality traits, ethical leadership, and leadership effectiveness has been addressed in organizational literature before. Several researchers posit theoretical models linking personality to different outcome criteria through the indirect effects of ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006a; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Though, only Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) tested their model empirically showing that leader agreeableness and conscientiousness were indirectly related to psychological safety, their criteria of organizational effectiveness. Accordingly, in this present research, it is also our goal to examine this posited model of mediation empirically.

Hypothesis 6: Leader personality traits of a) agreeableness, b) dependability, c) achievement, and d) extraversion are indirectly related to leadership effectiveness through the mediating influence of ethical leadership.

Summarizing hypotheses 1 to 6, Figure 4 illustrates the posited relationships between leader personality traits, ethical leadership, and leadership effectiveness.

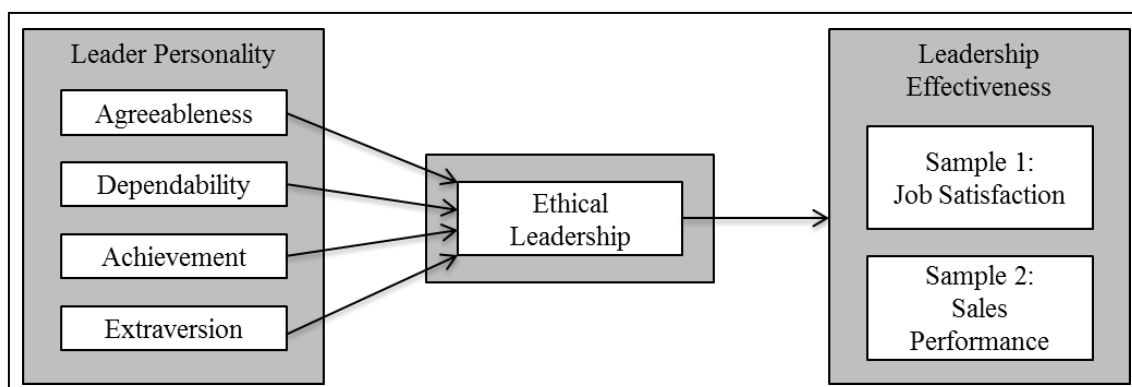


Figure 4. Research Model of *Study 2*

4.3 Study 2: Method

Method Sample 1

For the present research, data was obtained through a survey carried out in an industrial company in Germany as part of a leadership training program. All of the about 2500 employees - 230 of them in executive positions - were invited to participate voluntarily and anonymously. The survey was carried out online with employees' being asked to complete questionnaires assessing their immediate supervisor's personality, leadership behavior, and their own satisfaction with work as a subjective indicator of leadership effectiveness. To ensure that the follower ratings could be matched to the respective supervisor, participants were also asked to enter the name of their immediate supervisor. Out of the 2500 employees, about half took part in the survey, resulting in a sample of 1263 ratings corresponding to 207 supervisors. As the forthcoming analyses require at least two completed questionnaires per supervisor all data with only one rating per supervisor was deleted. Combined with missing data, a total of 259 follower ratings had to be deducted reducing the final sample size to $N = 1004$ to $N = 173$ supervisors suitable for analyses.

Out of the sample for *Sample 1*, 78.35% of the employee respondents were male with an average age of 38.28 years ($SD = 10.63$). Most of them worked on a full-time basis (93.31%). Employees had an average organizational tenure of 9.11 years ($SD = 7.55$). The immediate supervisors were predominantly male (86.29%) with a mean age of 42.60 years ($SD = 8.81$), and worked in the company for 12.49 years ($SD = 7.71$). Average team size was 17.21 subordinates ($SD = 15.53$).

Measures

Personality. For the assessment of leader personality I applied the Business Focused Inventory of Personality (BIP-6F; Hossiep & Krüger, 2012). This questionnaire consists of six different personality factors - each of them containing 8 items - covering aspects of work such as motivation, work style, or constitution. For the purpose of the current research only part of them were used: (1) Agreeableness corresponds to the dominance factor of the BIP-6F (correlation corrected for unreliability $r_c = -.78$; Hossiep & Krüger, 2012). As dominance assesses a person's willingness to conflicts

and the ability to assert oneself against opposition along with a low desire for harmony, this factor serves as the mere counterpart of agreeableness. To ensure the appropriateness of using the Big Five term, I inverted the dominance scale for the forthcoming analyses. A sample item of the dominance scale is “Others know him as a straight talker”. (2) Dependability was measured using the discipline scale of the BIP-6F which captures the accuracy and strive for discipline of a person. “He/She works much more accurately than most other people” is one of the related items. (3) Achievement is in accordance with the engagement factor of the BIP-6F. Engagement encompasses a person’s commitment to professional goals, e.g., career and competition orientation or performance expectations. “He/She thrives on problems that are difficult to solve.” is one of the scale’s items. (4) Extraversion of the Big Five was assessed with the BIP-6F factor social competence (correlation corrected for unreliability $r_c = .82$; Hossiep & Krüger, 2012) which considers the person’s social activity such as his or her empathy, socializing ability, and enthusiasm. An example of an item is “He/She is better at going along with people than most.” Each of the four personality scales consists of 8 items with a six point Likert-type scheme ranging from 1, “completely untrue”, to 6, “completely true”.

Ethical leadership. I measured ethical leadership using Brown et al. (2005) Ethical Leadership Scale in the German validated adaption by Rowold et al. (2009). The scale encompasses sample items such as “Listens to what employees have to say”, “Makes fair and balanced decisions” or “Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics”. In consultation with the cooperating company, one item was excluded (“Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner”) from the questionnaire reducing the scale to eight items. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used ranging from 1, “strongly disagree” to 5, “strongly agree”.

Leadership effectiveness. I applied job satisfaction as a subjective measure of leadership effectiveness and assessed it with Neuberger and Allerbeck’s (1978) job satisfaction survey. The scale consists of eight items and encompasses the dimensions of satisfaction with supervisors, colleagues, pay, career opportunities, and satisfaction with work in general. Sample items are “How satisfied are you with your colleagues?” or “How satisfied are you with your pay?” with a 5-point Likert-type answering scheme from 1, “completely unsatisfied” to 5, “completely satisfied”.

Data analyses

Subordinates assessed their supervisor's personality and leadership behavior as well as their own satisfaction with work. The effect accompanying such a research setting is the potential bias of common source variance which has been the center of much debate as of late (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2003). To avoid such a pitfall, I applied a split sample or split group technique suggested by Rousseau (1985) and Ostroff, Kinicki, and Clark (2002), respectively. In a first step, all employees belonging to one supervisor were split up in two groups of approximately equal size. In the smallest possible case of two employee ratings of one supervisor, this resulted in one rating each group. Out of the first group, only the assessment of leader personality and job satisfaction was kept. On the contrary, the second group consisted of leadership ratings, only. As a consequence, the analyses of the effects of personality traits on ethical leadership, firstly, and the effects of ethical leadership on job satisfaction, secondly, shirks any bias resulting from same source data. This split sample technique is a common approach in leadership research (e.g., Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003).

In a second step, the two split assessments were combined. As the study focuses mainly on leadership behavior, the level of analyses was the echelon of the supervisor with corresponding employees being aggregated to work units. Therefore, all data was aggregated to team level. To ensure the homogeneity of the aggregated data, several indices concerning interrater agreement and interrater reliability were calculated, including r_{wg} , AD, ICC(1), and ICC(2) (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

The hypotheses were tested using partial least-squares (PLS, Chin, 1998), a non-parametric path modeling technique based on components as opposed to covariances. Compared to traditional structural equation modeling techniques, PLS bares the advantage that not-normal distributed data as well as small data sets can be analyzed (Wold, 1985). As each of the studied variables had a high number of indicators, I pooled the items into two parcels per latent variable ensuing a more favorable indicator-to-sample-size ratio (Bandalos, 2002; Landis et al., 2000).

Hypotheses 1 through 5 which posited effects from personality traits on ethical leadership and from the latter on job satisfaction were tested using the path coefficients obtained through the structural model with a bootstrapping procedure detecting their

statistical significance. To test hypothesis 6, positing the mediating role of ethical leadership, I examined the indirect effects as recommended by MacKinnon et al. (2002). To check for their significance, I applied the bootstrap approach forwarded by Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) on the latent variable scores obtained from the measurement model.

Method Sample 2

The data for *Sample 2* emerged from the same company wide survey as did the first one and comprised sales teams only. Again, employees were contacted and asked to complete online questionnaires assessing their immediate supervisor's personality and ethical leadership behavior. To match employee to the respective leader, participants were asked to enter his or her supervisor's name. As a measure for objective leadership effectiveness, I obtained several objective performance measures provided by the company four months after the initial survey. A total of $N = 107$ employee ratings to $N = 24$ supervisors could be matched with the corresponding sales performance data.

In the second sample, 82.56% of the respondents were male and the average age was 35.28 years ($SD = 10.65$). 93.94% worked on a full-time basis. The employees' mean tenure was 4.55 years ($SD = 4.49$). The immediate supervisor had an average age of 37.22 years ($SD = 7.51$) and worked in the respective organizations for 8.22 years ($SD = 5.20$), 85.19% were male. On average, employee's tenure with his or her immediate supervisor was 2.6 years ($SD = 1.56$), team size was 10.00 ($SD = 7.92$) on average.

Measures

Personality. As in *Sample 1*, personality factors of agreeableness, dependability, achievement, and extraversion were measured using four scales from the BIP-6F (Hossiep & Krüger, 2012).

Ethical leadership. Ethical leadership was assessed the same way as in *Sample 1* using the German adaption of the Ethical Leadership Scale by Rowold et al. (2009).

Leadership effectiveness. I assessed objective leadership effectiveness at hands of different sales performance measures provided by the cooperating company. For every month, each sales team receives individual sales requirements, divided into several categories. For my purposes, I included three of them related to the fourth month after the survey: (1) Percentage of required gross sales achieved, (2) percentage of required

profit achieved, and (3) percentage of required gross sales with margin achieved (as some sales of e.g., residual products are assumed to be at an expense).

Data analyses

My approach to the second sample was similar to the first one. Concerning personality traits and ethical leadership, I conducted a sample split to avoid common source bias (Rousseau, 1985; Ostroff et al., 2002) in a first step. Second, I aggregated all employee ratings to group, i.e. supervisor level (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Next, I build two parcels per scale for the personality factors and ethical leadership (Bandalos, 2002; Landis et al., 2000). As I used three measures of objective team performance, I modeled them as reflective indicators of the latent variable sales performance following the notion that good sales performance yields into fulfilling or overachieving default sales requirements. Furthermore, those measures were highly intercorrelated ($r = .75 - .93$) serving as additional support to combine them.

The hypotheses were tested using the path modeling technique PLS (Chin, 1998). Standardized path coefficients were used to test hypotheses 1 to 5, positing direct effects on ethical leadership and leadership effectiveness. The mediating effect of ethical leadership was tested through the indirect effects (MacKinnon et al., 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

4.4 Study 2: Results

Descriptives, measures, and aggregation

Table 6 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations for all studied variables in *Samples 1* and *2*.

Table 6. Study 2: Means, standard deviations, and correlations in *Sample 1* ($N = 173$) and *Sample 2* ($N = 24$)

Construct	Sample 1			Sample 2			Intercorrelations								
	M	SD	α	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	7	8	9	
1. Agreeableness	3.01	1.17	.89	3.12	1.05	.87		.19**	.15	.45*	.37**	.15**	.04**	.05**	
2. Dependability	3.98	0.85	.77	4.08	0.82	.78	.25**		.67**	.45**	.34**	.53**	.51*	.57**	
3. Achievement	4.12	0.80	.74	4.45	0.77	.76	.02	.61**		.81**	.53**	.41*	.42*	.49**	
4. Extraversion	4.13	1.30	.95	4.44	1.20	.95	.54**	.43**	.54**		.70**	.44*	.24**	.35**	
5. Ethical Leadership	3.39	1.05	.94	3.49	0.99	.93	.19*	.16*	.14	.21**		.52**	.43*	.49*	
6. Job Satisfaction	3.60	0.69	.84				.05	.16*	.19*	.29**	.36**				
7. Default sales achieved in %				0.96	0.39								.75**	.83**	
8. Default profit achieved in %				0.68	0.60									.93**	
9. Default sales with margin in %				0.61	0.32										

Note. Correlations for Sample 1 are depicted below the diagonal, correlation for Sample 2 above.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

PLS does not calculate fit indices of models, nevertheless, several other criteria are reported to assess the reliability of a measurement model containing of latent variables with at least two indicators a piece (Table 7). Two important criteria are the factor loadings of each indicator and the composite scale reliabilities, respectively (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). Factor loadings examine if a substantial part of each indicator's variance is explained through the latent variable. For all indicators applied in *Sample 1* the factor loadings ranged from .89 to .98, in case of *Sample 2* between .87 and .99. A construct's composite scale reliability, meanwhile, addresses its internal consistency similar to Cronbach's alpha. The composite scale reliabilities were between .93 and .98 and between .90 and .99 for *Sample 1* and *Sample 2*, respectively. A third and final quality criteria of the measurement model was the average variance extracted (AVE) by the latent variables indicators (Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). AVE's ranged from .86 to .96 in *Sample 1* and between .82 and .98 in *Sample 2*. In sum, all examined criteria indicated a good fit to the data, thus, supporting the reliability of the measurement model for both samples.

Before the hypotheses were tested for each sample separately, I aggregated all data to team, i.e. leader level. To justify this approach, I examined both within-group agreement and intra-class correlations. First, the r_{wg} 's were calculated assessing the proportional reduction in error variance (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993). In *Sample 1*, the values for r_{wg} for the variables were between .68 and .85, in *Sample 2* between .70 and .90. Second, I examined the average deviation index (AD, Burke, Finkelstein, & Dusig, 1999) which measures agreement in the metric of the scale's original answering scheme. AD's for the different scales ranged between .29 and .49 and between .26 and .49 for *Sample 1* and 2, respectively. Concerning interrater reliability, ICC(1) was calculated. For teams with three subordinates or more in *Sample 1*, ICC(1) values were significant for all scales ($F = 3.53 - 4.67$, all $p < .01$) varying from .46 to .55 ($M = .50$). In *Sample 2*, for teams with two or more subordinates ICC(1)'s ranged from .53 to .61 ($M = .59$). Finally, the reliability of group means was examined using ICC (2). For *Sample 1*, values of ICC(2) varied between .72 and .77 ($M = .75$); for *Sample 2*, between .73 and .77 ($M = .76$). In conclusion, the analysis of interrater agreement and reliability indicates that a substantial part of the differences in follower ratings is due to team membership. Therefore, the aggregation of the data to group level is justified.

Table 7. Study 2: Measurement statistics of constructs in *Sample 1* ($N = 173$) and *Sample 2* ($N = 24$)

Construct	Measure	Factor Loading		Composite Scale Reliability		Average Variance Extracted	
		Study 1	Study 2	Study 1	Study 2	Study 1	Study 2
Agreeableness	AG 1	.96	.97	.96	.97	.93	.95
	AG 2	.97	.98				
Dependability	DE 1	.97	.97	.94	.95	.89	.91
	DE 2	.92	.94				
Achievement	AC 1	.94	.87	.93	.90	.87	.82
	AC 2	.92	.94				
Extraversion	EX 1	.98	.99	.98	.99	.96	.98
	EX 2	.98	.99				
Ethical Leadership	EL 1	.97	.94	.97	.95	.94	.91
	EL 2	.97	.97				
Job Satisfaction	JS 1	.97		.93		.86	
	JS 2	.97					
Sales Performance	DS%		.92		.90		.82
	DP%		.94				
	DSwM%		.97				

Note. AG = parcel for agreeableness; DE = parcel for dependability; AC = parcel for achievement; EX = parcel for extraversion; EL = parcel for ethical leadership; JS = parcel for job satisfaction; DS%= percentage of achieved default sales; DP% = percentage of achieved default profit; DSwM% = percentage of achieved default sales with margin.

Hypothesis tests

Sample 1. Hypothesis 1 to 4 posited positive relations between the four different personality traits and ethical leadership. To test those hypotheses, I examined the direct effects obtained from the path model (Table 8). The expected positive relation between leader agreeableness and ethical leadership stated in hypothesis 1 was supported with regard to the path coefficient ($\beta = .45, t = 6.12, p \leq .01$). In hypothesis 2, I posited leader dependability to be positively associated with ethical leadership. As the path was negative and not significant ($\beta = -.11, t = 1.46, ns$), this hypothesis could not be supported. Concerning leader achievement I assumed a positive relation (hypothesis 3) which was supported regarding the path coefficient ($\beta = .18, t = 2.28, p \leq .01$). Likewise, as the coefficient of the path from extraversion to ethical leadership was positive and significant ($\beta = .33, t = 4.10, p \leq .01$), hypothesis 4 was confirmed in *Sample 1*.

In hypothesis 5, I assumed a positive relation between ethical leadership behavior and leadership effectiveness. In *Sample 1*, I operationalized the latter through the subjective criterion of job satisfaction. Again, I examined the path coefficient to test the hypothesis. As the path from ethical leadership to job satisfaction was positive and significant ($\beta = .41, t = 7.23, p \leq .01$), the hypothesis could be supported concerning the first sample.

Hypotheses 6a to d posited ethical leadership as the mediator for the relationship between the four personality traits and leadership effectiveness. To test those hypotheses, I investigated the indirect effects from the personality traits on employee job satisfaction through ethical leadership. The indirect effects from agreeableness, dependability, and achievement on job satisfaction were all statistically significant and in the intended direction (agreeableness, $b = .14, p < .05$; dependability, $b = .07, p < .05$; achievement, $b = .07, p < .05$), resulting in the confirmation of those three hypotheses 6a to c. Concerning the fourth trait extraversion, the indirect effect on job satisfaction was non-significant ($\beta = .03, ns$), thus leading to the rejection of hypothesis 6d.

Table 8. Study 2: Standardized direct and indirect effects in *Sample 1* ($N = 173$) and *Sample 2* ($N = 24$)

	Direct Effects				Indirect Effects [confidence interval]	
	Ethical Leadership		Leadership Effectiveness ^a		Leadership Effectiveness ^a	
	Study 1	Study 2	Study 1	Study 2	Study 1	Study 2
Agreeableness	.45**	.02			.14* [.07, .21]	.03 [-.04, .17]
Dependability	-.11	.12			.07* [.03, .12]	.06 [-.01, .13]
Achievement	.18**	-.19			.07* [.03, .13]	.11* [.02, .23]
Extraversion	.33**	.81**			.03 [-.02, .10]	.13* [.02, .29]
Ethical Leadership			.41**	.52**		

Note.^a In *Sample 1*, leadership effectiveness was operationalized using the subjective indicator of job satisfaction; in *Sample 2*, the objective measure of sales performance was applied.

Sample 2. I used the same approach to test the posited hypotheses as in *Sample 1* and therefore investigated the direct effects for hypotheses 1 to 5 and the indirect effects for hypothesis 6.

Hypotheses 1 to 3 each claimed positive effects from leader agreeableness, dependability, and achievement, respectively, on ethical leadership. As none of the path coefficients was significant (agreeableness, $b = .02$, $t = 0.07$, *ns*; dependability, $b = .12$, $t = 0.57$, *ns*; achievement, $b = -.19$, $t = 0.53$, *ns*), all three hypotheses were dismissed. In line with hypothesis 4, results from *Sample 2* showed positive effects from leader extra-

version on ethical leadership. As the direct effect was significant ($\beta = .81, t = 2.36, p \leq .01$), I found support for the fourth hypothesis.

In *Sample 2*, the variable sales performance was applied as an objective indicator of leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the predicted relation between ethical leadership and leadership effectiveness, as stated in hypothesis 5, was tested examining the path from ethical leadership to sales performance. The claimed relationship could be confirmed citing the positive and significant path coefficient ($\beta = .52, t = 6.58, p \leq .01$).

No significant indirect effects were found concerning the personality traits agreeableness and dependability (agreeableness, $b = .03, ns$; dependability, $b = .06, ns$), thus leading to the rejection of hypotheses 6a and b in *Sample 2*. On the contrary and in line with hypothesis 6c, results revealed a positive indirect effect between achievement and sales performance ($b = .11, p < .05$). Finally, the indirect effect from leader extraversion on sales performance was positive and significant ($b = .13, p < .05$), supporting hypothesis 6d.

4.5 Study 2: Discussion

Ethical leadership is gaining an increased level of attention in organizational leadership literature. My present research tied in with previous empirical work, fostering our understanding of effects on and effects of executive ethical leadership. For the first time, I tested an integrative model of antecedences and consequences of ethical leadership combining subjective and objective data. More precisely, the contribution of this work was threefold. First, I examined the four leader personality traits of agreeableness, dependability, achievement, and extraversion as potential antecedents of ethical leadership. Second, I tested whether ethical leadership fosters organizational effectiveness, both subjectively and objectively measured. Third and finally, I postulated ethical leadership as the link between leader personality and leader effectiveness. I tested my hypotheses in two samples with both stemming from the same organization. While the first one captured all branches inside the organization, the second sample comprised the sales department only, thus leading to a smaller but more specific data (sub-)sample. In general, the results indicate that personality traits do play a significant role in facilitating ethical leadership, which, in turn, has a strong impact on leadership effectiveness. How-

ever, concerning the postulated integrative model, I found somewhat different relational patterns with regard to *Sample 1* and *2*.

In *Sample 1*, I found support for the positive effects of leader agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion on ethical leadership behavior. In accordance with findings from Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) and Kalshoven et al. (2010), a leader who ranks high on agreeableness is more likely to be perceived as an ethical leader. In terms of conscientiousness, I took the prior approaches a step further. Instead of applying the trait one-dimensionally, I used narrower constructs and, thus, differentiated between leader dependability and achievement. The results from *Sample 1* acknowledge my approach. While prior work – both theoretical and empirical – steadily refers to a leader’s trustworthiness and reliability in order to establish a link between conscientiousness and ethical leadership (e.g., Brown & Trevino, 2006a), my results indicate that it is merely the ‘other’ facet of the personality trait fostering ethical leadership. Albeit the effect was rather small, leader achievement was significantly correlated to ethical leadership supporting the notion it is notably a leader’s ambitiousness which makes him be perceived as ethical. Diverging from prior work, I also postulated a relationship between leader extraversion and ethical leadership. *Sample 1* revealed a significant positive relation, in turn, backing my argumentation of a link between a leader’s tendency to be talkative, gregarious, and outgoing and his ability to foster a reputation for ethical leadership. However, as Kalshoven et al. (2010) who included extraversion only as a control variable found no such relation, I see an essential need for future research further investigating this link. Considering the consequences of ethical leadership, I confirmed a positive impact on job satisfaction – the measure of organizational effectiveness in *Sample 1* – queuing with an increasing body of research indicating positive effects from ethical leadership on attitudinal outcome criteria. In the last step of model analysis, I also linked personality traits to job satisfaction, thus, through the indirect effect of ethical leadership. Results confirmed that if a leader ranks high on agreeableness, dependability, and achievement he is perceived as an ethical leader which then translates into increased employee job satisfaction.

As noted at the outset, the relational patterns between *Sample 1* and *2* varied. In *Sample 2*, of all traits, I found only leader extraversion to be associated with ethical leadership. On the contrary, the substantial positive effects from leadership behavior on

the effectiveness criterion applied matched the tendency of *Sample 1*. I used employee sales performance data as the indicator of leadership effectiveness, thus, measuring it longitudinally four months post the initial survey. My data suggests, the more a leader is perceived as ethical, the more productive and successful is his team. The analysis of ethical leadership mediating the relationship between leader personality traits in *Sample 2* again revealed meanderings compared to the results of *Sample 1*. Only in case of achievement and extraversion the hypothesized mediation could be confirmed. The delineated results have important implications for organizational literature.

Implications for Leadership Literature

In contrast with expectations, leader dependability was not directly related to ethical leadership in neither sample. Perhaps one possible explanation is the arguably thin line between dependability incorporating characteristics as thoroughness and dutifulness on one hand and leader pedantry on the other. From an employee's perspective, a leader's urgency for thoroughness might lead to intense supervision accompanied by less individual autonomy, more repetition of work, and an overall delay in work procedures which, in turn, are not associated with *effective* ethical leadership (e.g., Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007).

With the exception of the dependability-ethical leadership relation, results from *Samples 1* and *2* differed considerably, thus, necessitating further attention to possible avenues for explanation. As the same methodological design – with the exception of the measure of leadership effectiveness – was applied in both samples, the divergent patterns in results speak for the influence of potential moderating variables. As stated before, in leadership literature, there are multiple models – foremost theoretical in nature – linking leader personality traits to (ethical) leadership behavior and the latter to means of organizational benefit (e.g., Brown & Trevino, 2006a; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Zaccaro, 2007). Fittingly, those models place in the effect the environment or the context might have on the assumed relations. For example, De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009) refer to the strength and uncertainty of situations arguing that ethical leadership is more fruitful in weak situations characterized by few constraints and reinforcers to guide and facilitate conduct and in situations of high organizational uncertainty. Brown et al. (2006a) on their part address the ethical context and moral intensity of issues faced with both facilitating the awareness of ethical leadership. Recapitulating my results

from both studies, I found considerable difference concerning the relation between leader traits and ethical leadership and concerning the mediation hypotheses. Most notably, in the second sample the only leader personality trait to be directly associated to ethical leadership was extraversion. In line with the assumption of the moderating influences of environment and context as depicted above, I focused on the composition of both samples as a possible source for explanation. While the first sample comprised all departments in the organization (e.g., human resources, production, marketing, and purchasing) the sample can be labeled as rather broad in composition. Accordingly, I assume that the environmental specifications (for example low uncertainty in administrative areas opposed to rather high uncertainty in the marketing department) center throughout the different departments. On the contrary, sales departments offer a decisive environment rather unique in terms of the relationship between supervisor and subordinates (e.g., Becherer et al., 1982). By nature, sales environments are characterized by a high degree of decentralization. As sales forces spend a considerable amount of working hours in field work, the potential window for face to face interaction with the supervisor is rather partial. In line with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), spending only a short time in immediate interaction limits employees' attentional capacities, which, in turn, decreases the likelihood for a leader to establish a reputation for ethical leadership (Trevino et al., 2000). Though, one way to compensate is through the distinctive visibility of modeled behavior. Returning to the core of extraversion, leaders who are talkative, outgoing, and gregarious are more capable of shaping an ethical leadership reputation as others who are more tentative in social interaction. Moreover, this social assertiveness might be even more important in this process compared to leader traits of agreeableness and achievement, with the latter two having an influence in the first but not the second sample. Importantly, my results are in line with sales management literature where the role of extraversion in sales environments has been addressed before, forwarding the notion that in this specific context extraversion is arguably the most critical personality trait (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002). As Costa and McCrae (1992) constitute "Salespeople represent the prototypical extraverts in our culture" (p. 15). Summarizing, the differences in relational patterns in both samples can be explained by the environmental context which serves as a moderator. Future research should therefore integrate these findings and investigate the effects on and of ethical leadership with regard to context more detailed.

While the relational patterns concerning several personality traits and ethical leadership varied, as did regarding the hypothesized mediation, the relation between ethical leadership and the respective measure of leadership effectiveness was stable in both samples. These findings have important implications for our understanding of ethical leadership. The positive relation between supervisor ethical leadership and employee job satisfaction, revealed in *Sample 1*, confirms prior findings. A leader, who injects ethical values into his leadership agenda and urges his followers to adhere such behavioral features as well, is able to foster employees' job satisfaction. As job satisfaction is closely related to overall job performance (Judge et al., 2001), my results substantiate the belief of enhanced organizational performance through ethical leadership. Whilst this alliance refers to attitudinal measures only, *Sample 2* augmented this approach with objective ones, thus, depicting a considerable push in reckoning ethical leadership. With the decisive positive effect from ethical leadership on sales performance, I was able to bridge the gap between the claim of normatively appropriateness of conduct and the simultaneous demand for economic rationale. Although there are several authors addressing the immediate economic rationale of ethical leadership from a theoretical standpoint, this study delivers one of the very first empirical certification exceeding attitudinal criteria. With the data from *Sample 2*, I also strengthened the validity of job satisfaction as one of the most critical subjective measures of organizational effectiveness. Post-hoc analyses showed substantial positive correlations between my three applied measures of sales performance and the also surveyed employee rating of job satisfaction (zero-order correlations ranged between $r = .41$ to $.48$, $p < .05$).

Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

My research design incorporated some methodological limitations worth mentioning. First, executive personality was rated by employees in both samples which is a deviation from other studies using leaders' self-ratings in place. As one could argue that personality traits are too distal from actual behavior to be observed properly, I compensated for that through adding an on-job frame of reference to the questionnaire. Second, in *Sample 1*, ratings for ethical leadership and job satisfaction were obtained in course of the same initial survey. Although I overcame potential common method variance by applying a split-sample technique, the question of causality remained due to one single enquiry period. Postulating effects from ethical leadership behavior on job satisfaction

grounded solely on theoretical derivation and prior empirical investigations whereas empirical certification for the proclaimed direction could not be offered. On the contrary, in *Sample 2*, I was able to avoid such pitfalls by using sales performance data obtained four months after the survey. Although the question of causality could be answered adequately, the sample size of *Sample 2* is a third noteworthy limitation to this research. As merely 24 sales teams were investigated, the second sample consisted of 24 supervisors only. Traditional covariance based structural equation modeling techniques as opposed to PLS techniques require bigger sample sizes in order to achieve valid results. Accordingly, due to the sample size of *Sample 2*, I was limited with regard to possible strategies of analysis. Fourth, I argue to exceed existing research on ethical leadership and personality by means of method – measuring personality business focused – and by means of study design – replacing the broad trait of conscientiousness through narrower ones and integrating extraversion. However, especially concerning the applied study design I inevitably set boundaries to the comprehensiveness of my approach right from the outset. While I posited the non-consideration of extraversion in prior research as a shortcoming, my model excluded the two remaining Big Five factors of neuroticism and openness to experience. Especially the former has gained recognition in ethical leadership literature and had only been abandoned in this research due to the rather disappointing results from prior studies. Fifth and finally, although the connection with extraversion and the use of more detailed personality factors gain some new insights, the differences in results from both samples admittedly queue in with a broad landscape of research combining personality traits with leadership characterized by great heterogeneity.

Building on my research, there are several recommendations to be made for future research. This study did not elucidate the distinct relationship between leader personality traits and executive ethical leadership, elusively. Several questions remain unanswered. For example, future research should investigate the deviations from my results with the ones of prior work. Especially a more detailed look at the role of extraversion and the different components seems necessary. Furthermore, my results indicate the usefulness of applying narrower traits instead of the broad Big Five categories in future studies. Methodologically, I relied on employee ratings solely. Advancing research could, in a first step, add self-ratings of personality. An even greater surplus

meanwhile promises the application of more sophisticated methods like Multi-Trait-Multi-Method (Chang, Connelly, & Geeza, 2012) techniques, combining self- with observer-ratings, and, thus, systematically reducing measurement errors. Concerning the ethical leadership-job satisfaction relation, a separation of the enquiry time is warranted. Doing so would enable a clear interpretation of casualty in the data. My promising results with regard to the effects of ethical leadership on objective measures of leader effectiveness should be a starting reference for additional research addressing the relationship alike. Upcoming studies should investigate bigger data samples and focus on different organizational departments. Although objective performance criteria are very difficult to obtain, supplementary work with other data sources than sales performance numbers is crucial in order to further solidify the claim for more attention to ethics related topics in organizational literature.

5. Study 3: Leadership in Professional Basketball: The Effects of Transformational Leadership, Laissez-faire, and Ethical Leadership on Athletes' Performance in German Basketball

5.1 Study 3: Introduction

In contemporary scholarly literature, we are witnessing an unbowed interest in investigating the nature, mechanisms of action, and consequences of leadership. While the discussed contents of leadership behaviors, dispositions, and styles change in time the core of interest has been steady for decades: Through the means by which a leader exhibits leadership, he has significant influence on the motivation, satisfaction, and most importantly on the occupational performance of his subordinates. At its core, leadership is an universal phenomenon. "Whenever there is social activity, a social structure develops, ... one ... defining characteristic of that structure is the emergence of a leader or leaders" (Judge et al., 2009, p. 855). Correspondingly, organizational research on leadership does not limit its focus on what one could name traditional corporate organizations. Effects of leadership have been investigated in numerous organizational settings exceeding customary business boundaries including schools, the military, or governmental institutions (Bass, 1997).

Another remarkably untapped context of leadership is team sports, such as professional basketball which forms the context of this study. Arguing from a rather public-popular standpoint, a team's head coach has considerable influence on the team's success by adjusting the proper team strategy, developing athletes into fierce competitors, or by fostering team cohesiveness. Vice versa, if a team comes up short repeatedly, it often is the head coach to blame for. Furthermore, on a professional level⁵, playing bas-

⁵ In this study, I examine data obtained from the two top leagues in Germany. Consequently, I frequently refer to professional sports with respect to quality of competition. Yet, in Germany not every single player is a full-time occupational professional. Especially in the second league some players are only part-time compensated. Thus, official numbers concerning the teams' payrolls are not available.

ketball is what many players do for their living with their coach functioning as the immediate supervisor. He allocates scarce resources (e.g., playing time) and motivates and develops his subordinates. That a sport as basketball is particularly vivid to gain insights into the nature of leadership can be further underpinned baring the popularity of practical guides on leadership from coaching greats (Jackson, Delehanty, & Bradley, 2006; Krzyzewski & Phillips, 2000) or former athletes (Snow, 2010). Surprisingly, organizational leadership research in sports and especially in basketball is sparse to this day.

In this study, I tie in with other researchers (e.g., Whisenant & Pedersen, 2004) who posit the need to investigate professional sports, i.e. basketball, with the same ‘managerial attention’ as is done in so many other organizational contexts. I investigate the effects of transformational, laissez-faire, and ethical leadership on athletes’ sportive performance in German professional basketball. Thereby, this present investigation contributes to leadership literature in five different ways. First, the effects of different leadership styles on subordinates’ performance are investigated in a pristine leadership context. Second, although transformational leadership has been introduced to the field of sports before, this study is the first to adapt organizational leadership styles (exceeding transformational leadership) to sports on a professional level. Third, this study deepens our understanding of ethical leadership not only by originally investigating its effects in a sportive context but also by contrasting it to transformational leadership as has been called for (e.g., Brown et al., 2005; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Fourth, a methodological appeal of this study is that it applies objective performance measures covering individual and team efforts, respectively. Fifth and finally, using multi-level growth modeling techniques concerning the individual performance I am able to investigate leadership effects not on status-quo but on the development of performance over time.

5.2 Study 3: Theoretical Background

Organizational research in professional team sports – the rationale

Conducting organizational research in the setting of professional basketball other than leadership bound, I am not the ones to enter uncharted waters. Importantly, there is a considerate amount of both theoretical and empirical scholarly work (e.g., Berman, Down, & Hill, 2002; Fazel & D'Itri, 1999). To get first access to this field, a look at the structural similarities between traditional corporate organizations and professional

sports is helpful. As Keidel (1987; 1984) elaborates, both settings share several elementary parallels. A first similarity is the competitive nature. Like business units step into competition with other suppliers, sport teams compete externally with other teams (*external competition*). Second, to prevail in this competition, a need to cooperate internally is important in both settings (*internal cooperation*). It usually takes multiple working steps from different persons to compile a certain product or service, just as it takes team play to win in basketball. Third, in both settings the human resources are elementary with regard to success. Finding and retaining the best employees requires the same strategic perspective as does the composition of a successful basketball team (*strategic management of human resources*). Fourth, in both areas, we witness generic group phenomena with comparable dynamics and structure (*generic structure*). Subsuming, Keidel (1987) argues sports to be a suitable heuristic in terms of understanding corporate organizations. Wolfe et al. (2005) further augment this understanding. In their exceptional review of organizational research within sports, they pay a great deal of attention on the initial motivation and justification. In addition to contentwise deliberations, they stress the methodological appeal of sport settings. “Sport, thus, provides opportunities to observe, accurately measure, and compare variables of interest over time and to test hypotheses with highly motivated respondents in quasi-laboratory conditions” (Wolfe et al., 2005, p. 185). With relative clarity concerning competitors (e.g., different teams), performance outcomes (e.g., wins, losses, winning the championship as the ultimate goal), and overall conditions (e.g., rules, playing schedule), sports incorporates structural strengths traditional organizations naturally lack (Goff & Tollison, 1990; Sage & Eitzen, 2013). Recapitulatory, conducting organizational research within the context of professional sports seems intriguing drawing on arguments with regard to (a) content and (b) method, respectively.

In this present study, I tie in with both of those perspectives. Regarding the content, most importantly, in professional basketball we find a classical dyadic relation between leader and follower. It is the head coach who exhibits considerate authority towards his players. During a game, he is the one to distribute playing time and to command the team’s game plan. Apart from games, the coach stresses the individual development of players as well as the overall cohesion of the team. As it is every player’s goal to evolve his basketball skills and to be successful in terms of winning games and

championships, one can attest substantial importance to the role of the coach and more precisely his leadership behavior. How he is able to motivate players to yield exceptional dedication in a highly uncertain and fast moving setting as it is professional sports, I see a fitting setting to conduct leadership research with regard to content. Moreover, professional basketball indeed offers methodological advantages which must not be overlooked. As will be discussed later on, basketball or, more accurately, the statistical coverage of basketball games and seasons incorporates a scrupulous pool of data covering both individual and collective or team performance. In all, combining the classical dyadic relationship between coach and player(s) with the availability and accurateness of performance data, I argue this setting to be ideal to conduct leadership research.

Leadership research in sports

For years there has been interest in investigating leadership within sports predominantly in the field of sport sciences. Being geared to organizational leadership research, several authors investigated the link between coaches' leadership, athletes' attitudes, and performance. Arguably, the most recurring conception of leadership within sports is the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) developed by Chelladurai and colleagues (e.g., Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Chelladurai, 1990). Characterized by an Ohio State and Michigan studies-like understanding, this conception takes a rather situational approach to leadership effectiveness (Riemer, 2007). The core of the MML is built around the principle of congruence between the three relevant elements of (1) preferred behavior at hands of the athletes, (2) actual behavior displayed by the coach, and (3) required behavior determined by situational factors. Following this theoretical framework, leadership behavior is effective when these three elements coincide. The empirical validation of this model is mostly limited to the actual behavior, neglecting the remaining two elements. Behavioral features covered in this model are training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic, and autocratic behavior with especially the latter two indicating the proximity to organizational leadership concepts as the consideration and initiating structure differentiation (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). While the MML encompasses a dominant standing in sport related leadership research, its rigorousness over the years is a liability (Hopton et al., 2007). Organizational or psychological leadership research, on the other hand, frequently questions the status quo, documented by the fact that in contemporary literature behavioral approaches to

leadership (e.g., transformational leadership) are viewed superior to situational ones in terms of effective leadership behavior (Yukl, 2010). Therefore, following this perspective, I see an inevitable need to expand the focus of sport leadership to behavioral leadership styles exceeding the MML.

Behavioral approaches to leadership foster the understanding that specific behavioral facets exhibit certain effects no matter the situation. Leadership styles as transformational, laissez-faire, and ethical leadership – all of them part in this study – are discussed in terms of being applicable to different contexts (Bass, 1997; Brown & Trevino, 2006a). Fittingly, I can refer to empirical studies investigating those leadership styles in a wide scope of contexts, ranging from corporate organizations, over non-profit organizations like hospitals and schools, to the military (Bass, 1997). Surprisingly, the application in sport settings is still limited. As Hopton et al. (2007, p. 46) state “the leader’s role in teams and groups has been actively researched and so, it would be intriguing to replicate and augment these findings to a sports context”.

In this study, I investigate the effects of three different leadership styles: transformational, laissez-faire, and ethical leadership. Using these diverse approaches, I am capable of analyzing the leadership process within sports from two principal and distinct perspectives. The first one of them – a rather utilitarian take on leadership – is the perception of sheer (in-)effectiveness. Transformational leadership on the first part, scrupulously investigated in numerous studies, is commonly referred to as the state-of-the-art in terms of *effective* leadership in contemporary leadership literature (e.g., Yukl, 2010). The mere opposite of effective leadership is laissez-faire leadership. Based upon the absence of leadership, laissez-faire is associated with *ineffective* leadership. Albeit these prescribed leadership models bestride a big part of present leadership research, I argue that limiting one self’s perspective to this traditional understanding of rational effectiveness is premature. Especially in team sports characterized by physical interaction and competition, virtues and values such as fair play and sportsmanship play a significant role. I elect to exceed the traditional taxonomy of (in-)effectiveness of leadership behavior by focusing also on the *normative appropriateness* of leadership conduct and, thus, integrate ethical leadership to the research model.

Transformational leadership in basketball

Transformational leadership captures researchers' interest since almost three decades. The main proposition is that transformational leadership behavior transcends followers' short-term and extrinsic motives in favor of higher order intrinsic needs. Following Podsakoff's (1990) conceptualization six different behavioral facets can be attributed to transformational leadership. *Identifying and Articulating a Vision* (AV), the first facet, emphasizes the importance of a positive and attractive long-term vision depicted by the leader. A transformational leader not only develops a team's vision but he consequently gets his followers into this vision. Central to the second facet, *Providing an Appropriate Model* (PAM), is the perception of the leader as an accurate role model. By displaying authentic conduct the leader becomes a source for orientation and inspiration. *Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals* (FAG) refers to the leader's ability to foster a sense of group coherence and team-spirit between his followers. Fourth, transformational leadership is characterized by *High Performance Expectations* (HPE) the leader displays towards his followers. *Providing Individualized Support* (IS) addresses a leaders' urgency for follower consideration. Transformational leaders show concern for the needs of their followers and foster the individual development of each of them. Last, through *Intellectual Stimulation* (ISN) followers are encouraged to think creative and innovative and consequently challenge prior assumptions concerning work tasks and their fulfillment.

Transformational leadership has been empirically investigated in various settings especially concerning possible effects on outcome criteria indicating enhanced organizational effectiveness. Subsuming, meta-analytic investigations by Judge and Piccolo (2004) and Dum Dum, Lowe, and Avolio (2002) revealed substantial relations with important criteria such as follower satisfaction, team, and leader performance. This link to leadership effectiveness, i.e. enhanced follower performance, serves as a first knotting for the impact of transformational leadership on professional sports. As Bass (1997) discusses, there is universality in the leadership paradigm, thus, proclaiming positive effects in a wide array of settings. Consequently, as I argue basketball to be interpreted as an alternative organizational field this positive impact can be expected here, as well. To further delineate this understanding, I go into detail on the dyadic relationship between a coach and a player a bit further and exemplarily transfer different facets of

transformational leadership to the setting of basketball. Naturally, basketball on a professional level requires strong dedication from the athletes. Players spend numerous hours practicing each week in preparation for a relatively short period of actual competition which is the regular season game by the weekend. To keep players keen to the team's goal besides the deflection professional sports entails, an *articulation of an attractive vision* next to being an *appropriate role model* is vital. Both facets play an important role in coping with setbacks such as losses. If a coach fosters a vivid image of a higher order goal than the outcome of a single game and is an archetype in work ethic and meticulous dedication he is able to hold up his players' motivation, I argue. During actual games, a coach extrinsically rewards his players for their efforts by distributing playing time – by nature a scarce good. Consequently, as some players might not get generous minutes on the court, a risk of demotivation occurs. Nevertheless, a transformational coach is able to compensate for this lack of extrinsic reward by *providing individualized support* to those concerned. Working with players on their individual development and being transparent on what each of them has to improve to receive increased playing time leads to enriched appreciation and trust in the coach. A popular topic of discussion within every team sport is the role of team play. Albeit I do not intend to elaborate on the effects of selfishness (i.e., focus solely on own stats) or altruism (i.e., always looking for a teammate) on the court, I make the case that a team benefits from an intact group cohesion no matter the game philosophy. Group cohesion in basketball is displayed in various ways, from integrating new players into the team, supporting each other in practices, and helping out teammates on the court. Therefrom, a transformational coach who is able to *foster those group goals* can instigate added potential to his team.

With this research I tie in with other authors who embraced the idea of studying transformational leadership in sports, before. Work by Hopton et al. (2007), Armstrong (2001) or Lim and Cromartie (2001) posited positive impacts within the fields of sports comparable to those proclaimed in traditional business settings albeit their argumentation was mostly theoretically driven. Empirical support is up to date scarce. Only very few studies examined the validity of transformational leadership in sports. Then again, those respective studies are limited in their contribution to this study as they focused on recreational sport. For instance, Rowold (2006) revealed a positive relationship between

trainers' transformational leadership and perceived leader effectiveness by athletes in martial arts. In another study, Charbonneau, Barling, and Kelloway (2001) confirmed a model of full mediation between transformational leadership, intrinsic motivation, and athletes' performance in a university sport setting covering different sports. A methodological limitation to both studies was the exclusive usage of subjective performance measures along. Expanding research on transformational leadership in sports not only to a professional level but also to the use of objective performance indicators in a longitudinal research setting is a considerable push to research on transformational leadership. In line with the previous delineation, I posit positive effects from transformational leadership facets on players' sportive performance.

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership (Hypothesis 1a: Identifying a Vision; Hypothesis 1b: Providing an Appropriate Model; Hypothesis 1c: Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals; Hypothesis 1d: High Performance Expectations; Hypothesis 1e: Providing Individualized Support; Hypothesis 1f: Intellectual Stimulation) will be positively related to players' sportive performance.

Laissez-faire leadership in basketball

Positivistic approaches to leadership such as transformational or ethical leadership traditionally dominate the corresponding research agenda. Nevertheless, investigating processes, mechanisms, and consequences of mere ineffective leadership behaviors must not be overlooked (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005; Tepper, 2000). Arguably the most prominent form of ineffective leadership behavior is laissez-faire. It is defined as the absence of leadership and therefore constitutes the mere counterpart to transformational or ethical leadership. A leader who exhibits laissez-faire leadership avoids making necessary decisions or is basically absent when his guidance is needed. As laissez-faire is regularly investigated in line with transformational leadership, there is plenty of empirical support covering a plethora of organizational settings indicating a negative impact of laissez-faire on various outcome criteria (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

In this study, I tie in with this comprehension. For instance, the more a coach avoids important decisions – such as missing out on calling a timeout to stop an opponent's run during a game – the more suffers the players' motivation and subsequently

their sportive performance. Empirically, only Rowold (2006) transferred laissez-faire to the field of sports. His study in a martial arts setting revealed a negative relationship between laissez-faire as nonleadership of a coach and athletes' extra effort and satisfaction, respectively. In line with this, I posit a negative relationship between a coach's laissez-faire behavior and the performance of the respective athletes.

Hypothesis 2: Coaches' laissez-faire leadership will be negatively related to players' sportive performance.

Ethical leadership in basketball

The third perspective on leadership in this study covers the ethical dimension of leadership conduct. Ethical leadership, as forwarded by Brown and Trevino (2005), 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" (p. 120). The normative appropriateness of personal actions and interpersonal relationships refers to leader attributes as dependability, honesty, and integrity. On top, exceeding simple altruistic personal characteristics an ethical leader demands and facilitates the ethical conduct of his followers. He serves as a visible and credible role model by, for instance, engaging in transparent communication and avenging ethical miscues (Trevino et al., 2000).

Ethical leadership defined as above and measured with the respective instrument (Ethical Leadership Scale; Brown et al., 2005) is the most commonly applied synthesis of leadership and ethics and is consequently used in numerous studies. Despite this prominence in organizational literature, several authors criticize the ambiguity of this approach (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). By vaguely referring to normative appropriateness of leader conduct, Brown and colleagues leave considerable room for beholders' interpretation. Nevertheless, this approach enables us to assign ethical leadership to different contexts as normative appropriateness might be understood differently bearing different settings, I claim. To my knowledge, this study is the very first attempt to transfer ethical leadership to sports. In traditional corporate settings ethical leadership could be shown to be positively related to various subjective indicators of enhanced employee performance such as job satisfaction or commitment (e.g., Neubert et al., 2009). I argue

ethical leadership to have a similar positive impact in professional basketball because of the high environmental uncertainty accompanied by pro-level sports (Ripoll, Kerlirzin, Stein, & Reine, 1995). High player turnover even during a season, hiring and firing of coaches alongside critical media attention are just some of the many sources for distractions in professional basketball (Dirks, 2000). In such a setting of high uncertainty and vulnerability, ethical leadership might be exceptionally effective referring to De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009, pp. 348–349).

Uncertain environments provide high latitude of decision discretion and ample opportunities to demonstrate leadership. Moreover, uncertainty is likely to raise a sense of vulnerability for followers. The greater the uncertainty or vulnerability in the context, the more mindful individuals may be of the socially responsible use of power [...]. ... Therefore, the greater the uncertainty in the context, the more open individuals may be of ethical leadership and the greater the impact on outcomes.

Moreover, ethical leadership is closely linked to the trust followers put in their leader. As ethical leaders are defined to be honest, integer, and dependable; those leaders will be perceived as trustworthy, at once. The close relation between the two constructs has been empirically confirmed (Brown et al., 2005). Transferring ethical leadership to sports, trust plays a vivid role as it has been investigated in a basketball setting, before. Dirks (2000) examined the relationship between trust in the leader and team performance in a sample of 30 US-collegiate Basketball teams. Applying multiple regressions, he revealed a positive significant effect ($\beta = .44, p \leq .05$) of trust in the leader on an objective measure of team performance. A coach exhibiting ethical leadership, i.e. being dependable, upright, and responsible, gains the trust of his players. This trust leads to players believing into the coach's ideas. Consequently, players are more willing to accept their roles, even if that implies containing oneself in order to achieve higher order team goals. Tying in with these assumptions and baring the interdependence between ethical leadership and trust in the leader, I posit a positive relation between coaches' ethical leadership and athletes' sportive performance.

Hypothesis 3: Coaches' ethical leadership behavior will be positively related to players' sportive performance.

5.3 Study 3: Method

Sample and procedure

The focus of the present research was on professional basketball teams in Germany. In Germany, basketball at the pro-level is organized inside of the two major national leagues, the 1. and 2. Bundesliga. Each year, both leagues capture 52 teams in a whole. In this study, my focal point was on all teams that played in either league during the seasons 2010/2011 and 2011/2012. Due to annual relegation and promotion between the leagues, the total number of relevant teams for this study was 56. The teams were contacted via e-mail and telephone. After a brief introduction to the research project, teams were asked to complete questionnaires about the leadership behavior of the team's head coach. Out of the contacted teams, 29 agreed to participate, initially. The survey was carried out online. To assure valid leadership ratings, my goal was to obtain these data only from sources capable of assessing the coach's leadership behavior, appropriately (i.e., players, assistant coach, team executives). Therefore, I asked the contacted team representatives to forward the invitation to the survey to those respective team members. I received a total of $N = 45$ completed questionnaires matched to 22 coaches. The number of ratings for a single coach ranged between 1 and 7 ($M = 1.75$, $SD = 1.42$). The coach sample consisted of male subjects, only. The coaches' mean age was 39.67 ($SD = 8.10$) at the time of the survey. 66% of the coaches were German citizens.

Parallel to corresponding with the teams about the assessment of coaches' leadership behavior, I collected data on performance for the participating teams based on the statistical coverage available. Concerning performance, I consequently differentiated between team and individual player performance, resulting in two different data segments relevant for the analyses. Concerning the player sample, I analyzed performance data for $N = 200$ players. The mean age of these players was 24.27 ($SD = 3.98$). German citizens made up 52.66% of the player pool, US citizens 38.94%. The remaining players stemmed from other European countries, mostly.

Measures

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was assessed using the Transformational Leadership Inventory by Podsakoff et al. (1990) in the German validated version by Heinitz and Rowold (2007). The questionnaire covers six facets of leadership behavior, each measured with between three and five items. Recent work provides strong evidence for the construct validity of this six-facet approach (Krüger, Rowold, Borgmann, Staufenbiel, & Heinitz, 2011). In order to fit the context of professional sports, all leadership measures (transformational, laissez-faire, and ethical leadership) were slightly modified. The term “leader” was subsequently replaced by “head coach”. Likewise, instead of “group” I used the wording “team” while “employee(s)” was replaced by “player(s)”. A sample item for the five item scale Identifying and Articulating a Vision was “Paints an interesting picture of the future for our team”. The second facet Providing an Appropriate Model was assessed with three items such as “Provides a good model for me to follow”. Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals, the third facet of the inventory, includes four items as “Gets the team to work together for the same goal”. “Insists on only the best performance” is one of the three items for High Performance Expectations, while “Shows respect for my personal feelings” is one of the four items to assess Providing Individual Support. The last facet of transformational leadership behavior is Intellectual Stimulation, measured with three items. A sample item was “Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways”. For all six scales, a five-point Likert-type scale was used from 1, “strongly disagree” to 5, “strongly agree”.

Laissez-faire. Laissez-faire was measured using four items developed by Rowold (2011). Sample items included “Tries to avoid decisions” or “Delays the answer to urgent questions”. The answering scheme was between 1, “strongly disagree” and 5, “strongly agree”.

Ethical leadership. To assess a coach’s ethical leadership, the Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS, Brown et al., 2005) was used in its German validated adaption by Rowold et al. (2009). The scale encompasses nine items. Sample items were “Makes fair and balanced decisions” or “Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics”. The answering scheme again ranged from 1, “strongly disagree” to 5, “strongly agree”.

Team performance. To assess team performance, I applied end-game results as an objective indicator. More precisely, I calculated the ratio of wins to total games during a full season for each team. Although both German leagues apply a point system to determine team standings, this winning-percentage is the common used criteria of team success for a given season in most top leagues including the National Basketball Association (NBA). Furthermore, it accounts for the differences in lengths of a season (i.e., number of games played) between the two leagues. This measure of team performance ranged from 0 (no wins) to 1 (no losses). Leadership ratings of coaches were obtained during a time span starting in the middle of the 2010/2011 season and ending midway through the 2011/2012 season. To assure a quasi-longitudinal design in the upcoming analyses, I applied final season standings from the 2011/2012 season as the criterion, where possible. Only in two cases I used season standings from 2010/2011 as the respective coaches rated by team members left the team after that season. If a coach was fired during the 2011/2012 season, I took into consideration only those games prior to his release. In my analyses, I excluded playoff games and used regular season data, only.

Individual player performance and performance development. The basis for examining individual player performance was the game-level statistical coverage. For both leagues, detailed box scores are published covering player accomplishments for every game. This includes for example the number of shots made and missed (field goals and free throws), number of rebounds (offensive and defensive), assists, steals, and personal fouls for every player. To merge this amplitude of data into one individual measure of player performance for a given game, I used a methodological approach forwarded by Hollinger (2002). His formula, entitled as the “Game Score (GS)”, combines all the data from the box score into one single indicator of player performance (Equation 1). “It’s designed to be a convenient way to evaluate single-game performances without insane mathematics, and can be done on the back of an envelope” (Hollinger, 2002, p. 14):

$$GS_i = Pts_i + 0.4 * FGm_i - 0.7 * FGa_i - 0.4 * (FTa_i - FTm_i) + 0.7 * OReb_i + 0.3 * DReb_i + St_i + 0.7 * As_i + 0.7 * Blk_i - 0.4 * PF_i - To_i \quad (1)$$

Pts stands for the points scored. *FG* corresponds to the field goals with *m* the abbreviation for “made” and *a* the abbreviation for “attempted”; the same works for *FT* as free throws (*a* = attempted; *m* = made). Offensive and defensive rebounds are cap-

tured with *OReb* and *DReb*, respectively. The numbers for assists (*As*), blocked shots (*Blk*), personal fouls (*PF*), and turnover (*To*) complement the Game Score. That the Game Score is calculated for each player individually is represented by the addition of the term i to every position of the equation.

My objective was to analyze individual performance longitudinally, i.e. examine the development of player performance. Therefore, I created a series of measurement for each player starting with the first game under the respective coach. In terms of the initiation of this series of measurement two scenarios were possible. Had the player been on the team prior to the coach, the first game relevant was the initial game under the responsibility of that coach. Vice versa, did the player join the team after the coach; the series of measurement began with the first game the player played in. As the starting point for the series of measurement had to be determined for every player individually, there was no consistent period of measurement for the whole player sample. In case coach and player had been on the same team for several seasons, the starting point for the series of measurement did not necessarily fall into the 2010/2011 or 2011/2012 seasons and could have been earlier. Nevertheless, the number of measurement points was the same for every player. Player performance data was collected and Game Scores were calculated over a period of 20 subsequent games.

Out of each team participating, I elected to collect individual data on ten players, resulting in a player sample of $N = 220$ players in sum. In Germany as the US, 12 players are eligible to play for each team in a game. Therefore, collecting statistics on 10 players is a close equivalent to a whole team. In an additional step of data preparation, I included a filter to the player sample. As a threshold and in order to be considered in the upcoming multi-level analysis, a player had to play at least ten minutes a game on average. The magnitude of player's performance is closely tied to his minutes played during a game. The longer a player stands on the court, the more chances he has to figuratively spoken fill in the stat sheet. However, in some cases players get to play only a very limited amount of time, simply dictating a Game Score close to zero. To preclude this bias, I aimed at considering rotation players, only, and installed the filter of playing time, reducing the player sample to 200.

Data analyses

In both segments of the forthcoming analyses – team and individual level – leadership ratings were used as team level variables. Therefore, in case of multiple ratings for a single coach, leadership ratings were aggregated. To justify the aggregation in terms of data homogeneity, multiple indices indicating interrater reliability and interrater agreement were calculated, including r_{wg} , AD, ICC (1), and ICC (2) (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

In the analyses, I consequently differentiated between team and individual performance and, thus, tested the hypotheses for both segments separately. Concerning the analysis of team performance, I used OLS regression analyses to predict season standings at the hands of the teams' head coaches' leadership behavior. As the sample size ($N = 22$) was rather small, the potential for model complexity was severely limited (Aguinis & Harden, 2009). Instead of applying a multiple linear regression model, I used different simple linear regressions with each one covering only a single leadership style. In sum, I computed eight different regression models with six of them covering the transformational leadership facets, a seventh for laissez-faire leadership, and a final one for ethical leadership. Albeit this approach precludes the examination of shared variance between the different leadership styles, several studies in the field of leadership used a common correlational design to test hypotheses (Rowold, 2008; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Furthermore, to assure an appropriate statistical power despite the small sample, I adjusted Type I error rate to .10 in this section of team level analyses (Aguinis & Harden, 2009; Kerwin, 1992; Sauley & Bedeian, 1989).

While the investigation of leadership effects on team level outcomes served as a first insight on the validity of psychological leadership research in the context of professional basketball teams, the mere priority of this study was on examining leadership effects on individual performance development. My data on player performance was hierarchical in nature. Repeated measures on the Game Score (level 1, within-person) were nested within players (level 2, between-person) which again were nested within teams (level 3). Consequently, to investigate the effects of coaches' leadership behavior interpreted as a level 3 variable on the intra-individual development in performance (level 1); I applied multi-level modeling techniques (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). Specifically, latent growth models constitute a fitting approach to this exact design (Luke,

2004; Singer & Willet, 2003). Repeated measures of the performance criterion are modeled as a latent linear growth over time. For each player, this individual growth curve is constituted through an intercept and a slope. The intercept represents the magnitude of a player's sportive performance during the first game of action; the slope illustrates the trend of performance through the remaining games.

Using latent growth modeling techniques, a researcher is enabled to investigate effects of level 3 variables – in this case leadership behavior – on both the intercept and the slope in player performance. However, I decided to focus on the slope, i.e. the development of performance solely for the following reason. One important variable I was not capable of controlling was the talent of a given player, aggravating the comparability between players. For instance, relating the performances of a veteran star player to the pendant of a rookie benchwarmer seems more of a comparison between apples and oranges than a valid basis for statistical investigation. Therefore, I elected to focus on intra-individual data, i.e. comparing a player only to himself than to other athletes. On the contrary, considering the intercept of a player's growth curve, i.e. the initial performance, inevitably establishes a between-player perspective. My chosen approach of investigating the individual slope, only, constitutes a model design labeled as 'slopes-as-outcome' (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992).

To compute this slope-as-outcome model, I used the HLM7 (Raudenbush et al., 2011) software package. My level 1 model depicted a single player's performance, i.e. the Game Scores, over 20 consecutive games as a linear trend, with only the gamedays serving as predicting variables. The intercept and slope parameters as quantifications of individual performance and performance development, respectively, could then be used as the dependent variables within the multi-level analysis. In a first step, I calculated an unconditional model with no predictors other than gamedays which later served as a baseline model for model comparison. This unconditional model computes an intercepts that reflects the average initial Game Score for the whole sample. Additionally, it provides a slope which depicts the mean performance trend and a residual term indicating the between-person variance. In a next step, I built my conditional or target slope-as-outcome model by entering all leadership variables into the multi-level model. More specifically, I used the eight different leadership variables as predictors of the slope (performance trend). One important implication of the software HLM7 is that it calcu-

lates unstandardized coefficients, which, in turn, has to be taken into consideration when interpreting the results. In the final step of multi-level analyses, I compared both models – unconditional and conditional – using deviance statistics.

5.4 Study 3: Results

Descriptives, measures, and aggregation

Table 9 shows the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations for all studied variables.

Table 9. Study 3: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations at the team level ($N = 22$)

Construct	M	SD	Intercorrelations									
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1. Age of the coach	39.67	8.10										
2. Articulating a Vision	3.73	0.89	-.14	(.89)								
3. Providing an Appropriate Model	3.61	0.89	-.33	.87**	(.83)							
4. Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals	3.79	0.90	-.15	.90**	.77**	(.82)						
5. High Performance Expectations	3.96	0.91	-.13	.84**	.70**	.76**	(.69)					
6. Individual Consideration	3.75	0.75	-.12	.07	.07	.23	.13	(.77)				
7. Intellectual Stimulation	3.20	0.90	.10	.57**	.28	.51*	.51*	-.36	(.75)			
8. Laissez-faire	1.93	0.89	.06	-.30**	-.66**	-.37	-.16	-.12	-.06	(.82)		
9. Ethical leadership	3.66	0.71	-.10	.80**	.55**	.67**	.80**	.01	.54*	-.46*	(.89)	
10. Team performance	0.51	0.15	-.02	.35	.30	.52*	.32	.09	.47*	-.09	.20	

Note. Cronbach's α are indicated in parentheses; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Before I tested the hypotheses for both levels of analysis, I aggregated multiple leadership ratings for a given coach to team, i.e. coach level. To ensure statistical justification, I examined multiple indices of within-group agreement and intra-class correlations. For all leadership variables, the r_{wg} 's (James et al., 1993) ranged between .68 and .86 ($M = .74$). The average deviation index (AD, Burke et al., 1999) varied between .32 and .61 ($M = .45$). Additionally, for three or more ratings to a coach, I inspected ICC(1) and ICC(2) scores (McGraw & Wong, 1996). For all relevant scales, ICC(1) values ranged from .20 to .59 ($M = .43$). Concerning ICC(2), they were in between of .43 and .81 ($M = .69$). In sum, the applied criteria indicate a high interrater agreement and, thus, justify the aggregation of leadership ratings.

Team performance

Hypotheses 1a to 1f posited positive relations between transformational leadership facets and player performance, i.e. on team level portrayed by season standings. Table 10 shows the results of the regression analyses. As the effects of Articulating a Vision ($\beta = .35, p \leq .10$), Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals ($\beta = .52, p \leq .05$), and Intellectual Stimulation ($\beta = .47, p \leq .05$) were all positive and significant, hypotheses 1a, 1c, and 1f could be confirmed. As none of the effects of the three remaining transformational leadership facets (Providing an Appropriate Model, $\beta = .30, ns$; High Performance Expectations, $\beta = .32, ns$; Providing Individualized Support, $\beta = .09, ns$) were significant, hypotheses 1b, 1d, and 1e were rejected.

Table 10. Study 3: Summary of OLS-regression analyses at the team level ($N = 22$)

	Team performance	
	β	R^2
Articulating a Vision	.35 [†]	.12
Providing an Appropriate Model	.30	.09
Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals	.52*	.27
High Performance Expectations	.32	.11
Individual Consideration	.09	.01
Intellectual Stimulation	.47*	.22
Laissez-faire	-.09	.01
Ethical leadership	.20	.04

Notes. * $p < .05$; [†] $p < .10$.

In hypothesis 2, I assumed a negative relation between laissez-faire leadership and player performance. As the regression coefficient ($\beta = -.09$, *ns*) was negative, as intended, but not significant, I did not find support for this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3 stated a positive relation between ethical leadership and player performance. Again, the positive regression coefficient ($\beta = .20$, *ns*) indicated the right direction but was not significant, hence, leading to the rejection of hypothesis 3.

Individual player performance

To test the hypotheses on the player level, I applied the multi-level growth model. In a first step, to ensure the fit of my posited target model, I compared the conditional model which included the different leadership styles as predictors of the performance slope to the unconditional model. As Table 11 shows the difference in deviances was significant, thus confirming the superiority of the target model. The unstandardized coefficients obtained from the conditional model (Table 12) were then used to test the hypotheses.

Table 11. Study 3: Deviance statistics and model comparison for the multi-level analysis

Model	<i>Deviance</i>	<i>Parameters estimated</i>	<i>ΔDeviance</i>
1: Unconditional Model	25001.11	9	
2: Conditional Model	24985.43	17	15.68*

Notes. * $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 1a to 1f stated a positive relation between transformational leadership facets and player performance. As the effects from Articulating a Vision ($\gamma_{101} = .23, p \leq .05$) and Providing Individualized Support ($\gamma_{105} = .09, p \leq .05$) were positive and significant, hypotheses 1a and 1e could be confirmed. Surprisingly, the effect from Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals ($\gamma_{103} = -.17, p \leq .05$) was significant but negative, leading to the rejection of hypothesis 1c. As the effects from Providing an Appropriate Model ($\gamma_{102} = -.09, ns$), High Performance Expectations ($\gamma_{104} = .09, ns$), and Intellectual Stimulation ($\gamma_{106} = .05, ns$) were not significant, hypotheses 1b, 1d, and 1f could not be confirmed for the individual data level.

Hypothesis 2 posited a negative relationship between laissez-faire and player performance. My multi-level analyses showed a negative effect on the slope as expected ($\gamma_{107} = -.06, ns$), but as the effect was not significant the hypothesis had to be rejected.

Finally, in hypothesis 3, I assumed a positive relation between ethical leadership and player performance. As the effect was not significant ($\gamma_{108} = -.10, ns$), I could not confirm this assumption, either.

Table 12. Study 3: Multi-level analysis of individual performance development: conditional model

Fixed Effect	coefficient	se	T
Model for initial status, π_0			
Intercept, γ_{000}	7.10	0.32	22.11
Model for linear growth, π_1			
Intercept, γ_{100}	0.01	0.02	0.51
Articulating a Vision, γ_{101}	0.23	0.09	2.54*
Providing an Appropriate Model, γ_{102}	-0.09	0.05	-2.04
Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals, γ_{103}	-0.17	0.06	-2.83*
High Performance Expectations, γ_{104}	0.09	0.05	1.93
Individual Consideration, γ_{105}	0.09	0.04	2.51*
Intellectual Stimulation, γ_{106}	0.05	0.03	1.55
Laissez-faire, γ_{107}	-0.06	0.03	-1.99
Ethical Leadership, γ_{108}	-0.10	0.06	-1.58

Notes. * $p < .05$.

5.5 Study 3: Discussion

The purpose of this present study was to transfer organizational leadership research to the field of professional sports. In particular, I investigated the effects of head coaches' transformational, laissez-faire, and ethical leadership behavior on objective team and individual performance criteria in German professional basketball. Thereby, the investigation of team data served as a mere introductory step of analysis, whereas the analysis of the development in individual performance was methodological superior with regard to sample size and statistical standard. In sum, this study revealed intriguing correlates and subsequently enables a better understanding of psychological leadership factors in high-level team sports. In particular, transformational leadership revealed the most remarkable findings. In both data segments, facets of transformational leadership exhibited influence on the respective performance criteria. Concerning team data, the facets of Articulating a Vision, Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals, and Intellec-

tual Stimulation were positively related to team standings at the end of the season. With regard to individual player data, Articulating a Vision and Providing Individualized Support had positive effects on players' development of performance. Moreover, my analyses also showed negative effects from Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals on the individual level. Interestingly, laissez-faire and ethical leadership did not show any significant links to the applied performance criteria neither on team nor on individual data. Baring these findings, this study forwards the notion that especially transformational leadership is valuable in not just describing leadership in professional sports but also in predicting enhanced performance by objective means.

Implications for Leadership Literature

Baring the differences in results concerning the different data segments and the different leadership styles, a more detailed look on the specific results is useful. Starting off with transformational leadership's subdimensions, Articulating a Vision appears most important in this study. The more a head coach exhibits visionary leadership conduct such as advocating the development of an attractive team vision, inspiring followers through this vision, and committing them to this common goal, the higher ranks his team in the league standings and the steeper the positive development of players' individual performance. These findings go in line with the position of several authors suggesting that the development of a vision and getting followers to accept this vision is the 'core' of transformational leadership (Bradford & Cohen, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Narrowing the focus to leadership research within sports, my findings also build on Fletcher and Arnold's (2011) delineation of performance leadership and management in elite sports. In their qualitative investigation of best practices concerning leadership and management in Olympic sports, they identified vision defined as the "team's ultimate aspiration" (p. 228) as one essential challenge to leadership conduct. In a similar way, Rowold (2006) measured transformational leadership with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) found positive effects from visionary leadership conduct (operationalized via the facet Inspirational Motivation) on athletes' ratings of extra effort and perceived leader effectiveness.

Other than Articulating a Vision, only Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals had significant effects in both data segments. Concerning team data, my analyses indicated that the more a coach facilitates team cohesion and team attitude the better the

team is ranked in the standings. In other words, getting a team to work as a unit as opposed to a group of individuals pays off in terms of winning games. Again, these results coincide with Fletcher and Arnold's (2011) work. On top of the role of team vision, they also found the fostering of team atmosphere as essential in terms of leadership and management effectiveness. Surprisingly and contraire to both my hypothesis and the results on team level, the examination on the individual level revealed negative effects from Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals on the player's individual development in performance. The more a coach fosters team cohesion, development of individual performance takes a significant hit, my data indicates. A possible theoretical explanation might be that Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals does not only lead to cooperative behaviors by players off the court (e.g., integrating new players, spending spare time together) but also on the court. Cooperative, team-orientated conduct during a basketball game is characterized by the degree of a player's selflessness. Arguably the most egocentric motive in basketball is an exclusive focus only on the points scored individually as this is the eye-catching position in a game's box score. As will be discussed later, an excessive focus on points scored is also positively related to the Game Score, the criteria of individual performance. Nevertheless, team-orientated conduct implies a sense of restraining oneself. Instead of taking shot after shot, looking to get everybody involved through passing appears more cooperative. To follow up this argumentation, a coach's urge to foster team cohesion leads to a decrease in individual performance development. That this personal restrain serves a higher order goal might be argued incorporating the results on team level. Does personal constrain pay off as the team is able to win more games? This is an intriguing thought. But based on the relatively weak empirical team level data this may be more of a question for future research rather than a plain result of this study.

The remaining two subdimensions of transformational leadership with significant effects on the performance criteria were Intellectual Stimulation and Providing Individualized Support. With regard to the former, my analyses indicated that a coach's urge to make his players think independently, be creative, and overthink previous assumptions has a positive effect on the team's overall performance. In leadership literature, there are plausible explanations for these findings. Athletes who are used to critically challenge and overthink team strategies, practice methods, or peer attitudes tend to

be less risk-averse and are capable of acting independently in future key situations such as defining moments of a game (Hall, 2007). As described earlier, professional basketball is a setting of high structural uncertainty (Dirks, 2000; Ripoll et al., 1995). According to Bass (1985b), in such a setting Intellectual Stimulation exhibited by a leader is successful which further underpins my findings. Similarly, Charbonneau et al. (2001) reported positive correlations between player ratings of coaches' Intellectual Stimulation and coach ratings of player performance improvement over a season.

Although Providing Individualized Support was not related to team performance, my analyses revealed positive effects on the development in individual performance. Accordingly, a player has a steeper performance growth when he experiences individualized consideration from his respective head coach. Attributed to such a leadership conduct is a coach's strive to consider players' needs by for instance working with single players individually on their weaknesses during or after a team's practice. Empirically, there are some studies within a sportive context which previously addressed the importance of supporting leadership behaviors in general. Charbonneau et al. (2001) and Rowold (2006) found positive relations from the MLQ scale of Individualized Consideration on criteria as athlete performance, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Likewise, Fletcher and Arnold (2011) stressed the importance of individual support to the workforce and staff development.

Contrary to my hypotheses, no significant effects were found regarding head coaches' laissez-faire and ethical leadership. Particularly with regard to ethical leadership, this urges some additional thoughts. Positing a positive relation to athletes' sportive performance, I drew on the environmental uncertainty and complexity accompanied by pro-level sports. I argued attributes as chronic job insecurity of head coaches or high player turnover to be predispositions of ethical leadership impact. As far as this study's data implies, this assumption could not be affirmed. One possible explanation for these findings is given by Eisenbeiß and Giessner (2012). In their review of ethical leadership research, they address untapped areas for future research. In one of them, they also discuss the link between ethical leadership and environmental attributes. Contraire to my prior argumentative approach, they argue the potential impact of ethical leadership to be severely limited through situational complexity and uncertainty:

“As a result, in highly complex environments in which organizational leaders by definition face huge challenges to ensure economic success and long-term organizational survival, leaders may simply lack the cognitive capacity and the time resources to consider every ethical aspect of an issue or incident they are confronted with. (Eisenbeiß & Giessner, 2012, p. 13)”

Following this argumentation, my results come to no surprise and serve as a preliminary confirmation of their research proposition. Thus, what must not be overlooked is that in this case ethical leadership literature offers two opposing explanations for the identical subject indicating that research in this field still has long ways to go. Moreover, this study also puts a question mark behind the assumption that ethical leadership is effective no matter the specific organizational context. This last statement also refers to some methodological questions. Especially the absence of significant effects might be due to the applied measure of ethical leadership. This topic will be further addressed in the forthcoming section of limitations to this study.

Strengths, limitations, and Avenues for Future Research

This present study incorporates several strengths. One important asset is the use of objective performance data. Leadership research applies subjective measures of leadership effectiveness (e.g., employee job satisfaction, commitment) in the vast majority of studies. Typically, this is due to the natural lack of valid objective criteria related to most occupational settings. Notwithstanding, leadership research with objective outcome measures is needed as it delivers ‘hard’ outcomes as opposed to one-sided attitudinal sentiments (Yukl, 2010). Therefrom, this study addresses an important, underdeveloped area in leadership research. Accompanied, this study exceeds many leadership studies as it examines the effects of leadership styles on the development of performance longitudinally rather than a basic status-quo.

In addition, this work addresses several methodological remarks forwarded by Podsakoff et al. (2003). By using different data sources with regard to leadership ratings (team member ratings) and performance criteria (statistical game coverage), I prevented the potential bias from same source variance. Likewise, by combining these two distinct survey approaches I also reduced the risk of common method variance.

Albeit all these important strengths, the study is limited due to several constraints. First to mention is the small sample size of team level data. My analysis of

team standings based on a sample of $N = 22$. As could be seen in the choice of statistical method, the potential for the application of more advanced techniques was limited. Future research could apply a broader scope and investigate not just the one or two top national leagues but also the minor leagues in order to retain a bigger data sample.

Some additional critical thoughts are related to ethical leadership. While this study was the first to investigate ethical leadership within a sport setting, it was, to my knowledge, at once only the second attempt to incorporate objective measures of leadership effectiveness. Detert et al. (2007) investigated longitudinally the impact of supervisors' ethical leadership on a criterion of foot loss in a fast food restaurant setting. As it was the case in my study, they could not reveal significant relations between the two variables. As a consequence, more research combining ethical leadership with objective outcome measures is still highly warranted in order to solidify the claim (e.g., Sharp Paine, 2000) that ethics figuratively speaking do pay off.

A potential reason for the missing impact of ethical leadership, I argue, could be the applied measure. The ELS by Brown et al. (2005) was used in a German validated adaption (Rowold et al., 2009). Apparently, the evolvement of this measure has been the mere ignition of ethical leadership research; thus, recent literature gives some rise to concern about the contribution of the instrument. As De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009; 2008) state ethical leadership is deemed to ambiguity with the use of the one-dimensional ELS. They recommend more conceptual refinement and postulate adjusted conceptions of ethical leadership differentiating between several subdimensions of ethical conduct such as morality and fairness, role clarification, and power sharing. Modeling ethical leadership multi-dimensional seems intriguing and future research using such an approach should foster a more detailed and precise comprehension of not just what leadership ethics contain but also which characteristics are most critical. Moreover, business ethics literature (e.g., Patzer & Scherer, 2010; Voegtlin et al., 2012) generally criticizes the mere instrumentalized comprehension accompanied by Brown, Trevino and colleagues' approach leaving leadership ethics as a mere subdimension of economic success.

With the transfer of behavioral leadership styles to the fields of sports I entered what is still a rather evolving setting for organizational leadership research. In case of transformational leadership, I could build on some prior conceptual and empirical work

favoring the idea. Conversely, ethical leadership had not been previously discussed in a sport context. Future research should address both in more rigor sportive settings; for example also opposing individual to team sports. I argue that especially qualitative research could contribute considerably in order to foster a better understanding of what coach behaviors are associated to different leadership facets. Especially investigating how ethical conduct is interpreted in a setting characterized by physical competition and altercation seems intriguing. With regard to transformational leadership, the results of this study imply interesting directions for future research. Earlier on, I already hypothesized on the synthesis of the opposing result patterns of team and individual data in case of Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals. With reservations, I argued that there might be a trade-off between individual sacrifice in favor of higher order team success related to a coaches' strive to foster team cohesion and team attitude. I suggest future research to investigate this possible interdependency more precisely.

The methodological centerpiece of this study was the analysis of player performance development using multi-level techniques which also implies some factors of limitation with potential for future research. The challenge was synthesizing available quantitative game data into a single criterion of performance. Sport economic literature offers different advanced efficiency metrics (e.g., *TENDEX* score, (Heeren, 1988); *Player Efficiency Rating (PER)*, (Hollinger, 2002)). I elected to apply Hollinger's Game Score (2002). As the case for all those metrics, the Game Score is discussed in terms of validity. One shortcoming is argued to be the one-sided focus on individual in-game player accomplishments while neglecting overall team numbers, the outcome of a game, and, most notably, the opponent's statistics. Considering these limitations, Hollinger (2002) also developed the Player Efficiency Rating which takes all those factors into account. In my study, I could not apply the PER as the statistical coverage available does not provide all numbers needed to compute the metric. Future work replicating my research setting could address this aspect by investigating national leagues where the necessary data is available (e.g., US-basketball). On top, several authors generally question Hollinger's approaches to player performance. For instance, Berri and Bradburi (2010) systematically analyze the GS and the PER and draw the conclusion that both lack construct validity. Instead of being appropriate measures of player performance, the authors reduce both metrics to plain incentives for players to shoot more. Both ap-

proaches to player efficiency "... overvalue inefficient scoring and do not do a very good job of explaining current wins" (Berri & Bradbury, 2010, p. 39). Berri (2008) developed a revised metric to capture a player's performance addressing the deficiencies of Hollinger's metrics. Again, future work should apply this measure of player performance as an alternative approach.

In course of the multi-level analyses, I modeled player performance development as a linear growth trend. As this approach facilitated practicability, I hazarded the consequences of some critical simplifications. Most notably, player performance development was assumed to be linear (growing, stagnating or decreasing) over time. Though, medium-termed, performance is subjected to fluctuation as players go through ups and downs with regard to their shape. Moreover, with a long term, i.e. career perspective, player development can arguably be visualized as a flat inverted U-curve as players' physical abilities increase until the late 20's before they steadily decrease until a player retires. Addressing the first argument, upcoming research analyzing player performance over time in a multi-level setting could in a first step try to model player development quadratic as opposed to linear in order to incorporate natural performance fluctuations.

6. Overall Discussion

It was the overall goal of this dissertation to systematically gain insights on the emerging field of ethical leadership. More precisely, I developed a comprehensive research model covering aspects of ethical leadership's antecedents, related and opposing leadership styles, situational boundaries, and its impact on organizational outcome criteria. The validation of this model in course of three subsequent empirical studies constituted the core of this work. In this sixth and final chapter, the merits of these different studies are summarized and put into an overall perspective.

At the beginning (chapter 6.1), the main findings of this work are summed up along the six initial research questions depicted in the introduction. Thereafter, the implications of these results are delineated. On the one hand, this is done by discussing the major findings in terms of their contribution to existing research and literature on (ethical) leadership (chapter 6.2). On the other hand, important limitations to this work's approach are addressed accompanied by the development of potential fields for future research (chapter 6.3). In chapter 6.4, the implications for Human Resource Practitioners are deduced. This dissertation ends with chapter 6.5 and an overall conclusion.

6.1 Summarization of Findings

In chapter 1.1 six key research questions were introduced as the focal points of this dissertation. Subsequently, these research questions will now be addressed in terms of each study's merits.

Research Question 1 addressed the potential beneficial impact from ethical leadership on the organization. As this topic is so crucial to academic literature, I examined this relationship in each of the three studies using a plethora of diverging sources, perspectives, and methods. *Study 1* showed positive correlational relations between supervisors' ethical leadership and employees' job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior and negative relations with counterproductive work behaviors. On top, ethical leadership, i.e. promoting ethical conduct as a facet of ethical leadership was shown to be positively related to employees' perceptions of trust and organizational justice. The second study took a different approach on ethical leadership impact by combining subjective (i.e. job satisfaction) and objective (i.e. sales data) measures of organizational

outcome. In both cases, analyses revealed substantial positive relations between those measures and ethical leadership. In *Study 3*, the patterns in results altered. Here, head coaches' ethical leadership, contrasted to transformational and laissez-faire leadership, could not be confirmed as a significant predictor of athletes' individual and team performance in professional basketball in Germany.

Overall, although ethical leadership impact failed to materialize in the last study, the different means and methods applied in terms of leadership effectiveness in *Studies 1* and *2* notably underline academic literature's claim of a positive impact from ethical leadership on the organization.

While the potential impact of ethical leadership gathers arguably the most academic interest in contemporary research, *Research Questions 2* refined this field by addressing the different contents incorporated and, thus, the multi-dimensionality of ethical leadership. As multi-dimensional research is still sparse in this field of research, *Study 1* took a rather explorative approach. By modeling the leadership style two-dimensionally, I was able to unfold the substantial contribution of each facet, ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct, separately. Interestingly, analyses revealed that only the latter had significant direct and indirect influence on the outcome criteria (direct: trust, justice; indirect: job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior).

The third perspective on ethical leadership outcome was the examination of mediating mechanisms introduced in *Research Question 3*. Again in *Study 1*, trust and organizational justice were postulated as linking variables between ethical leadership and the outcome criteria of job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior. Associated with the differentiation of ethical leadership facets, trust and justice could be both confirmed as mediators for ethical leadership impact, thus only for the facet of promoting ethical conduct. In case of ethical role modeling, the postulated relationship could not be validated.

Research Question 4 raised the topic of construct overlap and distinction between ethical leadership and other contemporary styles of leadership. Therefore, the unique contribution of ethical leadership was investigated in *Study 3*. In detail, the impact of ethical leadership in a sportive setting was investigated while subsequently con-

trolling for transformational and laissez-faire leadership. In this study, leadership impact was investigated with regard to athletes' individual and team level objective performance. In contrast to prior assumptions, my analyses could not reveal any significant effects from ethical leadership leaving the fifth research question of this dissertation rather unanswered.

Conversely, transformational leadership facets turned out to be valid predictors on both levels of analysis. On the team level, the facets of Articulating a Vision, Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals, and Intellectual Stimulation were positively associated with an objective measure of team performance. On the individual level, Articulating a Vision and Individual Consideration had positive effects on players' individual performance while Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals had a negative one.

In the claim of developing and testing a comprehensive integrative model, I also addressed personal antecedents of ethical leadership. In *Research Question 5* leader personality traits were suggested as important dispositions of ethical leadership. This question was extensively examined in course of *Study 2*. In a cross-sample of an industrial company, the personality traits of agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion could be confirmed as significant predictors of supervisors' ethical leadership. In an additional step of analysis, the same model was tested for a distinct organizational department, i.e. sales forces. In this subsample, the resulting patterns diverged and only leader extraversion remained with a significant effect on perceptions of ethical leadership.

The last major field of interest referred to the potential contextual boundary of ethical leadership. As depicted in *Research Question 6* extant literature gives reason to expect some extant of situational influences on the emergence and impact of ethical leadership. As this field has been rather untapped empirically, I elected to examine situational influences in two different ways.

First, in *Study 2*, I compared a model of ethical leadership antecedents and consequences for an organizational cross sample and sales department as a subsample, separately. While the patterns concerning leadership effectiveness were matched in tendency and significance (significant and positive effects on follower job satisfaction and

sales numbers, respectively), the differences concerning the personality traits-ethical leadership relation give hint on the influence of situational factors.

Second, I examined the influence of ethical leadership in an alternative thus pristine leadership context: professional basketball in Germany. While ethical leadership had been confirmed as a valid predictor of leadership effectiveness in *Studies 1* and *2* and in decent amount of prior research, *Study 3* could not tie in with these patterns. Ethical leadership was not related to any of the applied measures of athletes' performance. Again, these results imply additional thoughts on the potential situational boundaries linked to ethical leadership.

Table 13 comprises all major findings from this dissertation.

Table 13. Overview of results from Studies 1, 2, and 3

Research Question	Study	Key Variables/Model Specifics	Test Statistic	Results
<i>RQ 1: Impact of Ethical Leadership</i>	<i>Criteria of Leadership Impact</i>			
	1	Employee: - Job Satisfaction - Organizational Citizenship Behavior - Counterproductive Work Behavior - Trust - Justice	Latent variable correlation	- Positive correlations between ethical leadership (EL) facets and job satisfaction and OCB - Negative correlations with CWB
			Path coefficient	- Positive effects from PEC on both - No effects (exceeding correlational analysis) from ERM on both
	2	- Job satisfaction - Sales performance	Path coefficient	- Positive effects from EL on job satisfaction and sales performance
	3	- Development in followers' individual objective performance - Team standings by season end	Multi-level coefficient Correlation	- No effects from EL on athletes' performance development - No relation between EL and team standings
	<i>RQ 2: Impact of Ethical Leadership Facets</i>	<i>Facets of Ethical Leadership</i>		
1		- Ethical Role Modeling - Promoting Ethical Conduct	Path coefficient	- Exceeding correlational analyses, significant effects only from PEC - No significant effects from ERM
<i>RQ 3: Mediating Mechanisms of Ethical Leadership Impact</i>	1	<i>Posited Mediation</i> - Trust and justice as mediators for the relation between ethical leadership and outcome criteria (job satisfaction, OCB, CWB)	Comparison of nested models & indirect effects	- In both cases, full mediation confirmed for EL facet of PEC

Table 13. Continued

Research Question	Study	Key Variables/Model Specifics	Test Statistic	Results
		<i>Related and Opposed Leadership Styles</i>		
<i>RQ 4: Ethical Leadership and Other Leadership Styles</i>	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transformational leadership - Laissez-faire leadership 	Multi-level coefficient	- No effects from EL on performance measures when controlling for TL
		<i>Leader Personality Traits</i>		
<i>RQ 5: Personality and Ethical Leadership</i>	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Agreeableness - Dependability - Achievement - Extraversion 	Path coefficient	- Positive effects from agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion on EL
		<i>Operationalization of Context</i>		
<i>RQ 6: Context-boundary of Ethical Leadership</i>	2	- Structural model tested separately for (a) corporate cross section and (b) sales departments	Path coefficient	<p>Outcome of Ethical Leadership:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In both models, ethical leadership was positively related to the applied criteria of leadership effectiveness <p>Antecedents of Ethical Leadership</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In (a) substantial positive effects from agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion - In (b) substantial positive effects only from extraversion
	3	- Investigation of EL impact in sport context	Multi-level coefficient & correlation	- No influence from EL on performance measures

6.2 Contribution to Existing Research

The results of the three studies as stated as above contribute to extant literature in several ways. A useful approach to address them systematically is to differentiate between *theoretical contribution* and contribution through *methodological strengths*.

Theoretical contribution

A major contribution to existing research facilitates this dissertation through the depiction of ethical leadership *impact* in rigorous ways. While some vital strength refers to methodological attributes and will be addressed later, several key points of content related merit are to mention. As introduced in chapter 2.4.2, research on ethical leadership impact is intriguing due to the different categories of organizational outcome criteria possible. On the one hand, ethical leadership can be addressed in terms of conventional means of organizational impact. Accordingly, *Studies 1* and *2* revealed important positive relations to employees' job satisfaction and occupational performance. On the other hand, dealing with ethics related topics concurrently implicates the investigation of alternative measures of leadership impact. In an attempt to capture ethical sensitivity and normative appropriateness of followers' conduct, I also considered organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behaviors as instruments of such category. *Study 1* confirmed the beneficial effects of ethical leadership as it was significantly related to both criteria.

Furthermore, this dissertation enlarges existing literature by inspecting *facets of ethical leadership* and their impact. Reviewing conceptual work on ethical leadership, different leader attributes and behavioral patterns are discussed. Baring these differences in content, it is somewhat surprising that the vast majority of empirical studies models ethical leadership as a one-dimensional construct. With the differentiation between ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct, the first study of this dissertation taps a research domain still severely underdeveloped. The results indicate that promoting ethical conduct as the rather explicit facet, comprising visible behavioral elements such as showing care for employees (assistance, empowerment) and a strive for fair judgment in decision-making, makes up for the decisive part of ethical leadership impact, especially on the mediating variables of trust and justice. While promoting ethical conduct can be labeled as the visible facet of ethical leadership, ethical role

modeling comprises elements which can be interpreted as mere attributes or traits of a leader. For instance, for an employee it is rather difficult to judge if a supervisor leads his life in an ethical manner (item of ethical role modeling). On the opposition, assessing how a leader listens to what followers say (item of promoting ethical conduct) is much more visible. Therefore, with these findings, my work ties in with extensive literature suggesting the superiority of leadership effectiveness through behavioral approaches to leadership rather than a trait perspective (cf. Yukl, 2010; Zaccaro, 2007).

Another merit of this present work is the focus on *mediating mechanisms* of ethical leadership impact. In most of relevant literature the processes how ethical leadership behavior excels are predominantly theoretically driven. Empirical evidence is sparse. As one of the very few exceptions, Walumbwa et al. (2011) confirmed LMX, self-efficacy, and organizational identification as important mediators. My work enlarges the scope of existing research by developing trust and justice as additionally mediating variables. Results underpin that by injecting ethical values in their leadership behavior and by encouraging followers' ethical sound behavior ethical leaders enhance subordinates' job perception indicated by enriched job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior and lessened deviant behaviors.

In chapter 2.3.1 ethical leadership was opposed to other related leadership styles including transformational leadership. Consequently, the *unique value and contribution* of ethical leadership could be carved out. As this differentiation was theoretically driven, the purpose of the third study was to investigate this relation empirically. However, as the results implied, this claim was not confirmed. Ethical leadership failed to exhibit significant influence on top of transformational leadership. Whilst there is scattered empirical support for their empirical distinction (e.g., Mayer et al., 2012), this dissertation constitutes another call for additional work on the interplay and differentiation between ethical and transformational leadership.

With regard to *antecedents*, this dissertation strengthens the role of leader personality as an important disposition of ethical leadership. My empirical work identified leader agreeableness as crucial towards the emergence of ethical leadership which is in line with prior theoretical (Brown & Trevino, 2006a) and empirical (Kalshoven et al., 2010; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) work. While this existing research also stresses the importance of conscientiousness, my work went a step further by modeling this

trait two-dimensionally, thus, differentiating between leader dependability and achievement. While most of existing work recurses on leader attributes such as trustworthiness and reliability (i.e. leader dependability), my analyses contradict those assumptions by revealing that it is merely the achievement trait that predicts ethical leadership. Another important push to existing literature is the inclusion of leader extraversion. While this trait had been consistently neglected in the past, my study confirmed the relevance in reference to ethical leadership. Drawing on social learning, a leader who scores high on the extraversion scale (e.g., being outgoing and talkative) is more likely to develop a reputation for ethical leadership by being a more visible and tangible model for emulation.

On top, with the validation of ethical leadership as the mediator between leader personality and leadership effectiveness, I contribute to the empirical void regarding integrative personality-leadership-impact models. While prior literature has discussed leader personality as rather distal predictors of leadership effectiveness and leadership behaviors as proximal ones (cf. Zaccaro, 2007), my work delivers important empirical support for this comprehension.

The last major research area of this dissertation referred to the contextual or situational influence on ethical leadership. Overall, my results confirm theoretical work from several authors positing favoring and detrimental situational effects on the emergence and impact of ethical leadership. With regard to the emergence, my results from *Study 2* suggest that, considering the differences in context, altered personality traits are relevant. For example, leader extraversion had significant influence on ethical leadership in both samples of *Study 2*. As the effect was much stronger in the subsample of sales departments, these findings have important implications. Sales departments are unique through e.g. the high degree of decentralization or the proximity to tangible measures of occupational behaviors (i.e. sales numbers). In such a setting, for a leader to be perceived as ethical it is more crucial to be rather outgoing, expressive, and talkative as it is the case in other departments. Therefore, context variables as customer contact, extrinsic culture, and decentralization seem to strengthen the extraversion-ethical leadership link. That the impact of personality traits differed across the two samples can be further explained with academic literature. Trait-activation theory suggests that the mere presence of a trait does not guarantee its predictive value. However, traits can material-

ize into actual behaviors or expressions when trait-relevant situational cues coincide. Therefrom, traits are seen as latent until certain situational features trigger them into visible action (Tett & Guterman, 2000).

This dissertation also offers vivid insights on the contextual influence regarding ethical leadership impact. *Study 2* revealed similar effects in both data sets. In the two segments, ethical leadership was positively related to employees' job satisfaction and sales teams' sales performance, respectively. Therefrom, the conclusion could be drawn that the beneficial effects of ethical leadership transcend in various organizational departments. However, results of *Study 3* challenged this claim of universality. In professional basketball in Germany, head coaches' ethical leadership failed to exert significant influence on followers' performance. Following a situational perspective on ethical leadership impact, I leaned on Eisenbeiß and Giessner (2012) for explanation. Due to the high complexity and uncertainty accompanied to professional sports, the acceleration of ethical leadership might be severely hindered. Synthesizing results from *Studies 2* and *3* into an overall perspective, the organizational nature seems crucial in terms of investigating ethical leadership impact. *Study 2* ties in with the vast majority of relevant leadership research as a traditional corporate setting was examined. *Study 3*, however, expanded research to non-traditional settings which is still rather unorthodox in extant organizational leadership literature. The concurrent implications for future work will be discussed in the upcoming chapter 6.3.

Apparently, the key focus of this dissertation lies upon the investigation of ethical leadership. Notwithstanding, in course of the empirical studies this work also contributes to existing research on transformational leadership. In recent literature, transformational leadership has been introduced to the domain of sports. While several authors addressed this transfer from a theoretical perspective (cf. Hopton et al., 2007), the empirical validation is sporadic (e.g., Charbonneau et al., 2001; Rowold, 2006). Furthermore, existing research covered mere recreational sports rather than pro-level competition. Therefore, expanding research on transformational leadership in sports to a professional level setting is a considerable push to extant literature. My analyses revealed important findings. Head coaches' visionary behavior showed to be the most crucial facet of leadership in terms of enhancing athletes' sportive performance. This finding corresponds with both general organizational work on transformational leader-

ship (Bradford & Cohen, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1990) and sports related literature (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011), respectively.

Methodological Strengths

Besides theoretical contribution to (ethical) leadership literature, this dissertation excels through the incorporation of several key methodological strengths. These strengths refer to aspects of measurement sources and analytical methods, likewise.

Starting off with the *different sources of measurement*, I took several steps to ensure and accelerate the external validity of results and to oppose measurement bias stemming from common methods applied (cf. Podsakoff et al., 2003).

First of all, all three studies were conducted as field studies meaning that actual supervisors and subordinates participated in the process. Therefore, this work exceeds existing studies which investigated ethical leadership in experimental settings relying heavily on student participants (e.g., Strobel, Tumasjan, & Welpe, 2010). On top, as all three studies were conducted in different organizations and settings, this heterogeneity in data composition further strengthens the external validity of my results.

Second, all applied questionnaires in the different studies were shown to be reliable instruments. In each case, internal consistencies reached acceptable to good levels. Regarding the variables covered in the path modeling approaches in *Studies 1* and *2*, measurement statistics confirmed the parceling procedures.

Third, in course of the latter two studies, several variables were aggregated to team level in order to ensure the appropriateness of analytical level. In this process, several indices of data homogeneity were calculated. The applied means of interrater agreement and reliability delivered statistical justification of this approach.

Fourth and going more into detail on the different studies, in *Study 2*, I went beyond existing research on the relationship between personality traits and ethical leadership due to the measurement of the former. I increased the validity of personality traits by offering an on work frame of reference in the applied questionnaires.

Fifth, with the combination subjective and objective measures of leadership effectiveness, this dissertation surpasses most of existing work on ethical leadership im-

pact. Most related studies rely on subjective measures of leadership outcome, solely. However, a lopsided reliance on subjective indicators has previously been discussed in terms of haltering the accuracy of propositions (Hogan et al., 1994). On the contraire, objective measures of leadership impact are highly warranted and, thus, rather sparse. To my knowledge, citing literature on ethical leadership, no empirical work has successfully linked ethical leadership to an objective criterion, yet. Therefore, barring the characteristics of subjective and objective measure, academic literature recommends that addressing leadership effectiveness, empirical research, at best, should incorporate both sources (DeRue et al., 2011; Yukl, 2010). In accordance with this best-way scenario, in *Study 2*, I took employees' job satisfaction and sales teams' sales data as measures of subjective and objective outcome criteria, respectively. Furthermore, *Study 3* constituted an even more sophisticated approach and laid the focus on objective measures of leadership impact, exclusively.

Sixth, the installation of time lags between the assessment of leadership behavior and objective outcome measures in *Studies 2* and *3* constitutes another important strength. In *Study 2*, sales teams' performance was measured four months after the initial survey. Regarding *Study 3*, the assessment of team performance took place at the end of the season, several months after the inquiry. These time lags between measurement times provide a proper lag in terms of accurately analyzing the effects from leadership behavior on respective quantifiable outcomes and therefore constituting a quasi-longitudinal design (Judge & Long, 2012).

Seventh, a unique feature of *Study 3* is the differentiation between the hierarchical levels of analysis. With the coverage of individual and team level performance, I am able to depict the two most relevant levels of leadership research, independently (Yammarino, Dionne, Uk Chun, & Dansereau, 2005).

In addition to the strengths related to the different sources applied, further methodological merit stemmed from the *analytical methods* applied in this dissertation.

First and importantly, the general analytical procedures applied are at the cutting-edge of contemporary leadership research. In *Study 1*, I modeled the developed structural model using SEM-techniques. In a similar way, the research model of *Study 2* was validated using path modeling techniques. Results obtained from those integrating

models allow for more conservative conclusions and, thus, exceed single regression approaches as more complex models can be tested (Harrell, 2001). In *Study 3*, multi-level techniques were used. With this approach the hierarchical nature of the study's data could be taken into consideration. In recent years, multi-leveling techniques have been gaining considerable academic interest within the domain of leadership research. However, multi-level research on ethical leadership is very sporadic (Kacmar et al., 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2011).

Second, in *Studies 1* and *2*, mediating processes were posited and tested via different methods. Since Baron and Kenny's (1986) classical approach has been receiving critical response (Preacher & Hayes, 2004), I applied procedures introduced to academic literature more recently. For example, in *Study 1*, the comparison of different nested models as recommended by James et al. (2006) as well as the examination of indirect effects outlined by MacKinnon et al. (2002) were used to test for mediation. A similar path was taken in *Study 2*. Here, indirect effects were calculated in order to test for potential mediating mechanisms.

Third, some analytical procedures were deployed to reduce potential common method bias. While the composition of different sources, as illustrated above, is one major asset, the following analytical approaches further external validity of results. In *Study 1* and according to Podsakoff et al. (2003), the posited structural model was enlarged by an additional latent variable of common method variance which subsequently loaded on all indicators. Results indicated no profound bias. An even more sophisticated approach was taken in *Study 2* by applying a sample-split technique (Ostroff et al., 2002; Rousseau, 1985). This procedure assured that data for directly linked variables (for example leader personality and ethical leadership ratings) did not stem from the same person.

Fourth and again narrowing the focus to a particular study, *Study 3* contributes to leadership research considerably through the examination of performance development. With the application of multi-level latent growth models, I was capable of analyzing leadership styles' effects on the individual development of followers over time. Research examining leadership impact in a longitudinal setting is very sparse and, yet, highly warranted (House & Aditya, 1997). Moreover, *Study 3* goes beyond existing scattered research by investigating the performance development in an actual field set-

ting other than the military (e.g., Dvir et al., 2002). Although ethical leadership was not confirmed as a significant predictor of followers' performance, the results concerning transformational leadership constitute a key push to extant research, as it had previously not been linked to performance development captured in objective terms.

6.3 Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

Despite the valuable contribution to existing literature, this dissertation also implies some implications and, thus, raises several questions for future research. A detailed review of conceptual and methodological limitations tied to each study is given in course of chapters 3.5, 4.5, and 5.5. In the present chapter, I won't reiterate every single of those aspects. To a greater degree, I will address conceptual and methodological limitations on a more general level and lay the focus on the subsequent derivation of potential fields of future research. To retain a clear structure, I will differentiate between propositions for research on (1) ethical leadership impact, (2) antecedents of ethical leadership, and (3) contextual implications.

(1) Impact of ethical leadership. With this dissertation, I supplement existing research on ethical leadership impact. As depicted above, ethical leadership could be empirically related to diverse indicators of organizational performance such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and performance. Putting those findings into perspective to other studies' results, I argue that most of the crucial criteria are studied by now. We can refer to studies linking ethical leadership to means of organizational effectiveness, employee attitudes, ethic-related outcomes, interactional aspects, and many more. Due to this increased empirical landscape, methodological aspects of investigating ethical leadership impact should capture increased academic attention from now on. In an attempt to contribute to extant research, I applied sophisticated sources (several indicators of objective performance, combining subjective and objective indicators of leadership effectiveness) and methods (e.g., multi-level latent growth modeling, sample-split technique) for analyses. However, with these procedures the potential for analytical approaches is by no means exhausted.

One crucial path for upcoming research is a comprehensive review of existing research. To date, as the field of ethical leadership covers approximately 30 to 40 inde-

pendent empirical studies, a meta-analytic approach analyzing effect sizes and relations is reasonable. Previous meta-analyses in related research fields contributed considerably as they validly confirmed prominent assumptions (e.g., the relationship between employee job satisfaction and actual performance; Judge et al., 2001) or unfolded surprisingly weak correlations (e.g., the relationship between Big Five personality traits and transformational leadership; Bono & Judge, 2004). Similar work on ethic related topics in organizational literature is still missing and, thus, constitutes one intriguing field for future research.

With the modeling of performance development over time in course of *Study 3*, I addressed the longitudinal dimension of ethical leadership (and transformational leadership) impact. Although this approach provides important methodological insights, the causal relationship between leadership and leadership outcome must be investigated more intensively. For instance, only experimental research allows for definite cause-and-effects conclusions. In the field of ethical leadership, preliminary insights gained from experimental research provide encouraging results. Strobel et al. (2010) revealed that ethical leader behavior is positively associated with ratings of ethical leadership and that it enhances organizational attractiveness. In a similar vein, future work should build on this approach and investigate whether ethical leadership is the causal antecedent of enhanced follower satisfaction and performance.

A goal of this dissertation was to empirically confirm the postulated discrimination from ethical leadership with transformational and laissez-faire leadership as related and opposing leadership styles, respectively. However, results from *Study 3* revealed that contradicting academic literature ethical leadership did not exhibit significant effects beyond those leadership styles. Baring these findings, we need more work on the discriminant validity of leadership styles. One promising approach is the application of sophisticated methods like Multi-Trait-Multi-Method (Chang et al., 2012) techniques in order to systematically reduce measurement errors. Regarding the differentiation between transactional and transformational leadership, for instance, such MTMM analyses could statistically confirm the empirical distinction of both constructs (Krüger et al., 2011).

With the differentiation between ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct as the facets of overall ethical leadership, this dissertation gained preliminary

insights on its multi-dimensionality. However, the results gained from *Study 1* on the effects on ethical role modeling were somewhat disappointing. When controlling for promoting ethical conduct, ethical role modeling had no significant effect on any of the different criteria. These findings demand several concluding thoughts. One first line of argument draws on the perception of ethics in business in Germany which is different from the United States where the construct of ethical leadership is originated (Martin, Resick, & Dickson, 2009). In Germany, executives may not be accustomed to explicitly communicate about ethics. Ethics is arguably more referred to exceptional behavior intuitively rather than the vocational accompaniment of such efforts. In line with this, corporate initiatives on the incorporation of ethic related issues are in general far less formal and established as it is the case in Anglo-Saxon countries (Weaver, Trevino, & Cochran, 1999). With the communication about ethics being an important aspect of the ethical role modeling facet (Rowold et al., 2009), supervisors in Germany may avoid such actions, as it is more common to ‘walk the walk’ as opposed to ‘talk the walk’. Then again, this argumentation questions the transferability of the construct to other cultures and urges future work to focus on conceptual refinement regarding national specifics. In a related manner, this topic of national boundary of ethical leadership will be further depicted in course of the upcoming section on ethical leadership and the context in future work.

A second related thought regarding the disappointing results of the ethical role modeling facet addresses additional research on the contents tied to ethical leadership. The empirical investigation of the multi-dimensionality of ethical leadership is still sparse. With the exception of *Study 1* this dissertation ties in with the vast of majority of research modeling the leadership style as one-dimensional. Nevertheless, the different contents attached to the common understanding of ethical leadership leave the question which elements are more crucial than others. In this regard, the findings of *Study 1* have to be understood as rather preliminary. That ethical role modeling is the less impacting facet of ethical leadership is not only supported by this dissertation. In the validation study of the German adaption of the Ethical Leadership Scale, ethical role modeling was not related to neither employees’ commitment nor job satisfaction when subsequently controlling for promoting ethical conduct and other related leadership styles (i.e., transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, consideration,

and initiating structure; Rowold et al., 2009). Only in very recent years, the field of ethical leadership dimensionality seems to be gaining increased academic interest as different authors addressed this problematic. Most notably, Kalshoven and colleagues (Kalshoven, 2010; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & Hoogh, 2013) reconsidered the conceptual structure of ethical leadership and put it on a broader base-ment for empirical research by distinguishing between seven facets: people orientation, power sharing, fairness, role clarification, integrity, concern for sustainability, and ethi-cal guidance. Concurrent research should aim at confirming the factorial structure of this approach and relate the measures to different organizational outcome criteria.

A third perspective on the absence of ethical role modeling impact is of method-ological nature. Ethical leadership was assessed using employee ratings of supervisory leadership behavior which is the common source in leadership research. Notwithstand-ing, this could be a pitfall concerning this facet. On top of the communication about ethics, ethical role modeling also captures contents that are related to mere attributes or characteristics of an ethical leader. For instance, important pillars are an ethical leader's personal morality and his concern for righteousness symbolizing his deep anchorage to ethics (Rowold et al., 2009). Regarding such characteristics as rather stable personal dispositions, future work should assess them with leader self-ratings as this is the more common way of measuring stable characteristics such as personality in organizational literature (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012).

With the introduction of ethical role modeling as a potential stable disposition or attribute of ethical leadership, this potentially broadens the understanding concerning the succession of ethical leadership facets and leadership impact. As has been elaborat-ed before, academic literature has suggested several integrative models of the leadership process. Zaccaro (2007), for instance, distinguishes between distal and proximal attrib-utes pending leadership performance. While leader characteristics such as personality or motives refer to distal predictors, actual leadership behaviors constitute the proximal ones. Transferring this structure to ethical leadership research, ethical role modeling might be interpreted as distal predictors of leadership impact, while promoting ethical conduct addresses the proximal aspects. Accordingly, a leader's deeply rooted morality (=ethical role modeling) translates into visible behavioral patterns, such as staying true to one's word, considering follower interests and needs, and by being thoughtful on

decisional consequences (=promoting ethical conduct). As the latter aspects are more visible to followers, ethical leadership behaviors might be more directly linked to leadership outcome criteria. In line with this argumentation, succeeding research could test this structural order.

(2) Antecedents of ethical leadership. Positing ethical role modeling as an antecedent of promoting ethical conduct, I already entered the field of ethical leadership predictors come future research. In this dissertation, I addressed the potential antecedents of ethical leadership through leader personality traits, solely. However, I only included three of the Big Five Model (conscientiousness, agreeableness, and extraversion). The other two were neglected following theoretical delineation in case of openness and following prior empirical findings in case of neuroticism. By examining leader extraversion, this dissertation deviated from other literature which mostly understated its relevance (cf. Brown & Trevino, 2006a). Admittedly, the two remaining facets should not be left out completely in ethical leadership research and should be investigated more intensively. Overall, surplus regarding the relationship between leader personality and ethical leadership promises the usage of different methodological aspects. For example, applying narrower traits instead of the broad Big Five categories in future studies is one potential path (Hough, 1992). On top, more sophisticated methods like Multi-Trait-Multi-Method (Chang et al., 2012) techniques have proved to be useful in gaining insights on the relation between leadership styles and leader personality before (Krüger, 2012) and could be used regarding ethical leadership, too.

As ethical leadership is closely tied to personal ‘ethical’ attributes like integrity, morality, and values, research in this field should go well beyond the depicted successional relation between ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct. For instance, Jordan et al. (2013) showed that followers’ ratings of supervisor ethical leadership were positively predicted by supervisors’ level of moral reasoning (Rest, 1986). A related thus remarkably untapped research domain is the interdependence between leader values and the emergence of ethical leadership. Schwartz (2003) introduced a promising conception of values with the differentiation between ten distinct values. Although they were originally developed to conduct research across nations and cultures, they seem appealing regarding organizational research as they would allow for further insights on the dispositional basis of ethical leadership.

(3) Ethical leadership and the context. In this dissertation, the most glaring limitation to the investigation of contextual influences on the emergence and impact of ethical leadership was of methodological nature. All conclusions drawn stemmed from the comparison and subsequent interpretation of the results revealed in course of *Studies 2 and 3*. However, my analytical approach did not include an actual method to reveal statistical significances of the differences in findings due to contextual variables. Consequently, a first crucial proposal for future research is the use of proper statistical methods like moderation analyses, ANOVA, or multi-group SEM analyses to address the influence of leadership situation.

In light of this work's findings and the growing literature on ethical leadership, there are several approaches to further investigate contextual influences in future research. On a broad level, two paths for upcoming work can be differentiated. The first one relates to *meso-level influence*, i.e. variables addressing (intra-)organizational aspects. The second one refers to potential influence stemming from the organizational environment, i.e. *macro-level influence*.

The *meso-level* influence is closely tied to the role of corporate social responsibility (CSR). CSR is at the cutting edge of business ethics research. It is an umbrella term for various corporate "actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law" (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001, p. 117). The concept of CSR covers aspects of stakeholder consideration, social involvement, economic motivation, environmentalism, and voluntariness in actions at the hands of organizations (Dahlsrud, 2008). Combining ethical leadership and CSR research is appealing due to several reasons. Most potential stems from the previous emergence of different quantifiable measures of corporate activities (e.g. Kinder, Lydenberg, & Domini (KLD) social performance ratings data; Sharfman, 1996) accompanied by the steady growing interest in CSR related topics. For instance, several studies used quasi-objective measures to assess organizational CSR-activities (Hillman & Keim, 2001; McWilliams & Siegel, 2000). Applying those measures within ethical leadership research provides several paths for future research. First, CSR-activities could serve as a vivid moderator for the relationship between ethical leadership and different outcome measures. In this case, CSR would serve as an indicator for ethical culture of an organization. Second, CSR activities could be investigated in course of

personnel selection. A tied research question could be, if ethical leaders chose highly committed organizations over those with less CSR related efforts. Third, CSR activities could be investigated concerning top management's ethical leadership. Upper echelon (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) theory suggests that top management teams (TMT) greatly influence organizational performance. Interpreting corporate CSR activities as an organization level outcome of ethical engagement, research could examine the influence from TMT's ethical leadership.

Regarding potential influence from the organizational environment (*macro-level* influence) on the emergence and impact of ethical leadership, again several aspects could be investigated. A first major field refers to situational complexity and uncertainty. Both those aspects played an important role within the last two studies. In case of *Study 2*, they served as a potential explanation for the differences in resulting patterns concerning the two data sample. In *Study 3*, complexity and uncertainty of a given situation were cited to delineate and interpret the relationship between ethical leadership and occupational performance in a sport domain. The study of uncertainty in organizations has been well established (Milliken, 1987). Conceptual as well as empirical work has been published in the past (Bass, 1985b; Pillai & Meindl, 1998). Interestingly, the role of uncertainty has been explicitly transferred to research on transformational and transactional leadership's impact. Waldman et al. (2001) confirmed that perceived environmental uncertainty moderated the relationship between CEO's charismatic leadership (synonymic for transformational leadership) and corporate financial performance. In situations of high uncertainty, charismatic leadership had a much stronger effect on the financial performance than in situations of certainty. Similar empirical work in the field of ethical leadership seems highly warranted, as this interaction has been addressed in academic literature from a theoretical perspective (cf. De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Eisenbeiß & Giessner, 2012) but has not been supported by empirical data, yet.

A second macro-level influence and closely tied to the topic of situational uncertainty is the field of organizational change. With the growing complexity and competitiveness in the global economy, organizations face a continuous and existential challenge to develop and adopt to change. Research on change management has a long tradition (cf. Burke, 2010). Recently, change related topics have also been transferred to leadership research. For instance, Abrell (2012) showed that supervisors' transforma-

tional leadership is beneficial in the change context as it positively influences followers' commitment to change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Ethical leadership, on its part, has not been introduced to such fields of organizational change. However, there is some potential for future work. In business ethics literature, there has been a long debate about the dependence on economic situation. Some critical statements remain claiming that corporate ethical engagement is to some sort a matter of 'fair weather policy' (Homann, 1992). In times of prosperity, corporate initiatives for ethical sensitivity rise while they trickle off in critical situations. Transferring these arguments to ethical leadership research, it is appealing to investigate the emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership in the process of organizational change.

Third, another important frontrunner when it comes to environmental influences on the emergence and impact of leadership is the role of culture. While organizational culture surely plays an important role, this aspect will be addressed in course of the forthcoming paragraph contrasting traditional and non-traditional settings of leadership research. However, culture does also play a role when it comes to a national level. Cultural differences capture researchers' interest since decades. Seminal work by Hofstede (2001) provided an exceptional operationalization of cultural dimensions. Accordingly, countries can be classified to different cultural clusters. Each cluster captures several countries with rather similar characteristics. Reviewing existing research on ethical leadership, the vast majority of work is from the Anglo and Germanic Europe cluster, respectively. In that way, my studies provide insights on cultural spheres which have been examined before (cf. De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Kalshoven, 2010; Kalshoven et al., 2010; Rowold & Borgmann, 2009). Even comparing the findings from the US and Germany give reason to expect cultural differences (cf. Martin et al., 2009). In their validation of the German adaption of Brown and Trevino's ELS-questionnaire, Rowold et al. (2009) had to cut one item ("Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards") from the original scale due to statistical reasons. They explained the low selectivity of the item with cultural differences. In the USA, formal sanctioning structures regarding corporate ethics is much more common than in Germany. On top of probable cultural differences concerning extant empirical literature, research in other cultural clusters is still missing. Importantly, existing literature gives rise to concern about the adaptability of Western Europe and Anglo-Saxon comprehensions of ethics on cultures

like Asia or Africa. Therefore, an important field for future research concerns comparing work in the tradition of Hofstede (e.g., different cultural dimensions as moderators, multi-group analyses) and, necessarily, conceptual thus mere explorative research on contents of ethical leadership in different cultures.

A fourth influential environmental aspect is the domain of organizational culture. Several authors have studied the role of organizational culture within the field of corporate ethics (Cullen & Victor, 1993; Toor & Ofori, 2009). However, this dissertation's findings point at rather untapped areas. Consequently, future work should examine the impact from organizational mandate or branch affiliation. In the third study, analyses revealed that head coaches' ethical leadership was not related to athletes' performance. As ethical leadership showed beneficial organizational impact in the other two studies, I addressed the relevance of traditional vs. non-traditional organization settings, before. While the findings of ethical leadership's impact in traditional corporation-bound settings are fairly stable, future research should focus more on non-traditional settings like sports, non-profit organizations (e.g., NGOs, healthcare, church, or facilities of the United Nations). For example, transformational leadership has been investigated in such alternative leadership settings somewhat extensively (Bass, 1997). Notwithstanding, ethical leadership has not been transferred, comparably. Especially, as non-profit organizations often pursue an organizational mandate with downright ethical sensitivity (e.g., serving others, fighting for human rights, pursuing global peace), these settings are pristine contexts for studying the nature of ethical leadership (Eisenbeiß & Giessner, 2012).

Fifth and finally, the context of sports needs some additional attention. In contrast to transformational leadership, extant literature on ethical leadership does not provide theoretical work for the transfer to a sport context. However, I argued that competitive team sports are also relevant for investigating ethical leadership as several structural elements (e.g., situational uncertainty, physical interaction, and competition) provide interesting points of contact for ethical sensitivity. Hence, ethical leadership could not be confirmed as a significant predictor. However, leadership research should not dismiss on this domain. Conceptual refinement seems warranted in order to clarify the contents of an ethical leadership style in sports. For instance in case of basketball, committing intentional fouls bares the risk of eventually hurting opponents, clearly an unethical

behavior. However, in competitive basketball, such actions are an integral part of the game. During the finals minutes of an actual game and with the own team trailing, every coach is forced to command such intentional fouls from his players in order to stop the time. Summarizing, what exactly ethical leadership is in the fields of sports may not be explained by usual means drawn from corporate organizational settings. Here, qualitative research seems promising to better explicate the contents of ethical sport leadership.

Summarizing, all depicted avenues for future work are visualized in Figure 5.

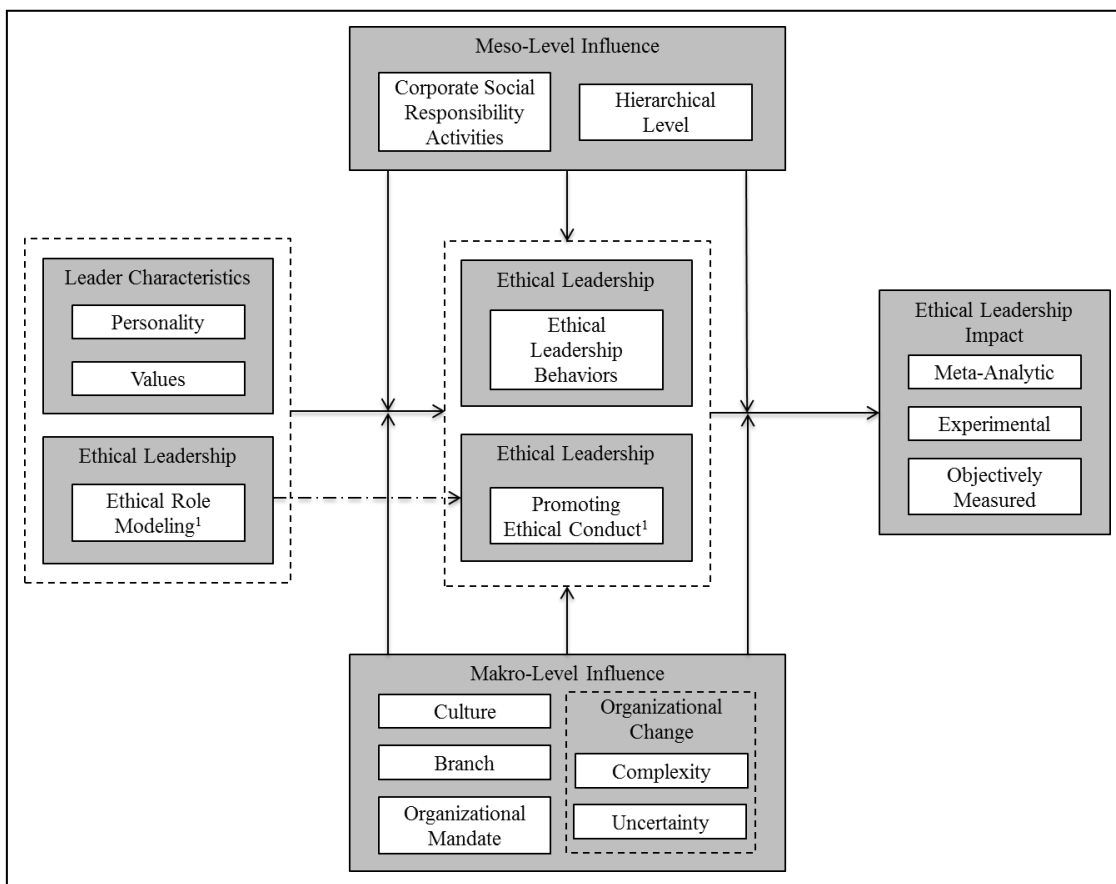


Figure 5. Proposals for Future Research on Ethical Leadership. ¹⁾ Differentiation between Ethical Role Modeling and Promoting Ethical Conduct according to Rowold and Borgmann (2009).

6.4 Implications for Practitioners

A number of practical implications can be deduced from the findings of this dissertation. As it covered *traditional organizational settings* as well as *professional sports*, the practical implications will be depicted for each of the two domains, separately.

(1) Implications for the traditional organization. Concerning the practical implications of this dissertation for traditional organizations, two major pillars of contribution can be depicted: First, by investigating the beneficial impact of ethical leadership on the organization, this work vehemently underpins the notion that ‘ethics do pay off’. Second, by examining antecedents of ethical leadership and by distinguishing between facets of leadership, several aspects are presented which serve as vivid links for developing and maintaining ethical leadership in corporate reality.

Ethical leadership was shown to exhibit beneficial impact on several indicators of enhanced organizational performance, i.e. employees’ job satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Counterproductive Work Behaviors, and actual financial performance. Consequently, fostering ethical leadership behaviors in the organization’s culture is valuable in terms of both moral awareness and economic rationale, respectively. Coinciding, ethical leadership in the conceptualization of Brown et al. (2005) along with the respective measure was shown to be a valid and reliable approach to ethics and leadership. Therewith, HR practitioners should pursue to sustainably implement ethical leadership along the different HR functions.

Starting with personnel selection and recruitment, practitioners should try to identify those applicants already leveling high on ethical leadership. Therefore, an initial assessment of ethical leadership could be integrated into the applied methods of personnel selection. For instance, an applicants’ self-rating on ethical leadership using the Ethical Leadership Scale could be considered in course of assessment centers. The measure’s reliability and validity along with the brevity of only ten items all favor the idea of incorporating the ELS into actual practices. In order to augment self-appraisals with observer-ratings, another possibility is the use of role plays. Here, applicants could face the task of solving a situation of ethical challenge (e.g., employee fraud) or dilemma (e.g., avenging ethical misconduct by long-time, trusted, and befriended employee) with trained observers rating the displayed conduct using the ELS. Furthermore, Brown and colleagues’ conceptualization of ethical leadership could be transferred into interview questions referring to situational and biographical information.

Also within the process of personnel selection, this dissertation’s findings regarding personality and ethical leadership should be taken into consideration. Results from *Study 2* indicated that different personality traits, namely leader agreeableness,

achievement, and extraversion, significantly predict executive ethical leadership behavior. Therefrom, practitioners in their search for potential ethical leaders are urged to identify those candidates scoring high on these dimensions. Considering the prominence of personality questionnaires in recruitment processes, the use of personality self-assessments in order to find ethical leaders is a promising approach. Yet, my results indicate that practitioners also must pay attention to the occupational context. As the comparison of an organizational cross-section and the sales department revealed, the relevance of personality traits differs along the setting. While gathering insights on context related issues with personality measures requires profound experience that cannot be presumed straightaway, one recommendation for practitioners is the application of contextualized measures of personality. Considering past research and the findings of *Study 2*, offering a frame of reference scheme to the applied questionnaires increases the measures' validity by offering a context the respondents can easily refer to.

Beyond personnel recruitment processes, HR practitioners should anchor ethical leadership within an organization's leadership culture. This could be accomplished by, for example, developing a code of conduct for all members of the organization emphasizing ethical soundness and legal compliance of behaviors. Focusing on leadership, the introduction of an overall competence model also could pay dividends. By explicating ethical sound leadership behavior such as treating everybody fair and equal, keeping promises, and transparent communication organizational leaders have a point of reference for effective and appropriate conduct. To make ethical leadership obligatory, performance appraisals and promotions could be tied to ratings ethical leadership.

To assess ethical leadership, practitioners should pay most attention on follower ratings of their respective supervisor's ethical leadership, going forward. In line with most of contemporary leadership approaches, ethical leadership addresses contents which are best observed through those who experience this actual leadership behavior. That HR experts can rely on employee ratings of such behaviors has been shown with the substantial relation with teams' sales performance from *Study 2*. The higher employees rated their executive's ethical leadership the better was the financial performance of the respective sales team. On top of this premier confirmation regarding objective measures of leadership effectiveness, subjective indicators such as increased job satisfaction and reduced counterproductive behaviors could be shown to be related to

follower ratings of ethical leadership in *Study 1*, as well. In sum, employee ratings of supervisors' ethical leadership are crucial for leadership success.

Entering the field of HR development, some added potential comes from the consideration of leader self-ratings of ethical leadership on top of follower ratings. Although the latter has been shown to be more crucial in terms of predicting tangible leadership impact leader self-ratings should not be neglected, completely. Conversely, they could be used in course of multi-source leadership feedback programs. For instance, comparing self-ratings with those of followers could be an initial point of development intervention. As follower ratings proved to be critical in terms of leadership success, leaders have an incentive to reduce a potential discrepancy between the two perspectives.

An interesting field of practical implication constitutes the possibility of ethical leadership development. By studying the relationship between leader personality traits and ethical leadership, I took a rather stable approach. As personality traits are commonly referred to as steady and unchanging personal dispositions, one could intuitively challenge the claim of *developing* ethical leadership. However, related leadership styles such as transformational leadership have faced the same skepticism and, thus, could be shown to be enhanced through different training interventions (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler, & Moenninghoff, 2011; Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996). Akin, Brown and Trevino (2006a) argued different training methods to be similarly useful with regard to ethical leadership. Although ethics is such an ambiguous domain, the conceptualization of ethical leadership shapes a framework that makes ethics much more tangible and straightforward. For example, clarifying expectations, showing consideration for employees and sharing power are all behavioral facets tied to ethical leadership. As all those have been, at least to some degree, referred to as being learnable and developable through training interventions (cf. as part of development programs regarding transformational leadership, Abrell, 2012), ethical leadership appears to be changeable, likewise. Another interesting perspective constitutes the findings from *Study 1*. By differentiating between ethical role modeling and promoting ethical conduct as facets of ethical leadership, I was able to further identify crucial behavioral facets. As only promoting ethical conduct was shown to be related to the outcome criteria, ethical leadership development trainings should focus especially on the respective contents. For example,

great attention towards employees (e.g., listening to employee advices, showing concern for individual needs etc.) is tied to promoting ethical conduct and, thus, can be intensively elaborated in course of training settings. Conversely, findings from *Study 1* also unfold patterns of ethical leadership which might be neglected during development interventions. The application of role plays and ethical dilemma situations certainly enhances participants' ethical sensitivity and would be useful in such training. However, urging participants to underpin this punctuated ethical awareness through strong verbal statements (e.g., discussing corporate ethics and values with employees) is less relevant. Although this work's conceptualization of ethical leadership suggests such aspects of verbal commitment to ethics as important (cf. Trevino et al., 2000), my findings indicate that they are less relevant in terms of follower observation. As discussed before, employees in Germany may be less accustomed to experience their supervisors to 'talk the talk' of ethical sound conduct. Therefrom, more focus on should be placed on elaborating exceptional role model behavior referring to the aforementioned behavioral, i.e. visible facets of ethical leadership.

(2) Implications for the sport organization. In course of *Study 3*, leadership was thoroughly investigated in German basketball as a setting of professional sports. Again, the results have some important implications for practitioners, i.e. sport coaches and sport executives. Apparently, the practical implications are limited in generalizability towards different sports. However, I argue transferability to team sports like soccer, football, or handball, i.e. *team sports*, which are comparable in terms of game and team structure.

Diverging from the implications regarding the traditional organization, the main merit to sports comes from transformational rather than ethical leadership results. Several facets of transformational leadership were shown to be significantly related to athletes' individual as well as team performance.

In recent years, top-level sport is experiencing an ongoing increase in professionalism. Due to the immense financial sphere tied to popular team sports like soccer or basketball, practitioners as well as researchers emphasize the managerial aspects of running sport teams (Wolfe et al., 2005; Dirks, 2000). With *Study 3*, I transfer this perspective of enhanced professionalism to the narrowed field of coaches' leadership. Findings indicate that transformational leadership is a key soft skill in terms of being a suc-

successful head coach. Therefrom, a first critical implication to practitioners is the urge to sensitize sport executives for a more detailed view on head coaches' responsibilities. Findings from traditional organizational settings on effective leadership behaviors beyond pure expert knowledge should be taken into consideration. For teams to capitalize from these fields, they should consider transformational leadership in course of head coach recruitments and also in personnel development efforts.

Focusing on the hiring of coaches, team management could apply similar methods as traditional organizations do. Although techniques like assessment centers are still uncommon in this field, several respective elements appear promising. For example, candidates' self-rating on transformational leadership using the Transformational Leadership Inventory (Heinritz & Rowold, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 1990) would provide a preliminary assessment. On top, an interview manual or guideline could be developed from the questionnaire, facilitating an additional observer rating of transformational leadership.

As was the case with ethical leadership, the source of transformational leadership measurement is crucial. In this context, team members (i.e. players, team assistants) rated head coaches' leadership behavior. As these observations were significantly related to the different performance criteria, teams could install a regular leadership feedback program which is a first major point of leadership development.

Several authors suggested (Hopton et al., 2007) and subsequently confirmed (Rowold, 2006) the transferability of transformational leadership to the fields of sports. Consequently and broaching the issue of HR development even further, current findings on transformational leadership development might be transferred, as well. As several studies revealed the effectiveness of respective development interventions in traditional organizational settings (Abrell, 2012; Abrell et al., 2011; Barling et al., 1996), similar training programs could be as useful in sports. Furthermore, results from *Study 3* also revealed where the focus to be placed in those interventions. For instance, Identifying and Articulating a Vision was shown to be most related to all applied measures of sportive performance and could be addressed as a key element during leadership trainings.

6.5 Conclusion

At the very beginning of this work, Abraham Lincoln was quoted with a testimony on the relation between power and character. From there, I shifted the issue of responsible power exhibition to contemporary leadership research by investigating ethical leadership from a multitude of angles. Considering the periodic scandals of unethical practices in the corporate world in recent years, practitioners as well as scholars are increasingly concerned about business ethical issues. With this work, I addressed several of the most crucial questions. In particular, I investigated causes, effects, and contingencies tied to ethical leadership.

Focusing on corporate settings, this work substantially fortifies the claim that ‘ethics actually do pay off’. Analyses indicated that executive ethical leadership is positively related to means of enhanced work related attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) and also to criteria indicating ethical sensitivity (e.g. counterproductive work behaviors). Importantly, my work is the first to reveal a substantial positive relationship between ethical leadership and objective measures of leadership effectiveness. With the enhanced sales performance tied to ethical leadership, this dissertation delivers economic incentives to not just study but also to put corporate ethics into actual practice. Accordingly, HR practitioners should pursue the implementation of ethical leadership in the organizational culture through respective development programs or leadership competence models. However, constraints in contextual settings remain. While ethical leadership proved so handy in corporate settings, the investigation in a sport context fell short of expectations. Here, traditional means of effective leadership conduct, i.e. transformational rather than ethical leadership behaviors by teams’ head coaches were shown to positively influence athlete performance.

This dissertation contributes to existing research not only through addressing the question *if* ethical leadership has beneficial impact. On top, by investigating ethical leadership facets and mediating processes, I also focused on *how* ethical leadership excels. By identifying the visible or behavioral facet of ethical leadership (promoting ethical conduct) as crucial to leadership impact and by confirming trust and justice as mediating variables for ethical leadership influence, this work facilitated important insights on the mechanisms and processes of ethical leadership.

In order to predict ethical leadership at hands of personal characteristics, leader personality traits were confirmed as important antecedents. Exceeding extant research, the personality traits of agreeableness, achievement, and extraversion were revealed as significantly predicting ethical leadership. As the resulting patterns varied among two organizational settings, researchers and practitioners are urged to account for the respective contexts when applying personality traits as antecedents of ethical leadership behavior.

Being a leader means exhibiting power. While history and recent economic events provide us with a multitude of examples of – in the truest sense of the words – good and bad usages of those powers, being an ethical leader demands prudence and foresight. So far, this dissertation has shown that ethical leadership is worthwhile thus challenging. Comprehensive research and thorough practice are continuously warranted in order to fortify the ethical use of given powers in today’s society. Leaders must realize the ethical dimension in guiding people and dedicate themselves to these obligations. Fittingly, I refer to the great Abraham Lincoln to close this work:

“Be sure you put your feet in the right place, and then stand firm.”

— Abraham Lincoln (cf. Covey & Hatch, 2007, p. 139)

7. References

- Abrell, C. (2012). *Transformational leadership's effectiveness in organizational change. Three empirical studies deepening the understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' commitment to change* (Doctoral dissertation). Dortmund University.
- Abrell, C., Rowold, J., Weibler, J., & Moenninghoff, M. (2011). Evaluation of a long-term transformational leadership development program. *Zeitschrift für Personalforschung*, 25, 205–224.
- Aguinis, H., & Harden, E. E. (2009). Sample size rules of thumb: Evaluating three common practices. In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg (Eds.), *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends. Doctrine, verity and fable in the organizational and social sciences* (pp. 267–286). New York: Routledge.
- Anderson, C., Spataro, S. E., & Flynn, F. J. (2008). Personality and organizational culture as determinants of influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(3), 702–710.
- Aquino, K., & Reed, A., (2002). The self-importance of moral identity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(6), 1423–1440.
- Armstrong, S. (2001). Are you a "transformational" coach? *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 72(2), 44–47.
- Avey, J. B., Palanski, M. E., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2011). When leadership goes unnoticed: The moderating role of follower self-esteem on the relationship between ethical leadership and follower behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 98(4), 573–582.
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M. (2004). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Manual and sampler set* (3rd ed.). Redwood City: Mind Garden, Inc.
- Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60(1), 421–449.
- Avolio, B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W., & Bhatia, P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(8), 951–968.

- Bandalos, D. L. (2002). The Effects of item parceling on goodness-of-fit and parameter estimate bias in structural equation modeling. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 9(1), 78–102.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 248–287.
- Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(6), 827–832.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173–1182.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(1), 1–26.
- Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., & Piotrowski, M. (2002). Personality and job performance: Test of the mediating effects of motivation among sales representatives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 43–51.
- Bass, B. M. (1985a). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Bass, B. M. (1985b). Leadership: Good, better, best. *Organizational Dynamics*, 13(3), 26–40.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, 52(2), 130–139.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 207–218.
- Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4 ed., [completely rev. and updated]). New York, NY: Free Press.

- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*(2), 181–217.
- Becherer, R. C., Morgan, F. W., & Richard, L. M. (1982). The Job characteristics of industrial salespersons: Relationship to motivation and satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, *46*(4), 125–135.
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(3), 349–360.
- Berman, S. L., Down, J., & Hill, C. W. L. (2002). Tacit knowledge as a source of competitive advantage in the National Basketball Association. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*(1), 13–31.
- Berri, D. J. (2008). A simple model of worker productivity in the National Basketball Association. In B. R. Humphreys & D. R. Howard (Eds.), *The business of sports* (1st ed.). Westport, Conn. [u.a.]: Praeger.
- Berri, D. J., & Bradbury, J. C. (2010). Working in the land of the metricians. *Journal of Sports Economics*, *11*(1), 29–47.
- Bhal, K. T., & Dadhich, A. (2011). Impact of ethical leadership and Leader–Member Exchange on whistle blowing: The moderating impact of the moral intensity of the issue. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *103*(3), 485–496.
- Bijlsma, K., & Koopman, P. (2003). Introduction: trust within organisations. *Personnel Review*, *32*(5), 543–555.
- Bing, M. N., Whanger, J. C., Davison, H. K., & Van Hook, J. B. (2004). Incremental validity of the frame-of-reference effect in personality scale scores: A replication and extension. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(1), 150–157.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(5), 901–910.
- Bradford, D. L., & Cohen, A. R. (1997). *Managing for excellence: The leadership guide to developing high performance in contemporary organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *53*(1), 279–307.

- Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology, vol. 2 - Methodology* (pp. 349–444). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Brown, M. E., & Mitchell, M. S. (2010). Ethical and unethical leadership: Exploring new avenues for future research. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 20(4), 583–616.
- Brown, M. E., & Trevino, L. K. (2006a). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), 595–616.
- Brown, M. E., & Trevino, L. K. (2006b). Socialized charismatic leadership, values congruence, and deviance in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(4), 954–962.
- Brown, M. E., Trevino, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 97, 117–134.
- Bryk, A., & Raudenbush, S. W. (1992). *Hierarchical linear models for social and behavioral research: Applications and data analysis methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. London, Newbury, Calif: SAGE Publications.
- Burke, M. J., Finkelstein, L. M., & Dusig, M. S. (1999). On average deviation indices for estimating interrater agreement. *Organizational Research Methods*, 2(1), 49–68.
- Burke, W. W. (2010). *Organization change: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Burns, J. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Carlyle, T. (1907). *Heroes and hero worship*. Boston: Adams.
- Chan, A. (2005). Authentic leadership measurement and development: Challenges and suggestions. In W. L. Gardner, B. J. Avolio, & F. O. Walumbwa (Eds.), *Authentic Leadership Theory and Practice: Origins, Effects and Development* (pp. 227–250). Amsterdam, Boston, Heidelberg u.a.: Elsevier.
- Chang, L., Connelly, B. S., & Geeza, A. A. (2012). Separating method factors and higher order traits of the big five: A meta-analytic multitrait–multimethod approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102(2), 408–426.

- Charbonneau, D., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Transformational leadership and sports performance: The mediating role of intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 31*(7), 1521–1534.
- Chelladurai, P. (1990). Leadership in sports: A review. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 21*(4), 328–354.
- Chelladurai, P., & Saleh, S. D. (1980). Dimensions of leader behavior in sports: Development of a leadership scale, *2*, 34–45.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. In G. Marcoulides (Ed.), *Modern Methods for Business Research* (pp. 295–336). Mahlvah: Erlbaum.
- Ciulla, J. B. (Ed.). (1998). *Ethics, the heart of leadership*. Westport, Conn: Quorum Books.
- Ciulla, J. B. (2004). Ethics and leadership effectiveness. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 302–327). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Clapp-Smith, R., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avey, J. B. (2008). Authentic leadership and positive psychological capital: The mediating role of trust at the group level of analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15*(3), 227–240.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*(2), 278–321.
- Colbert, A. E., Judge, T. A., Choi, D., & Wang, G. (2012). Assessing the trait theory of leadership using self and observer ratings of personality: The mediating role of contributions to group success. *The Leadership Quarterly, 23*(4), 670–685.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 386–400.
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 425–445.

- Colquitt, J. A., & Greenberg, J. (2003). Organizational justice: A fair assessment of the state of the literature. In J. Greenberg (Ed.), *Organizational behavior: The state of the science* (pp. 165–210). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., & LePine, J. A. (2007). Trust, trustworthiness, and trust propensity: A meta-analytic test of their unique relationships with risk taking and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 909–927.
- Connell, J., Ferres, N., & Travaglione, T. (2003). Engendering trust in manager-subordinate relationships: Predictors and outcomes. *Personnel Review, 32*(5), 569–587.
- Conway, J. M., & Lance, C. E. (2010). What reviewers should expect from authors regarding common method bias in organizational research. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(3), 325–334.
- Costa, P. T., JR., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO personality inventory (NEO PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Covey, S. R., & Hatch, D. K. (2007). *Everyday greatness: Inspiration for a meaningful life*. Princeton, N.J: Recording for the Blind & Dyslexic.
- Cremer, D. de, & van Knippenberg, D. (2003). Cooperation with leaders in social dilemmas: On the effects of procedural fairness and outcome favorability in structural cooperation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 91*(1), 1–11.
- Cullen, J. B., & Victor, B. (1993). The ethical climate questionnaire: An assessment of its development and validity. *Psychological Reports, 73*, 667–674.
- Dadhich, A., & Bhal, K. T. (2008). Ethical leader behaviour and leader-member exchange as predictors of subordinate behaviours. *Vikalpa: The Journal for Decision Makers, 33*(4), 15–25.
- Dahlsrud, A. (2008). How corporate social responsibility is defined: an analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 15*(1), 1–13.
- Day, D. V., & Antonakis, J. (2012). Leadership: Past, present, and future. In D. V. Day & J. Antonakis (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (2nd ed., pp. 3–25). Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage.

- De Hoogh, A. H. B., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2009). Ethical leadership: The socially responsible use of power. In B. Wisse & D. Tjosvold (Eds.), *Cambridge companions to management. Power and interdependence in organizations* (pp. 338–354). Cambridge, UK, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- De Hoogh, A. H., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness and subordinates' optimism: A multi-method study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(3), 297–311.
- DeRue, D. S., Wellman, N., Nahrgang, J. D., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*, 7–52.
- Detert, J. R., Trevino, L. K., Burris, E. R., & Andiappan, M. (2007). Managerial modes of influence and counterproductivity in organizations: A longitudinal business-unit-level investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(4), 993–1005.
- Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *41*(1), 417–440.
- Dionne, S. D., Chun, J. U., Hao, C., Serban, A., Yammarino, F. J., & Spangler, W. D. (2012). Article quality and publication impact via levels of analysis incorporation: An illustration with transformational/charismatic leadership. *Leadership Quarterly Yearly Review: Theoretical and Methodological Advances in Leadership*, *23*(6), 1012–1042.
- Dirks, K. T. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(6), 1004–1012.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 611–628.
- Dum Dum, U. R., Lowe, K. B., & Avolio, B. J. (2002). A meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness and satisfaction: An update and extension. In B. J. Avolio & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Transformational and charismatic leadership. The road ahead* (1st ed., pp. 35–66). Amsterdam, Boston: JAI.

- Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4), 735–744.
- Eddy, M. (2013, April 12). Germany: Former president Wulff charged. *The New York Times Magazine*, pp. A10.
- Ehrhart, M. G. (2004). Leadership and procedural justice climate as antecedents of unit-level organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 57, 61–94.
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 207–216.
- Eisenbeiß, S. A., & Giessner, S. R. (2012). The emergence and maintenance of ethical leadership in organizations. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 11(1), 7–19.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. McGraw-Hill series in management. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fizel, J. L., & D'Itri, M. P. (1999). Firing and hiring of managers: Does efficiency matter? *Journal of Management*, 25(4), 567–586.
- Fleishman, E. A. (1953). The description of supervisory behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 37(1), 1–6.
- Fletcher, D., & Arnold, R. (2011). A qualitative study of performance leadership and management in elite sport. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 23(2), 223–242.
- Friedman, M. (1970, September 13). The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *The New York Times Magazine*,
- Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (Eds.). (2005). *Authentic leadership theory and practice: Origins, effects and development*. Amsterdam, Boston, Heidelberg u.a.: Elsevier.
- Gini, A. (1998). Moral leadership and business ethics. In J. B. Ciulla (Ed.), *Ethics, the heart of leadership* (pp. 27–45). Westport, Conn: Quorum Books.
- Goff, B. L., & Tollison, R. D. (1990). Sports as economics. In B. L. Goff & R. D. Tollison (Eds.), *Sportometrics* (1st ed., pp. 3–14). College Station: Texas A & M University Press.
- Goodwin, D. K. (2005). *Team of rivals: The political genius of Abraham Lincoln*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

- Gooty, J., Serban, A., Thomas, J. S., Gavin, M. B., & Yammarino, F. J. (2012). Use and misuse of levels of analysis in leadership research: An illustrative review of leader-member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(6), 1080–1103.
- Graham, J. W. (1991). Servant-leadership in organizations: Inspirational and moral. *Leadership Quarterly*, 2, 105–119.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16(2), 399–432.
- Hahn, R. (2012). Standardizing social responsibility? New perspectives on guidance documents and management system standards for sustainable development. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 59(4), 717–727.
- Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Mena, J. A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(3), 414–433.
- Hale, J. R., & Fields, D. L. (2007). Exploring servant leadership across cultures: A study of followers in Ghana and the USA. *Leadership*, 3(4), 397–417.
- Hall, M. D. (2007). *An examination of the transformational leadership behaviors of female head coaches and satisfaction with team performance in Division I intercollegiate women's soccer teams: The mediating role of cohesion*. (Ph.D. thesis). University of Denver, Denver, CO.
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *The Academy of Management Review*, 9, 193–206.
- Harrell, F. E. (2001). *Regression modeling strategies: With applications to linear models, logistic regression, and survival analysis*. Springer series in statistics. New York: Springer.
- Heeren, D. (1988). *The basketball abstract*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall.
- Heinitz, K., & Rowold, J. (2007). Gütekriterien einer deutschen Adaptation des Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI) von Podsakoff. *Zeitschrift für Arbeits- und Organisationspsychologie A&O*, 51(1), 1–15.
- Henderson, J. E., & Hoy, W. K. (1983). Leader authenticity: The development and test of an operational measure. *Educational & Psychological Research*, 3(2), 63–75.

- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). *Advances in international marketing* (Vol. 20). Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. (2002). Commitment to organizational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 474–487.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1988). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources* (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Hillman, A. J., & Keim, G. D. (2001). Shareholder value, stakeholder management, and social issues: what's the bottom line? *Strategic Management Journal, 22*, 125–139.
- Hoffman, B. J., Woehr, D. J., Maldagen-Youngjohn, R., & Lyons, B. D. (2011). Great man or great myth? A quantitative review of the relationship between individual differences and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 84*, 347–381.
- Hofstede, G. H. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE Publications.
- Hogan, R., Curphy, G. J., & Hogan, J. (1994). What we know about leadership. Effectiveness and Personality. *American Psychologist, 49*(6), 493–504.
- Hollander, E. P. (1998). Ethical challenges in the leader-follower relationship. In J. B. Ciulla (Ed.), *Ethics, the heart of leadership*. Westport, Conn: Quorum Books.
- Hollinger, J. (2002). *ProBasketball prospectus*. Washington D.C.: Brassey's.
- Homann, K. (1992). *Wirtschafts- und Unternehmensethik. Uni-Taschenbücher: Vol. 1721*. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht.
- Homann, K., & Lütge, C. (2005). *Einführung in die Wirtschaftsethik* (2nd ed.). Münster: LIT-Verl.
- Hopton, C., Phelan, J., & Barling, J. (2007). Transformational leadership in sport. In M. R. Beauchamp & M. A. Eys (Eds.), *Group dynamics in exercise and sport psychology. Contemporary themes*. London ;, New York: Routledge.
- Hossiep, R., & Krüger, C. (2012). *Das Bochumer Inventar zur berufsbezogenen Persönlichkeitsbeschreibung - 6 Faktoren (BIP-6F) [Business focused inventory of personality - 6 factors]*. Göttingen: Hogrefe.

- Hough, L. M. (1992). The 'big five' personality variables-construct confusion: Description versus prediction. *Human Performance*, 5(1/2), 139.
- House, R. J. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 321–339.
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 409.
- Howell, J. P. (2013). *Snapshots of great leadership. Leadership: research and practice series*. New York: Routledge.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1–55.
- Hunthausen, J. M., Truxillo, D. M., Bauer, T. N., & Hammer, L. B. (2003). A field study of frame-of-reference effects on personality test validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(3), 545–551.
- Jackson, P., Delehanty, H., & Bradley, B. (2006). *Sacred hoops: Spiritual lessons as a hardwood warrior* (Revised paperback.). New York, N.Y: Hyperion.
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. (1993). r-sub(wg): An assessment of within-group interrater agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(2), 306–309.
- James, L. R., Mulaik, S. A., & Brett, J. M. (2006). A tale of two methods. *Organizational Research Methods*, 9(2), 233–244.
- Jaworski, B. J., & Kohli, A. K. (1991). Supervisory feedback: Alternative types and their impact on salespeople's performance and satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28(2), 190–201.
- Jordan, J., Brown, M. E., Trevino, L. K., & Finkelstein, S. (2013). Someone to look up to: Executive-follower ethical reasoning and perceptions of ethical leadership. *Journal of Management*, 39(3), 660–683.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 765–780.

- Judge, T. A., & Long, D. M. (2012). Individual differences in leadership. In D. V. Day & J. Antonakis (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (2nd ed., pp. 179–217). Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(5), 755–768.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(1), 36–51.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Kosalka, T. (2009). The bright and dark sides of leader traits: A review and theoretical extension of the leader trait paradigm. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*(6), 855–875.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction–job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(3), 376–407.
- Kacmar, K. M., Bachrach, D. G., Harris, K. J., & Zivnuska, S. (2011). Fostering good citizenship through ethical leadership: Exploring the moderating role of gender and organizational politics. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(3), 633–642.
- Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the fate of organizations. *American Psychologist, 63*(2), 96–110.
- Kalshoven, K. (2010). *Ethical Leadership. Through the eyes of employees.*
- Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. (2011). Ethical leadership at work questionnaire (ELW): Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(1), 51–69.
- Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2010). Ethical leader behavior and big five factors of personality. *Journal of Business Ethics, 349–366.*
- Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & Hoogh, A. H. de. (2013). Ethical leadership and follower helping and courtesy: Moral awareness and empathic concern as moderators. *Applied Psychology, 62*(2), 211–235.
- Katz, D., Maccoby, N., & Morse, N. (1950). *Productivity, supervision, and morale in an office situation.* Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

- Keidel, R. (1984). Baseball, football, and basketball: Models for business. *Organizational Dynamics*, (12), 4–18.
- Keidel, R. W. (1987). Team sports models as a generic organizational framework. *Human Relations*, 40(9), 591–612.
- Kelloway, E. K., Sivanathan, N., Francis, L., & Barling, J. (2005). Poor leadership. In J. Barling, E. K. Kelloway, & M. R. Frone (Eds.), *Handbook of work stress* (pp. 89–112). Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE Publications.
- Kervin, J. B. (1992). *Methods for business research*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Kish-Gephart, J. J., Harrison, D. A., & Trevino, L. K. (2010). Bad apples, bad cases, and bad barrels: Meta-analytic evidence about sources of unethical decisions at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 1–31.
- Kohli, A. K. (1985). Some unexplored supervisory behaviors and their influence on salespeople's role clarity, specific self-esteem, job satisfaction, and motivation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22(4), 424–433.
- Krüger, C. (2012). *Different angles on transformational leadership: its antecedents, relatives, and consequences in self and other perception* (Doctoral dissertation). Dortmund University.
- Krüger, C., Rowold, J., Borgmann, L., Staufenbiel, K., & Heinitz, K. (2011). The discriminant validity of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 10(2), 49–60.
- Krzyzewski, M., & Phillips, D. T. (2000). *Leading with the heart: Coach K's successful strategies for basketball, business, and life*. New York: Warner Books.
- Küpper, H.-U. (2006). *Unternehmensethik: Hintergründe, Konzepte, Anwendungsbereiche*. Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel.
- Landis, R. S., Beal, D. J., & Tesluk, P. E. (2000). A comparison of approaches to forming composite measures in structural equation models. *Organizational Research Methods*, 3(2), 186–207.
- LeBreton, J. M., & Senter, J. L. (2008). Answers to 20 questions about interrater reliability and interrater agreement. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(4), 815–852.

- Lehmann-Willenbrock, N., & Kauffeld, S. (2010). Development and construct validation of the German workplace trust survey (G-WTS). *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 26*(1), 3–10.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *Leadership Quarterly, 19*(2), 161–177.
- Lim, J. Y., & Cromartie, F. (2001). Transformational leadership, organizational culture and organizational effectiveness in sport organizations. *The Sport Journal, 4*(2), 111–169.
- Lockett, A., Moon, J., & Visser, W. (2006). Corporate social responsibility in management research: Focus, nature, salience and sources of influence. *Journal of Management Studies, 43*(1), 115–136.
- Lord, R. G., Vader, C. L. de, & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relationship between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 402–410.
- Luke, D. (2004). *Multilevel modeling*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage.
- Luthans, F., & Avolio, B. (2003). Authentic leadership development. In K. S. Cameron, J. Dutton, & R. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship. Foundations of a new discipline* (1st ed., pp. 241–258). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Luthans, F., Norman, S., & Hughes, L. (2006). Authentic leadership: A new approach for a new time. In R. J. Burke & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Inspiring leaders* (pp. 84–104). London, New York: Routledge.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological Methods, 7*(1), 83–104.
- Mahsud, R., Yukl, G., & Prussia, G. (2010). Leader empathy, ethical leadership, and relations-oriented behaviors as antecedents of leader-member exchange quality. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25*(6), 561–577.
- Maier, G. W., Streicher, B., Jonas, E., & Woschée, R. (2007). Gerechtigkeitseinschätzungen in Organisationen. *Diagnostica, 53*(2), 97–108.

- Mann, R. D. (1959). A review of the relationships between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, *56*(4), 241–270.
- Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of Counterproductive Behavior at Work: A General Perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(4), 647–660.
- Martin, G. S., Resick, C. J. K. M. A., & Dickson, M. W. (2009). Ethical leadership across cultures: a comparative analysis of German and US perspectives. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, *18*(2), 127–144.
- Mayer, D. M., Aquino, K., Greenbaum, R. L., & Kuenzi, M. (2012). Who displays ethical leadership, and why does it matter? An examination of antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(1), 151–171.
- Mayer, D. M., Bardes, M., & Piccolo, R. F. (2008). Do servant-leaders help satisfy follower needs? An organizational justice perspective. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *17*(2), 180–197.
- Mayer, D. M., Kuenzi, M., Greenbaum, R., Bardes, M., & Salvador, R. (2009). How low does ethical leadership flow? Test of a trickle-down model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *108*, 1–13.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *The Academy of Management Review*, *20*(3), 709.
- McGraw, K. O., & Wong, S. P. (1996). Forming inferences about some intraclass correlation coefficients. *Psychological Methods*, *1*(1), 30–46.
- McWilliams, A., & Siegel, D. (2000). Corporate social responsibility and financial performance: correlation or misspecification? *Strategic Management Journal*, *21*(5), 603–609.
- McWilliams, A., & Siegel, D. (2001). Corporate social responsibility: A theory of the firm perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(1), 117–127.
- Milliken, F. J. (1987). Three types of perceived uncertainty about the environment: State, effect, and response uncertainty. *Academy of Management Review*, *12*(1), 133–143.
- Minkes, A. L., Small, M. W., & Chatterjee, S. R. (1999). Leadership and business ethics: Does it matter? Implications for management. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *20*(4), 327–335.

- Mulki, J. P., Jaramillo, F., & Locander, W. B. (2006). Effects of ethical climate and supervisory trust on salesperson's job attitudes and intentions to quit. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 26(1), 19–26.
- Neuberger, O., & Allerbeck, M. (1978). *Messung und Analyse von Arbeitszufriedenheit*. Bern: Huber.
- Neubert, M. J., Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Roberts, J. A., & Chonko, L. B. (2009). The virtuous influence of ethical leadership behavior: Evidence from the field. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 90(2), 157–170.
- Noll, B. (2002). *Wirtschafts- und Unternehmensethik in der Marktwirtschaft*. Stuttgart: Kohlhammer.
- Organ, D. W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behaviour. An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews* (Vol. 12, pp. 43–72). Greenwich, Conn: JAI Press.
- Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 85–97.
- Osterloh, M., & Tiemann, R. (1995). Konzepte der Wirtschafts- und Unternehmensethik - ein Überblick. In E.-H. Hoff & L. Lappe (Eds.), *Verantwortung im Arbeitsleben* (pp. 193–211). Heidelberg: R. Asanger.
- Ostroff, C., Kinicki, A. J., & Clark, M. A. (2002). Substantive and operational issues of response bias across levels of analysis: An example of climate-satisfaction relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2), 355–368.
- Padilla, A., Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. B. (2007). The toxic triangle: Destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 176–194.
- Paine, L. S. (1997). *Cases in leadership, ethics, and organizational integrity: A strategic perspective*. Chicago: Irwin.
- Patzer, M., & Scherer, A. G. (2010). Global responsible leadership: Towards a political conception. In O.V. (Ed.), *26th EGOS Colloquium, Lisbon 2010*. Lissabon.
- Peus, C., Kerschreiter, R., Frey, D., & Traut-Mattausch, E. (2010a). What is the value? *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology*, 218(4), 198–212.

- Peus, C., Kerschreiter, R., Traut-Mattausch, E., & Frey, D. (2010b). Ethics and economic success. *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology*, *218*(4), 195–197.
- Pfennig, M. (2010). *Können ethische Führung und Mitarbeiterorientierung Diebstahl verhindern? Zum Zusammenhang zwischen Führungsstilen und kontraproduktivem Verhalten* (diploma thesis). Westfälische Wilhelms Universität Münster, Münster.
- Pillai, R., & Meindl, J. R. (1998). Context and charisma: A "meso" level examination of the relationship of organic structure, collectivism, and crisis to charismatic leadership. *Journal of Management*, *24*(5), 643–671.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879–903.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *1*(2), 107–142.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 513–563.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments & Computers*, *36*(4), 717–731.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, *40*(3), 879–891.
- Raudenbush, S. W., Bryk, A. S., Cheong, A., Fai, Y., Congdon, R., & Du Toit, M. (2011). *HLM 7: Hierarchical linear and nonlinear modeling*. Lincolnwood, Ill: Scientific Software International.
- Rest, J. R. (1986). *Moral development: Advances in research and theory*. New York: Praeger.
- Rich, G. A. (1997). The sales manager as a role model: Effects on trust, job satisfaction, and performance of salespeople. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *25*(4), 319–328.

- Riemer, H. A. (2007). Multidimensional model of coach leadership. In S. Jowette & D. Lavallee (Eds.), *Social Psychology in Sport* (pp. 57–73). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Riketta, A. (2008). The causal relation between job attitudes and performance: A meta-analysis of panel studies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(2), 472–481.
- Ripoll, H., Kerlirzin, Y., Stein, J.-F., & Reine, B. (1995). Analysis of information processing, decision making, and visual strategies in complex problem solving sport situations. *Human Movement Science, 14*(3), 325–349.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(2), 555–572.
- Román, S. (2003). The impact of ethical sales behaviour on customer satisfaction, trust and loyalty to the company: An empirical study in the financial services industry. *Journal of Marketing Management, 19*(9), 915–939.
- Román, S., & Ruiz, S. (2005). Relationship outcomes of perceived ethical sales behavior: the customer's perspective. *Journal of Business Research, 58*(4), 439–445.
- Rotundo, M., & Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy-capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(1), 66–80.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1985). Issues of level in organizational research. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behaviour* (pp. 1–37). Greenwich, Conn: JAI Press.
- Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 393–404.
- Rowold, J. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership in martial arts. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 18*(4), 312–325.
- Rowold, J. (2008). Relationships among transformational, transactional, and moral-based leadership: Results from two empirical studies. *Leadership Review, 8*, 4–17.
- Rowold, J. (2011). Relationship between leadership behaviors and performance: The moderating role of a work team's level of age, gender, and cultural heterogeneity. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 32*(6), 628–647.

- Rowold, J., & Borgmann, L. (2009). Zum Zusammenhang zwischen Ethischer Führung, Arbeitszufriedenheit und Affektivem Commitment. *Wirtschaftspsychologie*, (2), 58–66.
- Rowold, J., & Borgmann, L. (2013). Are leadership constructs really independent? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 34(1), 20–43.
- Rowold, J., Borgmann, L., & Heinitz, K. (2009). Ethische Führung – Gütekriterien einer deutschen Adaptation der Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS-D) von Brown et al. *Zeitschrift für Arbeits- und Organisationspsychologie*, 53(2), 57–69.
- Rowold, J., & Heinitz, K. (2007). Transformational and charismatic leadership: Assessing the convergent, divergent and criterion validity of the MLQ and the CKS. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(2), 121–133.
- Rowold, J., & Laukamp, L. (2009). Charismatic leadership and objective performance indicators. *Applied Psychology*, 58(4), 602–621.
- Rubenzler, S. J., Faschingbauer, T. R., & Ones, D. S. (2000). Assessing the U.S. presidents using the revised NEO personality inventory. *Assessment*, 7(4), 403–419.
- Sage, G. H., & Eitzen, D. S. (2013). *Sociology of North American sport* (9th ed.). Boulder, CO: Paradigm Publishers.
- Salgado, J. F. (1998). Big five personality dimensions and job performance in army and civil occupations: A European perspective. *Human Performance*, 11(2-3), 271–288.
- Sashkin, M. (2004). Transformational leadership approaches: A review and synthesis. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 171–196). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Sauley, K. S., & Bedeian, A. G. (1989). A case of the tail wagging the distribution. *Journal of Management*, 15(2), 335–344.
- Schmit, M. J., Ryan, A. M., Stierwalt, S. L., & Powell, A. B. (1995). Frame-of-reference effects on personality scale scores and criterion-related validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(5), 607–620.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2003). A proposal for measuring value orientations across nations. In *European Social Survey. Vol. 7* (pp. 259–319).

- Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), 138–158.
- Shaffer, J. A., & Postlethwaite, B. E. (2012). A matter of context: A meta-analytic investigation of the relative validity of contextualized and noncontextualized personality measures. *Personnel Psychology*, 445–494.
- Sharfman, M. (1996). The construct validity of the Kinder, Lydenberg & Domini social performance ratings data. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 15(3), 287–296.
- Sharp Paine, L. (2000). Do ethics pay. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 10(1), 319–330.
- Shin, Y. (2012). CEO ethical leadership, ethical climate, climate strength, and collective organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 108(3), 299–312.
- Singer, J., & Willet, J. (2003). *Applied longitudinal data analysis: Modeling change and event occurrence*. New York: Oxford Press.
- Smith, J. Brock, & Barclay, D. W. (1997). The effects of organizational differences and trust on the effectiveness of selling partner relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 61(1), 3–21.
- Snow, E. (2010). *Leading high performers: The ultimate guide to being a fast, fluid, and flexible leader*. Garden City, N.Y: Morgan James Publishing.
- Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Methods*, 9(2), 221–232.
- Staufenbiel, T., & Hartz, C. (2000). Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Entwicklung und erste Validierung eines Meßinstruments. *Diagnostica*, 46(2), 73–83.
- Steinmann, H., & Löhr, A. (1994). *Grundlagen der Unternehmensethik* (2nd ed.). Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel.
- Stewart, C. (2003). Desperate measures. *Sales & Marketing Management*, 155, 32–35.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *The Journal of Psychology*, 25(1), 35–71.
- Strobel, M., Tumasjan, A., & Welpe, I. (2010). Do business ethics pay off? *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology*, 218(4), 213–224.
- Strout, E. (2002). To tell the truth. *Sales & Marketing Management*, 154, 40–47.

- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178–190.
- Tett, R. P., & Guterman, H. A. (2000). Situation trait relevance, trait expression, and cross-situational consistency: Testing a principle of trait activation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 34(4), 397–423.
- Toor, S.-u.-R., & Ofori, G. (2009). Ethical leadership: Examining the relationships with full range leadership model, employee outcomes, and organizational culture. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 90(4), 533–547.
- Trevino, L. K., & Brown, M. E. (2007). Ethical leadership: A developing construct. In D. L. Nelson & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Positive organizational behavior* (pp. 101–116). London, Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Trevino, L. K., Brown, M. E., & Hartman, L. P. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California Management Review*, 42(4), 128–142.
- Trevino, L. K., Brown, M., & Hartman, L. P. (2003). A qualitative investigation of perceived executive ethical leadership: Perceptions from inside and outside the executive suite. *Human Relations*, 56(1), 5–37.
- Trevino, L. K., Butterfield, K. D., & McCabe, D. L. (1998). The ethical context on organizations: Influences on employee attitudes and behaviors. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 8(3), 447–476.
- Trevino, L. K., & Nelson, K. A. (2004). *Managing business ethics: Straight talk about how to do it right*. New Jersey: Wiley.
- Trevino, L. K., Weaver, G. R., & Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Behavioral ethics in organizations: A review. *Journal of Management*, 32(6), 951–990.
- Ulrich, P. (2008). *Integrative Wirtschaftsethik: Grundlagen einer lebensdienlichen Ökonomie* (4th ed.). Bern: Haupt.
- United States. (2011). *The financial crisis inquiry report: Final report of the national commission on the causes of the financial and economic crisis in the United States* (Official government ed.). Washington, DC: Financial Crisis Inquiry Commission; For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. G.P.O.

- van den Akker, L., Heres, L., Lasthuizen, K., & Six, F. (2009). Ethical leadership and trust: It's all about meeting expectations. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(2), 102–122.
- van Marrewijk, M. (2003). Concepts and definitions of CSR and corporate sustainability: Between agency and communion. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44(2-3), 95-105.
- Voegtlin, C., Patzer, M., & Scherer, A. G. (2012). Responsible leadership in global business: A new approach to leadership and its multi-level outcomes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 105(1), 1–16.
- Vroom, V. H., & Yetton, P. W. (1973). *Leadership and decision-making*. [Pittsburgh]: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Waldman, D. A., Ramirez, G. G., House, R. J., & Puranan, P. (2001). Does leadership matter? CEO leadership attributes and profitability under conditions of perceived environmental uncertainty. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(1), 134–143.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 89–126.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Hartnell, C. A., & Oke, A. (2010). Servant leadership, procedural justice climate, service climate, employee attitudes, and organizational citizenship behavior: A cross-level investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 517–529.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Mayer, D. M., Wang, P., Wang, H., Workman, K., & Christensen, A. L. (2011). Linking ethical leadership to employee performance: The roles of leader-member exchange, self-efficacy, and organizational identification. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 115(2), 204–213.
- Walumbwa, F. O., & Schaubroeck, J. (2009). Leader personality traits and employee voice behavior: Mediating roles of ethical leadership and work group psychological safety. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(5), 1275–1286.
- Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 48(3), 420–432.

- Weaver, G. R., Trevino, L. K., & Cochran, P. L. (1999). Corporate ethics practices in the mid-1990's: An empirical study of the fortune 1000. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 18(3), 283–294.
- Weeks, W. A., Loe, T. W., Chonko, L. B., & Wakefield, K. (2004). The effect of perceived ethical climate on the search for sales force excellence. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 24(3), 199–214.
- Weiss, J. (2006). *The quotable manager: Inspiration for business and life* (1st ed.). Layton, Utah: Gibbs Smith, Publisher.
- Whisenant, W. A., & Pedersen, P. M. (2004). The influence of managerial activities on the success of intercollegiate athletic directors. *American Business Review*, 22(1), 21–26.
- Wold, H. (1985). System analysis by partial least squares. In P. Nijkamp, H. Leitner, & N. Wrigley (Eds.), *Measuring the unmeasurable* (pp. 221–252). Dordrecht: Martinus Nijhoff Publishers.
- Wolfe, R. A., Weick, K., Usher, J., Terborg, J., Poppo, L., Murrell, A. J., ... (2005). Sport and organizational studies: Exploring synergy. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 14(2), 182–210.
- Yammarino, F. J., Dionne, S. D., Uk Chun, J., & Dansereau, F. (2005). Leadership and levels of analysis: A state-of-the-science review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(6), 879–919.
- Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Trait-based perspectives of leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 6–16.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Kemp, C., & Bader, P. (2004). Leader traits and attributes. In J. Antonakis, A. T. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 101–124). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Appendix

Appendix A: Instructions and Questionnaires applied in Study 1

a) General Instructions

Herzlich willkommen und vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme an dieser Befragung!

An der TU Dortmund (Lehrstuhl für Personalentwicklung und Veränderungsmanagement) führen wir zurzeit ein Forschungsprojekt zum Thema "Führung und Ethik in Organisationen" durch. Im Folgenden werden Sie zu verschiedenen Themen befragt, die sowohl Sie selbst als auch Ihr Arbeitsumfeld betreffen.

Hierbei geht es u.a. um das Verhalten Ihrer Führungskraft. Beurteilen Sie bitte die Person, der Sie zurzeit oder bis vor kurzem bei Ihrer Arbeitsstelle, Praktikumsstelle oder ehrenamtlichen Tätigkeit direkt unterstellt sind/waren (z.B. Ihren Teamleiter). Das Unternehmen, die Institution oder Organisation, bei der Sie beschäftigt sind/waren, wird im Folgenden als Organisation bezeichnet

Wir sind an Ihrer persönlichen Meinung interessiert, daher gibt es keine "richtigen" oder "falschen" Antworten! Bitte lesen Sie die Fragen und Instruktionen *sorgfältig* durch und antworten Sie *spontan*.

Bitte beachten Sie, dass sich das Antwortformat im Verlauf des Fragebogens ändert!

Anonymität:

Wir versichern, dass Ihre Daten nur die TU Dortmund erreichen und dort zudem streng vertraulich behandelt werden. Ihre Antworten werden ausschließlich zu Forschungszwecken verwendet. Sie werden im Zuge der Bearbeitung gebeten, auch kritische Fragen zu beantworten. Ihre Antworten werden nicht mit Ihnen persönlich in Verbindung gebracht werden können. Unser Interesse liegt hier ausschließlich bei den Zusammenhängen der Antworten.

Sie können das Ausfüllen des Fragebogens unterbrechen, erfahrungsgemäß empfiehlt sich jedoch die Bearbeitung am Stück. Wenn Sie den Link zu einem späteren Zeitpunkt an demselben Computer wieder aufrufen, können Sie an der Stelle fortfahren, an der Sie aufgehört haben (diese Funktion erfordert Cookies).

b) Ethical Leadership

Instructions

Die folgenden Aussagen beschreiben das Verhalten Ihrer Führungskraft. Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie den Aussagen zustimmen.

Items (Rowold et al., 2009)

Die Führungskraft, die ich einschätze, ...

1) Ethical Role Modeling

- ... führt ihr Leben in einer ethischen Art und Weise.
- ... diskutiert Geschäftsethiken und -werte mit Mitarbeitern.
- ... gibt Beispiele, wie Dinge aus ethischer Sicht richtig gemacht werden sollten.
- ... fragt, wenn sie Entscheidungen fällt: „Wie kann ich bei dieser Entscheidung das Richtige tun?“

2) Promoting Ethical Conduct

- ... hört auf das, was Mitarbeiter zu sagen haben
- ... denkt an die Interessen der Mitarbeiter
- ... trifft faire und ausgewogene Entscheidungen.
- ... ist jemand, dem vertraut werden kann.
- ... beurteilt Erfolge nicht nur nach den Ergebnissen, sondern auch danach, wie sie erreicht wurden.

Rating Scale

1: stimme gar nicht zu – 5: stimme völlig zu

b) Justice

Items (Maier et al., 2007)

Instructions

Die folgenden Fragen beziehen sich darauf, wie üblicherweise in Ihrer Organisation vorgegangen wird, um Leistung zu bewerten.

Items

- Wie sehr können Sie Ihre Sichtweisen und Empfindungen während Bewertungs-/Beurteilungsprozessen ausdrücken?
- Wie sehr haben Sie Einfluss auf das durch Bewertungen/Beurteilungen erzielte Ergebnis (z.B. Beförderung, Entlassung, Gehaltserhöhung)?
- Wie sehr werden Bewertungen/Beurteilungen einheitlich angewandt?
- Wie sehr sind Bewertungen/Beurteilungen unvoreingenommen?
- Wie sehr basieren Bewertungen/Beurteilungen auf zutreffenden Informationen?
- Wie sehr ist es Ihnen möglich, gegen das durch Bewertungen/Beurteilungen erzielte Ergebnis (z.B. Beförderung, Entlassung, Gehaltserhöhung) Widerspruch einzulegen?
- Wie sehr werden während Bewertungs-/Beurteilungsprozessen ethische und moralische Standards eingehalten?

Instructions

Die folgenden Fragen beziehen sich auf die Anerkennung, Ihre Bezahlung und alle sonstigen betrieblichen Leistungen, die Sie erhalten.

Items

- Wie sehr spiegeln Ihre Anerkennung, Ihre Bezahlung und alle sonstigen betrieblichen Leistungen den Aufwand wider, den Sie in die Arbeit gesteckt haben?
- Wie sehr sind Ihre Anerkennung, Ihre Bezahlung und alle sonstigen betrieblichen Leistungen angemessen für die Arbeit, die Sie geleistet haben?
- Wie sehr spiegeln Ihre Anerkennung, Ihre Bezahlung und alle sonstigen betrieblichen Leistungen den Beitrag wider, den Sie für die Organisation geleistet haben?

- Wie sehr sind Ihre Anerkennung, Ihre Bezahlung und alle sonstigen betrieblichen Leistungen im Verhältnis zu Ihrer Leistung gerechtfertigt?

Instructions

Die folgenden Fragen beziehen sich auf Ihre/n Vorgesetzte/n, der die Bewertungen/Beurteilungen durchführt.

Items

- Wie sehr behandelt Sie Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r höflich?
- Wie sehr behandelt Sie Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r mit Würde?
- Wie sehr behandelt Sie Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r mit Respekt?
- Wie sehr macht Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r unangemessene Bemerkungen und Kommentare? (R)
- Wie sehr verhält sich Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r in seinen/ihren Auskünften offen und ehrlich?
- Wie sehr erklärt Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r das Verfahren zu Bewertungen/Beurteilungen gründlich?
- Wie sehr sind die Erklärungen Ihrer/s Vorgesetzten zu Bewertungen/Beurteilungen nachvollziehbar?
- Wie sehr teilt Ihnen Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r Einzelheiten rechtzeitig mit?
- Wie sehr schneidet Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r seine/Ihre Erklärungen auf Ihre persönlichen Bedürfnisse zu?

Rating Scale

1: überhaupt nicht – 5: voll und ganz

c) Job Satisfaction

Instructions

Bitte geben Sie nun an, wie zufrieden Sie mit verschiedenen Bereichen Ihrer Arbeit sind.

Items (Neuberger & Allerbeck, 1978)

- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihren Kollegen?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer Führungskraft?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer Tätigkeit?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit den Arbeitsbedingungen?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit der Organisation und Leitung?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihren Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer Bezahlung?

Wenn Sie nun an alles denken, was für Ihre Arbeit eine Rolle spielt (z.B. die Tätigkeit, die Arbeitsbedingungen, die Kollegen, die Arbeitszeit usw.):

- Wie zufrieden sind Sie dann insgesamt mit Ihrer Arbeit?

Rating Scale

1: sehr unzufrieden – 5: sehr zufrieden

c) Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Instructions

Bitte schätzen Sie ein, wie die folgenden Aussagen auf Sie persönlich zutreffen. Ihnen stehen hierfür fünf Antwortmöglichkeiten von "trifft überhaupt nicht zu" bis "trifft voll zu" zur Verfügung.

Items (Staufenbiel & Hartz, 2000)

- Ich helfe anderen, wenn diese mit Arbeit überlastet sind.
- Ich komme immer pünktlich zur Arbeit.
- Ich verbringe viel Zeit damit, mich über Belanglosigkeiten zu beklagen. (R)
- Ich beteilige mich regelmäßig und aktiv an Besprechungen und Versammlungen im Unternehmen.
- Ich erfülle übertragene Arbeitspflichten in angemessener Weise.
- Ich wirke bei auftretenden Meinungsverschiedenheiten ausgleichend auf Kollegen/Kolleginnen ein.
- Ich informiere frühzeitig, wenn ich nicht zur Arbeit kommen kann.
- Ich neige dazu, aus einer Mücke einen Elefanten zu machen. (R)
- Ich informiere mich über neue Entwicklungen im Unternehmen.
- Ich komme den in den Arbeitsplatzbeschreibungen festgelegten Verpflichtungen nach.
- Ich ergreife freiwillig die Initiative, neuen Kollegen/Kolleginnen bei der Einarbeitung zu helfen.
- Ich zeichne mich durch besonders wenige Fehlzeiten aus.
- Ich sehe alles, was das Unternehmen macht, als falsch an. (R)
- Ich mache innovative Vorschläge zur Verbesserung der Qualität in der Abteilung.
- Ich führe die Aufgaben aus, die von mir erwartet werden.
- Ich bemühe mich aktiv darum, Schwierigkeiten mit Kollegen/ Kolleginnen vorzubeugen.
- Ich beachte Vorschriften und Arbeitsanweisungen mit größter Sorgfalt.
- Ich kritisiere häufig an Kollegen/Kolleginnen herum. (R)
- Ich bilde mich laufend fort, um meine Arbeit besser machen zu können.

- Ich erfülle die gesetzten Leistungsanforderungen an meine Position.
- Ich ermuntere Kollegen/Kolleginnen, wenn diese niedergeschlagen sind.
- Ich nehme mir nur in äußerst dringenden Fällen frei.
- Ich äußere Vorbehalte gegenüber jeglichen Veränderungen im Unternehmen.
(R)
- Ich ergreife die Initiative, um das Unternehmen vor möglichen Problemen zu bewahren.
- Ich vernachlässige Dinge, die zu meinen Pflichten gehören. (R)

Rating Scale

1: trifft überhaupt nicht zu – 5: trifft voll zu

d) Counterproductive Work Behavior

Instructions

Wie häufig haben Sie die folgenden Verhaltensweisen im letzten Jahr bei der Arbeit gezeigt?

Wir möchten Sie noch einmal darauf hinweisen, dass diese Umfrage vollkommen anonym ist und die Antworten nicht mit Ihnen in Verbindung gebracht werden können.

Items (translated from the Workplace Deviance Questionnaire by Bennett & Robinson, 2000)

Ich habe/bin im letzten Jahr...

- ... eine Quittung gefälscht, um mehr erstattet zu bekommen, als ich für betriebliche Dinge ausgegeben habe.
- ... nicht die Anweisungen meines Vorgesetzten befolgt.
- ... unerlaubterweise Eigentum meines Arbeitgebers mit nach Hause genommen.
- ... absichtlich langsamer gearbeitet als ich konnte.
- ... die Arbeit in die Länge gezogen, um Überstunden zu sammeln.
- ... unentschuldigt zu spät gekommen.
- ... zu viel Zeit mit Tagträumen verbracht anstatt zu arbeiten.
- ... Alkohol oder illegale Drogen während der Arbeit konsumiert.
- ... häufiger und länger Pause gemacht, als es an meinem Arbeitsplatz erlaubt ist.
- ... mit einer außenstehenden Person über vertrauliche Informationen meiner Arbeit geredet.
- ... mir nur wenig Mühe bei meiner Arbeit gegeben.
- ... meinen Arbeitsplatz verdreckt oder unordentlich gemacht.
- ... jemanden vor anderen blamiert.
- ... mich über jemanden lustig gemacht.
- ... jemanden unhöflich behandelt.

... jemanden beschimpft.

... eine rassistische oder religionsfeindliche Bemerkung gemacht.

... jemandem einen bösen Streich gespielt.

... zu jemandem etwas Verletzendes gesagt.

Rating Scale

1: nie – 7: täglich

Appendix B: Instructions and Questionnaires applied in Study 2

a) General Instructions

Herzlich Willkommen und vielen Dank für Ihre Bereitschaft zur Teilnahme an dieser Befragung!

Im Folgenden werden Sie zum Verhalten Ihrer Führungskraft befragt. Beziehen Sie sich dabei bitte auf die Person, der Sie zurzeit direkt unterstellt sind (z. B. Ihren Teamleiter).

Anonymität

Sie werden im Folgenden gebeten, den Namen Ihrer Führungskraft anzugeben, damit wir die Daten korrekt zuordnen können. Für Sie selbst ist die Befragung anonym. Die Antworten, die von verschiedenen Mitarbeitern zu derselben Führungskraft abgegeben werden, werden zusammengefasst. Anhand dieser zusammengefassten Ergebnisse erhält die Führungskraft einen Bericht, den die Führungskraft für ihre persönliche Entwicklung nutzen kann. Die Antworten eines einzelnen Mitarbeiters können aufgrund der Zusammenfassung (statistische Mittelwertbildung) nicht entnommen oder zurückverfolgt werden. Der Betriebsrat hat diese Vorgehensweise geprüft und zugestimmt.

Um allen Beteiligten den vertraulichen Umgang mit den Umfrageergebnissen zu garantieren, wurde im Vorfeld mit dem Betriebsrat eine Betriebsvereinbarung abgeschlossen und eine Vertraulichkeitsvereinbarung mit der TU Dortmund vereinbart.

Wir sind an Ihrer persönlichen Meinung interessiert, daher gibt es keine "richtigen" oder "falschen" Antworten! Bitte lesen Sie die Fragen und Instruktionen *sorgfältig* durch und antworten Sie *spontan*. Bei der Bearbeitung werden Sie möglicherweise den Eindruck gewinnen, dass einige Formulierungen inhaltlich ähnlich sind. Bitte lassen Sie sich dadurch nicht irritieren.

In den Formulierungen sind verneinende Ausdrücke wie "nicht" oder "kein" in der Schriftart fett dargestellt, um zu vermeiden, dass diese Begriffe überlesen werden. Eine inhaltliche Betonung geht damit nicht einher.

Bitte beachten Sie, dass sich das Antwortformat im Verlauf des Fragebogens ändert!

Bitte nehmen Sie sich die Zeit, die Fragen in Ruhe zu beantworten. Die Bearbeitung des Fragebogens wird zwischen 20 und 30 Minuten in Anspruch nehmen. Sie können bei Bedarf unterbrechen, erfahrungsgemäß empfiehlt sich jedoch die Bearbeitung am Stück. Wenn Sie den Link zu einem späteren Zeitpunkt an demselben Computer wieder aufrufen, können Sie an der Stelle fortfahren, an der Sie aufgehört haben (Funktion erfordert Cookies).

Bitte geben Sie den Vor- und Nachnamen Ihrer Führungskraft an, damit wir die Informationen zuordnen können.

Umlaute und Akzente sind zugelassen, z.B. "André Küßner".

Vorname(n) Ihrer Führungskraft:

Nachname Ihrer Führungskraft:

b) Ethical Leadership

Instructions

Die folgenden Aussagen beschreiben das Verhalten Ihrer Führungskraft. Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie den Aussagen zustimmen.

Items (Rowold et al., 2009)

Die Führungskraft, die ich einschätze, ...

1) Ethical Leadership

... diskutiert Geschäftsethiken und -werte mit Mitarbeitern.

... gibt Beispiele, wie Dinge aus ethischer Sicht richtig gemacht werden sollten.

... fragt, wenn sie Entscheidungen fällt: „Wie kann ich bei dieser Entscheidung das Richtige tun?“

... hört auf das, was Mitarbeiter zu sagen haben

... denkt an die Interessen der Mitarbeiter

... trifft faire und ausgewogene Entscheidungen.

... ist jemand, dem vertraut werden kann.

... beurteilt Erfolge nicht nur nach den Ergebnissen, sondern auch danach, wie sie erreicht wurden.

Rating Scale

1: stimme gar nicht zu – 5: stimme völlig zu

c) Job Satisfaction

Instructions

Bitte geben Sie nun an, wie zufrieden Sie mit verschiedenen Bereichen Ihrer Arbeit sind.

Items (Neuberger & Allerbeck, 1978)

- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihren Kollegen?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer Führungskraft?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer Tätigkeit?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit den Arbeitsbedingungen?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit der Organisation und Leitung?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihren Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten?
- Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer Bezahlung?

Wenn Sie nun an alles denken, was für Ihre Arbeit eine Rolle spielt (z.B. die Tätigkeit, die Arbeitsbedingungen, die Kollegen, die Arbeitszeit usw.):

- Wie zufrieden sind Sie dann insgesamt mit Ihrer Arbeit?

Rating Scale

1: sehr unzufrieden – 5: sehr zufrieden

Appendix C: Instructions and Questionnaires applied in Study 3

a) General Instructions

Herzlich willkommen und vielen Dank für Ihr Interesse an dieser Befragung!

Dieser Fragebogen beschreibt, wie Sie die Arbeitsweise des Trainers in Ihrem Verein wahrnehmen. Uns ist Ihre Einschätzung deshalb wichtig, da Sie als Mitglied der Mannschaft, sei es durch Ihre Funktion als Spieler, Assistenztrainer oder durch Ihre Tätigkeit im Management des Vereins, die Arbeit des Trainers aus nächster Nähe am besten beurteilen können.

Bitte nehmen Sie sich die Zeit, die Fragen in Ruhe zu beantworten. Die Bearbeitung des Fragebogens wird ca. 10 Minuten in Anspruch nehmen. Sie können bei Bedarf unterbrechen, erfahrungsgemäß empfiehlt sich jedoch die Bearbeitung am Stück. Wenn Sie den Link zu einem späteren Zeitpunkt an demselben Computer wieder aufrufen, können Sie an der Stelle fortfahren, an der Sie aufgehört haben (Funktion erfordert Cookies).

Anonymität:

Wir versichern, dass Ihre Daten nur die Technische Universität Dortmund erreichen und dort zudem streng vertraulich behandelt werden. Die Daten werden ausschließlich zu Forschungszwecken verwendet. Die Auswertung erfolgt auf Gruppenebene; das bedeutet, dass die Ergebnisse nicht mit einzelnen Personen in Verbindung gebracht werden. Außerdem werden keine Ergebnisse für einzelne Trainer veröffentlicht.

Hinweise zur Bearbeitung

Im Folgenden werden Sie zum Verhalten des Trainers Ihrer Mannschaft befragt. Beziehen Sie Ihre Angaben dabei bitte ausschließlich auf die Person des Cheftrainers. Um Ihre Einschätzungen dem richtigen Trainer zuordnen zu können, bitten wir Sie auf der folgenden Seite, den Namen Ihres Vereins und den des Trainers anzugeben. Für Sie selbst ist die Befragung anonym. Auch erfolgen keine Auswertungen für einzelne Trainer, unser Interesse liegt ausschließlich bei den Zusammenhängen über alle Mannschaften hinweg.

Die Einschätzung des Führungsverhaltens kann von unterschiedlichen Personengruppen vorgenommen werden (Spieler, Trainerstab, Mannschaftsbetreuer oder Management). Sie werden daher ebenso darum gebeten, Ihre Funktion im Verein anzugeben.

Bei der Bearbeitung des Fragebogens werden Sie mehrfach den Begriff "Mannschaft" lesen. Beachten Sie bitte, dass wir darunter sowohl die Spieler als auch Mitglieder des Trainer- und Betreuerstab gleichermaßen verstehen. Gleiches gilt für den Terminus "Mitarbeiter". Auch hier meinen wir sämtliche Personen, die Weisungsbefugnisse vom Trainer erhalten (Spieler, Assistenztrainer, etc).

Der Fragebogen stammt aus dem arbeitsorganisatorischen Kontext. Daher sind manche Fragen nur schwer auf den Bereich des Sports zu übertragen. Sollten Sie an einzelnen Stellen dieses Problem haben, so lassen Sie die Frage einfach offen.

In dem Fragebogen geht es um Ihre persönliche Meinung, daher gibt es keine "richtigen" oder "falschen" Antworten!

Bitte lesen Sie die Fragen und Instruktionen *sorgfältig* durch und antworten Sie *spontan*. Bei der Bearbeitung werden Sie möglicherweise den Eindruck gewinnen, dass einige Formulierungen inhaltlich ähnlich sind. Bitte lassen Sie sich dadurch nicht irritieren.

b) Ethical Leadership

Instructions

Die folgenden Aussagen beschreiben das Verhalten des Trainers. Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie den Aussagen zustimmen.

Items (Rowold et al., 2009)

Der Trainer, den ich einschätze, ...

1) Ethical Leadership

- ... führt sein Leben in einer ethischen Art und Weise.
- ... diskutiert Geschäftsethiken und -werte mit Mitarbeitern.
- ... gibt Beispiele, wie Dinge aus ethischer Sicht richtig gemacht werden sollten.
- ... fragt, wenn er Entscheidungen fällt: „Wie kann ich bei dieser Entscheidung das Richtige tun?“
- ... hört auf das, was Mitarbeiter zu sagen haben
- ... denkt an die Interessen der Mitarbeiter
- ... trifft faire und ausgewogene Entscheidungen.
- ... ist jemand, dem vertraut werden kann.
- ... beurteilt Erfolge nicht nur nach den Ergebnissen, sondern auch danach, wie sie erreicht wurden.

Rating Scale

1: stimme gar nicht zu – 5: stimme völlig zu

c) Transformational Leadership

Instructions

Die folgenden Aussagen beschreiben das Verhalten des Trainers.

Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie den Aussagen zustimmen.

Items (Heinitz & Rowold, 2007)

Der Trainer, den ich einschätze, ...

1) Articulating a Vision

- ... ist ständig auf der Suche nach neuen Möglichkeiten für die Mannschaft.
- ... zeichnet ein interessantes Bild der Zukunft unserer Mannschaft.
- ... hat ein klares Verständnis dafür, wohin sich unsere Mannschaft bewegt.
- ... inspiriert durch seine Pläne für die Zukunft.
- ... schafft es, andere an seine Zukunftsträume zu binden.

2) Providing an Appropriate Model

- ... führt eher durch "Taten" als durch "Anweisungen".
- ... ist ein gutes Vorbild, dem man leicht folgen kann.
- ... wird sich nicht mit dem Zweitbesten zufrieden geben.
- ... führt durch beispielhaftes Verhalten.

3) Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals

- ... pflegt die Zusammenarbeit unter Arbeitsgruppen.
- ... ermutigt seine Mitarbeiter dazu, „team player“ zu sein (d.h. gruppenorientiert zu arbeiten).
- ... bringt die Gruppe dazu, gemeinsam für ein Ziel zu arbeiten.
- ... entwickelt ein Wir-Gefühl und Teamgeist bei den Mitarbeitern seiner Mannschaft.

4) High Performance Expectations

- ... zeigt offen, dass er viel von uns erwartet.
- ... besteht auf Höchstleistungen.

... wird sich nicht mit dem Zweitbesten zufrieden geben.

5) Providing Individualized Support

... handelt, ohne meine Gefühle zu beachten. (R)

... zeigt Respekt für meine persönlichen Gefühle.

... handelt auf eine Art und Weise, die meine persönlichen Gefühle berücksichtigt.

... behandelt mich auf eine Art und Weise, ohne auf meine persönlichen Gefühle Rücksicht zu nehmen. (R)

6) Intellectual Stimulation

... hat mir neue Wege gezeigt, an Dinge heranzugehen, die für mich unverständlich waren.

... hat Ideen, die mich dazu gebracht haben, einige meiner eigenen Gedanken zu überdenken, die ich vorher nicht in Frage gestellt habe.

... hat mich dazu angeregt, alte Probleme auf neue Art und Weise zu bedenken.

Rating Scale

1: stimme gar nicht zu – 5: stimme völlig zu

Appendix D: Declaration

Eidesstattliche Versicherung und Erklärung gemäß § 11 Absatz (2) der Promotionsordnung

Hiermit erkläre ich an Eides statt, dass ich die Dissertation mit dem Titel

„Understanding Ethical Leadership: An Integrative Model of its Antecedents, Correlates, Contingencies and Outcomes“

selbständig und ohne fremde Hilfe verfasst habe.

Andere als die von mir angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel habe ich nicht benutzt. Die den herangezogenen Werken wörtlich oder sinngemäß entnommenen Stellen sind als solche gekennzeichnet.

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich mich noch keiner Doktorprüfung unterzogen oder um Zulassung zu einer solchen beworben habe.

Die oben genannte Dissertation hat noch keiner Fachvertreterin, keinem Fachvertreter und keinem Prüfungsausschuss einer anderen Hochschule vorgelegen.

Ort, Datum

Unterschrift