ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES

OF ETHICAL LEADERSHIP OF PUBLIC RELATIONS PRACTITIONERS

by

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A DISSERTATION

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

α	Cronbach's index of internal consistency
β	Standardized Coefficients
df	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
p	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
r	Pearson product-moment correlation
t	Computed value of *t* test
F	Fisher's *F* ratio: A ratio of two variances
M	Arithmetic mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
M	Median: the number separating the higher half of a sample, a population, or a probability distribution, from the lower half
SD	Standardized deviation
R^2	Coefficient of determination
Exp (B)	Odds ratio
<	Less than
>	More than
=	Equal to

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to explore antecedents and consequences of public relations practitioners' ethical leadership behavior. Before doing so, this study integrated practitioners' ethical behavior into the concept of ethical leadership behaviors. Ethical leadership behavior in public relations is not only the application of ethical standards in day-to-day work, but is also the promotion of ethics: A practitioner promotes ethics by acting as an ethics counselor, and an activist.

I administered an online survey to the 252 members of Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) in August and September of 2008. I mainly used factor analysis and regression analyses to test the research questions and hypotheses.

Ethical behavior of public relations practitioners are composed of two dimensions – applying ethical standards, and promoting ethics within an organization. This result is consistent with the conceptual definition of ethical leadership. In addition, ethical autonomy was found to be a prerequisite of ethical leadership.

The findings suggested that organizational environment and individual factors affect ethical leadership behaviors. Regarding organizational environment, the ethics of the top management were found to be a fundamental source of an organization's ethical culture. Top management's support for ethical behavior facilitated the establishment of formal ethics systems, such as codes of ethics, ethics training programs, and ethics officers. It also fostered an open communication environment. Among formal and

informal ethics systems, only an open communication environment significantly affected the level of ethical autonomy.

The organizational environment also fostered dissent actions against unethical decisions. If top management did not encourage ethical behavior, public relations practitioners were more likely to confront management against unethical decisions. Agitating tactics were more often used in the organizations which did not have an ethics code. In an organization that repressed discussion, practitioners were more likely to use information selectively to make their own arguments against unethical decisions, and to sabotage the unethical decisions.

On the other hand, individual ethical positions affected practitioners. Practitioners with a high level of idealism and low relativisitic ethical stances were more likely to apply ethics standards at work, and to act as ethics counselors. Practitioners with high idealistic and low relativistic ethical stances preferred confrontational actions. Advocates of ethical relativism were more likely to collect information to make their own arguments, use sabotage and even leak information about unethical decisions.

As consequences of ethical leadership behaviors, the levels of ethical influence and job satisfaction were examined. The more practitioners perceived that they applied ethical principles to their work; the more likely they were to perceive that their views about ethics were influential. The perceived level of ethical influence was also strong among practitioners who confronted management over unethical decisions. These behaviors appeared to increase job satisfaction through an increase in ethical influence. However, enacting the ethics counselor role was not positively associated with the level

of ethical influence. Lastly, answers to the open-ended question suggest that ethical conflicts decrease practitioners' job satisfaction.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation explores the importance of ethics in public relations from a behavioral standpoint. Previous research has focused on practitioners' moral values, or on their ethical decision-making process. Little to no research has examined ethical issues in public relations from a behavioral standpoint, and the factors of ethical behavior have not yet been fully addressed. This dissertation will (1) discuss ethical behavior of public relations practitioners, within the concept of ethical leadership, (2) identify organizational and individual predictors of public relations ethical leadership behaviors, and (3) explore the consequences of ethical leadership behaviors. Assuming that public relations practitioners' influence on organizational ethicality, and their job satisfaction that the influence produces, are pivotal components of the success of public relations profession, this dissertation explores the importance of ethics leadership in public relations practice from a behavioral standpoint.

"Ethical public relations is an oxymoron." The prevalence of the expression reflects how cynically the public relations profession is perceived by practitioners and by others. In Judd's (1989) survey, only five percent of the respondents selected public relations representatives as the most credible source of information about an organization, although the survey participants themselves were public relations practitioners. According to a Swedish national public opinion survey in 2002, respondents reported that trust in

public relations agencies and marketing agencies was low, because public relations firms were seen as deliberately unethical; only seven percent of the respondents expressed trust in public relations professionals (Larsson, 2007). Respondents only accepted the use of communication consultants in business settings; they opposed communications consulting in politics and outside of the business sector.

The activist group, Corporate Watch, (2008) states that "public relations campaigns reinforce corporate power and work against democracy. Through deception and deceit, the public relations industry reduces society's capacity to respond effectively to key social, environmental and political challenges" (http://www.corporatewatch.org.uk/?lid=1570).

Such cynicism and criticism underestimate the value of public relations as a corporate conscience. However, paradoxically, the criticism of public relations ethics explains why ethical public relations practice is so important. Ethics in public relations should be prioritized in practice and research, not only because the impact of unethical practice on our society is so serious (Bowen & Heath, 2006), but because it is hard to discern what is right and wrong in some situations (Pratt, 1994). There are also very complex influences of individual (Forsyth, 1980; Kim, 2003; Kohlberg, 1969; Kohlberg & Candee, 1984; Wright, 1984), organizational and societal factors on practitioners' ethical decision-making and behaviors (Bowen, 2004b; Grunig & White, 1992; Heath, 2001; Pearson, 1989). For instance, practitioners' perception of ethical issues differs from that of ethical philosophies such as idealism and relativism (Forsyth, 1980; Kim, 2003), religion, education, and personality (Ford & Richardson, 2003). The extent to which the

ethical ideologies influence ethical decisions differs from culture to culture (Kim, 2003; Kim & Choi, 2003). Organizational factors, -- e.g. top management's supportive behaviors, management style, and presence of code of ethics,-- can also affect practitioners' decision-making on ethical issues (Bowen, 2004b). Individual factors interact with organizational situations, and create conditions that affect ethical behavior (Ford & Richardson, 2003; Trevino, 1986).

Public relations professionals and scholars have long attempted to understand ethical public relations practices. For example, *Public Relations Review* devoted an issue to the theme of ethics in 1989. In addition, the establishment of codes of ethics in professional associations such as Public Relations Society of America (PRSA), the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC), and the International Public Relations Association (IPRA) reflects a focus on ethics (Cutlip, Center, & Broom, 2006; Wilcox & Cameron, 2006). In spite of doubt about the effectiveness of ethics codes in the professional associations, scholars believe that these codes of ethics serve as guidelines for public relations practice. In addition, the need to educate practitioners and students has been stressed in universities and professional associations (Bowen, 2004b; Ehling, 1992; Lee & Padgett, 2000; Pratt, 1991; Pratt & Renter, 1989). Furthermore, the emphasis on ethics shifted the traditional model of public relations as a one-way asymmetry communication and persuasion to a dialogical public relations model based on the two-way symmetrical worldview (Bowen, 2007; Grunig, 2002; Kent & Taylor, 2002). Lastly, the role as an ethics counselor to the dominant coalition, or the ethical

consciences of their organizations was examined by scholars (Bowen, 2008; Dozier et al. 1995; Ewing, 1981; Grunig, 1992, 1997; Heath, 1997; Heath & Nelson, 1986).

Despite the importance to ethics research, however, ethics research in public relations is not as prolific as might be expected in theoretical development for ethical decision-making or behavior, and other empirical investigations. Current studies tend to approach ethics issues with case studies based on anecdotal evidence (Darmon, Fizpatrick, Bronstein, 2008; Ostrom-Blonigen, & Bornsen, 2008; Plowman, Pauly & Hutchison, 2005). Even though they employed framing analysis, and stakeholder theory, the discussion of ethical issues still remains little more than advice about what professionals ought or ought not to do (Grunig, 1992; Kent & Taylor, 2002). Only a few scholars have constructed frameworks based on moral philosophy (Bowen, 2005) or moral theory (Kim, 2003; Lieber, 2008).

Research on public relations ethics has not yet addressed empirical studies from various perspectives. Most of the studies examined practitioners' moral values (O'Neil, 1986; Ryan & Martinson, 1984; Wright, 1985), or ethical decision-making (Bowen, 2004b; Lieber, 2008); little to no research measured ethics as actual behavior. The perceptual approach is useful to diagnose the practitioners' perception of ethics, but it is easy to forget that perception leads to behavior. Although perception reflects behavioral intention, the perceptual approach does not ensure that factors that determine perceptions of ethics will also predict behaviors. The ethical issues that contemporary organizations face are usually "gray zones," and political and other interests are entangled in them. The gap between perception and behavior may therefore be significant.

It would be beneficial to view practitioners' ethics as ethical behavior for several reasons. First, a behavioral approach to ethics can avoid the drawback of the perceptual approach. Direct measure of behaviors may be more accurate than the prediction of behaviors through perceptions. Second, the role of public relations as a corporate conscience, or an ethics counselor, can become more specified and feasible to observe, identify or measure. Behavioral approaches help researchers and practitioners to promote organizational ethics by acting as a corporate conscience. One question can emerge, "how or what do public relations practitioners do to help organizations make ethical decisions?" To answer this question, taking an internal activist role by expressing dissent toward an organizations' unethical decision may be a way to advocate on behalf of ethics (Berger, 2005; Berger & Reber, 2006). This perspective transforms the meaning of public relations ethics from a personal standard to practice. Lastly, practitioners' ethical behavior would be more influential than their ethical standards. Ethical Influence as a corporate conscience is obtained not by standards, but by actions based on the standards.

A behavioral approach in public relations ethics stresses the role of public relations as an ethics counselor, and ethical practice in the workplace. The enactment of this role is very closely related to the access issue to the dominant coalition because it is difficult to influence organizational strategic decisions without a direct connection to the C-suites. Therefore, scholars have argued that organizations should include public relations in the strategic decision-making process, "to benefit from the expertise of the public relations profession – something that is most likely to happen when the public

relations function is involved in the strategic management of the organization" (Grunig et al., 2002, pp.142-143).

Proponents of excellence theory contend that public relations can provide ethics counsel with the dominant coalition, so that they guide top management to do the right thing to fulfill the organization's goals. A public relations practitioner brings public opinion to top decision makers and helps them see the consequences of their decisions for key stakeholders. In the process, practitioners build a mutually beneficial relationship between an organization and the public.

However, the system theory perspective cannot identify what public relations practitioners can do as a corporate conscience, because two-way symmetrical communication does not always work in the organizational setting. In reality, it is very hard for public relations practitioners to gain a seat in the dominant coalition. Inclusion in the dominant coalition does not guarantee being heard, nor influencing organizational strategic decision making. Making the dominant coalition listen to public relations practitioners is perhaps more important than gaining a seat in the center of power.

In this sense, it would be useful to present the activist role of public relations (Berger, 2005). Scholars with a critical viewpoint in public relations practice argue that practitioners need to resist the organization's unethical decisions. Practitioners are encouraged to go beyond the advocacy of doing the right thing; resistance supplements advocacy in the organization and larger social system.

Thus, rather than discussing the role of public relations ethics only in excellence theory, it is necessary to discuss a activist role of public relations to better understand

ethics in public relations. I will combine the ethics counselor and activist roles into the concept of ethical leadership in public relations, which is adopted from the business ethics literature. This approach is useful to frame public relations ethics as behavior, so that ethics become observable. Furthermore, it is possible to investigate ways of encouraging public relations ethical leadership by identifying its characteristics and factors.

Previous empirical research on the behavioral approach to public relations ethics has failed to emphasize the practitioners' role as ethics facilitators. The concept of ethical leadership focuses on the role of an ethics counselor and an activist. In this sense, this research project first investigated ethical leadership behaviors of public relations practitioners in terms of research on leadership and business ethics, and incorporated the suggestions of public relations scholars (Bowen, 2008; Dozier et al. 1995; Ewing, 1981; Grunig, 1992, 1997; Heath, 1997; Heath & Nelson, 1986).

Although most scholars and practitioners agree on the importance of ethical practice, important questions about the predictors of ethical decision-making or behaviors have not been answered. Empirical research remains at the conceptual level, or focused on case studies (Bowen, 2004a, 2004b, Bowen 2005). Other empirical studies examining individual factors are limited (Kim, 2003; Wright, 1985). In terms of organizational factors, Bowen (2004b) identifies communication structure and decentralized management style as organizational factors of public relations practitioners' ethical behavior. However, the factors need to be more examined, refined, and tested. Thus, this

study more generally explores the predictors of ethical leadership behaviors of public relations practitioners through a survey method.

Meanwhile, the outcomes of ethical behavior have been less explored than the predictors in public relations research. This phenomenon is the same in business ethics research. The outcomes of ethical behavior in business include employees' job satisfaction, stress, motivation, commitment, and job performance (Bullen & Flamholz, 1985; Koh & Boo, 2001; Saks, Mudrack & Ashforth, 1996). Among the consequences of business ethics, job satisfaction has been explored in business and organizational behavioral sciences because the satisfaction that workers derive from their jobs is viewed as "reflecting how they react to the entire panoply of job characteristics" (Hamermesh, 2001, p.2). Research on job satisfaction in public relations has not yet explored its linkage with ethics, even though many scholars have investigated job satisfaction from the professionalism viewpoint (Dozier & Broom, 1995; Grunig, 1992; Kim & Hon, 1998; McKee, Nayman & Lattimore, 1975; Pratt, 1986; Shin, 1989;). The relationship between ethics and job satisfaction needs to be investigated because ethics is seen as the essence of professionalism (Pratt, 1991; Rentner & Pratt, 1984). This study examines job satisfaction as a main consequence of ethical leadership behavior of public relations practitioners.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this research are to (1) identify ethical leadership behaviors, (2) explore how organizational factors (e.g., top management's support for ethical behavior,

organizational ethical culture) and individual factors (e.g. individual ethical ideologies) affect practitioners' ethical leadership, and (3) examine the level of perceived ethical influences and job satisfaction of public relations practitioners as consequences of ethical leadership behaviors. Assuming that public relations practitioners' job satisfaction is an important indicator of work commitment, this study explores the importance of individual and organizational ethical behavior among public relations professionals.

Significance of the Study

This research is original and significant in several ways. First, this study provides a basis for building ethical leadership theory in public relations by linking the ethics counselor role and an activist role with leadership concepts. The essence of ethical leadership is to influence ethical values through personal behavior and interpersonal interaction. Although it is not a main goal to develop a grand measure of public relations ethical leadership behaviors, the concept of ethical leadership in this study will enrich the discussion of the role of public relations as a corporate ethical conscience. Public relations practitioners as ethics counselors should help organizations and their dominant coalitions make ethical decisions.

Second, this is the first quantitative study that empirically tests the impact of organizational and individual factors on ethical leadership behaviors--ethical practice, counseling, and dissenting. A few qualitative studies have examined the organizational factors that encourage ethical decision making processes in practitioners. A handful of studies have investigated the associations between individual characteristics (e.g.

individual ethics ideology, gender, and age) and attitude toward professional code of ethics (Kim, 2003) or moral values (Wright, 1985). Little research, however, has examined the impact of those factors on each behavioral facet of ethical leadership. The findings in this research will identify the organizational and individual conditions in which public relations practitioners exert ethical leadership.

Third, investigating the outcomes of ethical leadership behaviors will shed light on the linkage between professional life and ethics. Scholars agree on the importance of ethics in the professionalization of public relations (Bivins, 1993; Ehling, 1992; Grunig, 1992). However, no one has paid attention to the outcome of ethical behavior in public relations. Along with the numeric data, qualitative answers provide rich description of ethics and job satisfaction in real workplaces. Thus, my findings will provide significant empirical data explaining the linkage between ethics and practitioners' job satisfaction.

Limitations

"Being ethical" refers to at least two philosophies: deontological and teleological ethics (Heath, 1994). Deontological ethics is the moral principle which focuses on the rightness or wrongness of intentions or motives behind respect for duties or principles, regardless of the consequences (Olson, 1967). As an opposite moral principle, teleological ethics focus on what is good or desirable based on the consequences of any action (Curtin & Boynton, 2001). "Being ethical" in this research is synonymous with deontology: a belief in universal moral standards. Thus, the concept of ethical leadership in public relations was developed from the perspective of deontological ethics. In

addition, this research was not designed to validate the concept of ethical leadership in public relations, although I adopted the term and definition from other disciplines to the realm of public relations. Instead, I focused on the association between, or among organizational conditions, individual factors and the ethical leadership behaviors of public relations practitioners.

Second, even though this study examines the link between ethical leadership behaviors and job satisfaction, it does not mean that ethical behavior is the most meaningful or important predictor of job satisfaction. Nor do I argue that job satisfaction is the only consequence of ethical leadership behavior among public relations practitioners. Lastly, research on other possible antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership in public relations was beyond the scope of this research.

Methodological and Ethical Considerations

In this study, I collected survey data to test causal linkages among antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership. Data were collected from a survey of the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) members in August and September of 2008. Regression analysis was the primary statistical tool used for data analysis.

Before conducting research, I submitted documentation for review by the Human Subjects Committee of the Department of Communication and the Institutional Review Board of the University of Alabama. In addition, I considered several ethical issues. At the outset of the study, I contacted public relations practitioners via email with the endorsement of the PRSA's External Research Task Force. The survey invitation

explained my identity as a researcher, the purpose of the study, and the methods. Issues of anonymity, potential benefits the public relations practitioners would receive from participation, and the time commitment of participants were also explained. No practitioners were forced to participate or disclose information. Further discussion of ethical issues is provided in the methodology chapter.

Organization of the Dissertation

In Chapter 2, the literature review consists of three parts: the concept of ethical leadership, organizational and individual antecedents of the ethical leadership behaviors, and outcomes of the ethical leadership in public relations. The researcher also introduces the research questions and hypotheses. Chapter 3 explains methodologies, the data collection process, the pilot test, and online survey. Chapter 4 reports the findings from the collected data analyses. Chapter 5 includes discussion and conclusions. The last chapter identifies limitations of the research and suggestions for future studies.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purposes of this research are to define ethical leadership in public relations and to explore possible antecedents and consequences of such leadership. The study identifies the behavioral components of ethical leadership in public relations, and examines the influence of top management's support for ethical behavior and organizational ethical culture, and individual ethical ideologies on ethical leadership, and public relations practitioners' level of influence and job satisfaction as an outcome of ethical leadership.

In this section, I locate research questions and hypotheses within a theoretical framework through the review of literature. I articulate unexplored points in previous public relations research in ethics and leadership of public relations.

For this purpose, in the first section, I reviewed literature on role study of the excellence theory and post modernism approaches, general leadership theory, ethical leadership and public relations ethics research in order to answer the question why and how especially ethical leadership is a concern in the public relations profession. In that part, I assumed ethical leadership as behaviors rather than traits or virtues. In this research, ethical leadership behaviors encompass (1) applying the ethical principles in public relations practice, and (2) promoting ethics within an organization. I postulated

that public relations practitioners promote ethics by providing top management with ethics advice, and taking dissent actions against organizational unethical decisions.

Second, I examined possible antecedents of ethical leadership behaviors. First, autonomy was examined as an essential pre-condition of ethical leadership behaviors. An organizational ethical culture, consisting of top management's support for ethical behavior, an open communication environment, codes of ethics and training, was discussed. I also investigated individual factors that may influence ethical leadership.

Third, practitioners' ethical influence and job satisfaction were explored as consequences of ethical leadership. I reviewed the link between ethical leadership and job satisfaction from other disciplines such as management, organizational psychology, and human resources.

Primary Ethical Standards

Jaksa and Pritchard (1994) define ethics as "a concern with how we should live our lives. It focuses on questions about what is right or wrong, fair or unfair, caring or uncaring, good or bad, responsible or irresponsible, and the like" (p.3). In other words, ethics is good or what society considers right, not necessarily what it considers legal. There are "absolute" ethics – what is good regardless of other variables – and "situational" ethics which take gray areas into account. Individual moral conduct is not only judged based on a person's conscience, but also based on organizational norms, professional norms or societal norms that are settled in a society over time. In this regard, it is difficult

to determine what is right and wrong, because there may be many standards entangled, and moral conflicts are not black or white (Wilcox & Cameron, 2006).

Despite their complexity, ethical principles have been classified (Day, Dong & Robins, 2001). One of the best known categories is deontological ethics. Deontological ethics treat actions as either right or wrong. For example, not spreading false information is a deontological principle that a public relations practitioner should respect.

Second, teleological ethics stresses the result of an action, not the action itself (Day, Dong & Robins, 2001). Utilitarianism falls into this category and emphasizes the action that provides the greatest good for the greatest number of people. From this perspective, the results of the public relations practitioners' actions should serve the best interest of their organizations, clients, or society. However, the interest of them sometimes clash with one another. Therefore, adjusting or prioritizing interests is inevitable on teleological ethics stance. Practitioners are likely to maximize interests of their organizations or clients from this perspective.

In contrast, a situational ethics approach to decision-making depends on circumstances. By and large, the situational ethics approach mixes deontological approaches with teleological approaches. This approach therefore has less consistency. Thus, ethical decision-making from this perspective is vulnerable to criticism. Two decades ago, Ryan and Martinson (1984) reported that situational ethics standard was prevalent among practitioners, and this finding worried public relations researcher.

The endeavor to improve the ethical standard in the public relations profession resulted in the establishment of professional codes of ethics. The Code of Professional

Standards of Public Relations Society of America (PRSA), the Code of Ethics of the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC), and the Code of Athens of the International Public Relations Associations (IPRA) are good examples. Although some scholars doubt the effectiveness of those codes (Cameron, Sallot, & Curtin, 1997; Wright, 1993), they agree that written ethical statements still are the best way to encourage practitioners not to rely on merely subjective judgments (Day, 1991). Kruckeberg (1989) claims that ethics codes set expectations for practitioners' performance and provide both grounds for charges of wrongdoing and defenses. In short, a code of ethics is expected to enhance professionalism.

This study assumes that codes of ethics in the professional associations or individual firms reflect principles of deontological ethics, and thus, ethical public relations practice endorses duty-based deontological ethics.

Leadership

Among many approaches to leadership, this study focuses on its ethical dimensions in public relations for several reasons. First, ethics in leadership has not been recently discussed, in spite of its importance. Ciulla (1998) noted that "it's remarkable that there has been little in the way of sustained and systematic treatment of the subject [ethical leadership] by scholars" (p.3). Second, leadership has not been discussed in public relations, in contrast to the prolific amount of leadership research in business. Aldoory and Toth (2004) pointed out a lack of leadership study in public relations "although many public relations scholars have emphasized management, strategies and

relationship building, and those concepts potentially integral to leadership" (p.158). Thus, a general conceptualization of ethical leadership would be useful.

General Approach to Leadership

Leadership has been spotlighted over the past decade as demonstrated by the abundance of articles and books on the subject. Scholarly studies on leadership reveal numerous theoretical approaches (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004; Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1992; Gardner, 1990; Hickman, 1998; Mumford, 2006; Rost, 1991). It is common for scholars to limit themselves to one approach in developing their own definitions, namely traits, skills, behavior, styles, or power (Yukl, 2002). Leadership has also been viewed as a social interaction and as an aspect of role differentiation (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2007).

First, trait-based approaches place personalities and general intelligence at the center of the leadership concept. This perspective stresses a person's skills and capabilities. Thus, according to the trait perspective, some people have innate leadership qualities and others do not. This perspective restricts leadership to only select people. The second perspective views leadership as a process. In other words, leadership is a behavior. Leadership is seen as an observable and learned quality that resides in a context, so everyone has the potential to become a leader (Jago, 1982).

The process approach regards leadership research as a style, one that indicates the observable behavior that follows from an individual's worldview (McWhinney, 1997). Although the style, the ways of providing direction, and interaction with followers are closely related to the leader's personality (Lewin, 2003), leadership styles are concerned

with the way that leaders interact with other people. This study adopts the process (behavioral) perspective to explore public relations leadership.

Leadership Style

Transactional and transformational leadership styles are the most often studied leadership styles in management research (Burns, 1978; McWhinney, 1997).

Transactional leadership. Transactional leaders are given power to accomplish certain tasks (McWhinney, 1997). Transactional leaders use contingent reinforcement such as rewards, praise, and leaders' promises to motivate their followers. However, reprimands, threats, or disciplinary actions also adapted to correct unsatisfactory performance and undesirable outcomes.

Transactional leaders recognize followers' needs or desires, and clarify how those needs and desires will be satisfied in exchange for meeting specified objectives or performing certain duties. Because transactional leadership involves a commitment to follow rules, these leaders prefer maintaining stability within the organization to promoting change (Daft, 2002).

The commitment to rules creates a contract between leaders and followers. The contract has to have moral legitimacy (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1994). The moral legitimacy of transactional leadership depends on granting the same liberty and opportunity to others that one claims for oneself in terms of telling the truth, keeping promises, distributing to each what is due, and employing valid incentives or sanctions (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Transformational leadership. As the most studied leadership style (Bass, 1985; Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997; Yukl, 1994), transformational leadership is "the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p.30)." Transformational leaders focus on accomplishments and execution, not on their own personal traits and their followers' reaction to them. Transformational leaders often use their own charisma to create meaning and a sense of vision for their followers (Fairhurst, 2001). They are more likely to go beyond the visionary stage to take action in order to transform their organizations.

Transformational leadership serves to change the status quo by articulating to followers the problems in the system, and proposing a compelling vision of a new organization. Rather than analyzing and controlling transactions with followers using rules, directions, and incentives, transformational leadership focuses on intangible qualities such as vision, shared values, and ideas. It centers on these qualities in order to build relationships, give larger meaning to separate activities, and provide common ground to enlist followers in the change process. For that process, many transformational leaders communicate eloquently and expressively with language and manner (Holladay & Coombs, 1994).

Ethics perspective in transformational leadership. Scholars have revealed the ethical dimension of transformational leadership (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Burns, 1978; Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998; Hunt, Boal, & Dodge, 1999; Mendonca & Kanungo, 2007). Burns (1978) described transformational leaders and their followers as inspiring each other to achieve "higher levels of morality and

motivation" (p.20). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) go beyond the simple juxtaposition of ethics and transformational leadership; they differentiated "authentic" from "pseudo" transformational leadership and argued that "authentic" transformational leadership rests on the leaders' moral character. This demonstrates that ethics is a feature of transformational leadership.

Ethical Leadership

Ethics is concerned with "the kinds of values and morals an individual or society finds desirable or appropriate" (Northouse, 2007, p.342). Ethics provides a system of rules that guides individuals to discern right and wrong, and good or bad in a situation (Northouse, 2007).

Several leadership styles deal with leadership ethics (Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003). Transactional leaders, authentic leaders and inspiring leaders also have ethical characteristics. Transactional leaders reward followers who act ethically and punish those who do not. Both authentic leaders and spiritual leaders emphasize leaders' altruism and integrity (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Table 1 depicts the similarities and differences of authentic, spiritual and transformational leadership.

Table 1

Similarities and Differences of Authentic, Spiritual and Transformational Leadership with Ethical Leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006)

	Similarities to ethical leadership	Differences from ethical leadership
Authentic leadership	• Concern for others (Altruism) • Ethical decision-making • Integrity • Role modeling	• Ethical leaders emphasize moral management (more transactional) and "other" awareness • Authentic leaders emphasize authenticity and self-awareness
Spiritual leadership	• Concern for others (Altruism) • Ethical decision-making • Integrity • Role modeling	• Ethical leaders emphasize management • Spiritual leaders emphasize vision, hope/faith: work as vocation
Transformational leadership	• Concern for others (Altruism) • Ethical decision-making • Integrity • Role modeling	• Ethical leaders emphasize ethical standards, and moral management (more transactional) • Transformational leaders emphasize vision, values, and intellectual stimulation

Although ethics is a feature of leadership styles, leadership ethics concerns who leaders are, and what they do (Northouse, 2007). Ethical theories in leadership deal with leaders' character and conduct. Character and conduct are not mutually exclusive, but character is reflected in conduct.

First, virtue theory explains the leaders' heart and disposition (Pojman, 1995). Virtue is the foundation of leaders' conduct, and emphasizes what to be, not what to do, and helps leaders to become more ethical. According to virtue theory, an ethical

individual demonstrates the virtues of courage, temperance, generosity, self-control, honesty, sociability, modesty, fairness, and justice (Velasquesz, 1992).

Second, leaders are concerned with which ethical principle--teleology or deontology-- is to guide their conduct. A teleological view of ethics emphasizes the greatest good for the greatest number. From this viewpoint, ethically correct actions maximize social or organizational benefits with the least cost (Schumann, 2001). Deontological ethics follows what is good itself, or duty. From this perspective, leaders are guided by moral obligations and responsibilities to do the right thing.

Business ethics scholars have explicated the characteristics of ethical leadership, which focus on leaders' conduct. Trevino, Brown and Hartman (2003) interviewed ethics officers and executives in order to examine how ethical leadership is perceived and understood. They found that ethical leaders were seen as honest and trustworthy. They also found that ethical leaders are people-oriented, take visible ethical actions and traits, set ethical standards and accountability, try to be ethically alert, and apply principles (e.g. golden-rule) to their decision making.

Brown et al. (2005) have defined 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" (p.120). Although the definition does not clarify what ethics theory (deontology vs. teleology) upon which their definition is based, the interview suggests that ethical leaders' behaviors are guided by deontological ethics and

virtues. Ethical traits and the character of caring people can be built on virtues. The golden-rule follows the universal deontological principle.

Leadership in Public Relations

Although there are few scholarly studies on leadership in public relations compared to the hundreds of leadership studies in management and business, public relations scholars have begun to pay attention to leadership in public relations. The following research demonstrates progress in scholarship of public relations leadership. By and large, public relations scholars approach leadership from various perspectives.

The works of the excellence studies would be the earliest on leadership in public relations. They describe the twelve characteristics of an excellent organization, and argue that their leaders value networking, "management-by walking around" and horizontal communication structure rather than authoritarian and hierarchical communication structure (Grunig, p. 233).

Although Grunig's perspective focuses on CEOs rather on public relations practitioners, the research on excellence study is significant. Excellence study values a horizontal or organic communication structure, in which public relations leadership can be encouraged. The core value of the leadership in excellent theory is empowerment, which supports transformational leadership. Scholars agree that "the leader who encourages input from all levels of the organization is more likely to succeed than the leader who seeks to impose his or her agenda through either coercion or persuasion" (Farmer, Slater, & Wright, 1998, p. 222).

Although several public relations studies have taken behavioral (Choi & Choi, 2008), or information processing approaches (Lee & Cheng, 2008), scholarship has concentrated on the leadership style in public relations. Some scholars (Aldoory, 1998; Aldoory & Toth, 2004) found that practitioners strongly preferred transformational and interactive styles of leadership by using both two and one-way communication over the transactional style. Empowering and vision sharing are regarded as two important components in public relations leadership (Aldoory, 1998).

Meanwhile, Erzikova and Berger (2008) assume that transformational leadership is synonymous with ethical leadership. Although transformational leadership has more ethical facets than transactional leadership (Ciulla, 2003), ethical leadership should be distinguished from transformational leadership for several reasons. First, spiritual, authentic, and even transactional leadership also have an ethical foundation. Second, transformational leadership functions well only in a symmetrical communication structure; thus, it might not be practical in reality. Although Grunig et al. (1992) place the most emphasis on empowerment, they found that the most effective organizations have a mixed asymmetrical and symmetrical communication structure. In other words, the combination of directing and empowering may be the most effective type of leadership. Lastly, transformational leadership in public relations does not provide a theoretical background that explains other types of ethical behavior, such as internal activism. Since not every organizational structure is horizontal, other influential behaviors featuring ethical leadership – e.g., internal activism, or dissent actions -- can be performed. Thus, I adopt a conceptual definition of ethical leadership from business

ethics literature (Brown, et al., 2006), and examine more detailed behavioral facets of ethical leadership in public relations.

Ethical Leadership in Public Relations

The definition of ethical leadership in business ethics has a common conceptual background with public relations, in which practitioners' ethical leadership behaviors can be identified. According to Brown et al. (2005), ethical leadership both demonstrates and promotes ethical conduct. Adopting Brown et al.'s (2001) definition, I argue that the ethical leadership behavior of public relations practitioners has two dimensions: (1) the application of ethical standards to public relations practice, and (2) the promotion of ethics in an organization. The promotion of ethics requires two behaviors: (1) giving ethics advice to the dominant coalitions, and (2) dissenting if an organization makes unethical decisions. Figure 1 illustrates how the concept of ethical leadership is used to explain ethical leadership behavior in public relations.

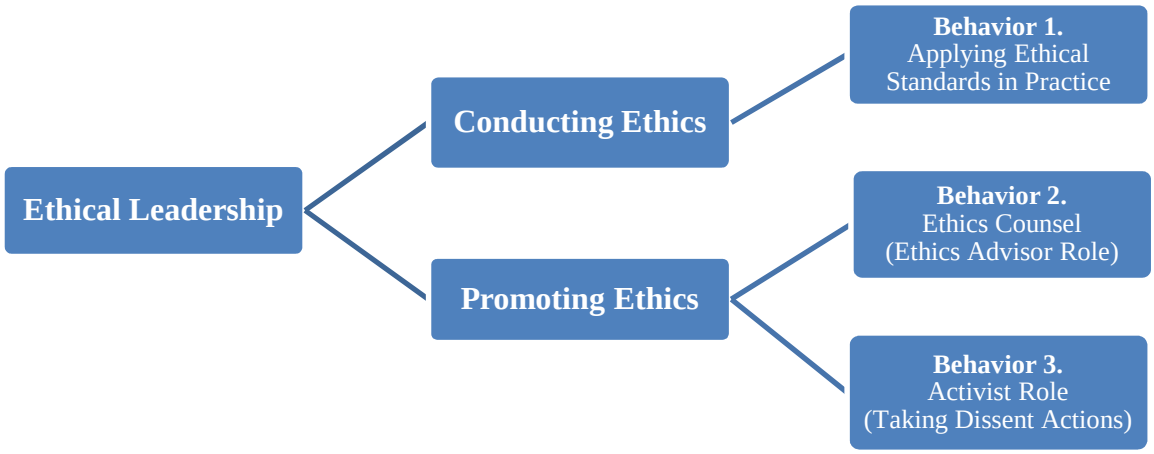

Figure 1. Conceptualization of Ethical Leadership Behavior in Public Relations

The first dimension of ethical leadership, applying ethical standards to practice, is a basis of leadership behavior. Lord and Maher (1991) argue that top executives' ethical leadership is expressed by symbolic forms such as image, speech, corporate policies and communications, because followers do not directly interact with top executives in their everyday work. In contrast, middle level managers' leadership is exerted and observed through their performance.

Previous leadership research suggests that ethical leaders show honesty, integrity, or trustworthiness (Hartog, House, Hinges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dofrman, 1999; Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Posner & Schmidt, 1992). Honesty and integrity are important components of a transformational leader's influence (Avilio, 1999; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Scholars underscore these ethical values, because they believe that ethical behavior comes from those traits (Northouse, 2007). Thus, the first dimension of ethical

leadership, -- applying ethical standard to practice -- indicates performances with honesty, trustworthiness, fairness, and integrity.

The value-based performance of leaders is also emphasized in the professional code of ethics of public relations. The code of ethics of Public Relations Society of America enshrines six core values[1] (Wilcox & Cameron, 2006):

- Advocacy: We serve the public interest by acting as responsible advocates for those we represent. We provide a voice in the marketplace of ideas, facts, and viewpoints to aid informed public debate.
- Honesty: We adhere to the highest standards of accuracy and truth in advancing the interests of those we represent and in communicating with the public.
- Expertise: We acquire and responsibly use specialized knowledge and experience. We advance the profession through continued professional development, research, and education. We build mutual understanding, credibility, and relationships among a wide array of institutions and audiences.
- Independence: We provide objective counsel to those we represent. We are accountable for our actions.
- Loyalty: We are faithful to those we represent, while honoring our obligation to serve the public interest.

[1] http://www.prsa.org/aboutUs/ethics/preamble_en.html

- Fairness: We deal fairly with clients, employers, competitors, peers, vendors, the media, and the general public. We respect all opinions and support the right of free expression.

I argue that the honesty, expertise, and fairness encompass the six values. Three values are based on universal ethics. For instance, the value of honesty accounts for advocacy. Though advocacy in public relations means to serve our organization by treating public with respect, public relations practitioners occasionally encounter a situation in which organizational decisions cannot satisfy public and organizational interests at the same time. In this case, the truth should determine what practitioners should do. Loyalty has a similar problem. The ethics code of the PRSA notes that loyalty to an organization is encouraged when that loyalty serves the public interest. When public and organizational interests conflict, truth-telling would be the best solution. Third, the principles of expertise and independence stand for trustworthiness based on specialized (or reliable) knowledge. Knowledge obtained from experience, research and education is close to truth. Thus, honesty, trustworthiness and fairness are the ethical standards among public relations practitioners.

Promoting Ethics as an Ethics Advisor

Ideal role based on two-way symmetrical communication and dialogues. Scholars have emphasized the ethics counselor role of public relations practitioners (Grunig & White, 1992; Ryan & Martinson, 1983). Ryan and Martinson (1983) were among the first scholars to argue that public relations practitioners should serve as corporate consciences. Public relations should analyze social responsibility issues and be able to

discuss it at the highest corporate levels; because, if it is necessary, ethical corporations should give up some profit in order to protect public well-being. In this ideal standpoint, public relations represent the outside public to management, and vice versa (Ryan & Martinson, 1983).

The idealistic social role of public relations and two-way symmetrical worldview of excellence studies become a theoretical ground of the ethics counselor role (Grunig, & White, 1992; Bowen, 2008). The idealistic social role presupposes that "public relations serves the public interest, develops mutual understanding between organizations and their public, contributes to informed debate about issues in society, and facilitates a dialogue between organizations and the public" (p.53). Proponents of the two-way symmetrical worldview also believe that the diversity and reconciliation of views lead to social progress. Thus, it is desirable for public relations practitioners to convey public opinion to management, although top management should give up some profit to accept the public's voice (Grunig & Repper, 1992). Dialogue builds a mutually beneficial relationship between an organization and the public.

Ethics counseling in role studies. Scholars require senior public relations managers to act as corporate conscience (Bowen, 2008; Dozier, 1992; Wright, 1983). Dozier (1992a) noted that "practitioners taking a manager role are more likely to be strongly committed to their organization and highly ethical in their view of practices" (pp. 350-351). On the other hand, Boynton (2003) found that young, less experienced, and lower-level practitioners are less sensitive to ethical issues. They tend not to be concerned about ethics, because ethical decision-making is usually not in their job description. Thus,

ethics are more emphasized to managers with decision-making authority (Curtin & Boynton, 2001).

However, not all managers act as ethics counselors to the organizational dominant coalition. Grunig et al. (2002) discussed a *senior adviser* as *communication liaison*, which is similar to a manager in salary and status, but excluded by organizational constraint from formal management decision making (Dozier, 1992b; Grunig, Grunig, & Dozier, 2002). As a senior advisor, a practitioner is expected to provide guidance and counseling to the dominant coalition, and to create opportunities for management to hear the public (Dozier, 1992b).

Although excellence study reveals that the senior advisor is very similar to a manager (Grunig et al., 2002), the two should be considered separately. Grunig et al (2002) found that the dominant coalition's expectation of the senior adviser is not correlated to that of managers themselves. In contrast, CEOs' expectations of communication with the public and public relations' contribution to strategic planning are significantly correlated to top communicators' role.

This suggests at least one ethical point. First, the dominant coalition may want to hear from the public only what it wants to hear, not complaints about ethics or corporate social responsibility. Top management may not respect ethics advice from public relations; the dominant coalition may recognize senior public relations managers, only when they speak for profits. In short, although senior public relations managers are expected to bring public opinion to top management, the dominant coalition may not actually welcome such advice. This indicates that role does not guarantee influence;

power is necessary to be influential.

Role of ethical counselor and inclusion in the dominant coalition. Influence or power involves access to the dominant coalition. The inclusion of practitioners in the dominant coalition is "perhaps more important to the profession of public relations than any other measure of professional growth" (Broom & Dozier, 1985, p.8). Excellence study posits that members of dominant coalition in excellent organizations value public relations as a critical managerial rather than as a merely technical- organizational function. Thus, effective organizations include public relations in the dominant coalition. Public relations practitioners should increase their expertise through education, experience and professionalism, and thereby increase their access to the dominant coalition (L. A. Grunig, 1992).

Bowen (2008) argued that ethics counseling is one of the expertises that only public relations can bring to an organization. Her research contends that public relations counsel on ethical issues leads to access to and inclusion in the dominant coalition (Bowen, 2002, 2004a, 2004b, 2005). However, public relations practitioners' access to top management is like an "ebb and flow," until the worth of public relations has been fully proven (Bowen, 2008, p.52). She noted that counseling ethics among those who advise the dominant coalitions varied, although practitioners who are included in the dominant coalition believed that ethics counseling is important.

In short, there is a growing perception of the importance of an ethics counselor among public relations practitioners, and some practitioners have already served in that capacity. In addition, public relations practitioners attempt to educate top management

about the value of public relations in organizational ethics. Nevertheless, the inclusion of public relations in a dominant coalition does not always mean that the ethics advice is being provided to a top management, or that it is respected by top management. In other words, membership in the dominant coalition is no guarantee of influence (Berger, 2005).

Promoting Ethics as an Activist

Taking activist role. While the normative perspectives – two-way symmetrical perspective and ethics counselor role – are regarded as mainstream, some scholars have investigated the role of public relations activists in promoting ethics (Berger, 2005; Holtzhausen, 2000; Holtzhausen & Voto, 2002; Weaver, 2001). Such a role entails resistance to an unethical or less than ethical decisions by an organization. This perspective has been called the postmodern perspective, in which practitioners can counter and resist organizational interests. Thus, this study uses "postmodernism perspective" and "activist perspective" interchangeably.

The activist perspective shares common ground with the normative research in serving organizational ethics, although these two perspectives have opposite worldviews (e.g. supporting organizational function vs. challenging organizational authorities). On the one hand, normative research (e.g. two-way symmetrical perspective and excellence study) assumes that what is right serves the organization and capitalism. On the other hand, from the activist perspective, what is right does not always serve the organization because what is right for an organizational profit may bring harms to a society. Power relations usually determine what is right in an organization (Holtzhausen & Voto, 2001). Thus, taking activism entails dissent and resistance. Berger (2005) argued that

"practitioners must go beyond advocacy of doing the right thing to carry out actions to support and supplement advocacy in the organization and larger social system" (p. 24). Holtzhausen (2002) argued that public relations practice can be more ethical if practitioners take an activist stance in the organizations and challenge ethically doubtful organizational decisions. She sees postmodern public relations practitioners as change agents.

Promoting ethics through dissent. Dissent actions can be also viewed as means of promoting ethics through a discussion of ethical leadership in public relations. Berger and Reber (2006) define dissent action as "particular form of resistance" among public relations practitioners, "in the face of perceived organizational missteps or wrongdoing" (pp.169-170). From bottom-up communication, dissent actions of public relations practitioners exert ethical influence on top management decision-making. In communication with peers or lower level public relations practitioners, dissent actions may provide ethical guidance.

Dissent or dissensus challenges symmetrical communication. From the post-modern perspective, perfectly symmetrical communication is impossible, because power is always involved in communication and decision-making. Holtzhausen and Voto (2002) noted that tensions[2] between an organization and the public cannot be resolved because they are occasionally diametrically opposed. The goal of public relations practice, therefore, is not to strive for consensus but to identify the tensions between an

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[2] Holtzhausen and Voto (2002) used the term "tensors," citing Lyotard (1993, p. 54).

organization and the public. Public relations practitioners can identify these tensions only when they are aware that they not serve only themselves or their organizations, but the public. For instance, an organization that is using child labor in a third world country, may struggle between the cost efficiency of child labor and social responsibility. In this case, public relations activists can challenge management.

Definition of dissent. Organizational dissent is defined as "a multi-step process that involves: feeling apart from one's organization (i.e., the experience of dissent), and expressing disagreement or contradictory opinions about one's organization (i.e., the expression of dissent)" (Kassing, 1997, p. 312). Kassing (1998) noted that employees dissent from their organization when they combat psychological, political, and moral restraints, when they exercise freedom of speech in the workplace, or when they participate in an organizational discussion.

Organizational dissent scholars argue that employee dissent is valuable for restoring employee rights (Gordon, 1978; Wherhane, 1985), including freedom of speech, protest, and privacy (Ewing, 1977; Sanders, 1983). However, dissent is useful for an organization itself. In other words, Redding (1985) noted that loyalty and commitment to an organization is not always good for either an organization or its employees, unless an organization has a moral right to ask its employees to be loyal to it. In this sense, public relations practitioners' dissent can be valuable not only for their own interests, but also for those of an organization. As advocates for organizations, public relations practitioners must remain loyal to them, but as a boundary spanner, they bring dissenting opinions if it is necessary. Redding's (1985) note about loyalty suggests that public

relations practitioners' dissent would be beneficial to an organization in the long run, if it is appropriate and legitimate.

Redding (1985) argued that students, as future employees, should learn how to appropriately dissent within an organization and suggested a range of situations where dissent might be appropriate on a spectrum "representing different degrees of 'badness' for managerial decisions" (p. 256). These situations include those where decisions are "(1) clearly illegal, (2) clearly immoral or unethical, (3) psychopathic or insane, (4) incredibly stupid, (5) insensitive to human needs and feelings, (6) inefficient or impractical, and (7) irritating or annoying" (p. 257). Berger and Reber (2006) adopted these categories for public relations and investigated the situations where public relations practitioners are most likely to dissent. They found that practitioners are most likely to dissent when a management decision is psychopathic, illegal, or immoral. At least these three situations pertain to ethical decisions; the results imply that public relations practitioners are likely to oppose unethical decisions in their organizations. These findings are consistent with those of organizational dissent studies; Kassing and Armstrong (2002) found that employees express dissent when they face significant issues of ethics, and when the consequences of the issues do more harm to outside than inside the organization.

Two categories of dissent. Dissent can be divided into two categories: acceptable (or sanctioned) and unacceptable (or unsanctioned) (Schriemsheim & Hinkin, 1990; Kippins et al., 1980; Berger, 2005; Berger & Reber, 2006). Sanctioned forms of dissent work within a system and therefore are acceptable to an organization. Such approaches

enhance advocacy and advance its function and role, and are not seen as resistance. Enhancing professional knowledge and experience, building coalitions, constructing rational arguments, enhancing political astuteness, and assertiveness (pressure) become sanctioned behaviors (Berger, 2005; Berger & Reber, 2006). On one hand, these tactics can counter unethical and inefficient decisions and are "not used as approaches to advancing one's career or to carrying out instrumental directives more successfully or efficiently" (Berger, 2005, p. 18). On the other hand, unsanctioned forms of resistance comprise actions or approaches that are unacceptable to the organization and that challenge it. Berger (2005) found that public relations practitioners also use several unsanctioned forms of resistance such as covert actions, alternative interpretations, whistle-blowing, and association-level activism.

Dissent tactics. Based on selected organizational communication literature (Caruth, Middlebrook, & Rachel, 1985; Hullman, 1995; Maurer, 1998; Recardo, 1995), Berger and Reber (2006) identified six behavior dissent categories:

> (1) assertively confronting management about the inappropriateness of the decision, (2) working to sabotage implementation of the decision, (3) agitating others to join you in arguing and working against the decision, (4) leaking information to external stakeholders about the decision, (5) using facts selectively in making a case against the decision, and (6) standing by and saying nothing. (p. 174)

They identified the most acceptable tactic as confronting management about an unethical decision, while sabotage and leaking information are the least acceptable means

of challenging unethical decisions. Meanwhile, agitating others or using facts selectively are somewhat acceptable.

Berger and Reber (2006) also found that when a public relations practitioner strongly identifies him or herself as either a manager or a technician, he or she is more likely to agitate or resort to sabotage. This suggests that practitioners are empowered by their position, and are therefore more inclined to take a stand against what they find to be unethical decisions. The study also found that the more likely a practitioner is to engage in managerial activities, the more likely he or she is to confront management about an apparently misguided decision. According to their findings, men were more likely to assertively confront management, and women, to using information selectively. Age was also a key factor in selection of certain dissent tactics.

These results have two implications. First, public relations managers are more likely to assert their ethical influence at the decision-making table by assertively confronting management. Second, the activist role is not limited to the managerial role. Practitioners empowered by their specialty can exert some ethical leadership by promoting "ethically appropriate conduct" through dissent (Brown et al., 2005, p.120).

Summary of Ethical Leadership in Public Relations

The role of public relations practitioners as ethics counselors and activists can be integrated under the concept of ethical leadership. This approach integrates the mainstream perspective of system theory in public relations, and the alternative postmodernism perspective, and examines how public relations practice serves an organization and society. Exerting ethical leadership is not only conducting ethical

practice, but also promoting ethics. From the perspective of system theory, public relations practitioners can promote organizational ethics by acting as ethics counselors. These practitioners facilitate two-way communication, characterized by dialogue between an organization and the public. From the postmodernism approach, public relations practitioners can promote ethics by becoming activists. Ideal two-way communication is not possible, because power within an organization may shape what is right, and distort the truth. An activist extends the public relations identity from that of mere a corporate advocate to that of a social actor.

Based on the literature review of ethical leadership behaviors in public relations and business, I propose the following research question.

Research Question 1: Does ethical leadership in public relations have two behavioral dimensions?

Antecedents of Ethical Leadership in Public Relations

In this section, I examine the antecedents of ethical leadership behaviors in public relations. First, autonomy was investigated as an essential quality of ethical leadership. Ethical leadership behaviors and influence have a sequential relationship.

Ethical Autonomy

Autonomy is a presupposition for ethical decision-making process in Kantian philosophy (Bowen, 2004a, 2004b, 2006). Autonomy in public relations has multiple meanings: (1) identification of a unique profession free from encroachment by the marketing or legal department, (2) inclusion of a dominant coalition reporting directly to

the CEO, and (3) a management strategy having input into strategic management and planning and being able to make decisions without having them ratified by bureaucracy (Bowen, 2006). From the perspective of ethics, autonomy in public relations is freedom from external coercion and prudence in decision-making process (Bowen, 2004a, 2006; Sullivan, 1989).

Bowen (2004a, 2005) applied Kantian theory to public relations ethics research and noted that morality is composed of autonomy, rationality and universality. According to Kant, autonomy assumes that man is rational, a quality that allows human beings to make their own decisions, be their own legislators, and to act according to universal law (Sullivan, 1989). Thus, autonomy is the status in which rational humans make decisions based on what is morally right, and moral judgment is what every rational human being can accept as universal law. Sullivan contended that "autonomy is essential to ethical decision-making because it frees the decision maker from the subjective concerns of personal desires, fears of negative repercussions, or other biased decision-making influences" (Bowen, 2005, p.195).

Bowen (2004a, 2004b) suggested the deontological framework on ethical decision-making guidelines to issue managers. Based upon Kantian philosophy, she emphasized the autonomy of practitioners with the ability to develop deontological ethical reasoning. Bowen suggested questions to examine one's ethical autonomy, e.g., as the basis for my reason or action, can I rule out (a) political influence, (b) monetary influence, and (c) pure self-interest? These questions can be used to measure public relations' moral autonomy.

The Categorical Imperative

Kant defines categorical imperative as "act only on that maxim through which you can at the same time will that it should become a universal law" (Kant, 1785/1964, p.88; quoted in Bowen, 2005, p.195). Categorical imperative features universality and reversibility. Based on the universality, an absolute standard of moral principles is applied to make ethical decisions, consistently across time, cultures, and societal norms. The moral law is fairly applied to every rational agent, which leads to reciprocal obligation between persons. Sullivan (1994) explains such universal and reversible norms through the question: "what if everyone acted that way? Would I be willing to live in a world in which everyone acted like that?" (p.48)

Bowen (2005) also posed three questions to test the categorical imperative in her Kantian model of ethical issues management: "Could I obligate everyone else who is ever in a similar situation to do the same thing I am about to do? Would I accept this decision, if I were on the receiving end? Have I faced a similar ethical issue before?" (p.193) Decision-making, thus, is not based on whether or not a person likes the consequence of an action, but decision-making and behaviors are undertaken out of duty.

Autonomy in Business Ethics Literature

In the business literature, autonomy can be nurtured and developed (Kavathatzopoulos, 2003). Autonomy is a way of thinking that is unconstrained by fixations, authorities, and uncontrolled reactions, and is the ability to consider and analyze all relevant values in a moral problem (Kavathatzopoulos, 2003). This definition of autonomy emphasizes independent decision-making, as Bowen (2004a) noted from

Kantian moral philosophy. Kantian philosophy assumes that autonomy is not pre-determined in human nature; it is a perceptual ability that rational human beings can develop. Erikson (1959) noted that each life is a succession of developmental stages; thus, autonomy cultivated although autonomy is hard to obtain, and plenty of time and certain conditions are demanded before people can acquire and use the ethical ability of autonomy (Kavathatzopoulos, 2003; Kohlberg, 1985; Piaget, 1932; Schwartz, 2000).

In summary, the literature suggests that autonomy is absolutely necessary in ethical decision-making, which leads to ethical leadership behaviors of public relations practitioners. Autonomy is a perceptual ability that can be nurtured within an environment. Thus, an organizational environment may affect the degree to which ethical autonomy is developed and works.

Organizational Factors in Public Relations Ethics

Practitioners work in an environment in which contextual factors influence their ethical decision-making and behavior. Thus, in this section, I examine organizational factors that affect ethical leadership behaviors and practitioners' ethical autonomy. Organizational factors of public relations ethical leadership include: (1) top management's support for ethical behavior and (2) organizational ethical culture.

Top management's support for ethical behavior. Top management in this study is the dominant coalition: the CEO, president and senior executives who make important strategic decisions. Top management's support for ethical behavior is the extent to which it encourages ethical behavior and discourages unethical behavior (Weaver, Trevino, & Cochran, 1999).

Top management's support for ethical behavior is pivotal, because its decisions influence the organization. However, little is known about the way in which top management's ethicality affects an organization. Leadership ethics research focuses on case studies (Donaldson & Gini, 1996) or normative discussion (Ciulla, 1995, 1998; Freeman, Gilbert, & Hartman, 1988; Rost, 1995). Only a few empirical studies have examined the ethics of lower-level managers (Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Weber, 1990).

Bowen (2004b) found that an ethically exemplary organization's top management emphasizes instilling its values in middle-level managers and others so that everyone can contribute to creating an ethical organization. Such value is usually expressed in an ethics statement; the values are spread through ethics training programs.

Several studies examined the association between the perceived top executive support for ethical behavior and important outcomes such as more employee commitment, less unethical conduct, and the values orientation of the organization's ethics program (Trevino et al, 1998; Weber et al, 1999). These studies add empirical evidence on how top executive support for ethical behavior can facilitate ethical behavior in an organization.

Among several factors that sustain organizational ethics, top management ethicality is regarded as the most important predictor to sustain organizational ethics. Newstorm and Ruch (1975) found that top management's ethical standards are reflected on the ethical standards of middle level managers. Other studies also suggest that top executives' ethicality appeared through support for the organization's ethical code or the

encouragement of employee compliance (Benson, 1989; Brooks, 1989; Cleek & Leonard, 1998; Posner & Schmidt, 1987; Pratt, 1991; Stevens, 1999; Vitell & Festervand, 1987).

Organizational ethical culture. Ethical culture is a slice of the organizational culture that influences employees' ethical behavior through formal and informal structures and systems (Trevino, 1990). Formal systems are institutionalized and structural codes of ethics, ethics training programs, ethics officers, and rewards and sanctions. Informal systems include components which cannot be institutionalized, such as communication structure, and ethical climate (Ambrose, Arnaud, Schminke, 2007; Deshpande, 1996; Victor & Cullen, 1987).

The business research literature has explored the effectiveness of organizational formal systems in ethical decision-making (Chen, Sawyers, & Williams, 1997; Cowton & Thompson, 2000; Koh & Boo, 2001; Loe, Ferrell, & Mansfield, 2000; Schwartz, 2001; Trevino et al., 1999): ethics codes or ethical policy (Chen et al., 1997; Cowton & Thompson, 2000; Schwartz, 2001; Trevino et al., 1999), reward system (Trevino, 1986), ethics training program (Delaney & Sockell,1992), organizational structure (Ferrell & Skinner 1988), and peer group influence (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985).

Some studies have examined the combined effect of those formal systems. For instance, Ferrell and Skinner (1988) noted that the establishment of ethics code and training is related to ethical behavior. Company's ethics training programs improved ethical behavior (Delaney & Sockell, 1992). Stevens (1999) suggested that training and other resources such as an organization's handbook of ethics helps employees to learn about organizational ethics. Reference group (e.g. top management) or interaction with

significant others also affect ethical decision making (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985).

Organizational factors on ethical decision making in public relations. Scholars (Broom, Casey, & Ritchey, 1997; Heath, 1997; McElreath, 1996) have emphasized the ethical practice of public relations, but few studies have explored which organizational factors affect ethical public relations practice. Bowen (2004b) is perhaps the only researcher who has summarized what organizational factors can encourage ethical public relations practice. She found that participatory organizational culture, two-way symmetrical communication structure, decentralized management style, and deontological organizational philosophy work together to create an environment that encouraged ethical decision (Bowen, 2004b).

Bowen (2004b) underscores the importance of ethics statements and ethics training programs, because organizational philosophy and values are established and shared through them. She noted that such formal systems functions in participatory organizational culture, in which "the system is open, employee input is valued, and power-distance relationships are low and less formalized" (Bowen, 2004b, p.313).

A symmetrical worldview facilitates two-way communication, which is concerned with both the internal and external public (Grunig, 1989). Decentralized management style features an open communication and dialogue. Lastly, an organization's deontological philosophy is expressed in its ethics statement. The statement guides public relations practitioners to what is important in ethical decision-making. Bowen (2004b) uses these organizational factors to explain how ethical decision-making can be encouraged.

Table 2 summarizes the organizational factors in ethical decision-making in both business and public relations and business literatures. Ethical statements and ethical training programs appeared in both disciplines. In participatory organization culture, decision-making process is transparent and employees are empowered. From the communication perspective, public relations research emphasizes the symmetrical worldview and two-way communication that are cultivated in decentralized management style (Bowen, 2004b).

A symmetrical worldview shares characteristics with a benevolent ethical climate. An ethical climate is marked by shared perception among organization members regarding the criteria (e.g., egoism, benevolence, and principle) and focus (e.g., individual, group, and society) of ethical reasoning (Schminke, Ambrose & Neubaum, 2005). Employees' input is respected in an organization that has adopted a symmetrical worldview, and a benevolent ethical climate also supports human values. The importance of dialogue and discussion within an organization is stressed in both literatures.

Table 2

Factors of Organizational Ethical Culture on Ethical Decision-Making

	PR research	Business ethics research
Formal system	• Ethics statement (code of ethics) • Ethics training program	• Code of ethics • Ethics training program • Ethics policy • Reward & sanction system
Informal system	• Participative organizational culture	• Decentralized management style
	• Two-way communication/ dialogue	• Personal interaction (group discussion)
	• Symmetrical worldview	• Benevolence ethical climate

Summary. The literature review confirms that many organizational factors affect ethical behavior. In the business and public relations literatures, top management is regarded as essential in maintaining organizational ethics. The most common organizational factors in ethical decision-making are a code of ethics, ethics training, an ethics officer, and an open communication environment.

In terms of the relationship between organizational factors and ethical leadership, Organizational factors may influence ethical leadership behaviors through enhancing practitioners' ethical autonomy level. Bowen (2004b, 2006) noted that autonomy is found in organizations with participatory and non-authoritarian cultures, because individual opinions are respected. Alford (1999) suggested that employees' ethical autonomy is encouraged to the extent that an organization sanctions it. Thus, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The level of top management's support for ethics will affect:

1-1. the presence of codes of ethics.

1-2. the presence of ethics training programs.

1-3. the presence of an ethics officer.

1-4. the organizational participatory culture through open communication.

Hypothesis 2: The level of public relations practitioners' ethical autonomy will be affected by:

2-1. the presence of codes of ethics.

2-2. the presence of ethics training programs.

2-3. the presence of an ethics officer.

2-4. the open communication environment.

Research Question 2: Does the level of top management's support for ethics directly affect the level of autonomy or indirectly affect the ethical autonomy level through other organizational ethical components (open communication culture, presence of codes of ethics, ethics training, and an ethics officer?)

Hypothesis 3: The level of ethical autonomy affects:

3-1. the ethical practice of public relations practitioners,

3-2. the ethics counselor role of public relations practitioners.

Research Question 3: How do organizational ethical culture and ethical autonomy affect dissent among public relations practitioners?

Individual Factors in Public Relations Ethics

This section looks at the extent to which individual ethical belief can affect ethical leadership. Although the above section examined the organizational factors that influence ethical leadership, human behavioral science scholars agreed that personal factors explain human behavior.

Individual Ethical Ideology. Ethical differences between people can be explained in terms of relativism and idealism (Forsyth, 1980; Forsyth & Nye, 1990; Wilcox & Cameron, 2006). Some people believe in moral absolutes when they try to make a decision (low relativism); others do not (high relativism). In contrast, some people believe that desirable outcomes can always be obtained by doing the right thing (high idealism); but, others believe that doing the right thing does not always lead to the desired outcome (low idealism).

Based on these two standards, Forsyth (1980) created a 2x2 classification of ethical ideologies (Table 3). In this taxonomy, an individual may use one of four methods when making an ethical judgment. Each category reflects a school of philosophy.

Table 3

Forsyth's Taxonomy of Ethical Ideology (1980)

Idealism	Relativism High ⟷ Low	
High ↕ Low	*Situationists* Rejects moral rules; advocates individualistic analysis of each act in each situation; relativistic	*Absolutists* Assumes that the best possible outcome can always be achieved by following universal moral rules
	Subjectivists Appraisal based on personal values and perspective rather than universal moral principles; relativistic	*Exceptionists* Moral absolutes guide judgments but pragmatically open to exceptions to these standards: utilitarian.

First, situationalists reject absolute moral rules, advocate individualistic analysis of each act in each situation, and pursue potential benefits that individuals can earn from their actions. This is a relativistic viewpoint. Second, an absolutist has a high level of idealism, but a low level of relativism. People in this category assume that "best possible outcome can always be achieved by following universal moral rules" (Forsyth, 1980, p.176, Kim, 2003). They also value both consequences to others and universal moral laws when making an ethical judgment. Third, the subjectivist has a low level of idealism but a high level of relativism. They are regarded as ethical egoists. People in this category use "appraisals based on personal values and perspective rather than universal moral principles" (Forsyth, 1980, p.176). Lastly, exceptionists, are low in both idealism and relativism. They use "moral absolutes to guide judgment, but are pragmatically open to exceptions in these standards" (Forsyth, 1980).

People in these different ethical categories develop their own types of ethical reasoning (Barnett, Bass & Brown, 1994). Applying Forsyth's taxonomy to business ethics, Barnett et al (1994) found differences in ethical judgments on business matters. They found that people with a high idealistic and low relativistic ethical stance (a*bsolutists)* were the most likely to stick to rules.

Kim (2003) adapted this framework to examine the relationship between public relations practitioners' ethical ideology and their perceptions on general ethical issues and the ethics code of the Public Relations Society of America. He found that high idealists among Korean practitioners believe that keeping high ethical standards adds value to the profession while contributing to the organization's bottom line in the short term. Further, he noted that idealism plays a critical role in ethical decision making among Korean public relations practitioners, while relativism was a key factor among American practitioners. The findings suggest that public relations practitioners stand on different ethical positions, so ethical decision-making may differ from an ethical position.

According to the literature review, I pose the following research question:

Research Question 4: How do the behavioral components of ethical leadership – ethical practice, ethics counseling, and dissent actions differ from ethical ideology?

Covariates

While I examine the influence of organizational environment and individual ethical ideologies on ethical leadership behaviors, I controlled the level of participation in decision-making process and demographic factors (age, education, and gender). Among

demographic variables, I focus on the relationship between age and ethical behavior of public relations practitioners. In this study, participation in decision-making process is equated with working in a managerial role.

Participation in Decision-Making Process

Literature shows that ethics is more related to the managerial than to the technician role. Ethical decision-making and behaviors have been emphasized in the managerial roles from the professionalism perspective. Following a code of ethics is more required for managers who may take responsibility in an organization's decision-making than it is for technicians (Boynton, 2003). Bivins (1987a, 1987b, 1992) noted that more autonomous and objective moral judgment is indispensible to public relations managers when they follow a code of ethics.

In regard to consequences of ethical leadership behavior, O'Neil (2003) suggests that practitioners' influence is rooted in their managerial role. She noted that much of the influence comes from the structural authority – a managerial role, because authority of independent decision-making stands for power. Meanwhile, Dozier and Broom (1995) found that participating in decision-making processes is positively related to the job satisfaction of public relations managers. Thus, participation in decision making needs to be controlled to examine the impact of main antecedents on ethical leadership, and its consequences.

Demographic Factor: Age, Gender and Education

Several empirical studies in public relations associate age with ethical beliefs and ethical behavior. Wright (1985) demonstrates that older practitioners have a higher

standard of personal ethics than do younger practitioners. Pratt (1991) notes that older practitioners identify some behaviors as more unethical than younger practitioners do. Shamir, Reed and Connell (1990) found a moderate correlation between age and the extent to which practitioners reported adhering to professional ethics. Years of experience in public relations industry was also associated with compliance with professional ethics. The findings suggest that age and professional experience encouraged the consciousness of professional ethics and ethical conduct.

Meanwhile, many business ethics studies explore gender difference in ethical awareness, judgment and behavioral intention (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005). Weeks et al. (1999) found that female practitioners generally adopted a stricter ethical stance than their male counterparts. Cohen et al. (2001) also found that women behave more ethically than men, at least in certain situations. On the other hand, mixed findings were found with regard to education level. VanSandt (2003) found that level of education was a significant moderator between ethical climate and moral awareness; while Karcher (1996) did not find that auditors' education level causes an ability difference in discerning ethical problems. Thus, in this study I control for the impact of age, gender, and education levels on ethical leadership behaviors, when I look at the influence of organizational and ethical ideology factors.

Consequences of the Ethical Leadership

The Excellent Leadership Study in Public Relations (2008) by the University of Alabama found that strategic decision-making capability is the most important quality of excellent leadership in public relations. In other words, public relations practitioners should help management to make a strategic decision, by providing valuable counsel or ideas to top-level decision-makers. The finding suggests that public relations leadership influences not only practitioners' followers, but also upper-level management. Thus, assuming that upward influence should be an indispensible outcome of public relations leadership, I first look influence as a consequence of the ethical leadership. Then, I examine job satisfaction as a consequence of ethical leadership behaviors.

Influence

Public relations practitioners have argued that they should work on the managerial level, participate in decision-making, and work as communication liaison between senior management and the internal and external publics (Broom & Dozier, 1986; Dozier, 1984, 1992). However, it is barely known how public relations are influencing top management. It is also unknown whether the input of public relations practitioners actually reaches top management.

Some scholars, thus, have agreed on the importance of investigating the real outcomes of the managerial role. Berger and Reber (2006) argued that participation in decision-making should mean "having a voice, being listened to, and being heard when seated at the table" (p.18), not just joining the dominant coalition. In other words, having a decision-making seat has no guarantee of gaining the respect of dominant coalition. The

real power of public relations managers comes from top management's recognition of the value of public relations. Along the same lines, O'Neil (2003) found that the extent to which top management values public relations has the strongest impact on public relations practitioners' influence on budgets, support from other departments, and superiors.

This study limits the concept of influence to the upward influence on an organizational strategic decision-making setting. Influence, thus, is the extent to which one's voice is heard and respected in strategic decision-making processes in the dominant coalition or in other strategic groups. "Being heard" is assumed to mean that public relations practitioners speak out, argue and defend their opinion on strategic decision-making.

Ethical Influence

The definition and assumption are also applicable to the ethical-decision making setting. "Being heard" in the organizational ethical decision-making process means that practitioners speak out, argue, and defend what they think is ethically right. The definition of influence also grounded in public relations practitioners' ability to make a strategic decision to build communication strategies. Thus, ethical influence is also based on the competence to make an ethical decision.

Kavathatzopoulos (2003) introduced the psychological concept of "ethical competence" to business ethics education, and this may resemble the definition of influence. The research claimed that ethical competence entails five consecutive abilities: "The ability (1) to apprehend ethical situations, (2) to treat ethical conflicts in the best

way for all parties concerned, (3) to support and sustain ethical process, (4) to express oneself to be able to argue and defend oneself, and (5) to be self-confident and willing to make difficult decisions" (p.47).

In this study, ethical decision-making implies adherence to universal or deontological ethics. Trevino et al. (2003) noted that ethical leaders, who follow the golden-rule to decision-making, are fair to all stakeholders. Applying the golden rule stresses the importance of a deontological ethics framework. Codes of ethics in public relations professional association are good examples of deontological rule. Thus, the statement measuring ethical influence is: My voice is heard and respected at the decision-making table when I suggest the right things to do, according to the code of ethics.

With this conceptualization of ethical behavior, I propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 4: Ethical influence is encouraged by

4-1. performing ethical practice.

4-2. acting as a ethics counselor.

4-3. confronting management against an organization's unethical decision.

Job Satisfaction

Definition of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been studied as a comprehensive component of the workplace. It has been "a matter of growing interest for those concerned with the quality of working life and organizational efficiency" (Khaleque & Rahman, 1987, p.401). To an organization, the consequences of job satisfaction are directly related to such crucial areas as efficiency, productivity, and employee relations. Job satisfaction is very important for an employee's "fundamental aggregate well-being generated from a job" (Bender, Donohue, & Heywood, 2005).

Although there is disagreement about whether "being satisfied" with a job is affective or cognitive (Brief & Weiss, 2002), job satisfaction has been defined and measured as an attitudinal variable (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is a worker's overall estimation of all aspects of his or her job (Bender et al., 2005). Some scholars simply define it as the extent to which people like or dislike their job and different aspects of their jobs (Serini, Toth, Wright, & Emig, 1997; Spector, 1997). One of the most frequently cited definitions of job satisfaction include both affective and cognitive perspectives: Locke (1976) noted that job satisfaction is "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences" (p.1300).

Construction of job satisfaction. The construct of job satisfaction has been considered multi-faceted at an operational definition level (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). An attitude toward jobs can be a reaction to a particular facet of that job, or the job itself. For instance, a person might like his or her salary, but not his or her coworkers. The person may not even like the work itself. Thus, some scholars have distinguished overall job satisfaction from satisfaction with aspects of the job (Shin, 1989). Other scholars in business ethics have measured job satisfaction in terms of five or six facets (Deshpande, 1996; Koh & Boo, 2001; Vitell & Davis, 1990a). It is derived from satisfaction with pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision, and the work itself.

In spite of the multi-faceted approach, job satisfaction can be intrinsic or extrinsic. This classification is based upon where the reward is given to the workers originates. According to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, Elgland, & Lofquist, 1967), extrinsic satisfaction concerns aspects of work that have little to do with the job tasks or work itself, such as pay. Intrinsic satisfaction is the nature of job tasks themselves and how people feel about the work they do. Rewards for extrinsic job satisfaction come from outside of the worker: pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and organizational context. Rewards for the intrinsic job satisfaction, in contrast, resides inside of workers and include interest, achievement, meaningfulness, and significance. Caudron (1997) noted that individuals tend to want jobs that have significance and that offer internal satisfaction and meaning in addition to external rewards.

Job Satisfaction in Public Relations

While business research focuses on the multi-faceted characteristics of job satisfaction, public relations research emphasizes its intrinsic characteristics. Dozier and Broom (1995) inquire into the intrinsic aspect of work. Their questions are as follows: “I like the work I am doing,” “My job gives me a chance to do the things I do best,” “I perceive the importance of my work,” and “Overall, I am satisfied in comparison to other jobs.”

Kim and Hon (1998) screened out extrinsic facets of job satisfaction such as financial rewards and promotions, from Rentner and Bissland’s (1990), and Shin’s (1989) research. They focused on six facets of job satisfaction: (1) job comfort, (2) feeling of significance and meaningfulness, (3) challenge and variety, (4) autonomy, (5) support and good communication, and (6) overall goal setting. These questionnaires, emphasizing intrinsic components, investigated the characteristics of professionalism, such as autonomy and goal setting.

Serini et al (1997) used the most encompassing index to assess job satisfaction by using both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Their 14-item-questionnaire covers satisfaction with pay, promotion, professional issues and nature of the work. Their focus group interviews provided more specific information about intrinsic value. For example, male practitioners valued being recognized by supervisors more than female practitioners did. The recognition also meant “winning in competition” (p.109). Overall, job satisfaction in public relations research has stressed intrinsic facets and been measured at the overall level.

Predictors of job satisfaction of PR practitioners. Most of the public relations practitioners' job satisfaction has been discussed with the increase of professionalism in public relations (Dozier & Broom, 1995; Grunig, 1992; Kim & Hon, 1998; McKee, Nayman & Lattimore, 1975; Pratt, 1986; Shin, 1989). Professionalism in public relations has been developed as public relations practitioners work in a managerial function, and participate in decision-making process. (Broom & Dozier, 1986; Dozier & Broom, 1995; McKee et al., 1975; Pratt, 1986). Those discussions seem to be anchored in *professionalism as specialized knowledge, without emphasizing its ethical dimension.*

As vocational prestige is earned from professionalism, scholars and practitioners in the 1970s and 1980s were eager to define public relations role as a professional one. McKee, Nayman and Lattimore's (1975) study, perhaps the first on job satisfaction among public relations practitioners, found that these practitioners are more satisfied with professional jobs at the managerial level rather than craft jobs, (e.g. message production through publicity). Olson's (1989) survey of San Francisco Bay area public relations practitioners and journalists, reported that these practitioners are more satisfied with their job than were journalists. Their job satisfaction was also closely related to their autonomy. Broom and Dozier (1986) found that practitioners who had assumed managerial roles were more satisfied with their job and with their participation in decision-making processes. Renter and Bissland (1990) reached similar results from their nationwide survey, indicating that public relations practitioners are more satisfied when they have a managerial role and autonomy in their work.

In the late 1990s and early 2000s, Kim and his colleagues (Kim & Hon, 1998; Karadjov et al., 2000) found in their surveys that practitioners in Korea and Bulgaria who used the two-way symmetrical public relations model, and who had a strong professional orientation, were more satisfied with their work. Like research conducted inside of the United States, these studies found a general relationship between job satisfaction and professionalism. In short, professionalism increases public relations practitioners' job satisfaction. This research illustrates that public relations research on job satisfaction has been conducted to advocate value and status of public relations as a unique profession with a specialized knowledge and work autonomy.

Roles of public relations and job satisfaction. Studies of public relations practice models and job satisfaction stress managerial roles in public relations practice (Grunig, 1992; Kim & Hon, 1998; Karadjov et al., 2000). However, two issues in professionalism and job satisfaction need to be discussed. First, previous studies on job satisfaction of public relations practitioners have overlooked ethical issues in professionalism, while the recognition from expertise and work autonomy from participation in decision-making has been emphasized for job satisfaction. Second, the actual influence of public relations should be more important than taking a managerial role and joining the dominant coalition. As a corporate conscience, public relations managers offer ethics advice to top management, and sometimes dissent to correct organizational unethical decisions. Getting things done in an ethical way is as important as getting things done with specialized knowledge.

In short, satisfaction with a managerial role may originate from its level of influence. Ethics as an element of professionalism needs to be investigated in studies of job satisfaction studies. Therefore, this study sheds light on both influence and ethics from the ethical leadership perspective. The following research questions explore the link between ethics and job satisfaction among public relations practitioners.

Research Question 5: Does ethical leadership behavior -- ethical practice, ethical practice, ethics counseling, and confrontation action – directly affect practitioners' job satisfaction, or does it indirectly affect job satisfaction through the perceived ethical influence level?

Research Question 6: When do public relations practitioners perceive ethical conflict, and how does it related to their job satisfaction in PR profession?

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions and hypotheses that I tested can be sorted into four groups: (1) conceptual dimensionality of ethical leadership behaviors in public relations -- conducting ethics (applying ethical standards on practice), and promoting ethics (enacting ethics counselor role and activist role); (2) organizational level of antecedents of ethical leadership behaviors and ethical autonomy; (3) individual level of antecedents of ethical leadership behaviors (individual ethical ideologies); and (4) consequences of ethical leadership behaviors (ethical influence and job satisfaction). The research questions and hypotheses are collectively listed as follows:

Dimensionality of Ethical Leadership Behavior

Research Question 1: Does ethical leadership in public relations have two behavioral dimensions?

Organizational Level of Antecedents of Ethical Leadership Behavior

Hypothesis 1: The level of top management's support for ethics will affect:

1-1. the presence of codes of ethics.

1-2. the presence of ethics training programs.

1-3. the presence of an ethics officer.

1-4. the organizational participatory culture through open communication.

Hypothesis 2: The level of public relations practitioners' ethical autonomy will be affected by:

2-1. the presence of codes of ethics.

2-2. the presence of ethics training programs.

2-3. the presence of an ethics officer.

2-4. the open communication environment.

Research Question 2: Does the level of top management's support for ethics directly affect the level of autonomy or indirectly affect the ethical autonomy level through other organizational ethical components (open communication culture, presence of codes of ethics, ethics training and an ethics officer?)

Hypothesis 3: The level of ethical autonomy affects:

3-1. the ethical practice of public relations practitioners.

3-2. the role of public relations practitioners as ethics counselors.

Research Question 3: How do organizational ethical culture and ethical autonomy level affect public relations practitioners' dissent actions?

Individual Level of Antecedent of Ethical Leadership Behavior

Research Question 4: How do the behavioral components of ethical leadership – ethical practice, ethics counseling, and dissent actions differ from the ethical ideology category?

Consequences of Ethical Leadership Behavior

Hypothesis 4: Ethical influence is encouraged by

4-1. performing ethical practice.

4-2. acting as a ethics counselor.

4-3. confronting management against an organization's unethical decision.

Hypothesis 5: Ethical influence will affect job satisfaction of public relations practitioners.

Research Question 5: Does ethical leadership behavior -- ethical practice, ethical practice, ethics counseling, and confrontation action – directly affect practitioners' job satisfaction, or does it indirectly affect job satisfaction through the perceived ethical influence level?

Research Question 6: When do public relations practitioners perceive ethical conflict and how is it related to their job satisfaction?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study explored the antecedents and consequences of the ethical leadership behaviors of public relations practitioners. The research questions and hypotheses posited a priori were tested using the survey method. This chapter first demonstrates the appropriateness of the survey method. Second, I describe the development of the survey instrument and the methods of statistical data analysis. The rationale and support for each survey question are given. Lastly, I explore the ethical considerations. The draft survey, IRB form and a consent form are in the appendices.

Online Survey Research

This study uses a web-based survey design. New technologies in survey research made it easy to do systematic (random) sampling, and enhanced the questionnaire design and computerized data analysis (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Since the advent of email surveys in the 1980s and the first web-based surveys in the 1990s (Schonlau, Fricker, & Elliott, 2001), the preference for the web-based survey to the traditional survey methods has increased. A 2003 study of respondent cooperation by the Counsel for Marketing & Opinion Research (CMOR) reported that the preference for online surveys rose to 18% among respondents, up from 10% in 1999 (Evans & Mathur, 2005).

Indeed, online surveys would have much more advantages compared to the traditional survey methods. The greatest strengths of online surveys are flexibility (Schonlau et al., 2001), technological innovations (Dommeyer & Moriarty, 2000; Mullarkey, 2004; Tingling, Parent & Wade, 2003), speed and timeliness (Kannan, Chang, & Winston, 1998), convenience (Hogg, 2003), the low administration cost (Cooper & Schindler, 2000), and the question diversity (Evans & Mathur, 2005).

In terms of the flexibility, online surveys can be conducted in various formats: email with embedded survey; email with a link to a survey URL; and visit to a website by an internet surfer who is then invited to participate in a survey. In addition, the questionnaires can easily be edited to survey participants' demographics and language (Schonlau, Fricker, & Elliott, 2001). Randomization of the ordering questions becomes easier with technological innovations (Dommeyer & Moriarty, 2000; Mullarkey, 2004; Tingling et al., 2003).

Second, the benefit of speed and timeliness is obvious. Kannan et al (1998) argued that online surveys minimize the amount of time that it takes to get a survey into the field and for data collection. Online surveys make it possible to access and interact with geographically diverse respondent in real time (Cobanoglu, Wood, & Moreo, 2000; Roztocki, 2001).

Hogg (2003) noted that the online survey benefits respondents because they can answer the survey whenever it is convenient. Some online survey software even stores unfinished surveys so that respondents can complete them later.

Online surveys are cost-effective because the responses are automatically placed into the database (Wilson & Laskey, 2003), and encoding cost is saved. In addition, a self-administered online survey does not require postage or interviewers.

Lastly, questions on online surveys can be more diverse (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Online surveys are capable of including dichotomous questions, multiple choice, scales and even open-ended questions. Typing is easier than handwriting answers. Thus, researchers can obtain more detailed subjective opinions by posing open-ended questions.

However, online surveys also have weaknesses. One of the biggest problems that online surveys have is that e-mail invitations to surveys are frequently perceived as junk mail. In 2004, MessageLabs, an Internet security firm (www.messagelabs.com), reported that US customers screened 692 million out of 909 million scanned email message (76%) as spam. As a result, many respondents have a tough time distinguishing between a legitimate survey and a spam mail. Increasingly, bulk mail--even those that are opt-in – are blocked by the mail server (Bannan, 2003). I had to follow up on each blocked email to confirm that the survey invitation was not spam.

If online surveys have unclear instructions, some people may be frustrated and exit a survey without finishing. Therefore, online survey design must be clear in terms of questioning messages and technological design (Ray & Taber, 2003).

Impersonal issues may be serious obstacles to arriving at accurate answers. Since there is usually no human interaction in online surveys, this can limit the ability to probe as a skilled interviewer could do (Scholl et al., 2002). For instance, telephone interviews can control the pace at which respondents answer the questions, because respondents can

pause to reflect. Brown et al. (2001) questioned how instilling motivation to participate in a survey works online.

Privacy and security are anchored in two categories: (1) the security of transmissions and (2) the use of data. Many respondents wonder if their answers will be treated confidentially, and whether their contact information will be sold to other firms (Berry, 2004). These issues may become even more serious if a survey asks sensitive questions. I asked respondents to evaluate the ethics of their organizations, and to express their opinions about their own ethical conflicts. Respondents might have been reluctant to participate in the survey unless security and confidentiality were guaranteed.

Lastly, many researchers experience low response rates to their online surveys (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002; Ilieva, Baron, & Healey, 2002; Sheehan & McMillan, 1999; Wilson & Laskey, 2003). Fricker and Schonlau (2002) found limited evidence in the literature that online surveys earn higher response rates than do traditional survey types. Moreover, they found that the majority of reported results from the literature showed that online surveys at best attained response rates that were equal to those of other modes and sometimes fared worse. One of the main reasons for the low response rates is lack of compensation. Mail surveys often use cash or non-cash incentives to increase the response rate, but it is not easy to include this kind of incentive in web surveys (Dillmann, 1999). Other disadvantages are noted in Table 4.

Table 4

Strengths and Weaknesses of Online Surveys (Evans & Mathur, 2005)

Strength	Weakness
1. Flexibility	1. Perception as junk mail
2. Speed and timeliness	2. Skewed attributes of the internet population
3. Technological innovations	3. Questions about sample selection
4. Convenience	4. Respondent lack of online experience/expertise.
5. Ease of data entry and analysis	5. Technological variations
6. Question diversity	6. Unclear answering instructions
7. Low administration cost	7. Impersonal
8. Ease of follow-up	8. Privacy and security issues
9. Controlled sampling	9. Low response rate
10. Large sample easy to obtain	
11. Control to answer order	
12. Knowledge of respondent vs. non-respondent characteristics.	

Despite their disadvantages, I decided to use a web-based survey because it was less expensive, faster, more accurate, and in general more practical than mail and telephone surveys.

Open-Ended Question Survey

An open-ended question was adapted to collect qualitative data in a large survey for three reasons. First, open-ended questions allow researchers to explore the different dimensions of respondents' experiences (Sproull, 1988). Open-ended survey responses can capture the diverse reality of the participants, which numeric data do not (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Second, open-ended survey questions offer greater anonymity to respondents and often elicit more honest responses than individual or focus group

interviews (Erickson & Kaplan, 2000). Participants may feel more comfortable answering questions about ethical conflicts in an anonymous setting. Lastly, it is more cost-effective to collect participants' rich descriptions and opinions online. For those reasons, the open-ended question would be more helpful in collecting answers about ethical conflicts.

Research Design

Sampling

The ideal sampling method for survey research is probability sampling because of the sample's representativeness. However, non-probability methods are often used instead, usually for situations in which probability sampling would be prohibitively expensive, and/or when precise representativeness is not necessary (Babbie, 1990). This study adopted a non-probability sampling method.

With the help of and approval of the External Research Task Force of the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA), the member directory of 23,000 public relations practitioners was used as the sampling frame for this project because PRSA is the world's largest organization for public relations professionals. Once the research proposal was accepted, PRSA's External Research Task Force team drew the sample.

Random sampling was conducted with the help of PRSA's External Research Task Force Team. Independent public relations practitioners, owners, and educators are excluded from the random sampling because they are not fit for the purpose of this research.

Measurements

Based on the project's conceptualization, and the scales for measuring the components of organization's ethical culture, job satisfaction, personal and organizational factors, the researcher generated a set of items. The selected factors are the constructs developed not only in public relations research but also in business ethics and organizational communication research.

Along with the explanation of measurement, I conducted preliminary statistical analysis. To access the reliability and internal consistency of the data, the alpha test was performed for the multi-item scales. Because some of the measurement items were modified or newly developed (e.g., ethical autonomy and ethical practice of public relations practitioners), the scale reliabilities from previous studies were not generalizable to this study. I also conducted exploratory factor analysis, especially principal component analysis (PCA), to determine how well the items measured the latent variables they were designed to measure.

Ethical practice. "Ethical practice" of public relations practitioners is conceptually defined as public relations practice with honesty, fairness and integrity (Brown et al., 2005; Hartog, House, Hinges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dofman, 1999; Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Posner & Schmidt, 1992; Wilcox & Cameron, 2006). Thus, *honesty* is defined as (1) telling the truth and (2) not intentionally hiding information from the public. *Fairness* is defined as treating and respecting all stakeholders equally. *Integrity* is defined as having and applying good moral standards to public relations practices. Thus, five items are developed to measure perceived public managers' ethical practice

(Table 5). Each item was measured on a scale from 1 to 7 where 1 represents “strongly disagree,” 4 “neutral” and 7 “strongly agree.” The Cronbach’s alpha value for reliability was .64. However, it enhanced to .74 if the second item, “I hide information to protect my own or my organization’s interest” is deleted. Although factor analysis showed all five items indicated one dimension, deleting the second item raised the percentage of explained variance from 49.0% (Eigen value = 2.45) to 58.64% (Eigen value = 2.35). According to the factor analysis and reliability check, I deleted the second item from the “ethical practice” variable. Thus, “ethical practice” consists of those four items and it was reduced to one variable with the mean of 6.47 (*SD* = .56).

Table 5

Measurements of Public Relations Practitioners' Ethical Practice

Reference	Ethical Practice	Statement	*M*	*SD*
Wilcox & Cameron, 2006	Honesty (Telling the truth)	I tell the truth to clients and the public in my work.	6.30	.88
		I hide information to protect my own or my organization’s interest (reversed).	6.14	1.34
	Fairness	I treat all stake holders fairly and respectfully.	6.35	.87
	Integrity	I have good moral standards and apply them to my work.	6.63	.54
		My practice is trustworthy to my clients.	6.62	.64

Ethics counselor role. The role of the ethics counselor was measured in terms of agreement with the following item: “I provide dominant coalitions (or my clients) with counsel on the consequences of their decisions from the perspective of ethics” (Bowen,

2008). The item was measured on a scale from 1 to 7 where 1 represents "strongly disagree" and 7 "strongly agree" (*M*=5.97; *SD* =1.21).

Activist role. Berger and Reber (2006) defined dissent action as "particular form of resistance" among public relations practitioners, "in the face of perceived organizational missteps or wrongdoing" (pp.169-170). Six tactics of perceived public relations managers' dissent action are adopted from the Dissent Study (Berger & Reber, 2006). While Berger and Reber's (2006) study gives respondents a hypothetical situation and asks how they would express dissent, this study captured the self-perception of PR managers' dissent in their actual practice, which are their own actions against unethical organizational decisions. The measured tactics are depicted in Table 6 (response on a 7-point Likert scale).

Table 6

Measurements of Dissent Actions against Unethical Decisions

Dissent tactics	*M*	*SD*	Berger & Reber (2006)
1. Assertively confront management about the inappropriateness of the decision	5.40	1.46	6.10
2. Agitate others to join them in arguing and working against the decisions	3.79	1.97	3.64
3. Use facts selectively in making a case against the decision	3.71	2.03	3.74
4. Work to sabotage implementation of the decision	1.64	1.09	2.52
5. Leak information to external stakeholders about the decision	1.43	.96	2.60
6. Stand by and say nothing	2.15	1.42	1.72

The three most frequently used tactics in the face of unethical decisions were also to assertively confront management (*M*=5.40, *SD* =1.46), agitate others (*M*=3.79) and use facts selectively (*M*=3.71). Although there is a slight difference in the rank, the results are consistent with the findings of Berger and Reber (2006). The assertive confrontation action was reaffirmed as the most acceptable tactic (*M*=5.40), and it may be the only widely acceptable dissent tactics above point 4, the neutral score.

Factor analysis was conducted to look at the commonality of each tactics. Factor analysis reported that two factors were extracted from those six tactics, and the total percentage of variance was 59.05% (Table 7). As mentioned in the literature review, it seems clear that sabotage and leaking information are bound into one factor, and confrontation clearly fell into the second factor. However, agitating and using information selectively seem to be ambivalent, and it is hard to say that "doing nothing" indicates a particular tactic. Thus, rather than binding the items into factors, I observed those six tactics separately.

Table 7

The Results of Factor Analysis of Dissent Tactics against Unethical Decision

Dissent tactics	Factor1	Factor2
1. Assertively confront management about the inappropriateness of the decision	-.016	.877
2. Agitate others to join them in arguing and working against the decisions	.456	.513
3. Use facts selectively in making a case against the decision	.443	-.131
4. Work to sabotage implementation of the decision	.868	.044
5. Leak information to external stakeholders about the decision	.808	-.050
6. Standby and say nothing	.327	-.756
Eigen value	1.94	1.60
% of variance	32.37	26.68
Total % of variance	59.05%	

Notes. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Varimax Rotation was used.

Top management support for ethics. Literature regarding top management support for ethical behavior appears both in business ethics and public relations research (Bowen, 2004b; Hunt et al., 1984; Koh & Boo, 2001). The items used in this research are shown in Table 8.

Bowen (2004b) found that top management in an ethically exemplary organization emphasizes communicating its values and ethics in order to instill those values in middle-level management and other employees. As a result, everyone understands the organization's ethical values and works to create an ethical environment. Such values are likely to be emphasized through the written ethics statement, and spread

and internalized through ethics training programs. Thus, the first two statements in Table 8 are added as sub-items to measure top management support for ethical behavior.

The last three items are adopted from Hunt et al. (1984), and the Cronbach's alpha among the three items was 0.74. I did not change the general term "managers" into "PR managers" for this study, because top management's support for ethical behavior is not limited to the public relations managers. Five measures on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), were used. Factor analysis indicated that these five items are bound into one dimension with the explained variance percentage of 70.84% (Eigen value = 3.54). Cronbach's alpha for the reliability was 0.89. Those items are also reduced into one variable with the mean of the five items (*M* = 5.31; *SD* = 1.55).

Table 8

Measurements of Top Management's Support for Ethical Behavior

References	Statements	*M*	*SD*
Bowen (2004b)	1. Top management in my organization emphasizes an ethics statement (code of ethics).	5.60	1.79
	2. Top management in my organization spreads organizational values and ethics through supporting ethics training programs.	4.69	2.11
Koh & Boo (2001)	3. Top management in my organization has clearly conveyed that unethical behavior will not be tolerated.	5.58	1.72
Trevino, Brown & Hartman (2003)	4. If a manager in my organization is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in personal gain rather than corporate gain, he will be promptly reprimanded.	5.46	1.78
	5. If a manager in my organization is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior, he will be promptly reprimanded even if the behavior results primarily in corporate gain.	5.23	1.85

Formal system of organizational ethical culture. Ethical culture is “a slice of the organizational cultures that influences employees’ ethical behavior through formal and informal organizational structures and systems” (Trevino, 1990). Thus, organizational ethical culture can be assessed by examining the organization for formal systems such as the presence code of ethics, ethics training programs and ethics officers. The formal systems are measured on a 7-point Likert scale, which is converted into a dichotomous value indicating the presence of each formal system. The measurements are indicated in Table 9.

Table 9

Measurements of Formal Systems of Organizational Ethical Culture

Organizational formal system	Statements
Code of ethics	1-1. How long has your organization had its own code of ethics? 1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------7 Not existing / < 1 year / 1-2 year(s) / 2-3 years / 3-4 years / 4-5 years / > 5 years
	1-2. How useful is the content of your organization's code of ethics? (Answer this, unless the previous answer is 1) Not at all 1------2------3------4------5------6------7 Very useful
Ethics training	2-1. How often does your organization provide an ethics training program in a year? 1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------7 Not existing / Once / Twice / Three times / Four times / Five times / Six times or more
	2-2. How useful is ethics training for learning ethical behavior in your practice? (Answer this, unless the previous answer is 1) Not at all 1------2------3------4------5------6------7 Very useful
Ethics Officer	3-1. Does your organization have an ethics officer? 0- No; 1-Yes
	3-2. How useful is the existence of your organization's ethics officer to keep ethical environment? (Answer this, unless the previous answer is 0) Not at all 1------2------3------4------5------6------7 Very useful

First, for the presence of code of ethics, 67.8% (171 out of 252) respondents said that their organizations have codes of ethics, and it has been more than five years since the ethics codes were established (78.4%, 134 out of 171). Since the distribution is extremely skewed into "5 or more years," I converted the Likert scale into a dichotomous

one. Thus, 67.8% of the respondents said that their organizations have a code of ethics. For the usefulness of ethics code among those organizations much have them, the mean value of the usefulness was 5.35 (*SD* = 1.57). 71.4% of practitioners said that the code of ethics are useful (select 5, 6, or 7 on the 7 point Likert scale).

Second, 52.0% (131/252) of the respondents said that their organizations have an ethics training program; 74.05% (97/131) responded that most training is provided once a year; and 14.5% (19/131) said twice a year. Due to the extreme skewedness of the frequency of ethics training, I converted the Likert scale into a dichotomous one. Thus, 48.0% of the practitioners have participated in an ethics training course(s) provided by their organizations. The mean value of usefulness of the ethics training program was 5.07 (*SD* = 1.45).

Lastly, only 28.6% (72 out of 252) of the people responded that their organizations have an ethics officer; the mean value was 6.39 (*SD* = 1.70). In summary, the most common formal system in organizational ethical culture was a code of ethics (67.8%), and respondents who are working in such systems said that codes are useful.

Informal system of organizational ethical culture. For the informal system, I examined the extent to which the organizations are committed to open communication. It is assessed by measuring the extent of organization-wide two-way communication, decentralized management, and sharing of organizational ethical vision and identity through communication (Table 10). The following three items are measured on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1, “strongly disagree” to 7, “strongly agree.” Factor analysis proved that these three items constructed one dimension with 73.08% of the explained

variance (Eigen value = 2.19). Cronbach's alpha for scale reliabilities was .81. Thus, the mean of open communication environment from those three items was 5.56 (*SD* =1.46).

Table 10

Measurements of Informal System of Organizational Ethical Culture: Open Communication Environment

Open Communication (Bowen, 2004b)	Statement	*M*	*SD*
Participatory culture	1. My organization is open to discussion about ethical concerns so that we help each other do the right thing in the long run.	5.67	1.59
Decentralized management	2. My supervisor values subordinates and carefully listens to them anytime.	5.46	1.81
Share identity & vision of ethics	3. My organization has clearly shared organizational values.	5.54	1.71

Ethical autonomy. Although ethical autonomy has been conceptually defined in both business ethics and in the public relations literature, it has not yet been measured (Bowen, 2005; Kavathatzopoulos, 2003). This research adopted Bowen's (2005) notion of ethical decision-making in issue management. Three questions to diagnose an individual's ethical autonomy level are suggested.

Following deontological principles, this study defines ethical autonomy as the way of (a) thinking unconstrained by political influence, (b) monetary influence and self-

interest, and (c) the ability to analyze moral problems according to code of ethics (Bowen, 2005).

The three questions are adjusted as follows (Table 11) in order to measure public relations practitioners' ethical autonomy. There were measured as a self-perception of their ethical autonomy level on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree." Factor analysis proved that the three items consisted of one construct, with the 80.53% of the explained variance (Eigen value = 2.42). Cronbach's alpha for reliability was .88. Thus, the mean of autonomy from the three variables were 5.23 (*SD* = 1.47).

Table 11

Measurements of Ethical Autonomy

Reference	Statements: In my workplace, I decide and I voice what I feel is right and wrong independently,	*M*	*SD*
Ethical autonomy (Bowen 2005)	1. Without concern for appearing disloyal to top management.	5.22	1.67
	2. Without concern for losing clients.	5.20	1.60
	3. Without concern for self-interest, such as salary or my job.	5.30	1.65

Ethical influence. This research defined influence as having a voice and being heard at decision-making tables (Berger & Reber, 2006). Based on the deontological ethical perspective, *ethical influence* is defined as being heard at decision-making tables, when public relations practitioners express their opinion about what is right on the basis

of the code of ethics. Thus, the statement measuring ethical influence is shown in Table 12. The single statement was measured on a 7-point Likert scale, where “1” means “never” and “7” means “always.”

Table 12

A Measurement of Ethical Influence

Reference	Statement	*M*	*SD*
Berger & Reber (2006)	*How much do you agree with the following statement?*		
	My voice is heard, respected on the decision-making table, and applied to the decisions when I suggest what I feel is the right thing to do, according to the code of ethics.	5.30	1.59

Participation in decision-making process. Dozier and Broom (1995) define *participating in decision-making* as the extent to which public relations practitioners participate in senior level decision-making meetings, or in the dominant coalition. Senior level decision-making cases are those in which members adopt new policies, programs or procedures, develop strategic decision-making, and evaluate new programs. I adopted the scale indicating the level of the participation in the decision-making process in order to testing the revel of managerial role, because these scales represent the effectiveness of the public relations managerial role. Each item was measured by asking “how often are you involved in the following situation?” on the 7-point Likert scale, from 1, “never,” to 7 “always.” The reliability of the items was .92 according to Dozier and Broom (1995), and .91 in this research. The mean of managerial role from those five items was 5.27 (*SD* = 1.26).

Table 13

Measurements of Managerial Role: Participation in Decision-Making Process

Statements *How often are you involved in the following situations?*	*M*	*SD*
1. To decide on adopting new policies.	4.80	1.76
2. To develop strategic decision making.	5.41	1.46
3. To adopt new programs or procedures.	5.32	1.43
4. To implement new programs.	5.61	1.23
5. To evaluate new programs.	5.22	1.48

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is defined as a respondent's personal estimation of all aspects of his or her job (Khaleque & Rahman, 1987), or the extent to which people like or dislike their job and different aspects of those jobs (Serini et al., 1997; Spector, 1997). The scholarship of public relations has focused on measuring the satisfaction of work itself (Dozier & Broom, 1995; Kim & Hon, 1998; Serini et al., 1997; Shin, 1989) and Shin (1989) found that public relations practitioners placed more value on intrinsic job satisfaction than other facets of job satisfaction.

However, Serini et al. (1997) found that public relations practitioners linked their job satisfaction with several important issues of public relations industry, such as recognition as a professional and work condition. Thus, I developed 13 statements measuring public relations practitioners' job satisfaction based on the literature in public relations research; the items are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Measurements of Job Satisfaction among Public Relations Practitioners

References	Statements	*M*	*SD*
Work itself (Dozier & Broom, 1995; Serini et al., 1997; Kim & Hon, 1998; Shin, 1989)	1. My job is interesting.	6.12	1.18
	2. I feel good about the amount of responsibility in my job.	5.67	1.47
	3. The work I am doing is challenging.	5.65	1.44
	4. I have achieved or am achieving my overall or long-term goals in public relations practice.	5.16	1.58
Value of public relations (Serini et al., 1997)	5. I feel the prestige of working in public relations.	4.95	1.51
	6. I value my job to society.	5.37	1.45
Professionalism issues (Serini et al., 1997)	7. I am satisfied with the autonomy and freedom level in my present job.	5.35	1.69
	8. I am satisfied with the recognition received from supervisors, or top management group.	4.78	1.80
Work conditions (Serini et al., 1997)	9. I am satisfied with pay.	4.57	1.76
	10. I am satisfied with the advancement chances with present employer.	4.07	1.91
	11. I am satisfied with working for the current boss in my organization.	5.04	1.95
	12. I am satisfied with working together with the people in my organization.	5.47	1.45
	13. I am satisfied with job security in present position.	5.03	1.76

I adopted the items from the previous research, and created several items based upon the qualitative findings of Serini et al.'s (1997) focus group interview. Although

previous research has categorized those items as shown in Table 14, I conducted factor analysis for more precise observation.

The results of factor analysis show that those 13 statements comprise two dimensions (Table 15). Although each of two statements mentioning professional issues is separated into two factors, each factor has similar characteristics. On the one hand, the first factor focuses on the rewards and benefits coming from internal characteristics of the individual performance. On the other hand, the second factor asks about rewards or benefits coming from external conditions: recognition from supervisors, payment, promotion chance, and the relationship with bosses and co-workers dwells in workplace conditions. Thus, the first factor was named *intrinsic job satisfaction,* and the second factor was named *extrinsic job satisfaction.* The Cronbach's alpha of the intrinsic job satisfaction was .90, and that of the extrinsic job satisfaction was .87. The mean of intrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction was 5.47 (*SD* = 1.17) and 4.29 (*SD* = 1.39), respectively. Overall job satisfaction, driven by the mean of all 13 items, was 5.17 (*SD* = 1.18).

Table 15

Factor Analysis Results of Job Satisfaction

Statements		Factor 1 Intrinsic	Factor 2 Extrinsic
1. My job is interesting.		.824	.202
2. I feel good about the amount of responsibility in my job.		.778	.334
3. The work I am doing is challenging.		.817	.259
4. I have achieved or am achieving my overall or long-term goals in public relations practice.		.665	.447
5. I feel the prestige of working in public relations.		.660	.314
6. I value my job to society.		.710	.238
7. I am satisfied with the autonomy and freedom level in my present job.		.630	.471
8. I am satisfied with the recognition received from supervisors, or top management group.		.434	.719
9. I am satisfied with pay.		.175	.711
10. I am satisfied with the advancement chances with present employer.		.228	.799
11. I am satisfied with working for the current boss in my organization.		.311	.718
12. I am satisfied with working together with the people in my organization.		.401	.645
13. I am satisfied with job security in present position.		.283	.708
Cronbach's alpha		.90	.87
Mean (S.D.)		5.47 (1.17)	4.29 (1.39)
Rotation Sums of Squared loadings	% of explained variance (Total 63.32%)	54.11	9.21
	Eigen Value	7.04	1.20

Notes. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Individual ethical ideology. Forsyth (1980) developed the Ethical Position Questionnaire (EPQ) to measure the ethical ideology of individuals based on their idealism and relativism. The EPQ consisted of 20 statements divided into two 10-item subscale--one for idealism and the other for relativism. The EPQ demonstrated acceptable levels of internal consistency, and its two-factor structure appeared to be stable (Forsyth, 1980). Thus, I adopted whole set of EPQ. Cronbach's alpha of idealism and relativism was each .78 and .81. The mean of idealism and relativism was 5.02 (SD = .90) and 3.20 (SD = 1.03), respectively. Overall, practitioners in this study are relatively stronger in idealism than in relativism (t=20.361; df= 251; p<.001).

Table 16

Ethical Position Questionnaire: Idealism (Forsyth, 1980)

Idealism	*M*	*SD*
1. A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree.	5.98	1.20
2. Risks to another should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risks might be.	4.54	1.83
3. The existence of potential harm to others is always wrong, irrespective of the benefits to be gained.	4.93	1.76
4. One should never psychologically or physically harm another person.	6.28	1.26
5. One should not perform an action which might in any way threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual.	5.83	1.43
6. If an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done.	5.62	1.57
7. Deciding whether or not to perform an act by balancing the positive consequences of the act against the negative consequences of the act is immoral.	2.82	1.65
8. The dignity and welfare of people should be the most important concern in any society.	5.75	1.17
9. It is never necessary to sacrifice the welfare of others.	4.21	1.90
10. Moral actions are those which closely match ideals of the most “perfect” action.	4.24	1.67
Mean	5.02	.90

Table 17

Ethical Position Questionnaire: Relativism (Forsyth, 1980)

Relativism	*M*	*SD*
1. There are no ethical principles that are so important that they should be a part of any code of ethics.	1.62	1.14
2. What is ethical varies from one situation and society to another.	4.18	1.93
3. Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers being moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.	3.51	1.87
4. Different types of moralities cannot be compared as to "rightness".	4.37	1.75
5. What is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual.	3.25	1.89
6. Moral standards are simply personal rules which indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgments of others.	2.77	1.54
7. Ethical considerations in interpersonal relations are so complex that individuals should be allowed to formulate their own individual codes.	2.92	1.55
8. Rigidly codifying an ethical position that prevents certain types of actions stand in the way of better human relations and adjustment.	3.46	1.59
9. No rule concerning lying can be formulated; whether a lie is permissible or not permissible totally depends upon the situation.	2.62	1.66
10. Whether a lie is judged to be moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action.	3.34	1.89
Mean	3.20	1.03

Individual characteristics. Individual characteristics, age, gender, education, years of work experience, and years of current workplace tenure were measured. Age was a continuous measure, asking respondents to select the number of their actual age. Gender was a dichotomous measure; female was "1" and male was "0." The highest degree that the practitioners completed was used to indicate their educational level, ranging from

high school diploma to a doctorate or post doctorate. Survey participants were asked how long they had worked in public relations and for their current employer (in ranges staggered from less than 3 years up to more than 30 years). Instead of asking the respondent's job title, the number of employees that the respondents supervised was asked with a continuous measure.

Organizational characteristics. Questions about organizational size, organizational type, and the staff size of the public relations department were asked. Organizational size and the public relations staff size were continuous measures, so respondents had to type actual numbers. As a categorical variable, the type of organizations were public relations agencies, communication agencies, corporations, marketing research firms, non-profit organizations, government agencies, and educational institutions.

Pretest

I conducted a pretest to examine the comprehensibility of the questionnaires and their capability of eliciting valid responses. The pretest was conducted with eight doctoral students who are majoring in mass communication, and seven professors. The pretest involved off-line discussion and email correspondence about the questionnaires. My colleagues and professors were encouraged to identify ambiguous items and suggest changes. The wording was refined as a result of the pretest.

Data Collection Procedure

Data collection was carried out from August 19 to September 29, 2008, with the help of PRSA's External Research Task Force Team. The first invitation mail was sent

to 3,000 randomly selected PRSA members on August 19. The reminder mail was sent two weeks later, on September 2. The researcher received 160 responses, which was quite low. Therefore, a second invitation email was sent to another set of 3,126 PRSA members[3]. Reminders were sent one week later. Data collection closed on September 29, and an additional 181 responses were collected. Thus, 341 responses were collected. The initial response rate was 5.57%. However, there were many unfinished surveys and several independent PR practitioners participated in the survey. Thus, I excluded them from the analysis. Thus, finally 252 responses were selected, yielding a valid response rate of 4.11%. The responses were collected through the personal account of the online survey service website, www.surveymonkey.com.

Data Analysis

Tests of Hypotheses and Research Questions

Factor analysis. I adopted factor analysis to examine the dimensionality of ethical leadership behavior in Research Question1. Exploratory factor analysis was used.

Regression tests. I used regression analysis to test hypotheses. To begin with, binary logistic regress was used to test hypotheses 1-1, 1-2 and 1-3 because the dependent variable, presence of code of ethics, ethics training and ethics officer are dichotomous variables. Hypothesis 1-4 was tested with a simple linear regression analysis, and research questions 2 to 5, and hypotheses 2, 3, 4 and 5, were tested with multiple

[3] The email survey invitations were sent out to 6126 PRSA members. As I limited the PR firm owners, educators, and free-lancers, the email invitations are sent nearly to all PRSA members.

regression analysis. In particular, a hierarchical regression model was employed to control covariates, age, gender, education and the level of participation in decision-making processes.

Mediation test. To test Research Question 2 about the mediating effect of open communication environment between top management of support for ethics and ethical autonomy, and Research Question 5 concerning the mediating effect of ethical influence between ethical leadership behaviors and job satisfaction, I followed the recommendations of Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger (1998). According to Kenny and his colleagues, a variable (M) mediates the relationship between an antecedent variable (X) and an outcome variable (Y) if: (1) X is significantly related to Y in the absence of M; (2) X is significantly related to M; (3) M is significantly related to Y; and (4) after controlling for M, the X-Y relationship is 0. The examination of mediation test followed this logical process.

Mean comparison. Multivariate Analysis of Covariate (MANCOVA) was used to answer Research Question 4. With the control of covariate – the level of participation in decision-making processes and age, the idealism and relativism were re-coded with two levels—low and high—according to the mean values of each variable. Thus, I design 2x2 factorial MANCOVA. Since ethical leadership, analyzed as dependent variables in the MANCOVA analysis, contains various behaviors that are correlated, MANCOVA was adopted instead of the Univariate Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA).

Text analysis. For Research Question 5, I adopted text analysis. The unit of analysis for the current study was survey participants' text answers – experience and

opinion, in their own words, which were categorized and analyzed (Harding, 1986; Hon, 1995).

Ethical Considerations

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1998), there are two dominant ethical issues in research on human participants: obtaining informed consent and protection of participants. J.E. Grunig and L.A. Grunig (2000) explained that consent, deception, and privacy are three major aspects of ethics in public relations research. They argued that the ethics of research is a critical concern because of a growing reluctance to cooperate in research projects. To maintain public confidence in research, ethical issues should be addressed.

The PRSA membership database has been one of the frequently used sampling pools for public relations researchers because of its size and the availability of email addresses. However, as the number of researchers using PRSA membership emails for survey has dramatically increased, PRSA appointed a research committee to control and filter the number of researchers using its database. As a result, the reluctance to cooperate in research projects was growing, and the low response rate of surveys may compromise the quality of the research. Thus, PRSA recently set up the External Research Task Force group to control research that PRSA officially proved. This system can protect both PRSA members and researchers; the registered members can figure out the accredited survey invitation and researchers can get better response rates and thus, more valid results. The intervention of PRSA research committee excluded the research from the email information, which also protected the privacy of PRSA members.

At the outset of the study, I emailed the PRSA's external research committee, introducing myself as a researcher and explaining the purpose of the study. I also described the methods and time commitment of participants necessary for the research. Issues of anonymity and potential benefits the public relations practitioners would receive from participating in this survey were also mentioned.

As requested by the Human Subjects Committee of the University of Alabama, I prepared informed consent documents, which delineated the nature of the study, who participants could contact for further information, the procedures used, and how I planned to use the results of the study. Participants were not forced to participate in the study; all participation was voluntary. The positional risks and benefits were explained to potential participants before they participated in the survey. Participation in this research was not anticipated to put respondents at perceived risk. However, participants were reminded that they had the right to ask questions, withdraw from participation at any time without penalty, and/or decline to answer certain questions. Following their participation, participants were fully debriefed about the rationale of the research and any reservations they might have about the research materials were discussed. Participants' responses were anonymous, and identifying information was not matched with particular answers, as long as the participants left their email to receive the survey results as compensation. The emails were anonymously saved.

In writing up results, I took care not to provide any information that could directly lead to identification of the participants. I will provide an executive summary of my research for participants, if they request it.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The research was carried out in 2008. Out of the 6,127 invitation emails sent, 324 practitioners took part in the survey. However, only 252 participants completed the entire survey, for a response rate of 4.7%. Several participants were screened out because they are self-employed freelancers or owners of public relations firms.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics of Demographics

	Sub-categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age (22-69)			
	20s	49	19.44
	30s	56	22.22
	40s	69	27.38
	50s	59	23.41
	60s	19	7.54
	Total	252	100
Gender			
	Female	176	71.8
	Male	69	28.2
	Total	245	100
Education			
	High School Diploma	2	0.82
	Associate's degree	4	1.63
	Bachelor's degree	147	60.82
	Master's degree	88	35.92
	Doctorate/post doctorate	2	0.82
	Total	245	100

Note: M (age) =42.35, *SD* =11.90

Demographic characteristics of the participants are given in Table 18. In terms of gender, 71.8% of the respondents were women, and this percentage is consistent with other surveys (Grunig, Toth & Hon, 2001; Knight& Ames, 2006). The average age of the public relations practitioners was 42.35; 19.4% of the respondents were in their 20s, 22.2% in their 30s, 27.4% in their 40s, 23.4% in their 50s, and 7.5% in their 60s. Most (60.82%) had a bachelor's degree, and 36.7% had a master's degree or higher.

Average experience in public relations industries was 10-11 years, and participants reported that they have been working in the current organizations for 3-4 years on average.

Table 19

Years of Work Experience among Practitioners

	Sub categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
In PR industry (Mean: 10-11 yrs)	0-3 yr(s)	22	8.98
	4-6	35	14.29
	7-10	42	17.14
	11-15	30	12.24
	16-20	33	13.47
	21-25	31	12.65
	26-30	17	6.94
	31 yrs or more	35	14.29
	Total	245	100
In current organization (Mean: 3-4 yrs)	0-3 yr(s)	112	46.53
	4-6	42	17.14
	7-10	44	17.96
	11-15	16	6.53
	16-20	15	6.12
	21-25	10	4.08
	26-30	2	0.82
	31 yrs or more	5	2.04
	Total	245	100

Individual ethical position. I classified participants according to the means of idealism and relativism as criteria, and the results are indicated in Table 20. Overall averages of idealism and relativism are 5.02 (*SD* = .90) and 3.20 (*SD* = 1.03), respectively, on seven-point scale. This results shows that the survey participants are more inclined to hold idealistic than relativistic views (mean difference=1.81; *t*=20.361; *df* =251; *p*<.001).

Table 20

Means of Individual Ethics Positions

Idealism		Relativism	
		High ←	→ Low
High		Situationalists (n=60)	Absolutists (n=82)
↑	Idealism	5.61	5.71
	Relativism	4.19	2.37
↓		Subjectivists (n=53)	Exceptionists (n=57)
Low	Idealism	4.22	4.15
	Relativism	4.04	2.58

I conducted one-way ANOVA analysis in order to reconfirm these four categories hold significantly different levels of individualism and relativism. ANOVA results demonstrated that there are significant difference levels of idealism (*df* =3, *F*=171.116, *p*<.001) and relativism (*df* =3, *F=155.261*, *p*<.001). Post Hoc analysis showed that there is no mean difference of idealism between situationalists and absolutists and between subjectivists and exceptionists, while other pair comparisons were significant. Regarding relativism level, the mean differences between situationalists and subjectivists and

between absolutists and exceptionists were not also statistically significant. These results confirm that the levels of idealism and relativism well fit in the four sub-groups criteria.

Organization characteristics. Organization characteristics are depicted in Table 21. Nearly a fifth (18.4%) of the respondents worked at PR agencies, 7.3% worked in communication agencies, 32.5% were in corporations, 24.8% were in non-profit organizations, 14.1% worked at government agencies, and 3.0% were in educational institutions.

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics of Organization Types

Organization Types		Frequency	Percentage (%)
PR/Communication agency	PR agency	43	18.38
	Communication agency	17	7.26
Profit organization	Corporation	76	32.48
Non-profit/government/ educational organization	Non-profit organization	58	24.79
	Government agency	33	14.10
	Educational institution	7	2.99
Total	(Missing: 18)	234	100

As indicated in Table 22, most respondents (54.8%) work at the organizations that have fewer than 500 employees, 7.5% work in the organizations which have 501-1,000 employees. 13.5% in organizations with 1001 to 5,000 employees, and 7.5% in organizations with sizes of 5,001 to 10,000 employees. Nearly16.7% of the respondents was from large companies (more than 10,000 employees).

Table 22

Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Size

Organization Size		Frequency	Percentage (%)
(Median: 400 employees)	Less than 500	138	54.8
	501-1,000	19	7.5
	1,001-5,000	34	13.5
	5,001-10,000	19	7.5
	More than 10,000	42	16.7
Total		252	100

In terms of public relations personnel, nearly half of the respondents (49.1%) reported that their organizations have fewer than five public relations personnel. The descriptive statistics of public relations personnel size are depicted in Table 23.

Table 23

Descriptive Statistics of PR Personnel Size

Number of PR Personnel	PR agency (M=8)	Comm. Agency (M=11)	Corporation (M=4)	Non-profit org. (M=3)	Government agency (M=7)	Educational org. (M=5)	Total
Less than 5	**14 (32.6)**	7 (41.2)	**42 (55.3)**	**38 (65.5)**	**10 (30.3)**	**4 (57.1)**	**115 (49.1)**
6-10	10 (23.3)	1 (5.9)	8 (10.5)	10 (17.2)	**10 (30.3)**	0 (0)	39 (16.7)
11-50	7 (16.3)	**8 (47.1)**	11 (14.5)	8 (13.8)	9 (27.3)	2 (28.6)	45 (19.2)
51-100	6 (14.0)	1 (5.9)	10 (13.2)	2 (3.4)	1 (3.0)	0 (0)	20 (8.5)
101-500	2 (4.7)	0 (0)	4 (5.3)	0 (0)	3 (9.1)	1 (14.3)	10 (4.3)
More than 500	4 (9.3)	0 (0)	1 (1.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (2.1)
Total	43 (100)	17 (100)	76 (100)	58 (100)	33 (100)	7 (100)	234 (100)

Note: M=Median; Percentage within Parentheses

Job satisfaction. The itemized means of job satisfaction are illustrated in Table 24. Public relations practitioners estimated they are generally satisfied with their profession (*M:* grand job satisfaction = 5.17, *SD* = 1.18 on the 7- point scale). However, there was quite a large gap in satisfaction on intrinsic and extrinsic facets of work (t=10.443; df =251; $p<.001$). In other words, practitioners like their work and see its value to society (*M*: intrinsic job satisfaction=5.47). However, they are not satisfied with the external situations such as a lack of recognition from top management and supervisors, compensation, and promotion chances (*M*: extrinsic job satisfaction = 4.29). Practitioners responded that the job (public relations) is interesting, with the highest score (*M*=6.12),

and they felt good about the amount of responsibility in their jobs (*M*=5.67). Practitioners expressed the greatest dissatisfaction with their chances of promotion with their employers (*M*=4.07), and not surprisingly, they thought they were not paid as much as they deserved to be paid (*M*=4.57).

Table 24

Descriptive Statistics of Job Satisfaction

Statements	M	S.D.
1. My job is interesting.	6.12	1.18
2. I feel good about the amount of responsibility in my job.	5.67	1.47
3. The work I am doing is challenging.	5.65	1.44
4. I have achieved or am achieving my overall or long-term goals in public relations practice.	5.16	1.58
5. I feel the prestige of working in public relations.	4.95	1.51
6. I value my job to society.	5.37	1.45
7. I am satisfied with the autonomy and freedom level in my present job.	5.35	1.69
8. I am satisfied with the recognition received from supervisors, or top management group.	4.78	1.80
9. I am satisfied with pay.	4.57	1.76
10. I am satisfied with the advancement chances with present employer.	4.07	1.91
11. I am satisfied with working for the current boss in my organization.	5.04	1.95
12. I am satisfied with working together with the people in my organization.	5.47	1.45
13. I am satisfied with job security in present position.	5.03	1.76
Mean of Intrinsic Job Satisfaction (*SD*) (q1-q7)	5.47 (1.17)	
Mean of Extrinsic Job Satisfaction (*SD*) (q8-q13)	4.29 (1.39)	
Mean of Grand Job Satisfaction (*SD*) (q1-q13)	5.17 (1.18)	

Lastly, practitioners thought that their work was not as recognized by the supervisors or top management as much as it deserved to be (*M*=4.78, Table 24). These three items obtained the most negative responses, indicating the extrinsic facet of job satisfaction. These descriptive results suggested that practitioners believe that the value of their public relations work is underestimated or undervalued in their organizations and in society. That may explain a gap between the intrinsic and extrinsic facets of job satisfaction.

Dimensionality of Ethical Leadership Behavior

Two- Dimensionality of Ethical Leadership in Public Relations

Research Question 1: Does ethical leadership in public relations have two behavioral dimensions?

Research question 1 tests the behavioral dimensionality of ethical leadership in public relations. I postulated that one dimension would indicate conducting practice following ethical standards such as truth-telling, honesty, fairness and integrity, while the other dimension involves promoting ethics with ethics counseling and assertively confronting unethical decisions.

Both results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis confirmed that public relations ethical leadership has these two dimensions (Table 25). The first dimension indicates compliance with ethical principles, and this dimension has already been confirmed at the measurement testing. Meanwhile, although the second dimension yields a low Cronbach's alpha, the two items – ethics counseling and confrontation action – are

bound into two decisions. As expected, the second dimension indicated the actions for public relations practitioners to promote ethics within an organization.

Table 25

Dimensionality Check of Ethical Leadership in Public Relations

Items	Dimension 1	Dimension 2
	Practice Ethics	Promoting Ethics
I tell the truth to clients and the public in my work.	.700	.271
I treat all stake holders fairly and respectfully.	.704	-.002
I have good moral standards and apply them to their work.	.788	.156
My practice is trustworthy to my clients.	.801	.171
I provide dominant coalitions (or my clients) with counsel on the consequences of their decisions from the perspective of ethics.	.243	.792
Assertively confront management about the inappropriateness of the decisions.	.054	.854
Eigen values	2.70	1.10
Cronbach's alpha	.74	.58
% of variance	38.51	24.73
Total % of variance	63.24%	

Notes. Exploratory Factor Analysis; Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Antecedents of Ethical Leadership Behavior: Organizational Factors

Relationship of the Components of Organizational Ethicality

Hypothesis 1: The level of top management's support for ethics will affect:

1-1. the presence of codes of ethics.

1-2. the presence of ethics training programs.

1-3. the presence of an ethics officer.

1-4. the organizational participatory culture through open communication.

The series of hypotheses 1 examines the relationships among the components of organizational ethical culture. I assumed that top management's support for ethical behavior would have a positive impact on other formal and informal organizational systems.

Table 26

Simple Binary Logistic Regression Analysis of H1-1 to H1-3

	H1-1 DV: Code of ethics		H1-2 DV: Ethics training		H1-3 DV: Ethics officer	
	B	Exp.(B)	B	Exp.(B)	B	Exp.(B)
Age	-0.057	0.945	0.196	1.216	0.080	1.083
Gender	0.128	1.137	0.300	1.350	0.673	1.960
Education	0.402	1.494	0.607	1.836*	0.669	1.952*
MR	-0.141	0.869	-0.244	0.783	-0.271	0.762*
IV: TSE	0.791	2.205***	1.059	2.883***	0.580	1.787***

Notes. *** *p<.001; *p<.05;* IV: independent variable; DV: Dependent Variables; covariates: age, gender, education and managerial role; All DVs are dichotomous variables, indicating presence of code of ethics, ethics training, and ethics officer, respectively.
Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (H1-1) Chi-square =11.242, *df* =8, *p*>.10(.188);
Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (H1-2) Chi-square =9.451, *df =8*, *p*>.10(.306);
Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (H1-3) Chi square =3.523, *df* =8, *p*>90(.897).

In order to test Hypotheses 1-1 to 1-3, binary logistic regression analysis was employed. The logistic regression supported those three hypotheses, and the results are

shown in Table 26. The results showed that the formal systems such as codes of ethics, ethics training programs and ethics officers are more likely to be embedded in organizations in which top management supports the ethical behavior of employees.

In terms of the informal system to support organizational ethical culture, Hypothesis 1-4 tests if top management's support for ethical behavior affects the level of open communication environment and the statistics result of regression supports it (Table 27).

Table 27

Regression Analysis of H1-4

DV. Open communication environment		B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
Covariates	Age	0.079	0.066	1.046	.372	.138***
	Gender	-0.187	-0.058	-0.917		
	Education	-0.154	-0.059	-0.992		
	Managerial role	0.411	0.357***	5.919		
IV	TSE	0.709	0.756	18.177	.795	.494***
Total R^2						.632

Notes. *** *p<.001;* IV: Independent variable; DV: Dependent variable; TSE: Top management's support for ethics

The result of Hypothesis 1-4 suggests that perceived support of top management for ethical behavior was the critical component to maintain other organizational ethicality components. An open communication environment, referring to an informal system to support organizational ethical culture, can be encouraged by top managements' dedication to ethics (β=.756, $p<.001$). It is indirectly suggested that top management of

ethical organizations values employees' input and, thus, stirs horizontal communication structure within organizations (Grunig, 1992).

Organization Ethical Culture and Ethical Autonomy

Hypothesis 2: The level of public relations practitioners' ethical autonomy will be affected by:

2-1. codes of ethics.

2-2. ethics training programs.

2-3. an ethics officer.

2-4. open communication environment.

This series of hypotheses tested that the formal and informal systems to support organizational ethicality affect the level of ethical autonomy of public relations practitioners. A series of single regression analysis was conducted to test Hypotheses 2-1 to 2-4, and only Hypothesis 2-1 was supported. The results are shown in Table 28.

These results suggest the presence of formal structures such as code of ethics, ethics training, and ethics officer do not encourage public relations practitioners' autonomy of ethical decisions. Only an informal organizational culture that encourages an open communication environment permits public relations practitioners to make ethical decisions independently in their organizations.

Table 28

Regression Analysis of Hypotheses 2-1 to 2-4

	H2-1: CE → EA		H2-2: ET → EA		H2-3: EO → EA		H2-4: OCE → EA	
Covariates	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Age	.000		.001		.010		-.009	
Gender	-.064		-.065		-.060		-.053	
Education	.089	.133***	.092	.133***	.101+	.133***	.106+	.133***
Managerial Role	.329***		.336***		.336***		.262***	
	.093	.009	.022	.000	-.051	.002	.211**	.038**
Total R^2	.141		.133		.135		.171	

*Notes: ***p<.001, ** p<.01, +p<.10;* covariates: age, gender, education, and managerial role; CE: Presence of code of ethics (0= No; 1=Yes), ET: Presence of ethics training (0= No; 1=Yes); EO: Presence of ethics officer (0= No; 1=Yes); OCE: Open Communication Environment; EA: Ethical Autonomy.

Research Question 2: Does the level of top management's support for ethics directly affect the level of autonomy or indirectly affect the ethical autonomy level through other organizational ethical components (open communication culture, presence of codes of ethics, ethics training and an ethics officer?)

The result of Hypotheses H2-4 indicated that only an open communication environment appeared to affect the level of ethical autonomy of public relations practitioners.

The results of Hypotheses 1-4 and 2-4 suggested that the possibility of a mediating role of open communication environment between top management's support for ethics and ethical autonomy.

Regression analysis showed a mediating effect of open communication environment between top management's support for ethics and ethical autonomy level. First, a direct effect of top management's support for ethics was observed, after controlling age, gender, education and managerial roles (β=.15, $p<.05$). When the effects of the open communication environment on ethical autonomy level are considered together in one regression model, the effect of top management's support for ethics became insignificant, and the results are indicated at the Figure 2 and Table 29. These results suggest that top management's support for ethics functions as the most fundamental component to sustain organizational ethical culture.

Table 29

Mediating Effect of Open Communication Environment between Top Management's Support for Ethics and Ethical Autonomy

	DV: Ethical Autonomy	B	β	*t*	R	R^2
Direct effect	Top management's support for ethics	.14	.15	2.38*	.138	.019
Multiple regression	Top management's support for ethics	-.02	-.02	-.24	.197	.039
	Open communication environment	.23	.23	.37*		

Note. * p<05; DV: dependent variable; covariates: age, gender, education, managerial role.

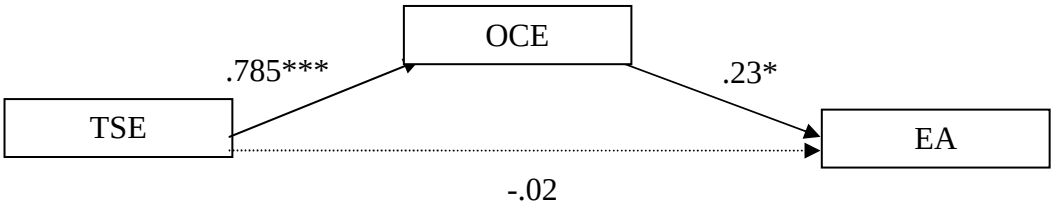

Figure 2. Mediating Effect of an Open Communication Environment between Top Management's Support for Ethics and Ethical Autonomy

Notes: *p<.05, ***p<.001; TSE: top management's support for ethical behavior; OCE: Open communication environment; EA: ethical autonomy.

Ethical Autonomy and Ethical Leadership Behavior of PR Practitioners

Hypothesis 3: The level of ethical autonomy affects (after controlling organizational ethical culture):

3-1. the ethical practice of public relations practitioners.

3-2. the ethics counselor role of public relations practitioners.

Research Question 3: How do organizational ethical culture and ethical autonomy affect public relations practitioners' dissent actions?

Hypotheses 3-1 and 3-2, and Research Question 3 examined the impact of ethical autonomy on public relations practitioners' ethical leadership behavior. Although the result of Research Question 1 confirmed that the ethical leadership consists of two dimensions, I examined the impact of ethical autonomy on each behavioral component of ethical leadership. Thus, hierarchical regression analysis was used for each of the ethical leadership behavioral components -- ethical practice, ethics counseling and dissent actions. A hierarchical regression model is more useful at this point rather than a multiple

regression because I can separate the effect of ethical autonomy on the ethical leadership behaviors, while I control the effect of other antecedents on the ethical leadership behaviors.

Ethical autonomy and ethical practice. First, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to test Hypothesis 3-1. The results support that the ethical autonomy level positively affects ethical practice of public relations practitioners (β=.186, p<.01), and it is indicated in Table 30. Meanwhile, the covariates, age and managerial role level positively affect the level of ethical practice. The findings suggest that the work

Table 30

Hierarchical Regression of Ethical Autonomy on Ethical Practice

Model	DV. Ethical Practice	B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	0.049	0.107+	1.674	.337	.114***
	Gender	-0.003	-0.002	-0.032		
	Education	0.039	0.039	0.648		
	Managerial role	0.131	0.296***	4.841		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	0.033	0.092	1.434	.348	.007
3	Ethics code	-0.150	-0.122	-1.651	.371	.017
	Ethics training	0.022	0.019	0.246		
	Ethics officer	0.090	0.073	1.106		
	Open communication	0.033	0.085	0.844		
4	Autonomy	0.071	0.186**	2.860	.407	.028**
	Total R^2					.166

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; DV: dependent variable; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

experience and maturity that older practitioners are likely to have drive them to value fundamental ethical standards such as honesty, fairness and integrity more than younger practitioners do. This finding is consistent with Wright's (1985) conclusion that older practitioners are likely to have deontological values. The effect of managerial roles on ethical practice may account for the extent to which practitioners are aware of responsibilities on their profession. In other words, the more involved they are in decision-making, the more likely they are to be aware of the consequences of unethical practice. That may be one reason why practitioners in a managerial role are more likely to perform ethical practice.

Ethical autonomy and ethics counseling of public relations. Hypothesis 3-2 explored the extent to which the role of ethics counselor is affected by ethical autonomy. Hierarchical regression analysis also supported the idea that ethical autonomy level made a positive impact on ethics counseling (Table 31; β=.184, p<.01). Again, the effects of age and managerial role level positively affect the role of the ethics counselor.

Table 31

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Ethical Autonomy on Ethics Counseling

Model	DV. Ethics Counseling	B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	.175	.177**	2.833	.399	.159***
	Gender	-.088	-.032	-.524		
	Education	.029	.013	.227		
	Managerial role	.319	.333***	5.592		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	-.006	-.008	-.130	.399	.000
3	Ethics code	-.081	-.031	-.419	.401	.002
	Ethics training	.000	.000	-.001		
	Ethics officer	.123	.046	.706		
	Open communication	-.007	-.008	-.084		
4	Autonomy	.151	.184**	2.868	.435	.028**
		Total R^2				.189

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

Organizational ethical culture, ethical autonomy and dissent actions. For Research Question 3, heirarchical regression analysis was conducted on each of the six dissent actions. Thus, six hierarchical regression model were followed.

First, ethical autonomy positively affects the level of confronting management about an unethical decision (Table 32). Older practitioners tended to take this action rather than younger practitioners did (β =.221, p<.01), and the level of managerial role showed a strong effect on the confrontation actions (β =.272, p<.001). The confrontation action seems to have been encouraged in organizations in which top management are not

dedicated to ethical practice, in spite of the moderate level of effect size (β = -.106, p<.10).

Table 32

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Organizational Conditions on "Confrontation"

Model	DV. Confrontation against management	B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	.264	.221**	3.498**	.372	.138***
	Gender	-.398	-.122	-1.939		
	Education	-.158	-.061	-1.014		
	Managerial role	.314	.272***	4.510		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	-.099	-.106 +	-1.671	.384	.101+
3	Ethics code	.200	.062	.851	.395	.008
	Ethics training	-.089	-.030	-.387		
	Ethics officer	.046	.014	.218		
	Open communication	.133	.132	1.328		
4	Autonomy	.293	.295***	4.70	.476	.071***
		Total R^2				.227

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

Second, I found that older practitioners were also more likely to engage in agitation and to mobilize other workers against an unethical decision (Table 33; β =.170, p<.05). On the one hand, this action was more likely to be found in the organizations that did not have a code of ethics(β = -.162,p<.05). On the other hand, this action was positively associated with the presence of ethics training courses (β = -.162, p<.05). In

the organization with no code of ethics, support from other employees against an unethical decision may be gained through persuasion. Since there is no written or formal statement of ethics and values of their organizations, employees who engaged in agitation would be needed to maintain the ethical performance of their organization. However, the overall explanatory power is as low as the R^2 of 7.1%. Meanwhile, this action was less likely to be taken (*M*=3.79 where 4 means "neutral"; Table 6).

Table 33

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Organizational Conditions on "Agitating Others"

Model	DV. Agitating others	B	*B*	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	.275	.170*	2.554	.207	.043*
	Gender	-.052	-.012	-.179		
	Education	-.324	-.092	-1.461		
	Managerial role	.116	.074	1.165		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	.011	.009	.132	.207	.000
3	Ethics code	-.702	-.162*	-2.102	.262	.026
	Ethics training	.635	.160+	1.952		
	Ethics officer	-.158	-.036	-.527		
	Open communication	.059	.043	.414		
4	Autonomy	.073	.055	.793	.267	.002
		Total R^2				.071

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

Table 34

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Organizational Conditions on "Using Facts Selectively"

Model	DV. Using facts selectively	B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	-.325	-.195**	-2.942	.218	.047*
	Gender	.304	.067	1.011		
	Education	-.409	-.113+	-1.792		
	Managerial role	.000	.000	.002		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	-.034	-.026	-.392	.219	.001
3	Ethics code	-.250	-.056	-.729	.277	.029
	Ethics training	.310	.076	.929		
	Ethics officer	-.224	-.050	-.728		
	Open communication	-.365	-.261*	-2.506		
4	Autonomy	-.012	.095	-.121	.277	.000
		Total R^2				.077

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

Third, the selective use of facts to make a case against an unethical decision was related to age and education (Table 34). While older practitioners were likely to use confrontation and agitation, younger practitioners more often used argumentation with the selective use of facts (β=-.195, p<.01). This tactic was more likely to occur in a workplace in which communication is not encouraged and where ethical concerns are rarely discussed (β=-.261, p<.05).

Table 35

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Organizational Conditions on “Work to Sabotage”

Model	DV. Work to sabotage	B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	-.022	-.025	-.366	.063	.004
	Gender	.030	.012	.182		
	Education	.093	.048	.747		
	Managerial role	-.031	-.036	-.549		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	-.054	-.077	-1.128	.096	.005
3	Ethics code	.135	.057	.725	.207	.034+
	Ethics training	-.210	-.096	-1.155		
	Ethics officer	-.169	-.070	-1.008		
	Open communication	-.194	-.260*	-2.452		
4	Autonomy	-.056	-.076	-1.094	.218	.005
		Total R^2				.047

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

The fourth tactic, “working to sabotage,” is also more likely to be employed in an organization which discourages open communication about ethical issues (Table 35). Sabotage may be a means to initiate communication and express opinions, because other options are not possible (β =-.260, p <.05; See “open communication,”). However, the total effect size of the all antecedents is only 4.7%.

Table 36

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Organizational Conditions on “Leaking Information”

Model	DV. Leaking information	B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	-.045	-.057	-.847	.131	.017
	Gender	.063	.029	.440		
	Education	.066	.038	.601		
	Managerial role	-.082	-.108+	-1.680		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	-.050	-.081	-1.200	.151	.006
3	Ethics code	.198	.093	1.191	.181	.010
	Ethics training	-.101	-.052	-.623		
	Ethics officer	-.107	-.051	-.721		
	Open communication	-.047	-.071	-.662		
4	Autonomy	-.031	-.047	-.676	.186	.002
		Total R^2				.035

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

Fifth, the hierarchical regression result showed that leaking information tactic is negatively and moderately related to the managerial role (β= -.108, p<.10; Table 36). Employees would not be willing to engage in such a destructive behavior, when they have a more managerial role and are more involved in decision-making. Berger and Reber (2006) regard the leaking of information as an unsanctioned tactic. This unsanctioned action, however, seems rare (M=1.76; Table 6). The total effect size of the all antecedents on the leaking information action is as low as 3.5%.

Table 37

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Organizational Conditions on "Standby and Say Nothing"

Model	DV. Standby and say nothing (reversed)	B	β	t	R	ΔR^2
1	Age	.169	.145*	2.298	.368	.135***
	Gender	.060	.019	.299		
	Education	-.086	-.034	-.566		
	Managerial role	.355	.316***	5.227		
2	Top mgt. ethicality	-.009	-.009	-.149	.368	.000
3	Ethics code	.267	.085	1.162	.384	.012
	Ethics training	.125	.044	.558		
	Ethics officer	.152	.049	.738		
	Open communication	.047	.048	.483		
4	Autonomy	.184	.191**	2.955	.421	.030**
		Total R^2				.178

*Notes. +p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*; Gender: dichotomous variable (Women=0; Men=1); Ethics code, ethics training, & ethics officers: dichotomous variables (no presence=0; presence=1).

Finally, “saying nothing” was negatively associated with age, managerial role and practitioners’ ethical autonomy (Table 37). In other words, older practitioners were more likely to express disagreement when they found that their organizations had made an unethical decision (β=.145, p<.05). Practitioners who have a managerial role were most likely to say something (β=.316, p<.001). Ethical autonomy encouraged practitioners to express their opinion (β=.191, p<.01).

In summary, the results of Research Question3 suggest that organizational ethical culture and ethical autonomy affect expressions of dissent among public relations practitioners.When the top management of an organization does not support ethical behavior, practitioners are more likely to take issue with management. In an organization with no ethics code, practitioners more likely to encourage others to protest an unethical decision. These actions were also positively affected by the presence of an ethics training program. If an organization does not allow employees to communicate with each other about ethics, practitioners are more likely to resort to sabotage, or to leak information. Practitioners who have a high level of ethical autonomy are more likely to protest an unethical decision, and they are less likely to stand by and say nothing.

Older practitioners more often use confrontation and agitation, and attempt to speak out, while younger practitioners tend to use facts selectively against an unethical decisions. Education level negatively and moderately affects the selective use of information . Lastly, the more managerial responsibility practitioners have, the more likely they are to confront management; they are less likely to leak information.

Antecedents of Ethical Leadership Behavior: Individual Factors

The Effect of Individual Ethical Positions on Ethical Leadership Behavior

Although this research focused on organizational factors on ethical leadership behaviors, it also examined how individual characteristics of ethics ideology affected its components. Thus, the following research question was developed:

Research Question 4: How do the behavioral components of ethical leadership – (4-1) ethical practice, (4-2) ethics counseling, (4-3) dissent actions differ from ethical idelogy category?

To simplify the analyses, I limited covariates to managerial role and age. The results of the research questions and hypotheses illustrated that the level of managerial role and age are most influential on ethical leadership behaviors. A 2x2 factorial Multivariate Analysis of Covariate (MANCOVA) was conducted to answer Research Question 3. The multivariate tests demonstrated the significant main effects of idealism and relativism levels, after controlling covariates (idealism: F=2.086; df =8, p<.05, eta=6.6 %; relativism: F=3.51, df =8, p<.01, eta = 9.3%). The interaction effect of idealism and relativism was insignificant (F=1.115; df =8, p=*.354*). The covariates of managerial role (F=7.893; df =8, p<.001) and age (F=2.625; df=8, p<.01) also accounted for 21.0% and 8.1% of the variability in the ethical leadership behaviors, respectively. The covariates of gender (F=.960; df =8, p=.468) and education level (F=.934; df =8, p=.489) were insignificant. More detailed results are presented in Table 38.

Table 38

Post-Hoc Analysis of Variance of Individual Ethics Ideologies for Ethical Leadership

Source			*df*	*F*	η (%)	R^2
Ethical practice		Idealism (I)	1	7.132**	2.8	.166
		Relativism (R)	1	7.396**	2.9	
		I*R	1	1.136	0.5	
Ethics counseling		I	1	6.913**	2.8	.190
		R	1	.038	0.0	
		I*R	1	1.390	0.6	
Dissent Actions	Assertive Confrontation	I	1	.072	0.0	.163
		R	1	2.228	0.9	
		I*R	1	4.192*	1.7	
	Agitating others	I	1	.109	0.0	.046
		R	1	.025	0.0	
		I*R	1	.769	0.3	
	Selective use of information	I	1	.702	0.3	.096
		R	1	10.623**	4.2	
		I*R	1	.463	0.2	
	Sabotage	I	1	1.901	0.8	.045
		R	1	7.714**	3.1	
		I*R	1	1.510	0.6	
	Leak information	I	1	.029	0.0	.042
		R	1	6.293*	2.5	
		I*R	1	.077	0.0	
	Doing nothing (reversed)	I	1	.444	0.2	.147
		R	1	2.074	0.8	
		I*R	1	.399	0.1	

*Note. Covariates: managerial role, age, gender, education; *p<.05, **p<.01.*

The effect of individual ethics ideologies on practicing ethics. In regards to the behavior of ethics counseling (Research Question 3-1), between-subject tests demonstrated that the higher practitioners hold idealistic views, the more likely they are to perform ethically. ($M_{\text{High idealism}}$ = 6.54, $M_{\text{Low idealism}}$ = 6.37; F=7.132, df=1, p<.01). The

lower the relativistic views of practitioners , the more likely they are to perform ethically ($M_{\text{Low relativism}}$ = 6.55, $M_{\text{High relativism}}$= 6.36; F=7.396, df=1, p<.01). Thus, high idealism and low relativism were associated with ethical practice.

The effect of individual ethics ideologies on enacting ethics counseling. At the same time, the ethics counselor role (Research Question 3-2) was associated only with idealism. The more idealistic the practitioners, the more likely they are to give ethics advice to dominant coalitions ($M_{\text{High idealism}}$=6.13, $M_{\text{Low idealism}}$=5.75; F=6.913, df=1, p<.01).

The effect of individual ethics ideologies on dissent actions. Overall, relativism appears to affect dissent. I found an interaction effect of idealism and relativism (Table 38, F=4.19, df=1, p<.05). Among practitioners with low idealism, the levels of confrontation did not much differ by the level of relativism ($M_{\text{Exceptionists (low idealism*low relativism)}}$=5.360 vs. $M_{\text{Subjectivists (low idealism*high relativism)}}$=5.446). However, if public relations practitioners took a stance of high idealism, the level of confrontation action significantly varied according to their level of relativism. When practitioners adopt a low relativistic perspective, they are the most likely to confront unethical decisions of management ($M_{\text{Absolusts (high idealism*low relativism)}}$=5.669). However, if public relations practitioners represented both high idealism and relativism, they are the least likely to confront such decisions ($M_{\text{Situationalist (high idealism * high relativism)}}$=5.043).

Meanwhile, relativism was associated with selective use of information and sabotage (Table 38). Practitioners showing high relativism were more likely to use information selectively against unethical decisions ($M_{\text{high relativism}}$ = 4.20, vs. $M_{\text{low relativism}}$

= 3.346; F=10.263; $df=1$, $p<.01$), to sabotage implementation of decisions ($M_{\text{high relativism}}$ = 1.862, vs. $M_{\text{low relativism}}$ = 1.462; F=7.714, $df=1$, $p<.01$), and to leak information ($M_{\text{high relativism}}$ = 1.602, vs. $M_{\text{low relativism}}$ = 1.281; F=6.293, $df=1$, $p<.05$),. However, the low mean scores of sabotage and leaking information tactics indicated that practitioners seldom resort to sabotage or leak information.

Summary of the Results on Antecedents of Public Relations Ethical Leadership

I examined how organizational and individual factors foster ethical leadership among public relations practitioners. H1s revealed that, if top management strongly supports ethical behavior, the formal systems of ethics were more likely to be established, and open communication would be encouraged. H2s and Research Question 2 tested whether organizational ethical culture affects practitioners' ethical autonomy, while H3s and Research Question3 demonstrated that ethical autonomy is a precondition for ethical leadership. The results suggested that only an informal system of ethical culture and an open communication environment encouraged ethical autonomy level. The results of H1s, H2s, and Research Question2, suggest that top management's support of ethical behavior fosters an organizational ethical culture.

H3s demonstrated that the level of ethical autonomy significantly affects ethical leadership behaviors—practicing ethics and enacting an ethics counselor role. The results of Research Question3 illustrated how an organizational envionment fostered dissent against unethical decisions. Individuals with higher levels of ethical autonomy were more

likely to confront management. If top management does not encourage ethical behavior, practitioners were more likely to confront management.

Agitation is more often used in the organizations that do not have an ethics code. In an organization that does not permit open discussion and free exchange of opinions, public relations practitioners were more likely to use information selectively to make their own arguments against unethical decisions, and to resort to sabotage.

The more involved practitioners were in decision-making, the more likely they were to give ethics advice to top management, and to confront management over unethical decisions. In addition, the more involved practitioners are in a managerial role, the less likely they were to to leak information to protest unethical decisions.

Meanwhile, exercising ethical leadership was associated with individual ethical positions (Research Question 4). On the one hand, confrontational actions were preferred by practitioners with high idealistic and low relativistic ethical stances. On the other hand, practitioners advocating ethical relativism were more likely to collect and use information selectively to make their own arguments, use sabotage and even leak information.

Consequences of Ethical Leadership

In this section, I explore the consequences of ethical leadership at the individual level. The consequences of ethical leadership behaviors include ethical influence and job satisfaction of public relations practitioners. In regards to the consequences of ethical leadership in public relations, I assumed that exertion of ethical leadership would

improve the level of influence on ethical issues, and the perception of enhanced influence would improve self-efficacy or confidence. This perception would be linked with enhanced job satisfaction in public relations practice.

Ethical Influence

Hypothesis 4. After controlling for age, gender, education and managerial role, ethical influence is encouraged by

4-1. performing ethical practice.

4-2. acting as an ethics counselor.

4-3. confronting management over an unethical decision.

Results of hierarchical regression analysis showed that ethical practice and the confrontation were positively related to ethical influence (Table 39). However, ethics counseling was not significantly related. In other words, the more that public relations practitioners perceive that they are making an effort to apply ethics in their work, the more likely they are to perceive that their voice is being heard by top management (β=.159, p<.01). The ethical counselor's role does not positively and significantly affect ethical influence (β=.032). Confrontation also enhances the perceived level of ethical influence (β=.130, p<.05). Therefore, Hypotheses 4-1 and 4-3 were supported, and 4-2 was not.

Table 39

The Results of Single Linear Regression Analyses on Perceived Ethical Influence

	H4-1: EP→EI		H4-2: EC→EI		H4-3 Confrontation→EI	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Age	.066		.078		.055	
Gender	-.059	.268***	-.058	.268***	-.043	.268***
Education	-.150**		-.144+		-.136*	
MR	.447**		.483***		.459***	
IV	.159**	.022**	.032	.001	.130*	.015*
Total R^2	.290		.269		.282	

*Notes. ***p<.001, **p< .01, * p<.05. +p<.01;* Covariate: Age, gender, education, and managerial role; EP: Ethical practice; EC:Ethics counseling; MR: Managerial role.

Ethical Influence and Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 5: Ethical influence will affect job satisfaction of public relations practitioners.

The relationship between ethical influence and job satisfaction was tested (H5). The regression analysis suggested that the level of ethical influence had a positive impact on overall job satisfaction (Table 40; β=.697, p<.001, ΔR^2=.355). Therefore, H5 was supported. I also examined the impact of ethical influence on each level of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. As to the impact on overall job sastisfaction, ethical influence was positively related to intrinsic job satisfaction level (β=.629, p<.001, ΔR^2=.290) and to extrinsic job satisfaction (β=.664, p<.001, ΔR^2=.323).

Table 40

The Result of Regression Analysis: The Impact of Ethical Influence on Overall Job Satisfaction

DV: Overall Job Satisfaction	B	β	t	ΔR^2
Age	.061	.063	1.068	
Gender	-.191	-.072	-1.223	.237***
Education	.001	.001	0.009	
Managerial role	.441	.472***	8.320	
Ethical influence	.519	.697***	14.647	.355***
Total R^2				.593

Notes. Covariate: Age, gender, education and managerial role; *** *p<.001; **p<.01, *p<.05.*

Research question 5. Does ethical leadership behavior – ethical practice, ethics counseling, and confrontation action -- directly affect practitioners' job satisfaction, or does it indirectly affect job satisfaction through the perceived level of ethical influence?

I examined Research Question 4 to look at the mediating effect of ethical influence on ethical leadership and job satisfaction, while controlling for managerial role. First of all, I controlled managerial role level, and examined direct effect of ethical practice, ethics counseling and confrontation action on overall job satisfaction level, respectively. The analysis suggested that only ethical practice directly affect overall job satisfaction (β=.146, p<.05, ΔR^2=.019), while the effect of ethics counseling (β=.012) and

confrontation (β=.025) were not statistically significant. Thus, I decided only to look at the mediating of ethical influence between ethical practice and overall job satisfaction.

Table 41

Mediating Effect of Ethical Influence between Ethical Practice and Job Satisfaction

	DV: Job Satisfaction	B	β	ΔR^2
Direct effect	Ethical practice	.309	.146*	.019*
Multiple regression	Ethical practice	.077	.036	.357***
	Ethical influence	.514	.690***	

Note. * p<05; DV: dependent variable; covariates: age, gender, education and managerial role.

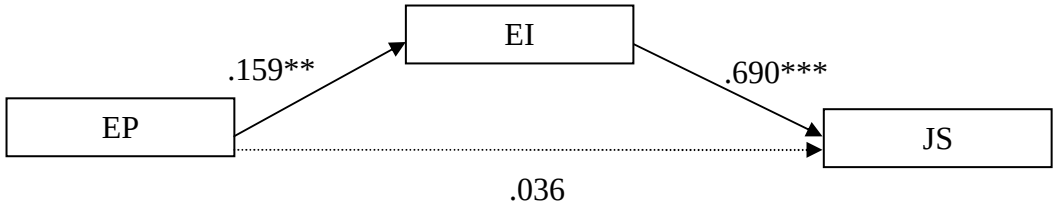

Figure 3. Mediating Effect of an Open Communication Environment between Top Management's Support for Ethics and Ethical Autonomy

Notes: *p<.05, ***p<.001; EP: Ethical practice; EI: Ethical influence; JS: Job satisfaction

When the effects of ethical influence on job satisfaction is considered together in one regression model, the effect of ethical practice became insignificant, and the results are indicated at the Figure 3 and Table 41. These results suggest that top management's support for ethics functions as the most fundamental component to sustain organizational ethical culture.

Ethical influence (EI) is a self-perception of the effectiveness of practitioners' ethical leadership behaviors. Thus, these results suggest that practicing ethical standards itself does not enhance practitioners' job satisfaction. Only when practitioners perceive that their ethical behavior is influential, ethical behaviors produce job satisfaction and professional pride.

Perceived Ethical Conflict and Job Satisfaction

One open-ended question at the end of the survey examined job satisfaction to understand how ethics concerns are related to public relations practitioners' job satisfaction. Thus, Research Question 6 was developed:

> Research Question 6: When do public relations practitioners perceive ethical conflict and how does it relate to their job satisfaction?

Of all respondents who completed the survey, 41.7% (105 out of total sample) answered the question. Those answers were grouped into two categories: (1) the consequences of the ethical conflicts, and (2) the causes of ethical conflict among public relations practitioners. The categories are not mutually exclusive, because respondents could say whatever they wanted about this issue. The results are summarized in Table 42.

To begin with, 69 respondents (65.7%) said that they had experienced an ethical conflict; only 36 (34.3%) reported that they had either never or rarely faced ethical conflict. Participants who had not experienced an ethical conflict simply made comments such as "I have rarely been in that situation."

Table 42

Answers of Open-Ended Question: The Relationship between Ethical Conflict and Job Satisfaction

Categories		Percentage	(n)
Experience of ethical conflicts N=105 (100%)	No : I have *rarely* faced ethics conflicts.	34.3	(36)
	Yes : I have experienced this conflict.	65.7	(69)
		100	(105)
The consequence of the conflicts N=69 (100%)	1. I left the employer (turnover).	21.70	(15)
	2. Ethical conflict very closely related to my job satisfaction.	34.78	(24)
	3. It hurts my workplace well-being.	11.60	(8)
The causes of ethical conflicts N=69 (100%)	1. When ethically inappropriate decisions are forced by the bosses or top management in decision-making	21.70	(15)
	2. Being forced to be silent.	10.14	(7)
	3. When I had no chance to discuss about the ethical issue.	10.14	(7)
	4. Lack of professionalism	4.35	(5)
	5. Feeling unfairness or injustice	10.14	(7)
	1. It is hard to get ethical things done.	4.35	(5)
	2. Miscellaneous	5.80	(4)

However, some people who had reported conflict expressed strong feelings with upper-case words such as “VERY” and “EXTREMELY.” The ethical concerns in some of these cases seem to have been so serious that practitioners undervalued the respondents’ job satisfaction. One participant said, “I see so much potential for satisfaction, but the reality is that my boss thinks that they can pull the wool over the eyes

of the public when something is not flattering to the company's self-image… It creates dissatisfaction and discomfort for me with my peers."

Although it is not easy to say that adherence to ethics can increase satisfaction with public relations practice, an ethical challenge does seem to lead to job dissatisfaction. According to one respondent:

> There is a very strong relationship between ethical organizational standards and my job satisfaction. In situations where I took issue with ethical issues of the organizations, I was *extremely dissatisfied* with my work and my organization to the extent of having medical and emotional ailments as a result of the dissatisfaction

Other participants said that they had left former employers to avoid ethical conflicts that had arisen when the participants' moral standards clashed with their employers' business practices. These practitioners preferred to leave their workplace rather than go along with what they perceived as unethical practices. One respondent explained his or her case:

> I have recently left the company. One of the reasons I left my former employer was because I didn't feel it behaved ethically. This wasn't linked specifically to my PR work, but more to the way to management was running the organization, how they were making decisions, and how they were treating staff. It was not always professional behavior and not always ethical, I felt. It became frustrating to the point where I was no longer happy there.

However, this does not mean that practitioners are passively dealing with ethical conflict; resigning might be their last resort. Practitioners try to change their organizations, but, if they cannot, they leave. As one respondent noted, “When I have felt ethical conflict, if I felt I could not change it, or felt it was a core part of the business and corporate beliefs, I have found new employment.”

In contrast, eight practitioners described how ethical conflicts undermined their workplace well-being and increased their job dissatisfaction. They had endured mental and emotional suffering. Practitioners expressed the suffering by using words such as “stress,” “unhappy,” “anxiety,” “discomfort,” and even “having medical and emotional ailments.”

As many of the job satisfaction studies have been reported in the literature (Pugliesi, 1999), dissatisfaction may weaken the mental, emotional and physical well-being of public relations practitioners. The stress that is caused by workplace dissatisfaction might even threaten personal life outside of the workplace.

Despite the wide-variety of factors that trigger ethical conflict, the respondents described five causes of ethical conflict. Fifteen respondents (21.7%) mentioned that the unethical bosses or top management affected their own ethical concerns. Practitioners said that they felt ethical conflict, when their bosses forced them to act unethically. Supervisors’ unethical thoughts and decisions can definitely challenge employees’ ethical standards. In particular, this problem limited the counseling role of public relations practitioners in strategic decision-making. It is hard for public relations practitioners to give advice to the top management if CEOs ignore the value of public relations, refuse to

listen to advice, or engage in unethical business practices. This issue may be directly related to the ethical influence of public relations practitioners:

> I feel like in some organizations (ones with not a lot of communications staff) the role of the communicator is looked down upon. I do my best to be strong ethically, but feel pressure from top management to shut up and if I do chime in, I'm discounted. I always find a way to speak my mind…. I don't think they [top management] listen to me and on some projects; I let them crash and burn as I no longer take ownership of things I can't control.

Seven respondents (10.14%) said that they had struggled to tell the truth, because they are sometimes forced to keep silent, to disclose incomplete information, or even to lie. Although telling the truth is emphasized in public relations ethics education, the challenges that practitioners actually encounter are complex. The line between being ethical and being unethical is sometimes blurred; keeping silent is acceptable to some public relations practitioners but not to others. This difficulty about telling the full truth may be one bone of contention in public relations ethics. For example, one practitioner described a merger and acquisition: "[New] reporting relationship" and "the level of public disclosure" literally kept him or her up at night. The stress was directly linked to the dissatisfaction and exhaustion.

Seven respondents (10.14%) emphasized an open communication environment as a hope in solving ethical conflicts. Respondents believed that candid discussion of their ethical concerns with their bosses would settle these conflicts because top management's

support for organizational ethicality was related to open communication. Unethical or top management seldom listens to employees' dissenting opinions. Respondents said that the disagreements are based on their professional knowledge. Thus, such upward communication makes it possible for public relations practitioners to influence dominant coalitions. One respondent reiterated the importance of an open communication environment:

> My ability to resolve ethical situations is very much impacted by job satisfaction…If I worked in a situation with open and flexible management, we could discuss and make shared decisions based on what is right for the client [based on industry knowledge, not gut feelings]. So… the communication concerns make it more difficult to make ethical decision.

Although public relations practitioners may want to exert an ethical influence on top management, three respondents (4.3%) claimed that it was difficult to do so. Gaining support from the legal and other departments within the organization can be as hard, as gaining access to top management.

Lastly, five practitioners (7.5%) placed ethics at the heart of the public relations profession, because they believed that ethics comes from knowledge of right and wrong. They said that ethical performances would make their practice professional and enhance their professional image. One shared his or her:

> At my previous job, I worked at a privately owned small PR agency. The owner/president would have me work on her personal affairs sometimes

> instead of work for our clients. I felt that I was being taken advantage of and that it was unfair to our clients. She also used her "connections" to get new business… Sometimes I felt as if PR was more of a hobby for her than a profession, and that she wasn't serious about it. She was not a member of PRSA. I never told her how I felt, and only worked there for a year and a half.

Summary of the Results on Consequences of PR Ethical Leadership

In this section, I observed two consequences of ethical leadership behaviors in public relations: ethical influence and job satisfaction. First, the more practitioners perceive that they applied ethics principles to their work, the more likely they were to perceive that their opinion of ethics influenced strategic decision-making (H4-1). The perceived level of ethical influence was pronounced among practitioners who more often confronted management over unethical organizational decisions (H4-3). These behaviors appeared to lead to greater job satisfaction through an increase in ethical influence (Research Question5).

Results of the open-ended question provided more details about the relationship between ethics and job satisfaction. More than half of the respondents answered that they had experienced ethical conflict in their workplace. They attributed the ethicality of top management to these conflicts, and claimed that the problems might have been resolved if the issues had been openly discussed and if employees' inputs had been valued. This indicated the importance of an open communication environment. Practitioners who

commented on ethical conflicts were more likely to leave their companies, because the conflicts affected their mental and even physical well-being. Answers to open-ended questions also suggested the complexity of the relationship between ethics conflicts and job satisfaction among public relations practitioners. This is an area in which further research is needed.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The primary purpose of the study is to explore the antecedents of public relations ethical leadership, and the outcomes that the ethical leadership can produce. Before I examined the relationships of ethical leadership to its antecedents and consequences, I defined ethical leadership by synthesizing the tasks that public relations practitioners do to assist their organizations in making ethical decisions. I used the literature to establish three components of ethical leadership behavior in public relations: ethical practice, ethics counseling, and dissent.

Though many scholars have called attention to the importance of public relations ethics (e.g., Bowen, 2000, 2008; Bowen & Heath, 2003; Heath & Ryan, 1989; Ryan & Martinson, 1983; Wright, 1985), ethical leadership in public relations has not yet been clarified. Moreover, the factors that are conducive to ethical leadership behaviors have been explored only in limited ways through a few case studies from the normative perspective, and have not yet been tested in a general context. In addition, although ethical behavior may be closely related to the individual worldview and philosophy, the extent to which individual ethical positions influence ethical leadership behaviors (if indeed it does) has not been investigated.

This study is significant, then, in its effort to articulate the ways in which public relations professionals use the concept of ethical leadership, and in clarifying how

organizational and individual factors foster ethical leadership among public relations practitioners. In addition, investigating ethical influence and job satisfaction as outcomes of ethical leadership behaviors underscored the importance of ethical leadership in professional life.

I sought answers to the following questions: 1) To what extent is top management's support of ethics related to formal or informal systems of ethics in organizations? 2) To what extent are the components of organizational ethical culture related to practitioners' ethical autonomy? 3) To what extent is ethical autonomy related to ethical leadership behaviors of public relations practitioners? 4) To what extent do individual ideologies of ethics affect practitioners' ethical leadership behaviors? 5) To what extent are the ethical leadership behaviors associated with perceived influence? 6) To what extent does ethical influence affect the job satisfaction of public relations professionals?

The next section summarizes the findings and implications of this research by answering these questions. I then discuss the limitations of the study and offer suggestions for future research.

Key Findings and Implications

Antecedents of Ethical Leadership

I highlighted several key findings in this section. First, the current study integrates behaviors that practitioners conduct on behalf of organizational ethics into the concept of ethical leadership in public relations. According to Brown (2005) ethical leadership (1)

demonstrates and promotes appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships. I used ethical leadership to mean (1) the application of ethical standards in day-to-day practice, and (2) the promotion of ethical decisions and behaviors on an organization. The promotion of ethics guides top management and discourages unethical decisions. Although this research does not identify or measure the dimensions of ethical leadership, the data confirm that the concept of ethical leadership has two dimensions that correspond with the above definition. Factor analysis suggested that four items measuring the application of ethical standards in practice consists of one dimension, and each item measuring ethics counseling and assertive confrontation made up another. Thus, the definition of ethical leadership as behaviors, executing normatively appropriate practice and promoting such conduct within the organization, is consistent with public relations practice.

The main purpose of the research is not to validate the concept and measurement of ethical leadership. I dealt separately with the initial concepts; applying ethical standard, ethics counseling, and dissension. Nevertheless, the statistical confirmation of two dimensions of ethical leadership suggests future direction for public relations research.

Second, ethical autonomy was confirmed as a pre-condition of ethical leadership. As I hypothesized (H3), ethical autonomy is positively related to the practitioners' ethical practice, to their role as an ethics counselor, and to confrontation. In terms of the relationship between organizational environmental factors and ethical leadership, I found that organizational culture influences ethical leadership by enhancing practitioners' ethical autonomy. These findings affirm that ethical autonomy is essential in asserting

ethical leadership. Being autonomous in ethical analysis is a starting point from which practitioners make ethical decisions, apply ethics to their tasks, and give ethics counseling to the dominant coalition. As Bowen (2006) argued:

> An ethical decision necessitates the communicator being in a position to determine the correct course of action autonomously, using his or her reason alone, as objectively as possible. Employing the categorical imperative can help the practitioner arrive at an ethical decision, but he or she must have the autonomy to honestly evaluate the options, free from fear of reprisal. (p. 336)

Third, the current study illustrates the structure of the components in organizational ethical cultures. I found that top management's support of ethical behavior is a resource for organizational ethics. If top management values ethics, behave ethically, and make an effort to run his or her business ethically, the organization is more likely to institutionalize ethics in the forms of codes of ethics, ethics training and ethical officers. Likewise, top leaders' support can help create an ethical organizational climate and an open communication environment. Under these conditions, employees can discuss their ethical concerns with their co-workers or supervisors.

The finding of a two-step structure of an organizational ethical culture indicates that the leadership or a top management should be the most important source of sustained organizational ethics. However, it is still unknown how the formal and informal systems are juxtaposed. Ferrell and Gardiner (1992) suggested that code of ethics or policies should be communicated or enforced. Ethics training should also independently and explicitly deal with ethical issues to improve the ethical behavior of employees. In other

words, ethics training should enable employees to discuss ethical problems and find solutions.

A code of ethics can be communicated through training. Stevens (1999) argued that an organization should teach employees about the importance of ethical conduct through training and orientation programs. An organization's handbook of ethics can teach employees about organizational ethics. Thus, enhancing the effectiveness of the code of ethics inevitably requires education.

I conducted an analysis of 2x2 factorial ANOVA, and looked at the effect of presence of code or ethics and ethics training on the open communication environment. The results revealed that an open communication environment could be better created in organizations without codes of ethics (F=6.90, df=1, p<.01), and that ethics training could not facilitate an open communication environment, which is far from my normative expectation that codes of ethics and ethics training stimulated open communication.

The linkage between the absence of a code of ethics and an open communication environment suggests that, ideally, the ethics code is so clear that practitioners do not need to discuss ethics problems at al. However, this is unrealistic, because it is not always easy to decide what is ethical (Paluszek, 1989). Moreover, no ethics code is perfect. Nijhof et al. (2003) contended that an organization's ethics code should be regularly evaluated and monitored. Scholars also argued that an organization should have a system to report violations (Gibbs, 2003; Messmer, 203), or anonymous phone lines (Gellerman, 1989). Indeed, it is unknown how formal systems can create an open communication

environment, or what should be, or what are actually discussed and emphasized through the training. This agenda should be one topic for future research in public relations ethics.

Fourth, I hypothesized that the organizational ethical environment should support the ethical autonomy of its practitioners. However, none of the formal systems – presence of code of ethics, ethics training program, and ethics officer – contributed to ethical autonomy. Rather, the result showed that only the informal system encouraged ethical autonomy. In an environment in which all opinions are respected, members of organizations can discuss their ethical concerns, find solutions, and encourage one another to act ethically. Practitioners and employees are likely to make a good decision without fearing any coercion from self-interests or organizational (or client) interests. In an organization that allows open discussion, ethical concerns can be observed from all angles before a decision brings consequences.

In this study, I focused on ethical autonomy as an obligation, and on the internal ability to make an ethical decision. Such autonomy, however, is strongly supported by decision-making autonomy, which is obtained by participation in organizational decision-making. Bowen (2006) noted that the most effective decision-making autonomy can be obtained through formal membership in the dominant coalition and reporting directly to CEOs. Indeed, my results suggested that participation in decision-making contributed to ethical autonomy.

Direct access to the dominant coalition may be the pivotal condition for developing ethical autonomy. Public relations practitioners would seldom advise on ethical issues and dilemmas that stand to damage organizational reputation without the

direct report relationship with top management. It is also true that practitioners in a managerial position are more likely to perceive the importance of ethical decision-making than are those in a lower level, because practitioners who take part in decision-making are more likely to confront ethical dilemmas (Boynton, 2003).

However, ethical autonomy is beyond the privilege obtained by managerial position. It should be a moral obligation from the perspective of Kantian philosophy (Bowen, 2006; Sullivan, 1986), and it should be a perceptual ability to determine what is right and wrong (Kavathatzopoulos, 2003; Kohlberg, 1985; Piaget, 1932; Schwartz, 2000). Thus, I argue that ethical autonomy needs to be distinguished from the (general) autonomy conferred by position. Ethical autonomy is a perceptual ability that rational humans can develop. In this sense, an open communication environment encourages all employees to have their own opinions, which are free from any internal or external pressure. In an open communication environment, ethically autonomous employees can freely exchange their idea. Such discussion within various levels of an organization not only makes decision-making more transparent, but helps an organization to identify latent problems. That is why an open communication environment is important and open communication supports ethical autonomy.

Dialogical ethics and two-way symmetrical communication model indicated the importance of open communication (Grunig, 2001; Grunig et al., 1992). In the organization that encourages two-way symmetrical communication, discussion can pursue truth (Pearson, 1989). In other words, truth can be reached by dialogue among

independent communicators. Thus, ethical autonomy can be obtained by arriving at the best decision through open communication.

Meanwhile this study cannot explain how code of ethics, ethics training programs, and ethical autonomy level influence each other. Future studies should explore the ways in which codes of ethics and ethics training can enhance the ethical autonomy of public relations practitioners.

Fifth, one of the important findings of this study is that the organizational environment limits the extent to which public relations practitioners can take dissent actions over unethical organizational decisions. Previous research only examined how individual factors affect the likelihood of dissent (Berger & Reber, 2006). However, this study reveals when practitioners are likely to engage in type of dissent.

I found that the less likely top management is to support employees' ethical behavior, the more likely practitioners are to resort to confrontation. This suggests that public relations is the organizational conscience even when top management is not ethical.

In the definition of public relations ethical leadership, practitioners can promote ethics by giving ethics advice, or using dissent against unethical decisions. Providing ethics advice is encouraged when open communication enhances practitioner's ethical autonomy. As this research suggests, an open communication environment is supported by top management. Thus, practitioners' ethical behavior can be fostered when an organization is ethical.

However, what if top management's decisions do not meet ethical standards? Who dares to speak the truth? Without valuing confrontation, there would remain only a

vicious circle in which an organization's environment does not support ethical concerns, ignores ethical decisions, and thus allows no correction of unethical decisions. Confrontation may break this cycle, and public relations practitioners can influence and maintain organizational ethicality. Berger and Reber (2006) once suggested that assertive confrontation needs to be taught in the classroom and professional workshops as a sanctioned and legitimate means of gaining influence for public relations professionals. My finding supports this contention.

Meanwhile, the other types of dissent are not taken as much as confrontation, but, organizational environment seems to affect the extent to which each dissent action is taken. First, agitation is more likely to be found in organizations which do not have a code of ethics (Table 33, β= -1.62, p<.05), and the presence of an ethics training program was positively and moderately related to agitation (β= 1.60, p<.10).

These results do not provide enough evidence to explain why the absence of ethics code is related to agitation. However, the absence of an ethics code may stimulate arguments about ethical standards within an organization when an unethical action or decision becomes an organizational issue. It is still unknown how practitioners build collective power against the unethical decisions in an organization without codes of ethics, although my interpretation is true. If future study reveals the relationship between agitation and the absence of code of ethics, it will shed light on the effectiveness of code of ethics.

Moreover, selectively using information and sabotage tactics were negatively associated with the open communication environment. In other words, these two tactics

were more likely to be triggered when public relations practitioners cannot frankly discuss their ethics concerns with others in the workplace, and their supervisors do not respect subordinates' opinion. Selective use of information and sabotage are extreme ways of expressing disagreement with unethical decisions. Sharing opinion through debate or negotiation would be preferable if an organization values open discussion in a horizontal communication structure. Otherwise, public relations practitioners are likely to choose more extreme actions to protest unethical decisions or actions.

Next, both Berger and Reber (2006) and current findings suggest that sabotage and leaking are the least acceptable practices: 65.1% and 76.6% of this current survey participants said that they "never" sabotaged or leaked information, respectively. This finding affirms public relations practitioners' preferences to deal with organizational problems internally rather than involving outside groups.

Bayles (1981) noted that "many of the most interesting, important, and difficult problems of professional ethics concern conflict between a professionals' obligations to a client and to others. For a number of reasons, discussions of these problems often appear to sacrifice society's interest to those of individual clients" (p.92). Indeed, most of the ethical concerns that public relations practitioners experience deal with conflicting loyalties. On the one hand, as an advocate of his or her organization, a public relations practitioner ought to guard the organization's reputation. On the other hand, as a boundary spanner, a practitioner should speak for the public opinion, even when the decision makers of an organization are reluctant to hear it. Practitioners want to correct misconduct internally before it leads to a crisis; at the same time they do not want to

harm the organization (Berger & Reber, 2006). Sabotage and leaking information could threaten an organization's reputation and legitimacy. As an extreme example, leaking information or whistle blowing in WorldCom ended with dishonorable close of business, although misconduct made this inevitable. Although the consequence of leaking information is not as severe as WorldCom's case, possible retaliation against whistle-blowers is possible. They may be one reason why practitioners do not see sabotage and leaking information as acceptable forms of dissents.

Sixth, ethical leadership behavior was not affected by both the organizational environment, and individual factors. In this research, I examined the ways in which relativism and idealism affected ethical leadership behaviors. One clear finding is that idealism level drives practitioners to apply ethical standards on their work and to give ethical advice to top management (Table 38). Idealism does not seem to stimulate dissent.

However, relativism seems to produce dissent. Practitioners with low relativism and high idealism are more likely to confront management against unethical decisions, which is a sanctioned tactic (F=4.192, df =1, p<.05). However, relatively unsanctioned tactics -- the selective use of facts (F=10.623, df =1, p<.01), sabotage (F=7.714, df=1, p<.01) and leaking information (F=6.293, df=1, p<.05) were significantly fostered by a high level of relativism.

Ethical relativism tends to put more values on a consequence than on a procedure. Thus, relativism would drive individuals to consider the outcomes of their actions. Correcting unethical decisions is important; however, knowing how to do this may be another big issue. Practitioners who hold higher relativism seem willing to express

extreme forms of dissent that would be more effective in correcting an organization's unethical decisions, even when this is accompanied by risks and side effects.

In terms of the relationship between dissent and ethical practice and ethics counseling, only confrontation is significantly correlated both to ethical practice (α=.353, p<.001) and to the counseling role (α=.419, p<.001). Meanwhile, the more practitioners perceive themselves as applying ethical principles to their work, the less likely they are to do nothing (α=-.243, p<.001). Ethics counseling was negatively related to of the selective use of facts (α=-.151, p<.05). This may suggest that practitioners would rather not use selective facts to give advice about ethical choices to the dominant coalition. Future studies need to explore how public relations practitioners offer advice on ethical decisions to the top management.

Outcomes of Ethical Leadership

The underlying assumption of exploring the outcomes of ethical leadership is that power or influence is one direct outcome of leadership. The findings of this study reaffirm that the exercise of leadership increases influence. However, among the three behaviors of ethical leadership, the provision of ethics counseling has no power to shape ethical influence, at least at the self-perception level, in this study.

There may be several interpretations for this finding. First, although practitioners can say that they give advice to the dominant coalition, they may not believe that the dominant coalition respects their opinion. The results of this quantitative data provide little explanation, but some interpretation is still possible.

Empirical data indicate that opinions about the role of the ethical counselor among practitioners vary (Bowen, 2008). Although some practitioners believe that public relations practitioners should give ethical advice to the dominant coalition, it is not easy to join the dominant coalition, or to gain direct access to the CEO. Even though participation in the decision-making process was guaranteed, practitioners often believe that they are ill prepared (Bowen, 2006, 2008). Preparation may be closely related to employee training. This research has noted that almost half of the respondents (45.2%) said their organizations do not offer professional training on ethics. According to Bowen (2006), the lack of ethics training may limit opportunities for practitioners to analyze ethical dilemmas and to bring their concerns to the strategic decision making table. Thus, practitioners may learn ethics on their job through trial and error.

Indeed, little is known about public relations ethics training, what knowledge and abilities are required, or even how ethics training programs define ethically strategic decisions. Thus, future researchers should explore the contents and the effectiveness of public relations ethics training.

Second, although this study distinguishes dissent from ethics counseling, the expression of dissent could be a very powerful way of presenting opinions. Indeed, the work of the ethics counselor role is closely related to confrontation. The data in this study showed that the more practitioners perceive that they provide ethics counsel to the dominant coalitions, the more likely they were to confront the management (β =.332 p<.001, ΔR^2=.093). While ill-prepared practitioners who want to give ethics advice to the dominant coalition doubt their effectiveness (Bowen, 2008), those who are using

confrontation may be more persistent in having their voices heard by the dominant coalition. Thus, future research needs to investigate how public relations practitioners provide ethics advice to the dominant coalition. If confrontation is one way to give advice, learning how practitioners confront top management groups would be worthwhile.

Lastly, ethical influence and job satisfaction are strongly related with each other (Table 40, β=.697, p<.001, ΔR^2=.355,). This suggests that ethical consciousness may represent one of the values of public relations. It seems that the exercise of ethical leadership brings pride and job satisfaction to public relations professionals.

Dozier (1981) noted that job satisfaction increases with professionalism, because specialized knowledge of a profession leads to a managerial role, which confers autonomy and power. While scholars have argued that enhanced autonomy and power of public relations managers increase job satisfaction, the data in this study support the contention that ethics, the essence of professionalism, also accounts for the increase in job satisfaction.

Meanwhile, responses to the open-ended question demonstrated that public relations practitioners who encounter ethical conflict tend to report job dissatisfaction. By and large, public relations practitioners have faced ethical conflicts. Indeed, it is always a complicated to know whom public relations practitioners serve, when a boundary spanner has to represent both an organization and its public. If an organizational decision may not inform the publics or harm the publics, conflict increases. When a lack of power makes practitioners feel helpless, job satisfaction decreases. Thus, ethical conflicts in workplaces, practitioners' influence, and job satisfaction are closely related.

Although I did not examine the outcomes of ethical leadership on the organizational or societal level, responses suggest that job dissatisfaction caused by ethical conflict may affect organizations. As previous job satisfaction researchers have already noted, turnover was one of the main consequences of job dissatisfaction (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994; Ribelin, 2003). Turnover due to the ethical conflict in the workplace may lead to the loss of human resources and reduced productivity at the organizational level.

Qualitative data from the responses of open-end question reaffirm the findings that appear in the quantitative data. For example, qualitative data implied that top management's ethicality is essential for sustain organizational ethics. Working with a leader who does not provide support or show consideration may be very stressful to employees (Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). As Chen and Spector (1991) noted, negative leader-employee interactions result in diminished pleasure with work, doubts about one's competence, harsh reactions to the leader, and eventually departure from the organization. An open communication environment was also important in supporting practitioners' ethical behavior. Respondents to open-ended question blamed unethical decisions by top management for ethical conflicts, and suggested that these conflicts could have been prevented if their organizations had permitted free discussion of ethical concerns.

Limitations of the Study

Thought this study contributed to the research on public relations ethics and leadership, it has several limitations. First, strictly speaking, this study does not measure

behavior, but a perception of behavior. Thus, the results in this study may not perfectly describe practitioners' actual behavior. Other methodological approach such as experiment or ethnographic approach would be alternative research method to closely examine public relations practitioners' actual behavior.

Second, the efficacy of self-reporting in measuring the components of ethical leadership behaviors should be reconsidered, though I assume that a survey of behavior perception well reflects on actual behavior. Since individuals tend to overrate themselves, I collected high mean values for the ethics counselor role with low standard deviations (M=5.97, SD=1.21). An alternative method of measuring the ethical leadership behaviors should be considered for future research. It would even better to improve the measuring method for validating the concept, "ethical leadership of public relations."

Third, response rates to online surveys are generally low, and that was also the case with this research. Although this research was endorsed by the PRSA's External Research Task Force, the response rate to the online survey was only 5.6% and only 4.3% after the incomplete surveys were discarded. Two factors might affect the low response rate. I suggested sharing the results of this survey as compensation, instead of providing a monetary reward which would be more attractive to some participants. The length of the questionnaire may also have been a problem. Although about the survey took 20 minutes to complete, this might have been too long for busy practitioners. Some participants did complain about the length of the questionnaire.

Fourth, the findings from this survey may not be generalized to other countries or cultures, since this survey was conducted only in the United States. This research did not

explore the impact of culture on public relations ethics, but the ethical values could be different in other countries. The prevalence of formal systems to support codes of ethics, ethics training and ethics officer may be affected by social, economical and political considerations. Individual ethical beliefs may similarly be influenced by culture. This research did not consider those variations.

Suggestions for Future Research

This dissertation suggests directions for future research. First, there should be more systematic elaboration of the measurement of ethical leadership in public relations. I defined leadership as behaviors, adopting the conceptual definition from the business ethics literature, and applied professional behaviors. Since I was interested in exploring the antecedents and consequences of the ethical leadership, rather than the concept itself, I focused more on the relationship between antecedents and each component of ethical leadership behaviors. However, it would be better for future researchers to refine and validate the concept of ethical leadership of public relations. Ethical leadership consists of two dimensions: the application of ethical values on work and the promotion of ethics. For the promotion of ethics, I postulated that counseling top management on ethics issues and using dissent to advocate ethical decisions are ways of promoting ethics for practitioners. Among six dissent tactics, confrontation and counseling were the most commonly accepted. Fortunately, factor analysis confirmed these two dimensions of the ethical leadership of public relations. Would this also work for the other samples or groups? To answer this question, follows-up studies should be conducted. In addition, the

alternative measurement of the ethical leadership behavior needs to be considered instead of self-reporting measures.

Second, researchers can think about ways to evaluate ethical counselors. In this study, I measured it with one sentence: “I provide dominant coalitions (of my organization or of my clients) with counsel on the consequences of their decisions from the perspective of ethics.” If possible, it would be better to use multiple statements. However, it has not been answered as to how and what kind of advice practitioners can provide to top management. Although the role of ethics counselor or corporate conscience has been emphasized in the public relations ethics research, the stories from the real workplace have not been told. Thus, future study needs to explore how public relations practitioners counsel the dominant coalition, by collecting cases studies.

Third, dissent tactic itself merits further investigation. How do practitioners confront top management? Over which ethical issues do practitioners confront management? To answer these questions, qualitative research using in-depth interview should be conducted among senior communication professionals. More case studies would make it possible to develop multiple measures of the ethical leadership behaviors, especially for the “promoting ethics” dimension.

Fourth, one important area of future study is the effectiveness of the formal systems of organizational ethical culture: code of ethics, ethics training and ethics officer. I found no significant influence of those formal systems on practitioners’ ethical autonomy, which should precede the ethical decision making and ethical behavior. My findings may support one side of the debate about the usefulness of codes of ethics in

public relations: codes of ethics do not foster ethical practice. However, future studies need to observe what codes of ethics really say, how codes of ethics are internalized among practitioners, what public relations practitioners actually learn from ethics training programs, and how they evaluate that training. Ki and Kim (2008) provided a precise overview of what is contained in codes of ethics in public relations firms in the United States. However, their research has resulted in answers to only some of those questions. Qualitative field research, interviews, or focus groups would be very useful.

Fifth, it is necessary to elucidate the ecology of the formal and informal systems of organizational ethical culture. Future studies should shed light on how they influence each other. Although institutionalizing ethics through establishing ethics statements and training may be somehow easier ways to embed ethics within the organization, it may not be easy to change the informal system such as the communication environment. Future studies need to investigate how the formal and informal systems combine with one another to produce an optimal organizational culture for supporting ethics.

Sixth, future studies should investigate the possibility of interaction between individual ethical positions and organizational ethical culture, and its impact on ethical leadership behaviors of practitioners. I assumed that individual ethical positions (relativism and idealism) are innate characteristics that are hardly influenced by environment. For that reason, I observed the influence of individual ethical ideologies separately from the organizational factors. However, ethical positions may be transformed by ethics education or social influence, as personality can be changed and re-

shaped throughout the course of a lifetime. If it is not possible, many ethics training programs would be of no use.

Although I do not mean that future studies should determine whether or not an organizational ethical environment is more important than individual ethical positions, it would be helpful if researchers understand how environment can influence a person's ethical ideology. On the one hand, the t-test analysis revealed that the practitioners who have participated in ethics training course (M=3.36) showed a significantly lower level of relativism than did those who did not experience the training (M =3.08; t=2.513, df =250, p<.05). On the other hand, the individual ethical positions varied by individual characteristics such as age and gender. The older practitioners showed lower relativism levels. In terms of idealism, female practitioners showed significantly higher levels of idealism (M=5.12, SD = .86) than male practitioners (M=4.75, SD = .96; t=2.988, df =250, p<.01). Thus, future studies need to examine how and why organizational environment and individual characteristics can shape individual ethical beliefs, and how the difference produces outcomes in ethical decision-makings and behaviors.

Conclusion

Scholars and practitioners in public relations field have emphasized the importance of ethics (Bowen, 2008; Dozier et al. 1995; Ewing, 1981; Grunig, 1992, 1997; Heath, 1997; Heath & Nelson, 1986). However, little to no research on public relations ethics took a behavioral approach to ethics. In addition, it is not comprehensively documented what public relations practitioners can do to advance organizational ethics,

what are the organizational or individual predictors can encourage such ethical behavior, and what outcomes can be produced by the ethical behavior. Adopting the concept of ethical leadership into public relations, this study integrated practitioners' ethical behavior, and explored the antecedents and consequences of public relations ethical leadership behaviors.

The empirical data gathered in this research through online survey to PRSA members supported that public relations practitioners not only apply ethics standards into their day-to-day work, but also strive to promote ethics by providing ethics counseling to the dominant coalition, and by expressing disagreement with unethical decisions. Such ethical leadership behaviors are affected by organizational ethicality, a level of ethical autonomy, and individual ethics ideologies. In addition, these ethical behaviors enhance perceived influence, and lead to job satisfaction. In short, this study demonstrated evidence that practitioners' ethical behavior results in enhanced influence of public relations practice on organizational ethics. Influence increases job satisfaction.

Therefore, these findings are essential to understand the organizational and individual predictors that can affect public relations practitioners' ethical leadership behavior. Public relations practitioners' ethical behavior is beneficial for organizations, the practitioners themselves, the public relations profession, and society. This study provides insight into the determinants of public relations practitioners' ethical behavior.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Dear PRSA member,
As fellow PRSA members, we would like to ask you for your assistance with an important Web survey on PR practitioners' job satisfaction and ethics.
We are studying how public relations practitioners' ethical leadership behavior, organizational ethicality factors (organizational ethical culture, top management's support for ethical behaviors) and participants' ethical standards can influence job satisfaction.
While we do ask for demographic information, organization characteristics (e.g. organization staff size and type, etc.), and individual characteristics (year of work experience, and professional affiliations, etc.) in this survey, responses will remain anonymous and be treated confidentially.

Because the survey is online and includes questions about your workplace, please refrain from completing this survey at work. Your employer could otherwise intercept the data.
If you are a PR practitioner who is more than nineteen years of age, please click through the following link now or enter the URL in your Web browser to complete the following questionnaire. This survey should take no more than twenty minutes to complete.

(URL address here)

We will provide you with copies of the results of our research on request.
If you have questions or comments about the study or the procedures please contact Jinae Kang at (205) 331-3518 or Bruce K. Berger, Ph.D., at (205)348-7692.
We appreciate your help.
Sincerely,

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*If you have any questions or concerns about participants' rights as human subjects of research, please contact to Ms. Tanta Myles, the University of Alabama Research Compliance Officer, at (205)-348-5152.
**This research study has been endorsed by PRSA's External Research Task Force.

Appendix B

Survey Questionnaire

[Introduction]

Welcome to our study!
A public relations research team from the University of Alabama is conducting a Web survey of PR practitioners' job satisfaction and ethics. The survey takes less than 17 minutes to complete, and individual responses will be treated confidentially. We will provide you with a copy of the study report if you're interested.

A. Job Satisfaction

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statements. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

Statements	Strongly Disagree ... Strongly Agree
1. My job is interesting.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
2. I feel good about the amount of responsibility in my job.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
3. The work I am doing is challenging.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
4. I have achieved or am achieving my overall or long-term goals in public relations practice.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
5. I feel the prestige of working in public relations.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
6. I value my job to society.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
7. I am satisfied with the autonomy and freedom level in my present job.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

8. I am satisfied with the recognition received from supervisors, or top management group.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
9. I am satisfied with pay.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
10. I am satisfied with the advancement chances with present employer.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
11. I am satisfied with working for the current boss in my organization.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
12. I am satisfied with working together with the people in my organization.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
13. I am satisfied with job security in present position.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

[Open end question]

[Q] When do you feel ethical conflict when you work in public relations? How does it related with the extent to which you are satisfied with your work? Feel free to talk your opinion.

B. Ethical Autonomy and influence

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following questions. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

Statements:	Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
I decide and I voice what I feel is right and wrong independently,	
1. Without concern for appearing disloyal to top management.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
2. Without concern for losing clients.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
3. Without concern for self-interest, such as salary or my job.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

Statements	Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
My voice is heard, respected on the	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

decision-making table, and applied to the decisions, when I suggest what I feel is the right thing to do, according to the code of ethics.	

C. Ethical practice

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statements. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

Items	Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
1. I tell the truth to clients and the public in my work.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
2. I hide information to protect my own or my organization's interest (reversed).	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
3. I treat all stake holders fairly and respectfully.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
4. I have good moral standards and apply them to my work.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
5. My practice is trust-worthy to my clients.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

D. Ethics Counseling

Items	Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
I provide dominant coalitions (or my clients) with counsel on the decisions from the perspective of ethics.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

E. Dissent actions

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statements. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

How often do you take the following action, when your organization has made a decision which is clearly immoral or unethical?

Items	Never Always
1. Assertively confront management about the inappropriateness of the decision.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
2. Agitate others to join them in arguing and working against the decision.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
3. Use facts selectively in making a case against the decision.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
4. Work to sabotage implementation of the decision.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
5. Leak information to external stakeholders about the decision.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
6. Stand by and say nothing.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

F. Participating decision making process

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following questions. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

How often are you involved in these following situations?

Items	Never Always
1. To decide on adopting new policies.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
2. To develop strategic decision making.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
3. To develop strategic decision making.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
4. To adopt new programs or procedures.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
5. To implement new programs.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7
6. To evaluate new programs.	1------2------3------4------5------6------7

G. Organizational ethical culture

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statements. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

Statements
1-1. How long has your organization had its own code of ethics? 1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------7 Not existing / < 1 year / 1-2 year(s) / 2-3 years / 3-4 years / 4-5 years / > 5 years
1-2. How useful is the content of your organization's code of ethics? (Answer this, unless the previous answer is 1) Not at all 1------2------3------4------5------6------7 Very useful
2-1. How often does your organization provide an ethics training program <u>in a year</u>? 1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------7 Not existing / Once / Twice / Three times / Four times / Five times / Six times or more
2-2. How useful is ethics training for learning ethical behaviors in your practice? (Answer this, unless the previous answer is 1) Not at all 1------2------3------4------5------6------7 Very useful
3-1. Does your organization have an ethics officer? 0 – No ( ) 1 – Yes ( )
3-2. How useful is the existence of your organization's ethics officer to keep ethical environment? (Answer this, unless the previous answer is 0) Not at all 1------2------3------4------5------6------7 Very useful

H. Top management support for ethical behavior

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statements. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

Items	Strongly Disagree — Strongly Agree
1. Top management in my organization emphasizes an ethics statement	1-----2------3------4------5------6------7
2. Top management in my organization emphasizes an ethics statement	1-----2------3------4------5------6------7
3. Top management in my organization has clearly conveyed that unethical behavior will not be tolerated.	1-----2------3------4------5------6------7
4. If a manager in my organization is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in personal gain rather than corporate gain, he will be promptly reprimanded.	1-----2------3------4------5------6------7
5. If a manager in my organization is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior, he will be promptly reprimanded even if the behavior results primarily in corporate gain.	1-----2------3------4------5------6------7

I. Individual Ethical Position

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statements. Please read each item carefully, and then select a number corresponding to your opinion.

	Strongly Disagree — Strongly Agree
1. A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
2. There are no ethical principles that are so important that they should be a part of any code of ethics.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7

3. Risks to another should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risks might be.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
4. What is ethical varies from one situation and society to another.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
5. The existence of potential harm to others is always wrong, irrespective of the benefits to be gained.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
6. Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers being moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
7. One should never psychologically or physically harm another person.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
8. Different types of moralities cannot be compared as to "rightness".	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
9. One should not perform an action which might in any way threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
10. What is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
11. If an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
12. Moral standards are simply personal rules which indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgments of others.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
13. Deciding whether or not to perform an act by balancing the positive consequences of the act against the negative consequences of the act is immoral.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
14. Ethical considerations in interpersonal relations are so complex that individuals should be allowed to formulate their own individual codes.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
15. The dignity and welfare of people should be the most important concern in any society.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
16. Rigidly codifying an ethical position that prevents certain types of actions stands in the way of better human relations and adjustment.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
17. It is never necessary to sacrifice the welfare of others.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
18. No rule concerning lying can be formulated; whether a lie is permissible or not permissible totally depends upon the situation.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
19. Moral actions are those which closely match ideals of the most "perfect" action.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7
20. Whether a lie is judged to be moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action.	1-----2-----3-----4------5------6------7

J. Demographic Characteristics

We're almost done. Please tell us a little about you and your organization.

1. Your age	____ years old
2. Your gender	[ ] Female [ ] Male
3. The highest level of education you have completed is	[ ] High school diploma [ ] Associate's degree [ ] Bachelor's degree [ ] Master's degree [ ] Doctorate/ post doctorate / J.D. / M.D.
4. How long have you worked in public relations industry?	[ ] 0-3 year(s) [ ] 4-6 years [ ] 7-10 years [ ] 11-15 years [ ] 16-20 years [ ] 21-25 years [ ] 26-30 years [ ] 31 years or more
5. How long have you worked with your current organization?	[ ] 0-3 year(s) [ ] 4-6 years [ ] 7-10 years [ ] 11-15 years [ ] 16-20 years [ ] 21-25 years [ ] 26-30 years [ ] 31 years or more
6. Which of the following best describes your organization?	[ ] PR agency [ ] Marketing research firm [ ] Corporation [ ] Nonprofit organization [ ] Government agency [ ] Educational institution [ ] Other (please specify) [ ] Communication agency
7. Approximately how many people does your organization employ?	____ people
8. Approximately, how many public relations personnel does your organization employ?	____people
9. How many employees do you supervise?	_____ people

• Please provide your email address if you are interested in final report (optional).

_____

---------Thank you for your participation! ---------

Appendix C

Informed Consent Statement
Antecedents and Consequences of Ethical Leadership of PR practitioners
Primary Investigator: Jin-Ae Kang, Bruce Berger, Ph.D.

You are invited to participate in a research study. Your email information was randomly selected from the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) membership directory with the approval of PRSA research committee. Participation in this research project is on a scholarly basis, and no pressure will be exerted to induce you to take part in this study. You are free to withdraw from the research process at any time without penalty.

INFORMATION

1. This study will take no more than twenty minutes.
2. You will be asked answer seventy-six questions about your job satisfactions, ethical practice level, and work environment. If you feel uncomfortable at any time, you have the right to end your participation.
3. The survey site is constructed in online-survey service company "Surveymonkey.com" server and data you supplied will be confidentially stored in the server.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The information you provide will be kept confidential. Data will be stored securely and will be available only to persons conducting the study. Your name and IP address will not be stored with this data we collect so that no one can recognize from whom a specific answer is provided. In addition, only the two primary investigators will access the dataset and the data will be used for only academic research. The survey system (www.surveymonkey.com) respects participants' privacy. The company has not been affiliated with any third-parties and it does not accept any advertising (http://www.surveymonkey.com/Home_Reasons.aspx). All data will be reported in terms of group averages.

COMPENSATION

For participating in this study, you will receive study report if you want it. At the end of the survey questionnaires, you will be asked to leave your email address if you are interested in the study results. The email that you leave for getting the result report will be saved separately from your answers for confidentiality.

HARMS & BENEFITS

No harms are expected from this survey. However, participants might feel uncomfortable and their conscience may prick them when they estimate the ethics level of their practice, if the questions remind individuals of a bad experience. The questions asking individual ethical standards or ethical climate of the organizations where they work might make some participants embarrassed. There are no direct benefits to you for participating but you will be contributing to researcher's knowledge on the relations between various ethical components within organizations and public relations practitioners' job satisfaction. You will get the result report of this project if you would like to look at it.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures please contact Jinae Kang at 205-331-3518 or Bruce K. Berger, Ph.D., (205)348-7692. Queries about human research participants and their rights can also be directed to Ms. Tanta Myles, Research Compliance Officer, at 205-348-5152.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study, your data will be automatically destroyed. Completion of the survey implies consent to take part in the research study.

CONSENT

I have read and understand the above information. I certify I am at least 19 years of age.