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United Arab Emirates University

College of Business and Economics

THE IMPACT OF ETHICAL LEADERSHIP ON EMPLOYEE
PERFORMANCE IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN BAHRAIN: THE
MEDIATING EFFECT OF EMPLOYEE VOICE

Alyaa Rabea Hamad Aldoseri

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
of Doctorate of Business Administration

Under the Supervision of Dr: Mohammed Al Waqfi

April 2020

Declaration of Original Work

I, Alyaa Rabea Hamad Aldoseri, the undersigned, a graduate student at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU), and the author of this dissertation entitled “*The Impact of Ethical Leadership on Employee Performance in the Hotel Industry in Bahrain: The Mediating Effect of Employee Voice*”, hereby, solemnly declare that this dissertation is my own original research work that has been done and prepared by me under the supervision of Dr. Mohammed Al Waqfi, in the College of Business and Economics at UAEU. This work has not previously been presented or published, or formed the basis for the award of any academic degree, diploma or a similar title at this or any other university. Any materials borrowed from other sources (whether published or unpublished) and relied upon, or included, in my dissertation have been properly cited and acknowledged in accordance with appropriate academic conventions. I further declare that there is no potential conflict of interest with respect to the research, data collection, authorship, presentation and/or publication of this dissertation.

Student's Signature: _____



Date: August 10, 2020

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Abstract

This study purports to explain how ethical leadership can enhance employee performance in the Kingdom of Bahrain by analyzing the mediating role of employee voice. It employs a conceptual framework based on social learning (SL) and social exchange (SE) theories to show the significance of employee voice in enhancing employee performance. The present study aims to assist managers in leveraging employee voice; thus, improving employee performance and presenting a different perspective to change the negative view of employee voice. Equally important, it gives support to SLT as well as SET theories as they provide clarification about the role of employee voice.

This study was conducted in the hotel industry in the Kingdom of Bahrain. In particular, data were collected through a survey-questionnaire which was administered to frontline employees and direct managers of four and five-star hotels.

The study findings indicated that ethical leadership of direct manager affects employee performance, while voice partially mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance. Moreover, cultural similarity does not moderate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice. The findings of this study also revealed a significant link between the education level and performance of frontline hotel employees in Bahrain. This study provides a number of practical implications for organizations operating in the hotel industry. First, it highlights the role of ethical leadership in improving employee performance. Second, hospitality organizations should foster certain norms that encourage employees to use their voice and motivate managers to listen to their employees' opinions and initiatives. Another important implication of this study is that hotel management does not have to perceive cultural differences as problematic in its efforts to harmonize a diverse workforce. Finally, current study provides insights into the current situation with regards to frontline employees in the hotel industry in the Kingdom of Bahrain.

Keywords: Ethical leadership, Employee voice, Cultural similarity, Social Learning Theory (SLT), Social Exchange Theory (SET), Employee Performance, and Hospitality and Tourism Industry.

Title and Abstract (in Arabic)

تأثير القيادة الأخلاقية على أداء الموظف في قطاع الفنادق بالبحرين: الدور الواسطي للسلوك الصوتي للموظف

المخلص

الهدف من هذه الأطروحة هو دراسة دور القيادة الأخلاقية في تعزيز أداء الموظفين بمملكة البحرين، وذلك عبر تحليل الدور الواسطي للسلوك الصوتي للموظف. استخدمت هذه الدراسة إطاراً مفاهيمياً يستند إلى نظريتي: التعلم الاجتماعي (SLT) والتبادل الاجتماعي (SET) وذلك بهدف بيان دور السلوك الصوتي للموظف وأهميته في تعزيز أدائه. أجريت هذه الدراسة في قطاع الفنادق بمملكة البحرين، حيث تم جمع البيانات والمعلومات المطلوبة من خلال استبيان استقصائي لعينة من موظفي الصفوف الأمامية في فنادق ذات تصنيف أربعة وخمسة نجوم ومديريهم المباشرين. أهم نتائج هذه الدراسة اثبات تأثير القيادة الأخلاقية للمدير على أداء الموظف، التأثير الواسطي (الجزئي) للسلوك الصوتي للموظف في العلاقة بين القيادة الأخلاقية وسلوك المواطن التنظيمية (OCB)، عدم تأثير التشابه الثقافي بين الموظف والمدير على العلاقة بين القيادة الأخلاقية للأول والسلوك الصوتي للثاني، إضافة إلى بيان الارتباط الوثيق بين المستوى التعليمي لموظفي الصفوف الأمامية في فنادق البحرين وأدائهم. تعددت الآثار العملية لهذه الدراسة في المجالات التالية: أولاً، مجال القيادة الأخلاقية: تحسين الفهم العام لدور القيادة الأخلاقية في تعزيز السلوك الصوتي للموظف وأدائه، وتسلط الضوء على العلاقة بين القيادة الأخلاقية وأداء الموظف في السياق المحدد. ثانياً، مجال السلوك الصوتي للموظف: كشف الدور الحيوي للسلوك الصوتي للموظف في قطاع الضيافة والسياحة، وتحسين النظرة السلبية السائدة، وعليه فلا بد من تعزيز القواعد والأنظمة التي تشجع الموظفين على استخدام صوتهم وتحفيز المديرين على الاستماع إلى آراء ومبادرات موظفيهم. ثالثاً: مجال الاختلافات الثقافية: عدم اعتبار الاختلافات الثقافية معوق في مجال تنظيم القوى العاملة المختلفة في المؤسسات الفندقية. أخيراً، تقدم الدراسة الحالية رؤية شاملة حول الوضع الحالي لموظفي الصفوف الأمامية في قطاع الضيافة والسياحة في مملكة البحرين.

مفاهيم البحث الرئيسية: القيادة الأخلاقية، السلوك الصوتي للموظف، التشابه الثقافي، نظرية التعلم الاجتماعي، نظرية التبادل الاجتماعي، أداء الموظف، وقطاع الضيافة والسياحة.

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Dedication

*To my father;
I owe you my past, present and future.*

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List of Abbreviations

BTEA	Bahrain Tourism and Exhibition Authority
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
EDB	Economic Development Board
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness
LAS	League of Arab States
MENA	Middle East and North Africa Region
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OIC	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SLT	Social Learning Theory
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Chapter 1: Introduction

The relationship between manager and employee has been investigated in numerous studies in the literature and by several researchers, as this relation could impact individuals as well as organizations. For instance; in 2005, Giberson, Resick, and Dickson conducted a study on the relationship between top organizational leaders' and members' unique personality and values. Their findings indicated that an organization's environment is shaped by top leaders, and organizational cultures are shaped by leaders' values. Indeed, leadership is considered a significant element in influencing the function of an organization's members (Wu & Shiu, 2009) and promoting ethical conduct in companies (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). In fact, it has been argued that practitioners' awareness of the moral aspects leadership has grown due to media exposure of unethical leadership acts (Ciulla, 1995; Feng-I, 2011). Further, recent cases of business scandals and their destructive effect on organization, industries and people have highlighted the issue of ethical leadership (Bonner, Greenbaum, & Mayer, 2016).

Ethical leadership plays a significant role in shaping the ethical conduct of businesses (Zhu, Zheng, He, Wang, & Zhang, 2019). In addition, Brown and Treviño (2006) indicated that leader's ethical conduct influences employees' ethical performance. Hence, the literature on ethical leadership has grown rapidly over the past decade (Ko, Ma, Bartnik, Haney, & Kang, 2017; Ng, & Feldman, 2015), with particular development in the field of social studies (Brown & Mitchell, 2010).

Despite this, however, the mechanism through which ethical leadership generates desirable performance results remains under-researched (Byun, Karau, Dai, & Lee, 2018; Ko et al., 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2011), and the relationship between

ethical leadership and employee task performance did not receive enough attention (Kluemper, DeGroot, & Choi, 2013), plus, only few research studies regarding the mechanism underlying the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB are available (Park, Kim, & Song, 2015). Therefore, it is important to investigate how ethical leadership affects employee performance and through which mechanism. Accordingly, this study proposes and tests a moderated mediation model to evaluate the influence of ethical leadership on employee performance.

The first chapter of this dissertation describes the research problem; purpose of the study; significance of the study; research questions (RQs); and research deliverables.

1.1 Problem Statement

De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) explained that ethical leader establishes performance standards, reward and punishment system, then he/she is somehow setting standards for best practices in which employees have to follow. Indeed, ethical leadership has been found to offer a wide range of beneficial outcomes (Wang, Xu, & Liu, 2018) for individuals and businesses. As such, several studies have investigated the relationship between ethical leadership and performance. For example, Walumbwa, Morrison and Christensen (2012) examined the link between ethical leadership and group in-role performance, with group conscientiousness and group voice as mediators. Another study by Walumbwa et al. (2011) found that leader-member exchange (LMX), self-efficacy, and organizational identification mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and performance. Piccolo and colleagues (2010) suggested that ethical leadership influences employees' job performance through task significance and effort. However, several gaps in the

literature remain (Elsetouhi, Hammad, Nagm, & Elbaz, 2018; Ko et al., 2017), and there is still a need to foster a thorough understanding of the process by which ethical leadership stimulates desirable performance results (Byun et al., 2018; Ko et al., 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Consequently, academics call for extending research on how ethical leadership stimulates employees' work behavior within organizations (Koopman, Scott, Matta, Conlon, & Dennerlein, 2019).

On the other hand, interest in exploring voice behavior has increased exponentially in recent years (Mowbray, Wilkinson, & Tse, 2015). Moreover, many researchers have considered voice behavior to be an important underlying mechanism through which ethical leadership positively affect followers behavior and attitudes (Ko et al., 2017), and with the recent calls from practitioners for more research into cultural differences in voice behavior (Morrison, 2014), it would be important to investigate the mediating effect of voice behavior along with the moderating effect of cultural similarity.

Hammad and his partners (2017) noted that there has been growing scholarly interest in tourism development and tourism impacts worldwide. Within this spotlight, part of the focus has been channeled to hospitality and tourism activities and development in the Middle East (Seyfi, 2018). However, Cohen E and Cohen S (2015) claimed that development of the hospitality and tourism industry in the Middle East has been understated in the international literature. Some researchers have erroneously attributed a lack of development to the unstable political environment of the Middle East, persistent violence, and frequent disasters (Henderson, 2015; Isaac, Hall, & Higgins-Desbiolles, 2015).

In Bahrain, political turmoil and unrest involving violence acts was experienced in 2011. Nonetheless, the Bahraini government was able to control the situation within a few years, and investments in the hospitality and tourism sector amassed the huge amount of 10 billion USD in 2016 (Writer, 2017), which contributed a total of 9.7% to the Bahraini gross domestic product (GDP) in 2017, and was expected to increase by 3% again by the end of 2018 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). Accordingly, hospitality and tourism sector is believed to provide opportunities for further research (Mustafa, 2010), more specifically, context of hotel industry provides suitable environment for investigating effect of cultural differences as workforce of this industry is known to be diverse and from different cultures.

Studies on ethical leadership have been particularly limited in the hospitality and tourism sector in general and in the context of Bahrain in particular. Also, contextual factors like cultural differences have been overlooked. Voice behavior is considered to be an important underlying mechanism through which ethical leadership positively affect followers behavior and attitudes (Ko et al., 2017). This study aims to fill these gaps by exploring the driving mechanism of employee performance, and the influence of ethical leader behavior on employee performance with voice behavior as a mediator, and cultural similarity as moderator. Findings of this study are beneficial to add to the current stream of research which investigates mechanism through which ethical leadership affects high-performance outcomes (Byun et al., 2018).

1.2 Purposes of the Study

Ethical scandals have arisen in the oil, business, and banking sectors (Colvin, 2003; Eisenbeiss & Brodbeck, 2014; Mehta, 2003). These incidents have demonstrated the tragic consequences of leaders' unethical acts, and shed light on the role of leaders in shaping an organization's ethical conduct (Eisenbeiss & Brodbeck, 2014). Consequently, the study of leaders' ethical acts has become a rapidly growing area of research in the current business environment, which is filled with turbulent and morally questionable practices (Treviño, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006). Thus, several studies have focused on the mechanism that relates ethical leadership with high-performance outcomes (Byun et al., 2018).

This dissertation centers on this stream of research, emphasizing the mediating role of employee voice behavior in the relationship between ethical leadership and employee in-role and extra-role performance. The study is conducted in the context of the hospitality and tourism industry in the Kingdom of Bahrain (hereinafter referred to as Bahrain), focusing on frontline employees because of the significant role they play in the success of organizations, and particularly in the hospitality and tourism industry (Coelho, Augusto, & Lages, 2011; Kuslivan S, Kuslivan Z, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010; Singh, 2000). Frontline employees in this sector have the privilege of identifying consumers' hidden needs (Coelho et al., 2011) and differentiating hotel services from those of other competitor through frequent face-to-face contact (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014). Further, they can often enhance service quality if they feel empowered to voice their ideas, make suggestions, and report problems (Raub & Robert, 2013).

Performance of frontline employees is very important for service organizations such as multinational hospitality firms (Singh, 2000; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1988), which has driven researchers' interest in defining the factors that affect these employees' performance. Many scholars have also assumed that performance of frontline employees is affected by the behavior of their supervisor (Buil, Martínez, & Matute, 2019). For example, Terglav et al. (2016) claimed that organizational success depends on the director's role probably because this in turn affects the behaviors, attitudes and emotions of employees (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004) and how they cooperate with clients (Wallace, de Chernatony, & Buil, 2013).

Further, Ko and his team (2017) pointed out that followers are more attracted to ethical leaders in uncertain situations. This situation is pertinent with respect to the working conditions of frontline employees in the hospitality and tourism industry, where these employees deal with customers of different cultures as part of their role. Hence, the researcher finds it important to explore this area in the hospitality and tourism industry.

On the other hand, previous research has linked ethical leadership with various organizational and individual-level outcomes. A recent study by Mo and Shi (2018) demonstrated the mediating effect of voice behavior in the relationship between ethical leadership and task performance. However, the current study takes a more comprehensive view by focusing on two performance outcomes: task performance (i.e., in-role performance) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; i.e., extra-role performance). In addition, the study develops an integrative moderated mediation model that will help to advance knowledge regarding the role

of ethical leadership, by shedding light on when and how ethical leadership operates to stimulate employee performance.

Further, considering that ethical leadership has been under-researched since academics started their studies in this field during the early 2000s (e.g. Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005; Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003), the motivation of the study is to consider (1) how ethical leadership of direct managers influences employee voice behavior in a way that improves employee performance; (2) which actions of managers encourage employee voice behavior; and (3) which factors lead to the improvement of employee performance. Another motivation for the study arose from the low attention paid to the hospitality and tourism industry in the Middle East to date (Seyfi, 2018), including that on the involvement of the frontline employees. In addition, the study responds to a recent call stressing the need for more research into cultural differences in voice behavior (Morrison, 2014).

Many recent articles have considered ethical leadership and employee performance (e.g. Bonner et al., 2016; Bouckennooghe, Zafar, & Raja, 2014; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Ofori, 2009; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Sharif & Scandura, 2014; Tu & Lu, 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). These form the basis of this study; however, its concentration is more on uncovering the role of voice behavior in ethical leadership and employee performance, as well as the cultural similarity between frontline employees and leaders working in four-and five-star hotels in Bahrain. Specifically, the study considers the ethical leadership practices of managers influencing employee in-role and extra-role performance.

1.3 Significance and Scope

The significance of this study lies in its contribution to the field of ethical leadership in the hospitality and tourism industry. This research sheds light on voice behavior within this industry, as it demonstrates the role of ethical leadership in improving employee performance and highlights cultural similarity as a potential moderating variable in the multicultural sector. In addition, it provides a new perspective on the role of frontline employees in the hotel industry—an area that has previously been overlooked or underrated. This research is useful to managers and employees of hotels in Bahrain and, since Bahrain shares the same cultural characteristics with other countries in the Middle East, it is believed that the results of the study will also be beneficial to practitioners in other Middle Eastern countries.

From the theoretical standpoint, this study contributes to the literature on ethical leadership, voice behavior, cultural similarity, and hospitality and tourism by employing social learning theory (SLT) and social exchange theory (SET); hence, it provides clarification on employee voice behavior and the role of this in enhancing employee performance in the hospitality and tourism industry. On the practical side, this study also helps to counter the common negative view on employee voice (Burriss, 2012) by shedding light on the role of frontline employees' voice.

1.4 Research Questions

This research focuses on addressing three questions: Addressing the first question is intended to give support to previous studies by confirming the link between ethical leadership and employee performance. The second question assesses the mediating effect of employee voice behavior on ethical leadership and employee

performance. Finally, as Bahrain has a multi-cultural society (E-government, 2019a) with high percentage of expatriates (EDB, 2018); the third research question considers the moderating effect of cultural similarity on ethical leadership and employee voice behavior.

RQ1. Does ethical leadership of a direct manager influence employee performance?

RQ2. Does employee voice mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance?

RQ3. Does cultural similarity moderate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice?

1.5 Research Deliverables

There are many deliverables derived from this study. First, it adds to the literature on ethical leadership, cultural similarity, employee voice, and hospitality and tourism. Second, it facilitates managers' understanding of the impact of ethical decisions, since it is expected that ethical leadership stimulates employee voice behavior, which in turn improves employee performance. Third, it highlights the role of cultural similarity as a moderator that strengthens the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior. Fourth, it improves understanding of employee voice behavior as an underlying mechanism of, and the process through which, ethical leadership generates favorable employee performance. Moreover, it provides recommendations for directors on techniques to enhance the performance of hotel frontline employees through voice behavior.

1.6 Summary of Dissertation Structure

The dissertation is comprised of seven chapters. The present chapter introduced the research problem. It also outlined purpose of the study, the research significance and scope. RQs were introduced and discussed, along with the research deliverables.

The second chapter presents the context of the study. The first section of the chapter describes the background of Bahrain by providing an overview of its demographical and geographical characteristics. The chapter also summarizes its history, particularly its economic and political structure. The third section highlights the main features of the country's hospitality and tourism industry.

The third chapter comprises a literature review of journal articles, books, and publications on the main constructs used in this research. The first section presents the concepts of leadership, and particularly ethical leadership, while the second section discusses the conceptualization of employee voice behavior. The third section explains the concept of cultural similarity, followed by a review of the perspective of employee performance as a multifaceted concept. Finally, the chapter highlights the main gaps in existing literature and the proposed theoretical framework of the study.

The fourth chapter discusses the research methodology and methods. It outlines the study objectives, questions, and hypotheses, and also presents a descriptive overview of the positivist paradigm and the epistemological position of constructionism. It then discusses the fieldwork experience, data collection, and analysis techniques, and reflects on ethical issues related to the study.

The fifth chapter presents the empirical data collected, and the analysis results. The first section discusses the preliminary data analysis and screening. The

second section describes the sample demographics and respondents' profile, followed by descriptive statistics on the main study constructs. The chapter then presents results of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The seventh section details the findings of the structural equation modeling (SEM) and hypotheses testing. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

The sixth chapter is comprised of 10 parts and a summary. First, chapter revisits the research aim and objectives. It then discusses the study's direct hypotheses, mediation hypotheses, correlation hypothesis, and moderation hypotheses with regards to survey findings and existing literature. This is followed by consideration of the survey findings on the association between education and employee performance. The chapter then discusses study findings on hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the key findings.

The seventh chapter presents the conclusions of the study. The chapter begins with a restatement of the initial aim of the study and an overview of key points derived from the research. It also discusses the study practical implications, limitations, and ideas for future research. The chapter concludes with a reflective summary.

Chapter 2: Context of the Study - Background, Demographics, and Economics

The word “Bahrain” means “two seas,” and refers to the distinct nature of water sources in the country, where fresh water springs are surrounded by salty sea water (UNDP, 2019). Bahrain is an ancient land that features rich history and distinct culture. It was consecutively invaded by various forces, including the Babylonians, Sumerians, Greeks, Persian, Portuguese, and Turks. Accordingly, it has had different names throughout history, such as Dilmun, Tylos, and Awal (MOFA, 2019c).

During the Bronze Age, Bahrain was called Dilmun. This name lasted for two millennia. Dilmun people were very powerful and influential due to the country’s role as a financial center located in the popular trade routes between Southern Iraq, India, and Pakistan. Subsequently, during the fourth century BC, a discovery mission led by the general Nearchus from the army of Alexander the Great reached Dilmun and changed the country’s name to Tylos. However, the name was changed again in the early Islamic era to Awal. Despite these changes, Bahrain has retained its position as a Middle Eastern financial hub (MOFA, 2019c).

2.1 The Demography and Geography of Bahrain

Bahrain is considered to have a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural, and multi-denominational society (E-government, 2019a). Moreover, its people, referred to as Bahrainis, are known to be warm and open to people from other countries (EDB, 2018). According to 2017 statistics, the total population of the country is 1,501,611, of which 677,506 were citizens and 823,610 represent non-citizens or expatriates (E-government, 2019b). Asian residents are Majority (85%), Indians in particular

(50%). Consequently, this influenced segmentation of Bahrain workforce, where expats represent 79% of Bahrain workforce, 83% of which work for the private sector. In a closer look, most service occupations are occupied by people from Asia, while Arabs prefer managerial positions (Gulf Labour Markets & Migration, 2019). It is noteworthy to mention that updated statistics on Bahrain population and workforce were not readily available; hence, 2017 statistics are used in this study.

There are multiple reasons for the high expat percentage, such as the superior lifestyle and family-friendly environment (EDB, 2018), low cost of living, free educational services, high-quality healthcare (E-government, 2019a), and finally ownership regulations that allow expats to purchase residential land in key locations (EDB, 2018).

The Bahraini workforce has a good gender balance. Bahraini workers are open-minded with high commercial awareness (EDB, 2018). Arabic is the official language of the country, but English is used in the business sector and is compulsory in schools. In addition, other languages, such as Urdu and Persian, are widely used because of the high number of expats living in Bahrain. Islam is the official religion, but people from other religions are free to practice their rites (UNDP, 2019). As noted by Ebrahim (2016), the Bahraini population primarily comprises five religious diverse denominations: Islam, Christianity, Hinduism, Buddhism and Judaism.

Geographically, Bahrain is located at the center of the Arabian Gulf. It has a strategic location in the Middle Eastern region. The country's location provides an excellent connectivity advantage and fast access to the huge market in the Middle East, considering that the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries are expected to

be worth 2 trillion USD by 2020. The Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region was worth 3 trillion USD (EDB, 2018).

Bahrain is an archipelago that consists of 33 islands, most of which are made up of stony mineral covered by hills of salt and dry sand. Bahrain island is the largest of these islands (Ministry of Information Affairs, 2018). Bahrain is composed of four governorates: The Capital, Muharraq, Northern, and Southern (E-government, 2019c). Manama is the country's capital city.

2.2 The Economic and Political Structure of Bahrain

Bahrain is considered to have the most dynamic economy in the GCC, because it is driven by diversity and entrepreneurialism (EDB, 2018). Moreover, Bahrain's GDP growth is healthy and steady, with low unemployment and inflation rates (EDB, 2019).

The most important natural resources in Bahrain are oil, natural gas, and fish. Until the early 1930s, Bahrain was known for its maritime commerce and pearl industry. In 1932, Bahrain was the first country to discover oil in the Gulf region; as a result, it came to rely heavily on oil revenue, which it used to build its infrastructure and finance wide modernization projects in the education and health sectors (UNDP, 2019). In 2012, 81% of government revenue was generated by the oil and gas sectors (Ebrahim, 2016).

In the 1970s, Bahrain began to recognize its limited resources and need to diversify into non-oil revenue. Accordingly, several initiatives were put in place to generate non-oil income. In 2016, the Bahrain Economic Development Board (EDB) declared that 80.7% of Bahrain GDP was generated by the non-oil sector (Abu Wadi & Bashayreh, 2018).

Bahrain's diversification succeeded in establishing several projects in the fields of service and finance, and in the extraction and manufacturing sectors (Ministry of Information Affairs, 2018). The initiative provided investment support and encouraged the growth of the private sector through allowing a 100% return on income and full business ownership by those from overseas. Moreover, it developed its transport and communication facilities and established an effective regulatory environment. Consequently, trade levels dramatically improved and Bahrain became a major financial center and home to several multi-national companies (UNDP, 2019).

On the political side, the Al-khalifa family has ruled Bahrain since 1783 (Ebrahim, 2016). Bahrain was under the protection of Great Britain between 1861 to 1968; however, an agreement ended this era, and Bahrain became independent in 1971 (UNDP, 2019).

Since 1999, Bahrain has adopted reform programs focused on developing its economic and political sectors, and promoting and protecting human rights. A national committee was established to draft a new national charter, and in February 2001 Bahraini citizens voted in favor of the National Action Charter, which provided a structure for the democratic transformation of the country. Accordingly, in 2002, the state of Bahrain was reformed into a kingdom ruled by His Majesty King Hamad Bin Isa Al-khalifa (Ebrahim, 2016), and an amended constitution was issued (UNDP, 2019). The Bahraini regime has been described as a constitutional hereditary monarchy headed by the king (His Majesty King Hamad Bin Isa Al-Khalifa). In addition, the governance system in Bahrain is based on separation of the three authorities: judicial, legislative, and executive (MOFA, 2019a). The process of

legislation review is ongoing, and new legislation is being adopted according to international and constitutional conventions that Bahrain ratifies.

Internationally, Bahrain became a member of the United Nations (UN) and the League of Arab States (LAS) in 1971 (Ebrahim, 2016), and the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) in 1972 (MOFA, 2019e). Regionally, it has been a member of the GCC since 1981. The GCC consists of the Kingdom of Bahrain, the United Arab Emirates, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the Sultanate of Oman, the State of Kuwait, and the State of Qatar. The cooperative framework influences integration, coordination, and inter-connection among members (MOFA, 2019d).

2.3 Hospitality and Tourism Industry in Bahrain

Tourism is considered one of the largest economic sectors because it drives trade, and creates jobs and wealth across the world (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). In addition, many scholars have considered it a high-contact service industry (Garma & Bove, 2011; Grisseman & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). Nevertheless, O'Neill and Davis (2011) illustrated that the hotel industry is characterized by low wages, lack of career development opportunities, long and inflexible working hours, and high turnover rates. In addition, a recent report issued by the World Travel and Tourism Council (2019) described this industry as being more focused on personal and hospitality skills and less on formal training and education, with several opportunities for flexible employment.

Ebrahim (2016) emphasized that the influence of the hospitality and tourism industry in a country includes aspects, such as attracting investments, generating wealth and income, improving the country's image, and encouraging entrepreneurialism. Further, World Travel and Tourism Council, which includes 185

countries, announced in its annual economic report that in 2017 tourism accounted for 10.4% of global GDP, and that over the past decade, one in every five jobs created around the world was in the tourism sector. The same report explained that although many countries, such as Turkey, Tunisia, and Egypt, have suffered from terrorist activities, the tourism sector's performance has remained strong and the recovery has been resilient (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). In the case of Bahrain, the economy suffered from terrorist activities in 2011; however, tourism sector was able to recover. The EDB announced that investment in the tourism sector in 2016 amounted to 10 billion USD, which represented nearly 31% of total commercial and infrastructure investment (Writer, 2017). Also in 2017, investment in travel and tourism represented 6.5% of the total investment, and this is predicted to rise by 6.9% per annum over the next 10 years (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018).

Significantly, the tourism sector directly contributed 4.2% of Bahrain's GDP in 2017, and this was expected to increase to 7.5% by the end of 2018 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). The total contribution (direct and indirect impact, which includes tourism and travel investment spending, government collective spending, and domestic purchases by sectors dealing directly with travelers) of this sector to Bahrain's GDP was 9.7%, and this was anticipated to rise to 12.7% by 2018 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). The tourism sector's total contribution to employment in Bahrain was 9.4% in 2017, which equated to 58,000 jobs (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). EDB disclosed that the Bahraini tourism sector continued to expand, with incomparable prospects for investment (EDB, 2018).

The Bahrain Tourism and Exhibitions Authority (Travel & Tourism News, 2017) has revealed that people visit Bahrain for several reasons, such as leisure, shopping, family connections, business, and healthcare. According to EDB (2018), in 2017, almost 6.5 million-or 57% of travelers to Bahrain—visited Bahrain for leisure and vacation; 2.6 million, or 23%, did so for shopping; almost 1 million, or 9%, did so to visit family and friends; almost 680,000, or 6%, visited for business or professional purposes; and almost 590,000, or 5%, were in Bahrain for other reasons. There has been a concerted effort to promote Bahrain as the perfect destination for conducting events such as weddings and exhibitions (Writer, 2017), and to place it on the international tourism map.

The country has also made several efforts to increase its competitiveness in the hospitality and tourism sector; hence, it has sought to improve its supporting infrastructure. Moreover, Bahrain Economic Vision 2030 promotes investment in hospitality and tourism industry, and considers it as one possible industry on which to focus its economic diversification plan (Ebrahim, 2016).

According to Richards (2001), several countries are applying for theme-based tourism in order to enhance their image as a travel destination and differentiate their tourism products. Consequently, Ebrahim (2016) pointed out that Bahrain has shown its interest in four tourism themes, including cultural, business, leisure, and sport tourism. However, he noted that income is generated by two types: leisure and business tourism. The first type includes land and sea leisure activities, and generated 89.8% of direct tourism GDP (931.9 million USD) in 2017 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). The second type includes all travel activities related to training and seminars, trade exhibitions, conferences, and meetings, and generated 10.2% of

direct tourism GDP (106.2 million USD) in 2017 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018).

According to EDB (2018), the Bahrain hospitality and tourism industry focuses on people within the GCC, and who can reach the area within two hours' flying time. Despite its small size, Bahrain has leveraged its many advantages to establish itself as a regional tourism hub, due to factors including its geographical nature as an archipelago consisting of 33 islands; relaxing atmosphere; historical places—particularly its two heritage sites chosen by UNESCO—and cultural sites; more than 30,000-strong tourism workforce specializing in customer service; proactive government legislation; availability of local, regional, and global cuisine; modern shopping malls; and other attractions. It is worth noting in 2016, Manama was chosen as the Gulf Capital of Tourism (EDB, 2018).

Bahrain has more than 190 hotels and resorts. In 2018, the BTEA announced that the country had 19 five-star hotels, 58 four-star hotels, and 29 three-star hotels. In addition, it had two four-star and three three-star resorts. It is expected that 15 hotels and resorts will be added in 2020 (Travel & Tourism News, 2017).

2.4 Summary of Context of the Study

Bahrain is an ancient land that has held the position of a Middle Eastern financial hub since the Bronze Age (MOFA, 2019b). With a population of nearly 2 million (E-government, 2019b), the Bahraini society is multi-ethnic, multi-cultural, and multi-denominational (E-government, 2019a).

Geographically, Bahrain lies at the center of the Arabian Gulf. It holds a strategic location in the Middle Eastern region. Moreover, Bahrain is an archipelago

consisting of 33 islands (Ministry of Information Affairs, 2018). In 2002, the state of Bahrain was reformed into a kingdom (Ebrahim, 2016).

The Bahraini economy is considered to be the most dynamic in the GCC (EDB, 2018), but with healthy and steady GDP growth and low unemployment and inflation rates (EDB, 2019). Bahrain was known for its maritime commerce and pearl industry until the early 1930s, when oil was first discovered. Despite this, Bahrain recognized its limited resources and the need to diversify; hence, in 2016, EDB declared that 80.7% of its GDP was generated by non-oil sectors, as cited in Abu Wadi and Bashayreh (2018).

Significantly, the hospitality and tourism sector directly contributed 4.2% of Bahrain's GDP in 2017, and this was expected to increase by 3.3% by the end of 2018. The total contribution of this sector to Bahrain's GDP was 9.7%, and this was anticipated to rise by 3% by the end of 2018 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018).

Despite its small size, Bahrain has established itself as a regional tourism hub (EDB, 2018). It has more than 190 hotels and resorts, and it is expected that 15 more will have been added by 2020 (Travel & Tourism News, 2017).

Clearly, Bahrain — more specifically, the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain provides a suitable context for evaluating the link between ethical leadership and employee performance, and assessing the mediating effect of employee voice on ethical leadership and employee performance, while its demographical features (i.e. high percentage of expats) helps in examining the moderating effect of cultural similarity on the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice.

Chapter 3: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the gaps in literature that this research intends to fill. It presents key concepts, a general review of previous studies, the main streams of literature, a definition of constructs used for the study, and notable findings in the field. The chapter ends by outlining theoretical framework, study hypotheses and the theories utilized in developing them.

3.2 Leadership and Ethical Leadership

Leadership essentially entails managing and influencing teams, groups, departments, organizations, and countries (Antonakis & House, 2014; Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011). Moreover, it is believed that a leader's action can positively or negatively influence people's daily lives (Eberly, Johnson, Hernandez, & Avolio, 2013). For these reasons, several researchers have focused on understanding the nature of leadership and related concepts (Dickson, Castaño, Magomaeva, & Den Hartog, 2012). Shuck and Herd (2012, p. 162) stated that "leadership is a multi-faceted and complex construct," while Edwards and Turnbull (2013a, p. 49) defined it as "a skill or ability, or as a dynamic social process, or a relationship between leader and follower". The most popular definition of leadership was generated in August 1994 by researchers participating in the first Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research conference. The definition is a reflection of the diverse GLOBE researchers' viewpoints, and states that leadership is "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the

organizations of which they are members” (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002, p. 5).

Starting from the early part of the twentieth century, academics have worked to develop leadership theories (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009). Table 1 shows the most common leadership theories.

Table 1: Most Common Leadership Theories

Theory	Reference
1. Affiliated leadership	Cummings T and Cummings C (2014)
2. Authentic leadership	Carasco-Saul, Kim W, and Kim T (2015)
3. Charismatic leadership	Clarke (2013); Vredenburg and Shea-VanFossen (2010)
4. Direct/indirect leadership	Gilley et al. (2010)
5. Distributed leadership	D'Annunzio-Green and Francis (2005)
6. Emotional intelligence	Collins (2012); Djibo, Desiderio, and Price (2010); Drodge and Murphy (2002); Edwards and Turnbull (2013a, 2013b); Horwitz (2005); Kim and Shim (2003); Nesbit (2012); Shuck and Herd (2012); Sofo, Yeo, and Villafaña (2010)
7. Entrepreneurial leadership	Carden and Callahan (2007)
8. Ethical leadership	Carden and Callahan (2007); Turnbull and Edwards (2005)
9. Five domains	Harland (2003)
10. Leadership style	Blakeley and Higgs (2014)
11. Leadership transition	Ma Rhea (2013)
12. Leader-member exchange theory	Byrd (2007); Noelliste (2013)
13. Participative theory	McWhorter, Lynham, and Porter (2008)
14. Path-goal theory	Brown, McCracken, and O'Kane (2011)
15. Relational goal theory	Kim and Shim (2003); Wukitsch, Simmons, and Hutt (2013)
16. Team leadership	Callahan and Rosser (2007)
17. Situational leadership	Ayiro (2009); Bolstorff (2002); Bonebright, Cottledge, and Lonnquist (2012); Godkin and Allcorn (2009); Mensch and Rahschulte (2008); Parry and Sinha (2005), and Wenson (2010)

Table 1: Most Common Leadership Theories (Continued)

Theory	Reference
18. Servant leadership	Raes, Kyndt, Decuyper, Van den Bossche, and Dochy (2015)
19. Skills/trait approach	Ardichvili and Manderscheid (2008); Ausburn L and Ausburn F (2014); Bagheri and Pihie (2011); Baltodano, Carlson, Jackson, and Mitchell (2012); Bates and Chen (2004); Gilley et al. (2010); McCauley-Smith, Williams, Gillon, Braganza, and Ward (2013); McLean, Yang, Kuo, Tolbert, and Larkin (2005); Muyia and Kacirek (2009)
20. Transformational leadership	Browning (2007) Callahan, Whitener, and Sandlin (2007); Collins (2002); Jordan and Troth (2002); Keller (2007); Kennedy, Carroll, and Francoeur (2013); Knapp (2010); Ligon, Wallace, and Osburn (2011); London, Polzer, and Omoregie (2005); Longman and Lafreniere (2012); Margaryan, Collis, and Cooke (2004)

Researchers have constantly attempted to classify leadership theories (Turner & Baker, 2018). For example, Yammarino, Dionne, Uk Chun and Dansereau (2005) proposed a 17-leadership categorization, while Avolio, and his team (2009) suggested a two-section classification, Gardner and his colleagues (2010) developed an eight-section classification, and Dionne and his team (2014) suggested a more extensive classification.

Clearly, Avolio et al. (2009) proposed the simplest approach. According to their classification, leadership theories can be divided into traditional leadership and newer leadership theories. Traditional leadership theories dominated leadership research up to the late 1970s, while newer leadership theories dominated leadership research from the 1980s onwards. Further, newer theories are concerned with issues related to moral values, symbolic leader behavior, and emotional feelings. Brown

and Treviño (2006) pointed out that there are four leadership styles addressing the moral aspects of leadership: transformational, authentic, spiritual, and ethical leadership.

Transformational leadership was first introduced in 1978 by Burns. A transformational leader inspires followers to work together toward a common purpose and look beyond self-interest (Burns, 1978); however, a transformational leader could be ethical or unethical depending on his or her motive (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership has four components: Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Kovjanic, Schuh, & Jonas, 2013). According to Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), idealized influence is concerned with the degree to which a leader manipulates followers and is self-centered. Inspirational motivation refers to the degree to which a leader empowers followers and encourages their efforts toward self-actualization. Intellectual stimulation relates to a leader's program, and whether it is open to spirituality and dynamic transcendence or close to follow a specific line, while individualized consideration refers to respecting followers' dignity and interest, and whether they are treated as means or ends.

Another approach to leadership is the authentic leadership. An authentic leader is an individual who has a high moral character, and is assertive, strong, and optimistic. He/she is conscious about how he/she thinks and acts, and is perceived by others as conscious about his/her and others' values. An authentic leader is capable of viewing ambiguous ethical problems from different angles, judging them, and aligning final decisions with his/her moral values (Avolio et al., 2004). There are four attributes of authentic leadership: transparency, self-awareness, consistency, and

openness. Conversely, some researchers claim that authentic leadership is a root construct that may combine other leadership styles, such as transformational and ethical leadership. Nonetheless, they are distinct from each other (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

On the other hand, the spiritual leadership style involves religious methods and ethical approaches toward stimulating oneself and one's followers to have a sense of spiritual survival (Fry, 2003). However, this does not indicate that a person has to be religious or spiritual to exemplify spiritual leadership. According to Reave (2005), spiritual leadership is demonstrated through embodying values such as honesty, integrity, and humility. The leader becomes a role model among followers through certain behaviors, such as showing respect and ethical practice. Fry's (2003) definition of spiritual leadership involves two crucial dimensions: calling, which is an individual dimension; and membership, referring to a more collective dimension. Calling pertains to an individual's relation to their self, and higher power and/or God. It involves serving God, or an ideal, thereby deriving purpose and meaning in life. The membership dimension involves the leader exhibiting his or her inner beliefs through external behavior. In this case, leaders and followers show concern, care, and appreciation for each other, hence creating an organizational culture and producing a sense of belonging and membership.

Significantly, all positive leadership practices consider ethics as a supplementary dimension; however, ethical leadership differs from the other styles because it recognizes ethics as a fundamental element (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009). Since the mid-2000 scholars have been interested in the concept of ethical leadership, and this interest has increased dramatically in recent

years (Ko et al., 2017). An empirical study conducted among executives and ethics officers working in a US enterprise (Treviño et al., 2003) became the basis of a formal definition of ethical leadership developed by Brown and his colleagues (2005). They defined 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. Clearly, this definition consists of four main concepts: leader's behavior, employee voice, values, and results (Brown et al., 2005). The definition purposely includes the term "normatively appropriate", since organizations and industries have different norms and cultures, so what is appropriate in one culture might not be applicable in another. Another interesting term is "two-way communication," which suggests that ethical leaders provide followers with a voice. In other words, communication is not only about having followers imitate leaders, but also concerns hearing and respecting employee voice.

Eisenbeiss (2012) as cited in Turner and Baker (2018) argued that there are a few deficiencies in Brown et al. (2005) definition. First, Brown et al.'s study was conducted in Western countries; therefore, its emphasis is on a Western perspective. Second, the definition is vague because it does not include any reference points that could assist in assessing values ethicality. Third, it focuses on how ethical leaders influence followers and assert their powers. On the other hand, other researchers have indicated that ethical leaders can be described as models of ethical conduct. Leaders must be perceived as credible and legitimate. Leaders engage in behavior that is seen as normatively appropriate, motivated by altruism, while gaining followers' attention to the ethics of messaging and communicating.

Eisenbeiss (2012) pointed out that the majority of descriptive and empirical research on ethical leadership has adopted the definition of Brown et al. (2005), along with the identified corresponding measures stated by Deter, Treviño, Burris and Andiappan (2007); Mayer et al. (2009); Piccolo et al. (2010) and Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009). Hence, this study uses Brown et al. (2005) description of leadership as its reference.

Ethical leadership is the only approach that emphasizes moral management and focuses on ethical standards through the processes of communication and accountability, and the only approach that considers the proactive impact of leaders on the ethical and unethical conduct of employees at work (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Ethical leadership differs from the other leadership approaches: transformational leadership includes references to intellectual stimulation (Brown & Treviño, 2006), while authentic leadership encompasses authenticity and self-awareness (Treviño, Hartman, & Brown, 2000). On the other hand, ethical leadership involves a transactional influence process where ethical leaders set ethical standards to effect followers' ethical conduct, whereas transformational leadership does not. Spiritual leaders are thought to be visionaries and servants of God or humanity, who consider their work as a "calling;" on the other hand, ethical leaders could be driven by spiritual and pragmatic concerns (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Yang and Wei (2017) noted that ethical leadership is a complex concept with certain features that involve fairness, people orientation, responsibility, moderation, and integrity.

Literature has suggested that initial research on ethical leadership was more about understanding and defining the concept in relation to business ethics using normative and descriptive approaches (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Brown et al., 2005;

Ciulla, 2014; Treviño et al., 2003; Treviño et al., 2000). According to Brown and Mitchell (2010), the normative perspective is an attempt to prescribe the ideal way for an employee to behave in the workplace, thus necessitating the application of a particular philosophical framework to evaluate decision making, and examine the ethicality of a particular leader, including his or her leadership styles or influence tactics (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Ciulla, 2014). The descriptive approach, however, seeks to study how people view ethical leadership, and the antecedents and outcomes that relate to these views (Brown & Mitchell, 2010).

Other research has explored the influence of ethical leadership on work and workers (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Mayer et al. (2009) indicated that ethical leadership has a positive effect on productive work behavior and a negative effect on counterproductive work behavior. Byun and his team (2018) stated that scholars have concentrated on understanding the mechanism through which ethical leadership affects high-performance outcomes, which is also the aim of this study.

Treviño and his team (2003; 2000) explained that there are two dimensions that best describe an ethical leader: being a moral person and being a moral manager. They believed that while the former is concerned with personal qualities of the ethical leader, such as integrity, trustworthiness, and honesty, the latter is related to the leader's behavior and the utilization of his or her position to endorse ethical conduct at work, such as fairness and openness. Moreover, the two dimensions are correlated, which means that a person is recognized as an ethical leader if he or she is both a moral person and a moral manager (Treviño et al., 2000; Treviño et al., 2003). In addition, Brown and his colleagues (2005) averred that ethical leadership is

reflected by the leader's personality and his or her willingness to think through the consequences of his or her actions.

3.2.1 Conceptualizing Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership has been viewed through various theoretical lenses, particularly through SLT and the SET. SLT, developed by Bandura and Walters (1977), became a significant theoretical foundation of ethical leadership because it provided a complete view of organizational behavior (Davis & Luthans, 1980). Behavior is a continuous reciprocal interaction between environmental, cognitive, and behavioral determinants; thus, individuals and environment are not autonomous—or rather, they determine each other in a reciprocal way (Davis & Luthans, 1980). Again, SLT implies that in a social setting, an employee observes others' actions and consequences. These consequences could be motivating, reinforcing, or informative, because the employee gets information feedback and tries to develop a hypothesis regarding appropriate behavior, which can serve as guide to understand the employee's future actions. SLT relies on three processes: modeling or vicarious process, covert cognitive process, and self-control process (Bandura, 1978). In modeling, it is assumed that any new behavior is learned through observation or direct experience; however, SLT stresses that vicarious observation takes place when an individual learns by observing the consequences of people's behavior in his or her social environment (Bandura, 1978).

Many studies have shown that when a role model demonstrates attitudes, actions, and emotional responses, individuals tend to replicate them very quickly (Bandura, 1969; Bandura & Walters, 1963; Flanders, 1968). Moreover, Bandura (1969) indicated that modeling is captured and maintained through attention,

reproduction, reinforcement, and retention. As far as cognitive process is concerned, in the social learning process it is believed that covert cognitions, such as feelings, symbols, and images, have a mediating effect on events' observable sequences (Davis & Luthans, 1980). On the other hand, self-control pertains to how a person evaluates his or her reaction to the consequences he or she has created, and this usually happens when self-created standards or outcomes are not accomplished (Davis & Luthans, 1980).

Given these points, practitioners have explained that there are two outcomes of any behavior: external consequences, which influence the surrounding environment; and internal consequences, which the person creates for him- or herself (Bandura, 1968; Mahoney & Thoresen, 1974). Thus, when an employee is not satisfied with these outcomes, he or she tends to utilize self-control.

Brown and his colleagues (2005) used SLT to conceptualize ethical leadership. They elaborated that the ethical leader could act as a role model to his or her followers. Notably, he or she could educate followers about the ethical conduct of their organization through his or her own actions and reactions. Such motivation could be via altruism, honesty, and openness, and he or she could reinforce them by harnessing formal process such as policies and rewards.

Another theory that draws on ethical leadership is SET, which was developed by Blau in 1964. The theory is one of the most popular paradigms used to explore organizational behavior (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to Emerson (1976), within SET, and under certain conditions, many interactions happen that are seen as interdependent and contingent on another person's actions, hence generating potential for high-quality relationships.

Meeker (1971) developed a well-known exchange model. He identified six resources in exchange: status, love, information, services, goods, and money. These six resources give two forms of outcome: economic and socio-emotional outcomes (Foa E & Foa U, 1980; Foa U & Foa E, 1974). Furthermore, Meeker (1971) claimed that interpersonal exchanges are like individual decisions. Altogether, interpersonal exchanges call for rules to guide selection decision. Emerson (1976) elucidated that the rules of exchange represent a normative definition of the situation that is adopted by the participants in an exchange relation. In this case, rules of exchange act as guidelines for the exchange process. For this reason, researchers have relied on these rules to form their SET model in investigating organizational behavior (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

According to Meeker (1971), the six rules are status, consistency, rationality, altruism, competition, group gain, and reciprocity. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) defined status consistency as the allocation of benefits based on one's position within a social group. Accordingly, this indicates that attributes such as race and origin might be beneficial for some people. Rationality, which is the second rule, is about using logic to determine the probable result as to how a person could obtain his or her means. However, Shafir and LeBoeuf (2002) argued that people are not always rational; thus, another exchange rule was added—altruism. This is when a person seeks benefits to others even at his or her own cost. The fourth rule is competition, which pertains to harming others even at the risk of one's own profit. For group gain, interpersonal exchange does not exist and all things are shared (Meeker, 1971). Finally, reciprocity, which is deemed the most popular exchange rule, in essence refers to repayment. Therefore, the SET models in organizational science have concentrated on the reciprocity principle, neglecting the other five. Surprisingly, the

possibility of employing multiple rules simultaneously has also been neglected by many researchers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Considering this theory in relation to ethical leadership, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) explained that in work settings employees could develop special social exchange relationships with their supervisors and, as a result, behavior could be affected. They justified this with the example of an individual who returns a favor and matches the goodwill shown by the other party involved in this special social exchange relationship. This mindset entails strong support, where the social exchange relationship serves as a mediator that stimulates beneficial results. Strong relationships might thus generate positive attitudes and effective work behavior.

3.2.2 Antecedents of Ethical Leadership

Despite the fact that research has already established the significance of ethical leadership in stimulating positive outcomes for both organization and employees, there is a scarcity of published work on the antecedents of ethical leadership (Haar, Roche, & Brougham, 2019; Brown & Mitchell, 2010) and the underlying mechanism associated with it. Scholars have classified ethical leadership antecedents into two categories: situational influences and leaders' characteristics (Ko et al., 2017). Brown and Treviño (2006) stated that certain situational factors provide leaders with opportunities to learn and develop their ethical leadership aspects. However, it necessitates observation and direct interaction to achieve learning and imitation from the followers' side (Ko et al., 2017).

Brown and Mitchell (2010) clarified that for an ethical leader to be effective, the following situational factors are required: power, visibility, and credibility. Brown and Treviño (2006) stressed that leaders have specific characteristics that

impel employees to perceive them as ethical leaders. To justify this, Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) explained that personality traits such as conscientiousness and agreeableness are positively related to the perception of ethical leadership. Furthermore, ethical leadership is anticipated when leaders demonstrate moral identity (Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012) and interactional justice toward peers (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Suárez-Acosta, 2014).

In a recent study by Haar et al. (2019), five values were found to be related to ethical leadership: humility, altruism, collectivism, time orientation, and cultural authenticity. They were all, except for collectivism, deemed to be significantly related to developing ethical leadership. Each value is distinct and independent in the role it plays in predicting ethical leadership. In the same study, the path of ethical leadership antecedents and outcomes (i.e., leader's value, ethical leadership, and employee performance) was considered, and findings substantiated the effect of the five values, or antecedents, on employee work performance, job satisfaction, and turnover intention, through its positive influence on ethical leadership.

3.2.3 Consequences of Ethical Leadership

Researches in the ethical leadership field have focused on evaluating the impact of such leadership on followers. Some have formulated these impacts as positive effects, such as job performance, creativity, and job satisfaction, whereas others have referred to negative behaviors, such as unethical behavior and misconduct (Koopman et al., 2019). Ko et al. (2017) identified 44 outcomes of ethical leadership (Table 2), of which high employee performance is one (Bonner et al., 2016; Bouckenooghe et al., 2014; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Neubert, Wu,

& Roberts, 2013; Ofori, 2009; Piccolo et al., 2010; Sharif & Scandura, 2014; Tu & Lu, 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

Table 2: Outcomes of Ethical Leadership

Employee-Level Outcomes	Group and Organizational-Level Outcomes
1. Ethical behavior (Avey, Palanski, & Walumbwa, 2011; Lu & Lin, 2014)	1. Firm level OCB (Mayer et al., 2009)
2. Reduction in bullying (Stouten et al., 2010)	2. Normative organizational commitment (Neubert et al., 2013).
3. Extra-role performance (Tu & Lu, 2016)	3. Organizational fairness (Pucic, 2015)
4. Employee misconduct (Mayer, Kuenzi, & Greenbaum, 2010)	4. Inter-organizational conflict (Mo, Booth, & Wang, 2012)
5. Turnover intention (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015)	5. Distribute justice (Xu, Loi, & Ngo, 2016)
6. Booking questionable journal entry (Arel, Beaudoin, & Cianci, 2012)	6. Top management team effectiveness (Rubin, Dierdorff, & Brown, 2010)
7. Job search behaviors (Palanski, Avey, & Jiraporn, 2014)	7. Leader-member exchange (Gu, Tang, & Jiang, 2015)
8. Counterproductive behavior (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012)	8. Leader promotability (Rubin et al, 2010)
9. Promotability (Kacmar, Andrews, Harris, & Tepper, 2013)	9. Unit unethical behavior (Mayer et al., 2012)
10. Personal initiative (Ruiz P, Ruiz C, & Martínez, 2011)	10. Internal social capital (Pastoriza & Ariño, 2013)
11. Voice behavior (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009)	11. Unit relationship conflict (Mayer et al., 2012)
12. Employee well-being at work (Chughtai, Byrne, & Flood, 2015)	12. Financial performance (Shin, Sung, Choi, & Kim, 2015)
13. Job satisfaction (Avey, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012; Sharif & Scandura, 2014)	13. Corporate social responsibility (Wu, Kwan, Yim, Chiu, & He, 2015).
14. In-role job performance (Bouckenoghe et al., 2014)	14. Firm performance (Eisenbeiss, Van Knippenberg, & Fahrbach, 2015)
15. Emotional exhaustion (Gu et al., 2015)	

Table 2: Outcomes of Ethical Leadership (Continued)

Employee-Level Outcomes	Group and Organizational-Level Outcomes
16. Interpersonal deviant workplace behavior (Zheng et al., 2015; Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Suárez-Acosta, 2014)	15. Affective organizational commitment (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009; Neubert et al., 2013)
17. Moral voice (Lee, Choi, Youn, & Chun, 2015)	
18. Organizational citizenship behavior (Avey et al., 2011; Bonner et al., 2016; Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011; Newman, Kiazad, Miao, & Cooper, 2014; Sharif & Scandura, 2014; Wang & Sung, 2016)	16. Organizational deviance (Mayer et al., 2009; Neves & Story, 2015; Van Gils, Van Quaquebeke, Van Knippenberg, Van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2015)
19. Reporting unethical conduct (Mayer, Nurmohamed, Treviño, Shapiro, & Schminke, 2013)	
20. Incivility (Taylor & Pattie, 2014)	
21. Family satisfaction (Liao, Liu, Kwan, & Li, 2015)	
22. Life satisfaction (Yang, 2014)	
23. Work engagement (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012)	
24. Effort (Piccolo et al., 2010)	
25. Moral efficacy (Lee et al., 2015)	
26. Whistle blowing (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015)	
27. Helping (Eisenbeiss & Van Knippenberg, 2015)	
28. Optimism (Demirtas, 2015)	

Nevertheless, Ko and his colleagues (2017) categorized these consequences into five groups. The first group refers to leader outcomes, which involve followers' evaluation of their leader's performance, perceiving him or her as professional and reliable, and thus boosting his or her image as an effective leader and increasing his

or her chances of being promoted in the organization (Rubin et al., 2010). The second group deals with follower ethical behavior, which includes reporting wrongdoing and unethical behaviors (Bhal & Dadhich, 2011; Dust, Resick, Margolis, Mawritz, & Greenbaum, 2018; Lee et al., 2015; Mayer et al., 2013). The third is follower life and family satisfaction; that is, employees spend large amounts of their time at work, so, logically, ethical leadership influences the level of satisfaction in their lives (Yang, 2014) and family (Liao et al., 2015) as well. The fourth consequence is firm-level outcomes. Brown and Treviño (2006) asserted that ethical leaders' influence differs according to their hierarchical position, and this means that ethical leaders in top management have a strong indirect effect on ethical leadership of supervisors, which boosts OCB at a firm or group level, as well as performance (Shin, Sung, Choi, & Kim, 2014).

The final category is follower outcomes, which are related to the job and organization, such as improving citizenship behavior (Avey et al., 2011; Bonner et al., 2016; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018; Ng & Feldman, 2015; Sharif & Scandura, 2014), job satisfaction (Avey et al., 2012; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Pucic, 2015; Sharif & Scandura, 2014; Yang, 2014), and employee engagement (Chughtai et al., 2015; Demirtas, 2015; Hoch et al., 2018). In addition, ethical leadership decreases employee turnover (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Hoch et al., 2018; Ng & Feldman, 2015; Palanski et al., 2014), counterproductive work behavior, job strain (Ng & Feldman, 2015), and discrepancy (Hoch et al., 2018).

3.2.4 Mediating Variables in the Ethical Leadership–Performance Relationship

According to Ko et al. (2017), employee behavior in general, and work performance in particular, are related to ethical leadership. In fact, practitioners have

tried to identify the different mechanisms underlying this relationship. They have categorized the literature on ethical leadership mechanisms into organizational-level mechanisms and individual-level mechanisms. The distinction between the two levels is the area in which ethical leadership works. Findings have shown that on the organizational level, two mechanisms work through organizational context: ethics-related organizational culture and workplace conditions. The former is divided into four subcategories: ethical climate and culture, organizational justice, perception of politics, and group conscientiousness. The latter involves team cohesion and group voice, workload, and working conditions.

Previous research has shown that ethical leadership positively affects group performance (Walumbwa et al., 2012), financial performance, corporate social responsibility, OCB (Eisenbeiss, Van Knippenberg, & Fahrbach, 2015; Kacmar et al., 2013; Shin et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2015), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and negatively affects turnover intention, all through certain job-related attitude mechanisms (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Neubert et al., 2009). On the other hand, workplace conditions mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and group performance (Walumbwa et al., 2012), OCB (Wang & Sung, 2016), emotional exhaustion (Zheng et al., 2015), and unethical behaviors such as bullying (Stouten et al., 2010). In sum, ethical leadership affects workplace conditions; hence, group performance and OCB are improved and emotional exhaustion and unethical behavior are reduced.

On the individual level, there are three distinct categories. The first is psychological and ethical factors, such as psychological safety, self-efficacy, moral efficacy, and moral intensity. The second is followers' relationship with the leader or

the organization; this involves a high-quality relationship and identification with the leader or organization. The third category is job-related attitude such as voice behavior, work engagement, and job satisfaction; it comprises a set of attitudes and behaviors related to the followers' job. Some researchers have considered these as ethical leadership outcomes, but they also serve as mechanisms for other ethical leadership outcomes (Ko et al., 2017).

Scholars have noted that ethical leadership indirectly influences job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employee well-being, and work engagement through psychological resources (Avey et al., 2012; Bouckennooghe et al., 2014; Li, Wu, Johnson, & Avey, 2017; Neubert et al., 2013; Tu & Lu, 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) and ethical factors (Arel et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2015; Steinbauer, Renn, Taylor, & Njoroge, 2014).

Moreover, it is worth noting that other practitioners have found ethical leadership to promote OCB, work engagement, and high employee performance, and prevent emotional exhaustion through followers' relationships with the leader and organization (Bouckennooghe et al., 2014; Chughtai et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2015; Hansen, Alge, Brown, Jackson, & Dunford, 2013; Li et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2014; Ogunfowora, 2014; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2015).

In addition, it has been said that ethical leadership positively affects job satisfaction and reporting of unethical behavior, and negatively affects counterproductive behavior and turnover intention, through certain job-related attitude mechanisms (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Piccolo et al., 2010; Podsakoff N, Podsakoff P, MacKenzie, Maynes, & Spoelma, 2014; Yang, 2014).

Based on previous studies, there are two individual-level mechanisms through which ethical leadership impacts employee performance: psychological resources and follower's relationship with the leader or the organization. It is presumed that when ethical leader fosters positive psychological resources, such as psychological ownership or psychological capital, employees will work hard to enhance their performance. By the same token, when an ethical leader establishes a high-quality relationship with his or her follower that is based on trust and fair treatment, followers will reciprocate with extensive effort to improve their performance.

Likewise, when an ethical leader makes an ethical decision or displays ethical behavior, followers will identify as his or her followers, or employees that work for his or her organization, and, as a result, be motivated to work hard and enhance their performance (Ko et al., 2017). For this reason, the present research adopts the individual-level mechanism—that is, the job-related attitude mechanism. Avey et al. (2012) stated that when an ethical leader supports his or her employees and encourages them to speak up (i.e., voice behavior), they will feel a sense of meaning and recognition, which will increase their job satisfaction. Again, if the employees are satisfied with their job, their job-related attitude will be affected (Palanski et al., 2014; Yang, 2014).

3.2.5 Moderating Variables in the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Performance

Some scholars who have investigated the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance have applied moderating variables to deepen their understanding of this relationship. Ko et al. (2017) categorized these moderators

into five groups, including environmental situation, follower characteristics, leader–follower relationship, leader characteristics, and organizational characteristics.

Generally speaking, followers are more attracted to their ethical leaders in situations of high uncertainty. This is because ethical leaders support their followers, show concern, and provide ethical guidance (Ko et al., 2017). Therefore, two moderators have been found in the environmental situation category: organizational change (Sharif & Scandura, 2014) and magnitude of consequences (Bhal & Dadhich, 2011). In addition, follower characteristics are important moderators because individual differences affect the method by which followers respond or react to their ethical leader (Chuang & Chiu, 2018). Examples of follower characteristics that influence ethical leadership include mindfulness and moral emotion (Eisenbeiss & Van Knippenberg, 2015), moral attentiveness (Van Gils et al., 2015), entity morality beliefs (Zhu et al., 2015), conscientiousness and core self-evaluation (Taylor & Pattie, 2014), self-esteem (Avey et al., 2011), and intrinsic motivation (Tu & Lu, 2016). The leader–follower relationship moderator involves several variables that promote leadership effectiveness, such as identification (Liao et al., 2015), LMX (Neubert et al., 2013), and value congruence (Lee et al., 2015).

Further, moderators related to leader characteristics affect followers' perception of ethical leadership because followers usually observe and evaluate their leader and his or her actions (Ko et al., 2017). Examples of leader features that may affect (negatively or positively) the relationship between ethical leadership and followers' behavior include Machiavellianism (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012), ethical ideology (Demirtas, 2015), interactional justice perception (Neubert et al., 2009), leader's position (Wu et al., 2015) and leader's reputation for performance

(Neves & Story, 2015). Finally, moderators related to organizational characteristics are believed to interact with ethical leadership and affect follower performance and ethical behavior (Ko et al., 2017). These are related to organizational policy and climate, including internal audit function (Arel et al., 2012), firm size (Wu et al., 2015), perceptions of organizational politics (Li et al., 2017), and co-workers' ethical behavior (Mayer et al., 2013).

3.2.6 Ethical Leadership and Culture

Islam is a unifying force that facilitates a common culture in the MENA region (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002; Kabasakal & Dastmalchian, 2001). On the other hand, family and in-group relations are important aspects that define people's lives. Such valued relationships are reflected in leaders of the MENA region, who have been described as communicative, cooperative, and team builders who create group coherence and unity (Kabasakal, Dastmalchian, Karacay, & Bayraktar, 2012).

The leader prototype in the MENA region has two general attributes. These are charismatic and value-based attributes, where the leader sets direction and gives inspiration, builds team-oriented attributes and facilitates group solidarity, these leaders have also been described as powerful (Kbasakal et al., 2012), and resemble a father figure to their followers (paternalistic leader), as they care about followers' well-being and attend social gatherings (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2013). Thus, Kabasakal and his team (2012) stated that any leader in the MENA region can achieve outstanding results through altruism, providing recognition based on merit alone, and by being change oriented and visionary.

Several studies have investigated the cross-cultural differences in ethical leadership (Resick et al., 2011) and found that some leadership practices differ

considerably across cultures (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Dickson, Den Hartog, & Mitchelson, 2003; Gerstner & Day, 1994). A study by Resick et al. (2011) involving both Eastern and Western countries provided interesting insights, revealing that when it comes to ethical leadership there is a convergence of leaders' character between Eastern and Western societies. This ethical leadership construct closely aligns with the findings of Treviño et al. (2003), and Brown et al. (2005), where ethical leadership is the same across cultures. Moreover, the themes of ethical leadership outlined by Resick et al. (2011) are represented in a 10-item scale for measuring ethical leadership proposed by Brown et al. (2005), and are utilized in the current study.

3.3 Employee Voice Behavior

Voice behavior is the discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning (Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011). Scholars in the field of human resources management have explained that employee voice behavior aims to enrich employee work experience and organizational performance by creating opportunities for the employee to participate in the process of decision making in organizational and work-related affairs (Boxall & Purcell, 2011; Harley, 2014). Further, Aryee and his colleagues (2017) suggested that organizations need to support voice behavior if they want to preserve sustainable advancement and continuous progression.

Thus, voice behavior covers various aspects, such as policies and procedures, working conditions, work methods, and compensation. It can also operate through various channels, including individual or collective, formal or informal, and direct or

indirect (Wilkinson, Barry, & Morrison, 2020). It is believed that voice behavior is an important element for organizational sustainability and well-being (Lee et al., 2015). Furthermore, many scholars have claimed that it is beneficial for organizational performance, employee morale (Kaufman, 2015; Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012; Mowbray et al., 2015), and work groups (McClellan, Burris, & Detert, 2013; Morrison et al., 2011). In spite of these advantages of employee voice, some consider it to be challenging and risky because it involves stating ideas that might disturb interpersonal relations (Liang, Farh C, & Farh J, 2012) and contradict the current situation and organizational culture (Li & Sun, 2015).

In the same way, Liu Zhu and Yang (2010) surmised that voice behavior is associated with both costs and benefits, so should be used with caution and consideration of the target audience. Therefore, Morrison (2014) and Morrison et al. (2011) suggested that an employee should consider two points before engaging in voice behavior. First, how safe is it to speak out—in other words, the employee has to consider the possible consequences of voice behavior. Second, whether speaking out is the most effective method to obtain the desired outcomes.

The literature has addressed various aspects of voice behavior in organizations. Some researchers have been concerned with voice in general; some have focused on voice directed to superiors; and others have considered voice toward colleagues (Liu et al., 2010). Practitioners were first interested in finding a comprehensive definition for voice behavior, such that many definitions have been generated to explain its meaning. Hirschman (1970) made an early attempt, suggesting that voice includes any attempt to initiate amendments in the company.

Hence, voice includes any action or reaction that aims to make a change in the organization. Withey and Cooper (1989) defined voice as any activity that individuals direct toward improving the situation at work. Van Dyne and LePine (1998) incorporated the “challenge” aspect in their definition, and thus described voice behavior as behavior that presents a constructive challenge intended to improve a situation. For Liu et al. (2010), employee voice is a proactive form of OCBs, or extra-role behaviors, and comprises behavior that proactively challenges the current situation in order to enhance it through expression of ideas that leads to change and proposals based on the desire of the employees. Wilkinson and his team (2014) articulated a new definition of voice to incorporate the development of institutional mechanisms. They defined voice as the methods and means through which employees attempt to have a say and potentially affect organizational affairs related to issues that influence their work and the interests of owners and managers.

In this study, a recent and more comprehensive definition developed in the fields of organizational behavior, human resources management, and industrial relations by Kwon and Farndale (2020) is used as a reference. They defined voice as an employee behavior aimed at suggesting organizational improvement and/or raising complaints or dissatisfaction about work-related issues through either formal or informal voice channels.

Notably, voice takes many forms, such as encouraging alterations for performance improvement (Liu et al., 2010); communicating constructive suggestions; and expressing opinions, thoughts, and fears (Liu et al., 2010; Weiss, Kolbe, Grote, Spahn, & Grande, 2018). However, Hirschman (1970) considered it incorrect to say that voice is limited only to verbal behavior.

Voice behavior has been at the center of debate in some organizations. In fact, many scholars have considered it an extra-role behavior (Morrison, 2014; Morrison et al., 2011) that could benefit organizations (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Other organizational behavior practitioners have perceived it as an in-role behavior and part of an employee's job (Mowbray et al., 2015).

Voice behavior has three distinct features. First, it is challenge-oriented, because it aims to modify the existing state of affairs, which means that major changes might be involved (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Second, it is discretionary; thus, it will not be outlined in an employee's job description (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). Third, it is potentially risky because it could harm employee relationships with others (Adler & Kwon, 2002), and hurt the employee's public image, causing him or her might lose his or her credibility and respect (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003), as he or she may be labeled a troublemaker (Milliken et al., 2003; Morrison et al., 2011). Indeed, the likelihood of employee promotion or changing career could be at risk (Milliken et al., 2003) and managers might perceive an employee who criticizes them or their responsibilities as a poor performer (Burriss, 2012).

Liu et al. (2010) claimed that there are two forms of voice behavior: speaking up and speaking out. Speaking up indicates a voice that comes from employees at the lower level of the organizational hierarchy to challenge actions and opinions from higher levels of the hierarchy (Weiss et al., 2018). Further speaking up influence is an upward influence where an employee practices voice behavior while considering his/her supervisor's potential retaliation. Conversely, speaking out is when employee directs his talk toward a co-worker, hence, influence of speaking out is described as a

lateral influence where employee practices his/her voice behavior while considering colleagues resistant or rejection of new ideas. Each form is generated by different conditions or antecedents (Liu et al., 2010). Speaking out is generated by social identification (Elsetouhi et al., 2018)—in other words, when an employee defines him- or herself as a group member, he or her tends to speak to his or her peers (Liu et al., 2010). On the contrary, speaking up is caused by personal identification (Elsetouhi et al., 2018), such as when an employee obtains individualized attention, intellectual motivation, and idealized inspiration from his or her supervisor, and tries to follow that supervisor's principles and conduct, accordingly; an employee may select different strategies in speaking out and speaking up (Liu et al., 2010). For instance, in the case of speaking up, employee applies rational persuasion, while, in speaking out employee use exchange, legitimating and personal appeal (Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

According to Burris (2012), speaking up can be subdivided into challenging voice and supportive voice. Challenging voice is proactive and personal; it involves criticizing a supervisor or supervisors' duties, such that conflicts may arise. In contrast, supportive voice is reactive, and aims to stabilize the current situation and preserve existing organizational policies and procedures; thus, conflicts may not occur in this case (Burris, 2012).

Different voice channels might complement each other to mitigate risk and ineffectiveness (Marchington & Suter, 2013; Townsend, Wilkinson, & Burgess, 2013). Employee voice can be delivered through formal or informal mechanisms. According to Marchington and Suter (2013), formal mechanisms are codes, which are prearranged, regular structures through which ideas and concerns are expressed.

Examples of formal mechanisms include grievance processes, staff meetings, email, and one-to-one meetings.

Formal channels adopt standardized procedures and structured methods through which to share thoughts and ideas (Harlos, 2001; Marchington & Suter, 2013), and may involve protocols for recording and evaluating shared ideas, opinions, concerns, and suggestions (Budd & Colvin, 2008). Nevertheless, managers or employers attempt to preserve their authority to the furthest extent possible, and may have their own strategy in controlling employee voice (Barry & Wilkinson, 2016). In contrast, Klaas et al. (2012) explained that informal mechanisms have no structure or explicit processes for expressing ideas, suggestions, and complaints related to the workplace. Hence, organizational norms play a major role in directing employee voice behavior in this mode (Kwon & Farndale, 2020), as they serve as signals to guide employees about whether speaking up or out is safe or effective (Dundon, Wilkinson, Marchington, & Ackers, 2005; Kaufman, 2015; Klaas et al., 2012).

Informal voice channels arise whenever formal ones do not function or are not being effectively applied (Marchington & Suter, 2013; Townsend et al., 2013). Examples of informal mechanisms are casual conversations, messages, emails (Brinsifeld, Edwards, & Greenberg, 2009), informal discussion, word of mouth, and open-door policy (Mowbray et al., 2015). Kwon and Farndale (2020) pointed out that consequences of the informal voice channel are unpredictable, and employee voice may not be heard. Moreover, there is no guarantee that specific action will be taken. As a result, the employee will have to assess the risk involved before deciding whom to speak to.

Detert and Trevino (2010) clarified that employees prefer to use informal mechanisms over formal ones. Moreover, Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2002) affirmed that loyal employees favor informal mechanisms, whereas less loyal employees prefer formal methods. However, Kwon and Farndale (2020) proposed that formal voice mechanisms are the safest and most effective methods due to their clear channels and the fact that they safeguard employee rights.

Whether it is formal or informal, the voice system as a whole is usually designed by top management (Boxall & Purcell, 2011). However, Marchington and his team (1993) believed that implementing and preserving the voice system is the responsibility of supervisors and line managers. These parties thus act as the voice intermediary in the organizational hierarchy (Marchington & Suter, 2013; Townsend et al., 2013). Outcomes of voice behavior include positive influences on organizational functioning (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012), organizational performance (Argote & Ingram, 2000), creative performance (Song, Wu, & Gu, 2017), and decision quality (Nemeth, 1997); innovation and fostering of a learning environment (Burriss, 2012; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998); better internal processes (Morrison et al., 2011); and improved performance ratings (Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). However, McClean, Burriss and Detert (2013) explained that voice outcomes depend on the leader's response. If the leader is not willing to solve the reported problem or follow the suggested idea, the employee will consider his or her voice to be inadequate for the present role or organization, and might look for another job in which his or her input is more appreciated.

Employee voice behavior plays a vital role in the multinational hospitality and tourism industry (Stamper & Dyne, 2001) due to that fact that this industry

provides several opportunities to engage in voice behavior, propose effective improvement measures, and point out possible problems (Liao, 2007; Liao & Chuang, 2004; Stamper & Dyne, 2001).

3.4 Cultural Similarity

Cultural similarity refers to a leader and follower sharing similar cultural backgrounds (Xu & Jiang, 2010). The culture elements at play are language, common history, religion, cultural expressions, and values (Ma, Wang, & Hao, 2012).

An increasing number of businesses are choosing to expand globally (Xu & Jiang, 2010). In particular, the hospitality and tourism industry preserves their presence in the international market (Testa, 2007), employing workers of diverse cultures. Managing and communicating effectively with workforces of different cultures is an issue that generates substantial challenges for hospitality organizations (Testa, 2007; Weaver, Wilborn, Mccleary, & Lekagul, 2003; Xu & Jiang, 2010). Hence, examining the possible effects of cultural similarity in leader–follower relationships in the work environment is important. Testa (2007) explained that many theoretical frameworks suggest that if manager and subordinates do not share the same cultural background, this is likely to influence employees’ response to their leader at work.

Further, Testa explained that when managers and subordinates share the same culture, employees’ work-related attitudes and appraisal of their leaders will be affected (Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, & Lawler, 2000). This argument is supported by Byrne (1971) in his similarity-attraction paradigm, which states that similarity between leaders and their followers in cultural aspects results in mutual

attraction. He stated that when leaders and followers come from the same cultural background they probably have common values, beliefs, and life experiences. Testa (2007) also found several outcomes of cultural similarity, such as increased effectiveness of the communication process, strengthened bond between leader and follower, and enhanced mutual understanding. As the research context shows (section 2.1), expats represent more than 50% of Bahrain population (E-government, 2019b), and 79% of Bahrain workforce (Gulf labour Markets & Migration, 2019). Thus, cultural differences of workforce might be an issue and therefore cultural similarity is identified as a moderator in the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice in the current study.

3.5 Employee Performance

Scholars have claimed that job performance is a multi-faceted concept (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000), consisting of in-role performance and extra-role performance (Wong Humborstad, Nerstad, & Dysvik, 2014). It has been suggested that both in-role and extra-role performance may be determined by diverse antecedents; thus, they are theoretically and practically significant (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995). They are distinct, but their measures are positively related (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007).

In-role performance is also known as task performance (Werner, 2000). It pertains to accomplishing activities that are formally identified as part of the employee's job (Kluemper et al., 2013) in terms of proficiency (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). However, organizational rules and environmental conditions might constrain employee performance of in-role tasks (Chughtai, 2008; Diefendorff,

Brown, Kamin, & Lord, 2002). Borman and Motowidlo (1997) defined task performance as the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core—either directly, by implementing part of its technological process; or indirectly, by providing it with needed materials or services.

In addition, Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997) explained that task performance is directly related to the technical core of the organization, and categorized it into (1) converting resources into goods and services, and (2) servicing and preserving technical requirements. Although task performance is essential for an organization's survival, the relationship between ethical leadership and task performance has not yet been paid sufficient attention (Yang & Wei, 2017).

Scholars have pointed out that extra-role behavior, or OCB, is an essential and valuable element in organizations in case of management change (Chun, Shin, Choi, & Kim, 2013), and an important requirement for sustainability, organizational change (Stouten et al., 2013), and collaboration and cooperation among team members. Undoubtedly, extra-role behavior improves the customer's perceptions about the organization (Ocampo et al., 2018). Several researches have shown that OCB is negatively linked to actual employee turnover, and turnover intentions (Chen, 2005; Chen, Hui, & Segó, 1998; Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005).

Organ (1988), as cited in Ocampo et al. (2018) defined OCB as an individual behavior that is discretionary and is not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system; moreover, in OCB the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. However, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) proposed for contextual performance which shares many behavioral elements with OCB

(Motowidlo, 2000). Moreover, Morrison (1994) surmised that OCB is often expected by colleagues and supervisors, and hence is not always discretionary. As a result, Organ (1997) came up with a revised definition, describing OCB as performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place. According to Podsakoff and his colleagues (2009), the revised definition has three advantages: (1) it preserves the distinction between OCB and task performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002); (2) it overcomes the complication of viewing OCB as non-mandatory behavior with no formal rewards; and (3) it is more consistent with the contextual performance definition proposed by Borman and Motowidlo (1993).

Over the past decade, academics have used SLT and SET to explain the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB (Yang & Wei, 2018); however, no clear model has been found to explain this relationship or the mechanisms underlying it (Park et al., 2015; Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Viera-Armas, 2019). Bedi, Alpaslan, and Green (2016) noted that several studies have found that employees imitate pro-social behavior of their ethical leader (e.g., OCB). However, OCB is not easily identified at work because it exceeds the moral demand. For this reason, Organ (1988), as cited in Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) introduced five dimensions that he believed to be signs of OCB: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. According to Organ's conceptual model, altruism is related to any voluntary behavior aims to help colleagues; courtesy is related to preventing problems and decreasing the effects of the problem in the future; sportsmanship is related to an employee's willingness to endure imperfect situations without giving rise to problems or complaining; civic virtue is concerned with the employee taking an active interest in the organizational life; and conscientiousness is related to

employee's behavior indicating that he or she accepts and follows the organization's procedures, regulations, and rules. On the other hand, many researchers have argued that other OCB dimensions fall under the overall helping dimension (Bachrach, Bendoly, & Podsakoff, 2001; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) and are concerned with helping others and preventing work-related problems from arising (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997).

Different studies have considered various dimensions of OCB. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) identified 30 dimensions of OCB based on previous research. Ocampo et al. (2018) explained that the 30 dimensions can be categorized into seven themes: sportsmanship, helping behavior, organizational compliance, organizational loyalty, self-development, civic virtue, and individual initiative. Dewett and Denisi (2007) indicated that these dimensions have not yet been fully explored.

Scholars have noted that task performance is less volitional than OCB; thus, it has been suggested that directors could use OCB to assess how employees are motivated to impact organizational effectiveness (Shore L, Barksdale, & Shore T, 1995). OCB can also be utilized to evaluate employee job performance, since it could serve as a behavioral cue for employee commitment that contributes to organizational success. OCB is positively linked with organizational effectiveness measures; thus, it is essential to explore these behaviors in the hospitality and tourism industry.

3.6 Summary and Gaps in the Literature

The third chapter of this study provided a review of literature concerning the four constructs, namely ethical leadership, employee voice, cultural similarity, and

employee performance. Further, it articulated the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance with the mediating effect of employee voice.

Recent studies have concentrated on understanding the mechanism through which ethical leadership affects high-performance outcomes (Byun et al., 2018). However, Yang and Wei (2017) argued that the relation between ethical leadership and task performance requires more scholarly attention, while Park et al. (2015); Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara and Viera-Armas (2019) claimed that the mechanism underlying the relation between ethical leadership and OCB has yet to be fully studied. In addition, Testa (2007) reported that cultural similarity increases the effectiveness of the communication process and improves the leader–follower relationship. Accordingly, it has been assumed that cultural similarity impacts ethical leadership and employee voice. The identified gaps presented by various researchers are explored in the current study.

3.7 Theoretical Framework

This section presents the theoretical framework (Figure 1) and hypothesis development using the various concepts and theories utilized in this study. Koopman and his colleagues (2019), illustrated that researchers have applied Bandura's (1977) SLT in conjunction with Blau's (1964) SET in 14 studies to explain the impact of positive behavior on employee performance. Accordingly, this study draws on SLT and SET to demonstrate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance. The ethical leader acts as role model who provides support and encouragement (Walumbwa et al., 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), while the employee learns how to behave and feels obliged to repay the leader (reciprocate) through voice behavior. It is suggested that cultural similarity between an ethical

leader and employees strengthens the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice because of enhanced understanding and connection between the leader and the follower due to cultural similarity. Employee voice, in turn, eventually enhances employee performance. The suggested framework will be tested using a quantitative method.

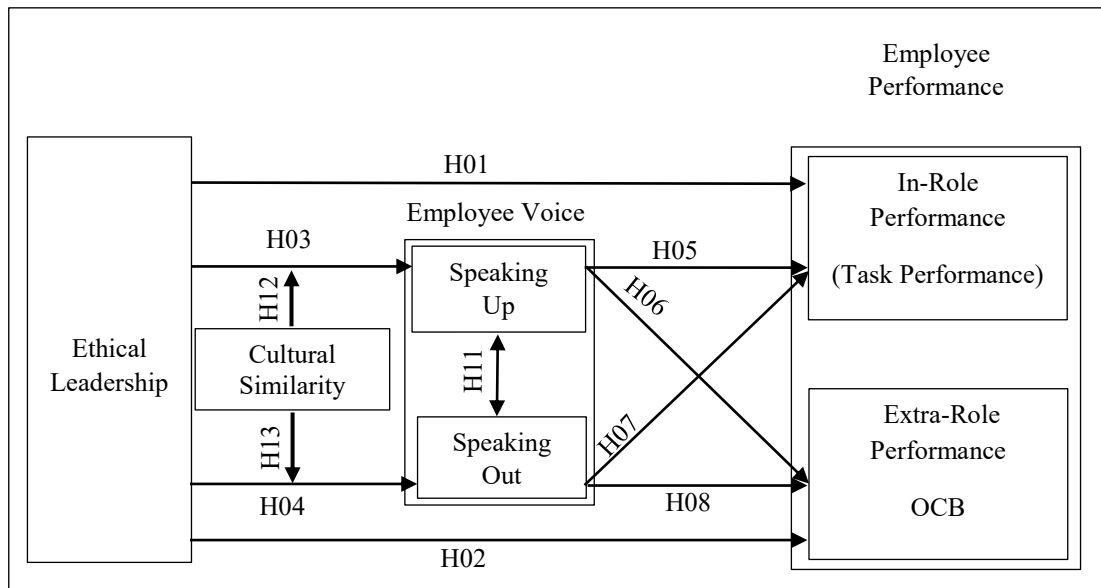


Figure 1: Research Conceptual Framework

3.7.1 Ethical Leadership and Employee Performance

SLT and SET are the theoretical bases used to understand the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance, and the mediating effect of employee voice. According to Brown et al. (2005), SLT indicates that ethical leaders act as instructors who teach employees how best to serve their organization. The leader does this through his or her own actions and reactions, reinforcing employees to follow his or her steps and improving their performance through a reward-and-punishment system. On the other hand, SET proposes that ethical leaders show integrity, fairness, and care, while employees, in turn, might feel obliged to return the

leader's favor by meeting his or her expectations (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown et al., 2005). Employees who experience a positive relation with their direct manager might reciprocate with better performance as a way to return this favor to their supervisor. The following two hypotheses are thus proposed to capture this relationship:

Hypothesis 01. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee in-role performance.

Hypothesis 02. Ethical Leadership has a significant positive effect on employee OCB.

3.7.2 Ethical Leadership and Employee Voice

Through role modeling, employees observe their leader's behavior and learn task requirements, appropriate behavior, and expected performance (Brown et al. 2005; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Accordingly, employees are encouraged to speak to their leader when they notice inappropriate behavior that contradicts what they have learned. For instance, previous studies have revealed that employees' willingness to report problems is important to ethical leaders (Walumbwa et al., 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009); this is similar to speaking up or voice behavior (Chen & Hou, 2016).

Voice behavior is shown when ethical leaders encourage employees to express their suggestions and thoughts for development and courageously report inappropriate or immoral behavior. In addition, since ethical leaders create a climate of trust and fairness, employees feel they can speak to their co-workers about anything because they share the same principles, which are taught by the same

person. Employees learn how to behave correctly by observing ethical leader behavior. When the ethical leader builds an authentic and unbiased environment, he or she encourages subordinates to voice their suggestions and speak out about their thoughts without concern, thereby resolving possible complications and developing new working techniques (Chen & Hou, 2016). Based on SET, the reciprocity rule suggests that for every positive action, there is a positive reaction, thus guiding employees toward acceptable behavior. Over the span of time, relationships develop into loyal, trusting, and mutual commitments (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and employees are encouraged to speak to their leader and colleagues.

Studies have been conducted on the relationship between employee voice and ethical leadership, with findings showing that ethical leadership has a positive influence on employee voice (Lee et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2015). Furthermore, ethical leaders motivate employees to speak about ethical issues. Research by Weiss et al. (2018) has also indicated that leaders' features and the use of inclusive language such as "we," "our," and "us" have a positive influence on voice behavior. However, Zhu et al. (2015) claimed that the effect of ethical leadership on voice behavior is not equal across each employee, since employees' own moral values are not the same. For instance, employees who believe that people's character is fixed, in terms of, for example, strong moral beliefs, may not be willing to speak up because they think change is not possible, and voicing is thus pointless. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are suggested:

Hypothesis 03. Ethical Leadership has a significant positive effect on employee speaking up.

Hypothesis 04. Ethical Leadership has a significant positive effect on employee speaking out.

3.7.3 Employee Voice and Employee Performance

In general, employee voice behavior is believed to produce various outcomes (Song et al., 2017); for instance, improving organizational performance (Argote & Ingram, 2000), producing positive performance ratings, helping executives succeed (Whiting et al., 2008), and boosting creative performance (Song et al., 2017). Additionally, employee voice enhances internal processes (Morrison et al., 2011), by allowing employees to report problems and mistakes to their leader and assist in resolving them (Liu et al., 2010; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Accordingly, the employee voice process might help to reduce confusion regarding task performance, hence improving in-role performance. When employee voice involves convincing leaders to change unproductive rules and procedures, and recommending new ones to enhance efficiency (Liu et al., 2010; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), employees feel a sense of recognition, and their organizational loyalty (a feature of OCB) increases. As a result, OCB (extra-role performance) increases. The following hypotheses are thus posited:

Hypothesis 05. An employee's speaking-up behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her in-role performance.

Hypothesis 06. An employee's speaking-up behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her OCB.

When co-workers share task-related knowledge and skills, their performance improves. Speaking with co-workers about job-related problems improves performance, especially if co-workers have the required knowledge and expertise to solve those problems (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). It is believed that some kinds of knowledge are difficult to transfer (such as tacit knowledge) through formal

mechanisms including job description, and that interactions between individuals are significant (Nonaka, 1994) in acquiring job resources and increasing task performance (Kim & Yun, 2015). Thus, giving suggestions to colleagues encourages individual initiatives (another feature of OCB) that lead to the improvement of extra-role behavior. Significantly, Sulistyono (2017) found that knowledge sharing through speaking with co-workers influences OCB (extra-role performance). In addition, Morrison and Phelps (1999) claimed that employees may speak out and execute an extra-role behavior toward their peers with the intention to associate, hence, improving extra-role performance. The following hypotheses are therefore proposed:

Hypothesis 07. An employee's speaking-out behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her in-role performance.

Hypothesis 08. An employee's speaking-out behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her OCB.

3.7.4 The Mediating Role of Employee Voice

This study considers employee voice as a mediator in the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance. The foundation of this hypothesis is hinged on the notion that ethical leadership is positively related to employee voice and, in turn, employee voice improves employee performance. According to Brown and Mitchell (2010), SET explains that people feel obliged to return beneficial work behavior and avoid being involved in destructive behavior whenever they face fair and good treatment by their ethical leader. Thus, the theory is used in this study to affirm that fair and ethical treatment of the direct manager can encourage employees to speak up to their supervisors and speak out to their

colleagues for the benefit of the organization, which will eventually result in boosting employee performance. The following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 09. The effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance is partially mediated by speaking up and speaking out.

Hypothesis 10. The effect of ethical leadership on OCB is partially mediated by speaking up and speaking out.

3.7.5 Correlation between Speaking Up and Speaking Out

Van Dyne and LePine (1998) explained that speaking out influences speaking up to leaders, specifically when leaders are honest and empower their employees to speak up and express their opinion; this improves employees' self-esteem and gives them the courage to speak out to their co-workers. In line with SLT, when employees observe their leader (supervisor or manager) talking freely with other managers or supervisors, they will try to follow their lead and do the same with colleagues. On the other hand, speaking with colleagues and discussing new ideas to confirm their usefulness encourages employees to speak up to their ethical leader because they feel supported by their colleagues and become confident that whenever they are faced with criticism or rejection from the leader, their colleagues will defend them. Interestingly, Nemeth (1986) pointed out that when an employee speaks up with an opinion that differs from the majority view, his or her colleagues will be triggered to think of an alternative solution and speak out. The following hypothesis is thus proposed:

Hypothesis 11. Speaking up and speaking out are positively correlated.

3.7.6 The Moderating Role of Cultural Similarity

The similarity-attraction paradigm depicts a leader–follower relationship. It recognizes any relation that involves people from a similar cultural background. In other words, it can be used to analyze employees' relationship with their co-workers (Byrne, 1971). Testa (2007) investigated the effect of cultural similarity on the leader–follower communication process, including voice behavior. The study explained that followers feel more confident to speak up to their leaders when these leaders have similar aspects of culture, such as ethics, values, and beliefs, to their follower. Ma and his team (2012) clarified that people consider those who share similar cultures as in-group and those from different cultures as out-group. Therefore, people who share the same cultural traditions and speak the same language will feel a sense of pertinence and trust, and hence feel able to practice voice behavior. The following hypotheses are thus proposed:

Hypothesis 12. Cultural similarity between leader and follower moderates the effect of ethical leadership on employee speaking up. The effect of ethical leadership on the employee speaking up is higher for followers who share similar cultural backgrounds with their leaders.

Hypothesis 13. Cultural similarity between leader and follower moderates the effect of ethical leadership on employee speaking out. The effect of ethical leadership on the employee speaking out is higher for followers who share similar cultural backgrounds with their leaders.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Data Collection

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research paradigm, methodology, and methods utilized in collecting, presenting, and analyzing the data. The chapter starts by stating the research objectives, questions, and hypotheses.

4.2 Research Objectives, Questions, and Hypotheses

Several studies have been conducted on the relationship between ethical leadership and performance (e.g. Bouckennooghe et al., 2014; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2015). Moreover, many studies have confirmed the positive correlation between ethical leadership and employee voice (e.g. Lee et al., 2015; Weiss et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2015), while researchers including Argote and Ingram (2000) and Tangirala and Ramanujam (2012) have found a positive relationship between employee voice and employee performance. However, the process through which ethical leadership affects employee performance is still under-researched, and the possible mediating mechanisms that underlie this relationship have yet to be fully explored (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Thus, considering the significant role of employee voice (Elsetouhi et al., 2018), and unique features of the study context (i.e. high percentage of expats), this study aims to contribute in filling the gap in the literature by exploring the mediating effect of employee voice on ethical leadership and employee performance, considering cultural similarity between the supervisor and subordinate as a moderator. The study is conducted in the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain. Specifically, the study attempts to:

- Evaluate the relationship between ethical leader behavior and employee performance.
- Assess whether employee voice behavior (i.e., speaking up and speaking out) mediates the relationship between ethical leader behavior and employee performance (i.e., in-role performance and extra-role performance).
- Examine whether cultural similarity moderates the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior (i.e., speaking up and speaking out).

Furthermore, this study seeks to answer the following RQs:

RQ1. Does ethical leadership of a direct manager influence employee performance?

RQ2. Does employee voice mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance?

RQ3. Does cultural similarity moderate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice?

The second question is divided into two sub-questions: RQ2a. Is there a relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior? and RQ2b. Is there a relationship between employee voice behavior and employee performance? RQ2a aims to address the first part of the mediation of employee voice behavior in the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance in the context of the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain. Hence, the question focuses on the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior. RQ2b addresses the latter part of the mediation of employee voice behavior in the relationship between the ethical leadership and employee performance in the context of the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain. It examines the relationship between employee voice behavior and employee performance.

To answer the first RQ, the following hypotheses are proposed to test the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance:

Hypothesis 01. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee in-role performance.

Hypothesis 02. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee OCB.

The second question has two sub-questions. To answer RQ2a, which deals with the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 03. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee speaking up.

Hypothesis 04. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee speaking out.

For the second sub-question of RQ2, which is concerned with the relationship between employee voice behavior and employee performance, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 05. An employee's speaking-up behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her in-role performance.

Hypothesis 06. An employee's speaking-up behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her OCB.

Hypothesis 07. An employee's speaking-out behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her in-role performance.

Hypothesis 08. An employee's speaking-out behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her OCB.

Combining Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8, and considering the first two hypotheses, which are concerned with the direct relation between ethical leadership and employee performance, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 09. The effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance is partially mediated by speaking up and speaking out.

Hypothesis 10. The effect of ethical leadership on organization citizenship behavior is partially mediated by speaking up and speaking out.

On the other hand, employee speaking up and speaking out are expected to be positively correlated.

Hypothesis 11. Speaking up and speaking out are positively correlated.

For the third RQ, the following hypotheses are proposed to test the moderating effect of cultural similarity in the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice:

Hypothesis 12. Cultural similarity between leader and follower moderates the effect of ethical leadership on employee speaking up. The effect of ethical leadership on the employee speaking up is higher for followers who share similar cultural backgrounds with their leaders.

Hypothesis 13. Cultural similarity between leader and follower moderates the effect of ethical leadership on employee speaking out. The effect of ethical leadership on the employee speaking out is higher for followers who share similar cultural backgrounds with their leaders.

4.3 Research Paradigm

There is no universally accepted definition of the term “research” (Collis & Hussey, 2013), yet Al Kaabi (2016) asserted that, in any field, research is utilized to

improve or increase current knowledge. Any research uses a research paradigm in order to present the research design. According to Cohen and Crabtree (2006), a research paradigm is a model that is based on people's belief system, or a world view on the existence and nature of knowledge.

This study uses positivism as its research paradigm. Positivism is derived from empiricism, where verified data are positive facts and information received through the senses (sensory experience) and deduced through rational mathematical treatments (Al Kaabi, 2016). In addition, Guba and Lincoln (1994) explained that with positivism, reality is independent and exists externally; hence, observation can be used to directly measure its properties. Moreover, they pointed out that reality is a social construction and its meaning and consequences can be assembled according to contextual features and circumstantial characteristics.

Positivism was introduced in 1970 by Comte (Evans-Pritchard, 1970); however, its use in sociology grew after the Second World War, with many scholars also applying it in psychology and economics research. Positivism has seven characteristics: phenomenalism, which suggests that scientific knowledge can only be gathered through experience; nominalism, which asserts that scientific explanation requires the use of abstract concepts derived from experience; atomism, suggesting that observation objects are independent events that represent the world's fundamental elements; general laws, where theories are considered to be universal in scope; value judgments and normative statements, which involve separating facts from values; verification, which deals with accepting or rejecting scientific statements; and finally causation, which asserts that causation does not exist, and there are only constant conjunctions, where one event is followed by another

(Blaikie, 2007). Halfpenny (1982) pointed out that there are 12 types of positivism, which Outhwaite (1987) reduced to three: Comte's positivism, logical positivism, and the standard view. Blaikie (2007) clarified that the first type identifies observation as the basis for generating laws. The second type implies that concepts are verified by experience only, and the third type assumes that any phenomenon is described as a special case of a law.

The positivist philosophy was selected for use in this study due to its characteristics of being unbiased and objective for theory testing (Blaikie, 2007). Thus, it is used to analyze the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance. Bunniss and Kelly (2010) explained that positivism aims to predict and describe patterns, look for essential laws and relations, and develop abstract laws. The epistemological approach associated with positivism is constructionism. Positivism applies quantitative approaches that involve employing data-collection tools, such as questionnaires, and using statistical methods for testing hypotheses.

Formulation of construct is part of the research process. As indicated by Ahire, Golhar, and Waller (1996), research constructs are latent variables, which indicates that they cannot be directly measured. However, they are operationalized through specific measures that are applied in the data collection process.

4.3.1 Quantitative Research

Allwood and his team (2012) asserted that quantitative research is about formulating a general law that is applicable to a population of people, events, or objects. Furthermore, Goodyear and his colleagues (2014) explained that quantitative research attempts to depict static situations and a world of variables. Yet, for Al Kaabi (2016) quantitative research involves theory and hypothesis testing by

applying clearly defined procedures where researchers state their predictions and then collect data to prove or reject them.

The quantitative approach has six features. It assumes that reality is independent, whether it is interpreted or not; it is laboratory based, and hence is not naturalistic or interpretative; it does not consider words as data; it does not study or deal with meaning contents; it is not emancipative; and finally it applies statistics and other quantification forms (Allwood et al., 2012). Many scholars have argued that some of these features can also be found in the qualitative approach; for instance, Schwandt (1997) stated that the qualitative approach may use statistics in some cases.

Scholars have declared that quantitative studies center on counting events or items and measuring variables; as a result, data gathered for quantitative research are usually transformed into numerical data before conducting any statistical analysis (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). Therefore, the first step in the process of data analysis is to present and define the data using descriptive statistics. Subsequently, the sample data will be tested to find valid conclusions about the population properties and generalize the study observations through inferential statistics. Results are assessed and integrated to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion on the accuracy of the preliminary hypotheses (Allwood et al., 2012).

Quantitative studies are usually structured (Bryman, 2003; 2016) and use probability sampling that depends on representative, large, and random samples (Hoepfl, 1997). Survey questionnaire is one of the most popular instruments used in conducting quantitative research. It is utilized with the intention of describing sample features such as values and attitudes, designate relationships among these features,

and finally define the relationships between these features and other variables (Allwood et al., 2012). This study uses the quantitative approach to gather data via a survey questionnaire, which is administered among the target respondents in the hospitality and tourism industry.

4.3.2 Validity and Reliability Issues

Researchers typically use different instruments in collecting data for their study. Findings and conclusions depend on the data gathered through these instruments; the data must be of good quality (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011)—for instance, valid and reliable. Burns (2003) explained that validity is significant in assessing the acceptability and quality of any study. Zohrabi (2013) enumerated various methods of measuring data and instrument validity, such as content validity, utility criterion, and internal and external validity.

Content validity pertains to how adequately and effectively skills, behaviors, and elements are measured. To verify this, experts in the research field review the data and research instruments and provide feedback. Overly complex terms must be rephrased and ambiguous questions restated. Additionally, questions that do not serve the purpose should be rejected. In summary, all questions should be validated by experts. Meanwhile, the utility criterion intends to assess whether the efforts made by the researcher generate the information required by decision-makers. Zohrabi (2013) clarified that internal validity deals with the extent to which research findings reflect the real world. Moreover, it is concerned with the degree to which the researcher observes and measures what is supposed to be measured.

There are six methods for assessing internal validity: member checks, where participants are provided with the study findings and interpretations for validation

and confirmation; triangulation, in which researchers collect data from different sources; long-term observation; peer examination, where the non-participants are asked to review and comment on research data and findings; participation, in which the researchers try to involve participants in all research phases; and finally, assessment of researcher's bias, since the researcher should remain clear and non-judgmental throughout the research process. On the other hand, external validity is concerned with the findings' applicability and generalization to a wider population (Nunan, 1992).

According to Nunan (1992), reliability is concerned with how dependable, consistent, and replicable the study results are. In quantitative research it is easy to obtain identical results because the data comprise numerical figures. Merriam (1998) said that the dependability of research results can be verified by applying three techniques: triangulation, which involves using various procedures for data collection, such as interviews, or using questionnaires from diverse sources; audit trail, wherein researchers elucidate how the data were gathered and analyzed, and how the results were achieved; and investigator's position, which involves the researcher describing the different phases and processes, and the design of the study (Zohrabi, 2013). To ensure the internal reliability of the inquiry, the researcher should have multiple researchers or participants, use low-inference descriptors, apply peer examination, and keep a record of data. According to Field (2013), the Cronbach's alpha (α) test is used to measure internal consistency reliability, with over 70% as an acceptable value.

External reliability, on the other hand, deals with research replication. In order to increase the external reliability of any study, the researcher should pay attention to social conditions, researcher status, approaches to data collection and

analysis, informant selection, and analytic premises and constructs (Nunan, 1992). Cohen (2013) pointed out that an unreliable test cannot be valid, but a reliable test could be invalid. Thus, both internal and external reliability are considered in the conduct of any study. Hence, in this study, the questionnaire will be subject to reliability and validity testing.

4.4 Procedures

The data-gathering procedure in this study included administration of a survey questionnaire among respondents in the hospitality and tourism industry. As illustrated in the study context section, high number of expatriates are living in Bahrain (E-government, 2019b) and since English is commonly spoken by most people in Bahrain as it is compulsory in Bahrain schools (EDB, 2018), the questionnaire was administered in English only.

A pilot survey was carried out among 15 respondents to ensure that the questions are clear, logical, and appropriate. The respondents were given approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. An information sheet was provided to explain the study's background and purpose. Moreover, respondents were assured that their participation was voluntary and their responses would remain confidential. The result of the pilot test formed the basis for revising the questionnaire, where some items were dropped; such as 'Job Category' and 'Age'. The revised questionnaire was then administered among respondents from four- and five-star hotels. The data collected were statistically treated, analyzed, and interpreted using various theories (SLT, SET, and the similarity-attraction paradigm) and related literature.

4.4.1 Sample Selection, Ethics, and Informed Consent

Validity is an important requirement for any scientific inquiry; however, to fulfill this, the study sample has to be large, representative, and based on probability sampling (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). “Population” has been defined by Maruyama and Ryan (2014) as the total cases that conform to a set of criteria. This means that any finding related to the sample is ideally true for the whole population, though this might not be applicable in all cases. As the same authors clarified, the sampling method influences the generalization of information gathered to the whole population.

This research uses the random sampling method. In this method, every element of the population has an independent and equal chance of being selected. Frontline employees working in four- and five-star hotels in Bahrain were asked to participate in the research study by completing a questionnaire. Frontline employees were chosen due to their frequent face-to-face interaction with customers (Lin, Wong, & Ho, 2013). In addition, these employees have the challenging job of dealing with customers’ complaints and inquiries. They frequently need to ask questions or discuss problems with their managers (speak up) or co-workers (speak out), and express ideas, views, and suggestions without fear (Karatepe & Baddar, 2006)—this aligns with the focal point of this study. The sample was chosen from within a predefined target group: those currently working in four- and five-star hotels. This provided a total of 87 hotels (i.e., 23 five star and 64 four star), and employees were invited to participate either by mail, phone, or face-to-face meeting. However, only 12 out of 87 hotel representatives responded (giving a response rate

of 13.8%). Appendix 1 exhibits a sample of the permission request letter that was delivered to the hotels.

In addition to the questionnaire, a consent form was provided to participants that explained full details about the study, particularly the reasons for collecting the information. The form clarified that participation was voluntary and personal details would remain confidential. Furthermore, participants were informed that all information gathered would be used for academic purposes only. These items are shown in Appendices 2 and 3.

The challenge for an outside researcher pertains to accessing the required location for the study due to the organization's cynical view of outsider role (Laurila, 1997) and an underestimation of the research's value for the organization (Coleman, 1996). Thus, McCalman, Boddy, and Buchanan (2013) created an access model that consists of four stages: getting in, getting on, getting out, and getting back. In line with this model, the first step in this study was to use an online directory to find contact information for the four- and five-star hotels in Bahrain. A formal phone call was then made as a preliminary notification to explain the research purpose and identify the most appropriate person (gatekeeper) who would understand the researcher's purpose. Next, an email was sent with a cover letter that outlined the research aim and objectives, and requested allowance for target respondents to participate in the survey. A copy of the questionnaire was attached. Assurance was given that a copy of the research results would be provided. Once the hotel agreed to participate, an appointment was made for delivery of the questionnaire. An explanation was also provided on how the questionnaire would be completed and collected.

This stage was crucial because it involved recruiting the employee–manager sample, where part of the questionnaire (i.e., that on ethical leadership and employee voice behavior) had to be filled out by the frontline employees and the other part (i.e., that on employee performance) by their direct manager. Each employee was given a questionnaire with cover letter that included a code number and an introductory statement to illustrate the research aim (Sudan & Bradburn, 1983). Participants were assured that the information gathered would not be disclosed, and that their anonymity and confidentiality would be retained. In addition, participants were given a contact person in case of any queries, and a thank you note was included at the end (Sudan & Bradburn, 1983). After “getting out,” an additional thank you note was sent, with the researcher promising to maintain a close connection with research site.

4.4.2 Survey Constructs

Maruyama and Ryan (2014) pointed out that there are two possible designs for any survey research: cross-sectional or panel. While the former involves collecting data at the same point in time, the second entails collecting data on a number of occasions over time. In this study a cross-sectional survey was used, where the questionnaire structure was broken down into five general sections with 52 items designed to collect information to answer the RQs and fit the study’s conceptual framework. In order to measure the research constructs, scales developed and used in previous studies were used in the questionnaire to quantify the responses.

The first part of the questionnaire investigated participants’ demographics, while the other parts included questions used to measure the other constructs using a

five-point Likert statements ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” The questionnaire was carefully designed to achieve the minimum level of bias.

4.4.3 Demographic Information

The first section of the questionnaire sought demographic information from the respondents, including their current job title, years of service in the current hotel, years served under their current manager, gender, years of work experience, and education level.

4.4.4 Ethical Leadership Construct

Brown et al. (2005) developed a ten-item scale to measure ethical leadership. The measure was created in line with systematic procedures for new measures of development. Researchers have applied this measurement in their studies and used various samples to verify the nomological and discriminant validity, content coverage, and predictive power of their findings. Accordingly, Brown et al.’s instrument has been found to have high reliability levels, with a Cronbach’s α value of 0.95 (Brown et al., 2005). Furthermore, it can be easily incorporated into any survey, and has thus far been used in 37 published studies (Koopman et al., 2019).

In the current survey research, participants were asked to rate the ethical leadership of their direct manager and indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the given descriptions. The scale includes items such as “makes fair and balanced decisions,” and “disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.” In this study, ethical leadership is conceptualized at the individual level because this research aims to relate ethical leadership to performance at employee level, rather than at the organizational level.

4.4.5 Cultural Similarity Construct

Literature on cultural similarity is limited. Furthermore, scales to measure cultural similarity are lacking or do not serve the current study's objectives. For instance, Testa (2007) used open-ended questions to measure this construct. Therefore, in this study cultural similarity was measured by simply asking the employee and his/her manager to indicate their national origin in the demographics section. A dummy variable was then created with the value of "1" for pairs with similar national origins and "0" for pairs with different national origins.

4.4.6 Employee Voice Construct

This study adopted the instrument developed by Liu et al. (2010) to measure employee voice. The measure is based on two instruments: a six-item voice scale by Van Dyne and LePine (1998) and Morrison and Phelps (1999) scale for taking charge. Liu and his team (2010) made some changes to the first scale to specify the target of behavior, and added three items from the second scale to the speaking-up section.

Employee voice consists of speaking up and speaking out. In measuring speaking up, Liu et al. (2010) focused on employee behaviors directed toward their supervisor; this is in line with the current study, where the emphasis is on employees' behavior toward their direct manager. However, Liu et al. (2010) replaced the term "supervisor" with "direct manager," and the term "others" with "colleagues" to measure speaking-out behavior. The Cronbach's α for the speaking-up scale was 0.94 and for the speaking-out scale was 0.91.

4.4.7 Employee Performance Construct

The performance measure used in this study was developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). It measures in-role performance and OCB, and comprises 21 items. Some of the items related to OCB were taken from previous studies (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Graham, 1986; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) and modified by Williams and Anderson (1991). Regarding items related to in-role behavior, three items were taken from O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and four were developed by Williams and Anderson (1991).

4.5 Data Collection

Data collection in this study posed a significant challenge. It lasted for two and a half months, from August 29 to November 15, 2019. Initially, McCalman and his colleagues (2013) access model was followed, where hotels were contacted first via phone and then via email with the cover letter and an attached questionnaire. However, some hotels rejected the preliminary phone call, some refused to participate, and others agreed to receive the email but then ignored it. From this round, four hotels agreed to participate.

As a result, documents that were originally intended to be emailed were delivered by hand to hotels that could not be reached or that rejected the preliminary phone call. In addition, impromptu meetings were conducted with a few general managers and HR managers to obtain approval for the conducting survey. In this way, one additional hotel agreed to participate.

Since the formal procedures were proving largely ineffective for data collection, personal connections were used along with snowball sampling method.

Accordingly, seven hotels agreed to participate, representing 85% of the total final sample. Table 3 outlines the hotels' responses and participation.

Table 3: Responses and Participation of Hotels Contacted for the Study

	Hotels					
	5-Star		4-Star		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Agreed to participate	7	8	5	6	12	14
Did not respond	7	8	52	60	59	68
Refused to participate	9	10	7	8	16	18
Total					87	100

4.6 Summary

This chapter presented the research methodology and methods used in the study. It began with an overview of the research objectives, questions, and hypotheses. It described positivism, which is the research paradigm used in the study, and explained how it was applied as an optimal solution for addressing the research problems. Further, the chapter discussed the basic concept of constructionism as the epistemology approach used in this study, and clarified how it is linked to quantitative research.

Data collection was premised on the theoretical foundation developed in the literature review chapter. The research process also included the use of a survey questionnaire targeting frontline employees working in four- and five-star hotels.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Results

5.1 Introduction

This study presents the results of data analysis for this research study. First, preliminary data analysis and screening is conducted to ensure data accuracy through checking for missing data, outliers, and statistical multivariate assumptions. This is followed by an analysis of the respondent profile and demographic information. Descriptive statistics of the main constructs studied are then derived via EFA and CFA. In addition, SEM is performed to test the proposed hypotheses. The chapter ends by outlining the hypothesis test results and the chapter conclusion.

This chapter is based on standard statistical procedures and processes. Therefore, data analysis was performed using SPSS v. 25 for descriptive statistics and EFA, and AMOS v. 22 for CFA and SEM. Moreover, the Hayes Process tool in SPSS was used for the moderation analysis, and R v. 3.5.2 was used to obtain fit measures for the proposed CFA and SEM models, as it provides robust maximum likelihood (ML) estimation and is thus suited for Likert-scale items, while AMOS only supports the ML approach.

In addition, the following references were used: *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS* (Field, 2009) and *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)* (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016)

5.2 Preliminary Data Analysis and Screening

Hair and his colleagues (2016) pointed out that several issues must be considered after collecting data through questionnaires, including missing data, outliers, and suspicious responses. The preliminary data analysis and screening aims

to detect these issues and ensure accuracy and correctness of data collected. In addition to checking for missing data and outliers, the data were checked for normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoskedasticity to prepare them for more advanced statistical analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

5.2.1 Assessment of Data Input Accuracy

The survey was conducted manually; therefore, once the questionnaires had been returned, each employee's questionnaire was attached to that of their manager using an assigned code number, and the data were then entered into an Excel spreadsheet. Subsequently, the output dataset was examined for entry errors and treated accordingly.

In addition, some items in the managers' questionnaire were negatively worded (i.e., DA6, DA7, DC3, DC4, and DC5) and were reverse coded prior to the analysis.

5.2.2 Assessment of Missing Data and Unengaged Responses

When a respondent fails to answer one or more questions, either intentionally or inadvertently, this leads to missing data. To deal with this problem, some have argued that observation (i.e. record) should be removed from the data file if the amount of missing data in a questionnaire exceeds 15%; others have insisted that there must be no missing data at all (Hair et al., 2016). Nevertheless, it is essential to clean missing data in order to preserve the quality of statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

A sample size of 211 was obtained from 7 five-star hotels and 5 four-star hotels for this research study. One a small sample of 30 surveys was collected from

the random sample of four- and five-star hotels in Bahrain; these comprised 14% of the total study sample. The remainder of the sample was collected based on personal connections and the snowball sample method (86% of the research sample), which yielded 181 responses.

During data collection, the surveys were checked on return for missing data. If the manager questionnaire was incomplete then the hotel was approached to complete the missing data, since the number of hotels who agreed to participate is 12 only, and the number of managers at each hotel was relatively small (two or three managers per hotel). However, incomplete employee questionnaires posed a problem; therefore, if missing data equated to less than 15% the missing values were replaced with the median prior to the analysis, but if they equated to more than 15% then these cases were removed.

There were a total of seven records with missing data. This represents 3% of the total collected data. Such data could not be used because the majority of dimensions were left blank. Since the removed data comprised less than the threshold of 10% they do not represent cause for concern (Hair et al., 2010).

In addition, responses were examined to identify unengaged participants (i.e., those who used the same response for all questions). The variance was calculated for each participant across all items. This approach is common in the literature, and ensures that these responses do not affect factor loadings and model fit as a result of the respondent selecting the same response for all questions (Weber, Groulx, Lemieux, Scott, & Dawson, 2019; Zameer, Wang, Yasmeen, Mofrad, & Waheed, 2018).

Accordingly, employees' and managers' surveys were checked separately. Variance of zero was used as a measure of engagement. Accordingly, responses from 20 employees were identified as unengaged (zero variance) and were excluded from the analysis. As a result, there were 182 cases remaining after data screening for unengaged participants.

5.2.3 Assessment of Normality

Hair and his team (2010) suggested that assessing data normality is necessary for the multivariate analysis. To do so, the skewness and kurtosis values of individual values must be examined. In this research study, the IBM SPSS statistical package was used to assess data normality and estimate skewness and kurtosis. The value for skewness is indicative of the symmetry of the distribution while the value for kurtosis is indicative of the peakedness of the distribution (Pallant, 2010). Based on previous literature, skewness and kurtosis values between -1 and +1 are considered excellent, while values that range between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable (George & Mallery, 2016).

Interestingly, normality has less effect as the sample size increases, and may not be considered an issue in case of a sample exceeding 50 respondents (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Skewness and kurtosis of the latent variables in this study were tested, and a fairly normal distribution was observed for our indicators of latent factors (Table 4). The values of skewness did not exceed 1 for 16 items, which is considered excellent, and did not exceed 2 for the remaining variables, which is considered acceptable. The values for kurtosis were also excellent (between -1 and 1) for 21 indicators, and did not exceed the -2–2 range for 13 items, which is acceptable.

On the other hand, kurtosis was greater than 2 in 11 items, which indicates violation of the assumption of univariate normality. However, the use of ML estimation yielded consistent and approximately normal estimates for the parameters even if the assumption of normality was violated. Several studies have shown that most data in social sciences have non-normal distribution. Moreover, the ML estimator is considered relatively robust to violations of normality assumptions (Barnes, Cote, Cudeck, & Malthouse, 2001; Bentler & Chou, 1987).

Table 4: SPSS Output of Skewness and Kurtosis

Item	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.	Skewness	Kurtosis
B1	1	5	4.46	0.799	-1.734	3.440
B2	1	5	4.35	0.891	-1.507	2.412
B3	1	5	4.04	1.121	-1.223	0.885
B4	1	5	4.31	0.917	-1.548	2.599
B5	1	5	4.31	0.928	-1.669	3.087
B6	1	5	4.52	0.812	-1.897	3.678
B7	1	5	4.39	0.798	-1.285	1.508
B8	1	5	4.48	0.836	-1.806	3.264
B9	1	5	4.30	0.864	-1.316	1.912
B10	1	5	4.30	0.937	-1.517	2.301
CA1	1	5	4.23	0.857	-1.032	0.963
CA2	1	5	4.24	0.856	-0.922	0.303
CA3	1	5	3.92	1.108	-1.017	0.450
CA4	1	5	4.22	0.904	-1.301	1.870
CA5	1	5	3.96	1.062	-0.943	0.360
CA6	1	5	3.89	1.110	-0.863	0.191
CA7	1	5	4.07	0.967	-0.884	0.134
CA8	1	5	3.47	1.246	-0.551	-0.522
CA9	1	5	4.06	0.993	-1.054	0.915
CB1	1	5	4.18	0.893	-1.089	1.178
CB2	1	5	4.08	1.064	-1.245	1.161
CB3	1	5	3.89	1.135	-1.047	0.535
CB4	1	5	4.08	1.001	-1.041	0.688
CB5	1	5	4.24	0.906	-1.148	0.927
CB6	1	5	4.41	0.825	-1.684	3.454
DA1	1	5	4.10	0.922	-1.324	2.205

Table 4: SPSS Output of Skewness and Kurtosis (Continued)

Item	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.	Skewness	Kurtosis
DA2	2	5	4.26	0.656	-0.432	-0.237
DA3	2	5	4.20	0.715	-0.567	-0.006
DA4	2	5	4.12	0.772	-0.544	-0.213
DA5	1	5	3.87	0.986	-0.924	0.794
DA6	1	5	3.21	1.458	-0.065	-1.400
DA7	1	5	3.62	1.413	-0.517	-1.107
DB1	1	5	4.24	0.850	-1.274	2.068
DB2	1	5	4.25	0.829	-1.243	2.161
DB3	1	5	4.09	0.921	-1.028	0.926
DB4	1	5	4.00	0.962	-1.050	1.157
DB5	1	5	3.90	1.102	-1.200	1.077
DB6	1	5	3.58	1.220	-0.775	-0.226
DB7	1	5	4.07	0.873	-1.043	1.587
DC1	1	5	4.17	0.899	-1.045	0.838
DC2	1	5	4.16	1.015	-1.391	1.791
DC3	1	5	2.62	1.338	0.587	-0.847
DC4	1	5	3.53	1.328	-0.397	-1.099
DC5	1	5	3.12	1.340	0.119	-1.206
DC6	1	5	3.66	1.054	-0.606	0.091

Note: Higher scores indicate a higher level of agreement.

5.2.4 Assessment of Multivariate Linearity and Homoskedasticity

Another significant assessment entails examining the multivariate linearity assumption, in which a regression analysis is used and scatter plots of standardized residuals are assessed against the standardized predicted values. The dataset is considered to meet the assumption of linearity when residuals are evenly distributed above and below the zero line (Hair et al., 2010). Figures 2 and 3 present evenly distributed and clustered points around the zero line, and show the absence of any non-linear pattern of residuals. This ensures that the overall multivariate linearity assumption is met.

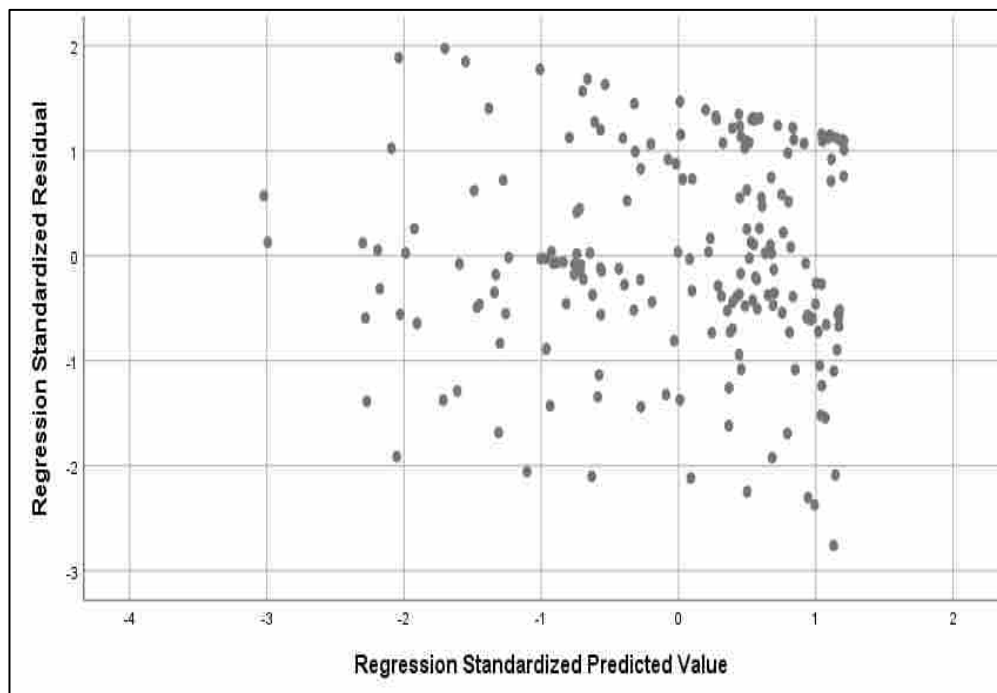


Figure 2: Plot of Standardized Residuals for In-Role Performance

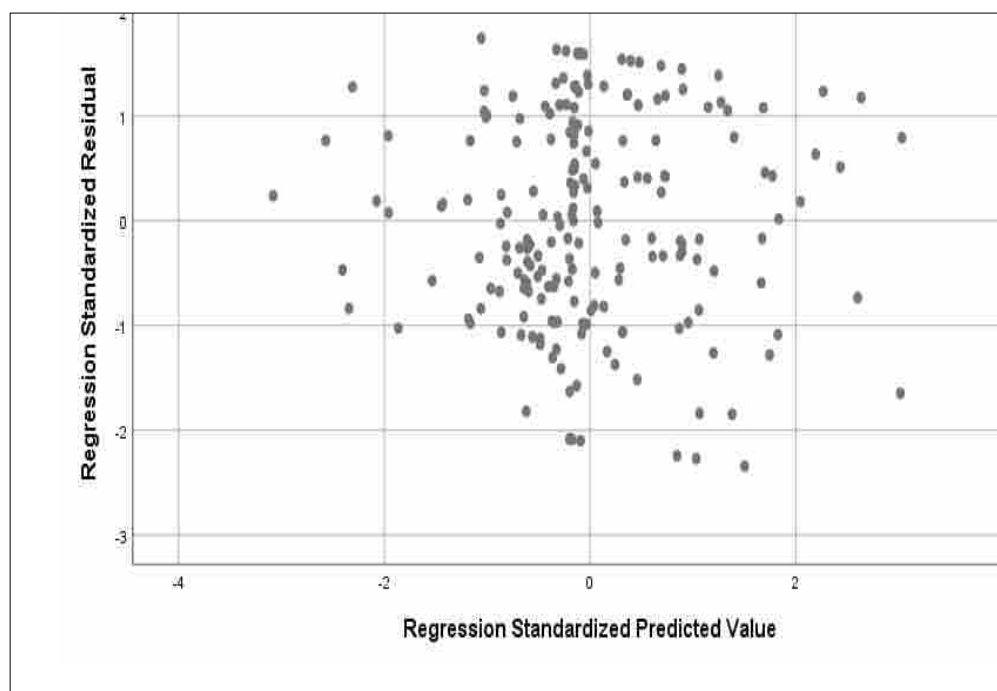


Figure 3: Plot of Standardized Residuals for OCB

The regression analysis used for assessing multivariate linearity can also be used for the homoskedasticity assessment. In this case, the dependent variable must show equal levels of variance across the range of the independent variable, so the assumption must have the same error between the dependent variable and the independent variable across all values. In other words, homoskedasticity is acceptable when there is an equal distribution of values above and below the zero line (Hair et al., 2010). Figures 2 and 3 show that points are distributed and clustered evenly around the zero line, and no specific pattern can be observed. Therefore, homoskedasticity is not an issue, and no further statistical analysis is required in this regard.

5.2.5 Assessment of Multivariate Independence and Normality of Residuals

To ensure regression accuracy and avoid distortion of its outcomes, an assessment of the residuals' independence and normality need to be conducted. The normal probability plot (P-P) is usually used for testing normality of residuals. Hair and his colleagues (2010) stated that a normal P-P plot with a diagonal line of value, and a residuals histogram with a normal curve, are both used to compare the probability of expected cumulative residuals against the probability of observed cumulative residuals.

The normal P-P plot coincided with the expected cumulative probability for normal distribution, which indicates that the standardized residuals are fairly normal. Accordingly, Figures 4 to 7 show that the standardized residuals for the two dependent variables were normally distributed, which fits the assumption of multivariate linearity.

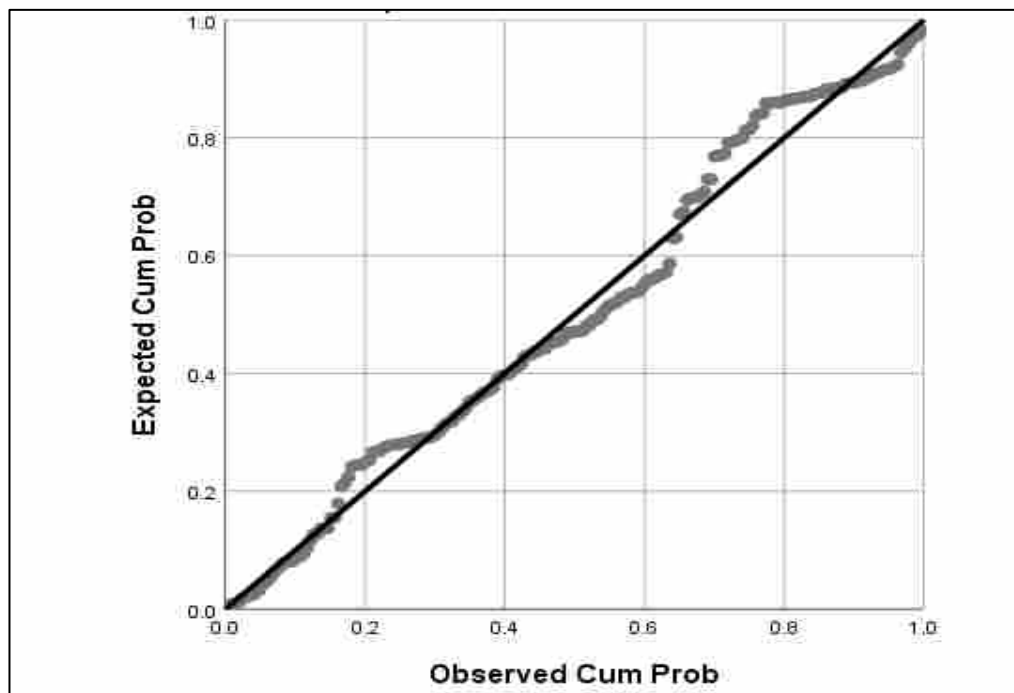


Figure 4: Normal P-P Plot of Standardized Residuals for IRP

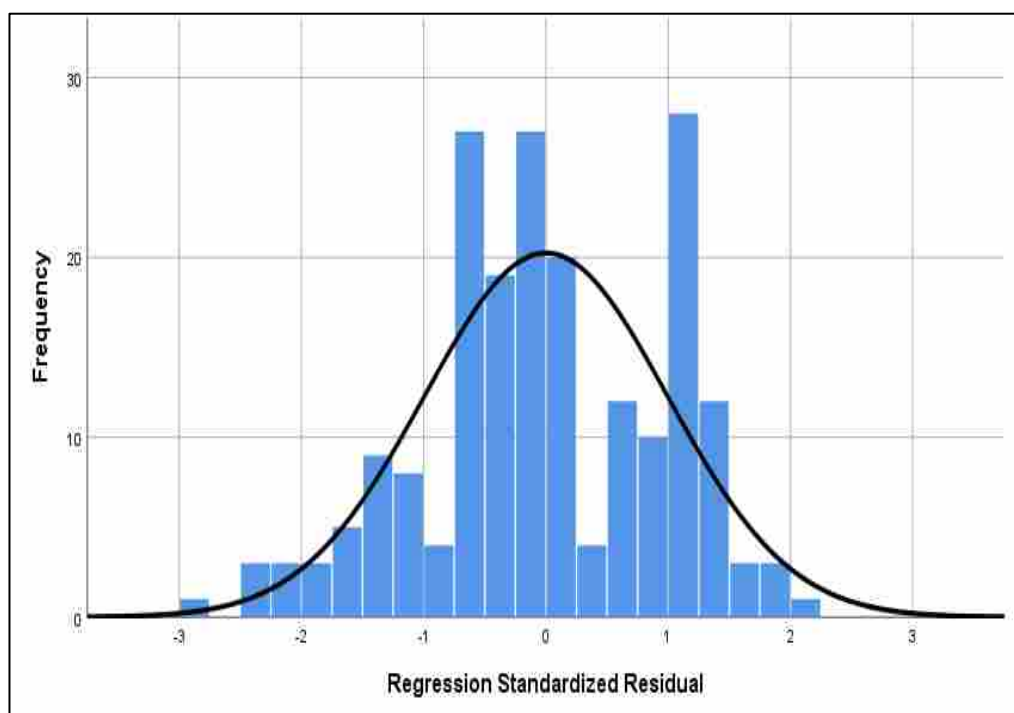


Figure 5: Histogram of Standardized Residuals for IRP

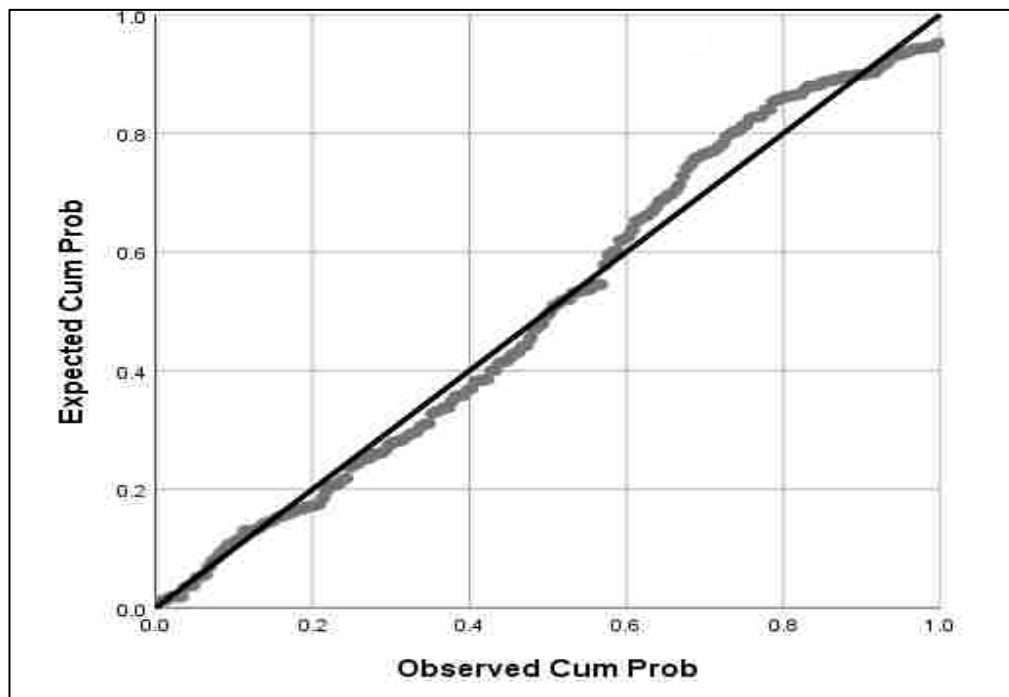


Figure 6: Normal P-P Plot of Standardized for OCB

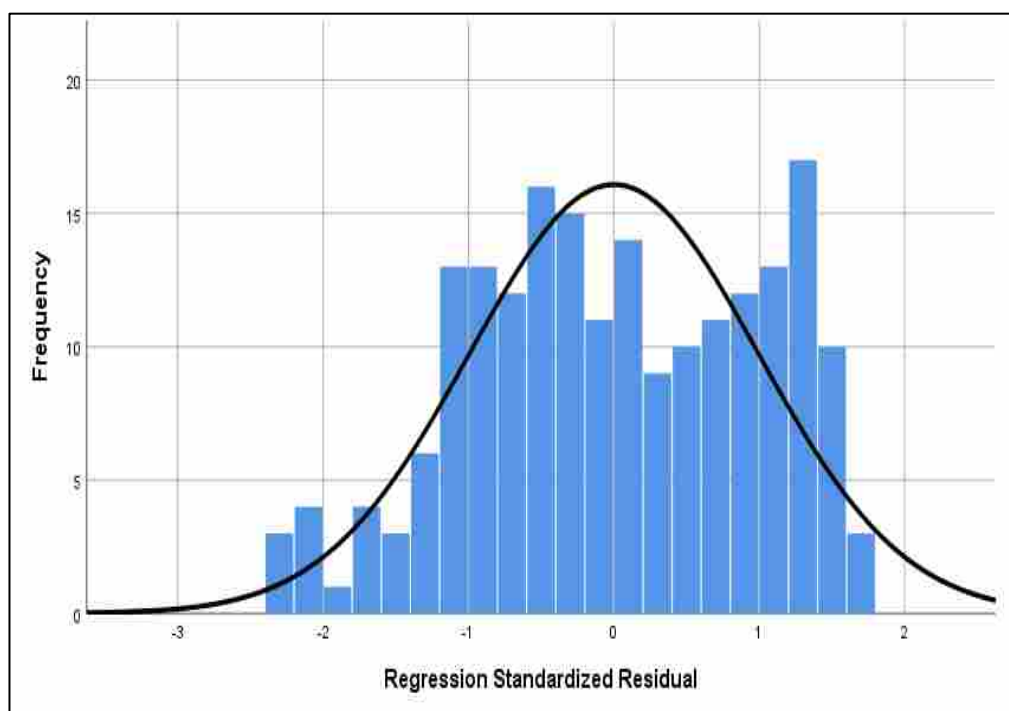


Figure 7: Histogram of Standardized Residuals for OCB

5.2.6 Assessment of Multivariate Outliers and Influential Points

An outlier is an extreme response to all survey questions, or to one specific question (Hair et al., 2016). Outliers have been defined by Hair and his partners (2010) as observations with distinctive combinations of features that are particularly different from other observations, which means that they can influence results of statistical analysis and must be identified. The critical Mahalanobis distance is a statistical measure (chi-square value) of the extent to which cases are multivariate outliers.

Figure 8 shows Mahalanobis Distance measure where each observation is evaluated across set of constructs in multidimensional space from the mean center of all observations. Each observation is given a single value and higher value of Mahalanobis's distance of a specific observation shows a multivariate outlier. It is calculated based on a chi-square distribution assessed using $p < 0.001$. The chi-square distribution is based on the degrees of freedom (df), which is equal to the number of variables (survey questions). Thus, the values were 52.3 and 45.3, respectively. These were calculated based on 25 questions in the employees' survey and 20 questions in the managers' survey. As a result, nine outliers were identified and removed. Therefore, final data included 175 responses.

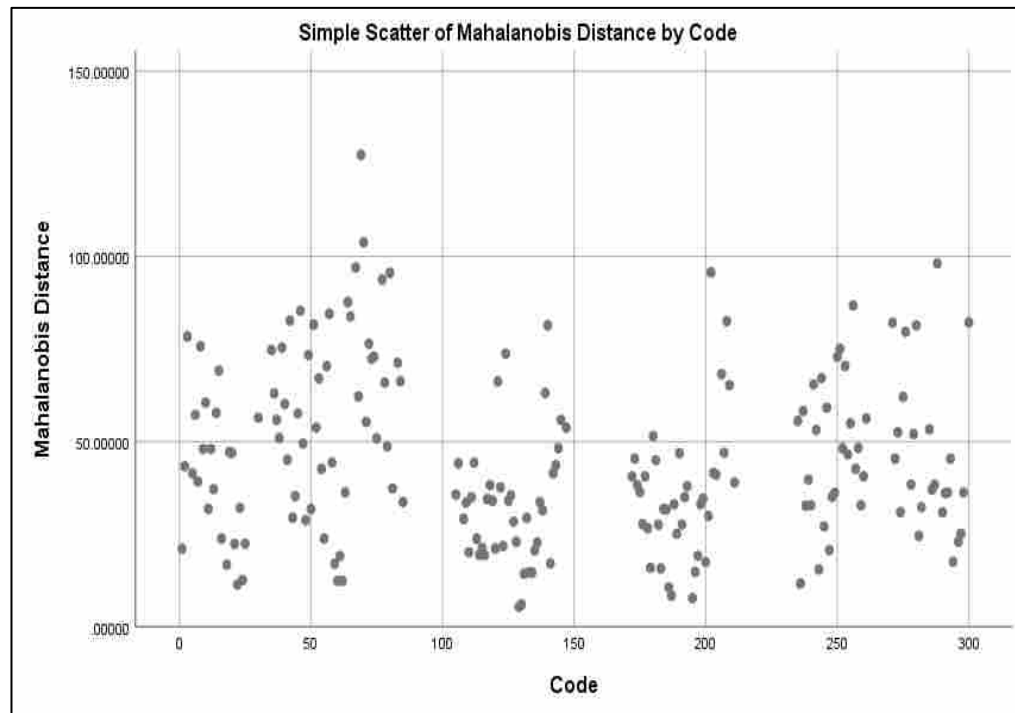


Figure 8: Mahalanobis Distance Plot

5.2.7 Assessment of Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a statistical situation in which multiple independent variables that are supposed to predict the dependent variable are correlated. As a result, multicollinearity assessment is essential for predicting the dependent variable, estimating the regression coefficient, and ensuring reliability of the regression model. There are two measures for multicollinearity assessment: variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance level. VIF is the amount of variability of the selected independent variable that is explained by the other independent variables, while tolerance level is the inverse of VIF. Therefore, an independent variable passes the multicollinearity assessment if the VIF value does not exceed 10 and its tolerance level is more than 0.10 (Hair et al., 2010).

In this study, multicollinearity was assessed using VIF. A VIF > 10 was used as a cut-off point for multicollinearity, as this indicates high correlation and is cause for concern (Mason, Gunst, & Hess, 2003). As shown in Table 5, the VIF was below 10 for the independent variables, which indicates that multicollinearity is not an issue in this study.

Table 5: Multicollinearity Assessment

Variable	VIF
Employee voice	6.225
Ethical leadership	1.805

5.2.8 Common Method Bias

Podsakoff and his team (2003) explained that common method bias (CMB) is incorrect variance that results from the measurement method, rather than the measures themselves, with systematic error variance shared among variables and resulting in deflated or inflated inter-correlations. In this case, CMB was assessed using Harman's single-factor test. This test checks whether one single factor justifies the majority (more than 50%) of the variance. In other words, if the result of this test is below the threshold of 50% then CMB is not a concern and the statistical analysis can be proceed. SPSS factor analysis was used to assess this, and Harman's single-factor method indicated that CMB did not affect the results: the single factor extracted only 30% of the total variance in items used in EFA (Table 6).

Table 6: Assessment of Common Method Bias (Total Variance Explained)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.137	30.343	30.343	12.137	30.343	30.343
2	4.002	10.005	40.348			
3	3.501	8.753	49.101			
4	2.737	6.842	55.944			
5	1.479	3.696	59.640			
6	1.287	3.216	62.856			
7	1.148	2.869	65.725			
8	0.983	2.457	68.182			
9	0.919	2.297	70.479			
10	0.780	1.949	72.429			
11	0.743	1.859	74.287			
12	0.734	1.834	76.122			
13	0.668	1.671	77.793			
14	0.621	1.554	79.346			
15	0.571	1.427	80.773			
16	0.532	1.331	82.104			
17	0.508	1.270	83.374			
18	0.477	1.194	84.567			
19	0.468	1.171	85.738			
20	0.442	1.105	86.843			
21	0.426	1.066	87.909			
22	0.395	0.987	88.895			
23	0.393	0.983	89.878			
24	0.374	0.934	90.812			
25	0.347	0.868	91.680			
26	0.337	0.842	92.522			
27	0.313	0.783	93.305			
28	0.286	0.714	94.019			
29	0.268	0.670	94.689			
30	0.260	0.650	95.339			
31	0.248	0.620	95.959			
32	0.230	0.574	96.533			
33	0.218	0.546	97.079			
34	0.204	0.510	97.589			
35	0.188	0.469	98.058			
36	0.175	0.438	98.496			

Table 6: Assessment of Common Method Bias (Total Variance Explained)
(Continued)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
37	0.167	0.417	98.913			
38	0.164	0.410	99.323			
39	0.146	0.366	99.689			
40	0.125	0.311	100.000			

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

5.3 Sample Demographics and Respondents' Profile

This section outlines the respondents' profile in terms of sample demographic and features. The demographic features considered included their current job title, gender years, education level, national origin, length of service in the current hotel, length of tenure under their current manager/supervisor, and total years of work experience.

After data screening, the sample comprised a total of 175 respondents of four- and five-star hotels in Bahrain. The distribution of the sample respondents is presented in the following subsections.

5.3.1 Respondents' Distribution According to Job Title

The job title distribution of respondents is shown in Table 7. Respondents had 77 different job titles overall; however, most respondents were waiters (22; 12.6%), followed by receptionists (20; 11.4%), housekeeping attendants (16; 9.1%), or telephone operators (12; 6.9%).

Table 7: Respondent's Job Title

Section	#	Job Title	Frequency	Total	%	Total %
Housekeeping (HK)	1	HK Attendant	16	32	9.1	18.3
	2	HK Supervisor	5		2.9	
	3	Room Attendant	1		0.6	
	4	Floor HK Supervisor	2		1.1	
	5	Butler	1		0.6	
	6	HK Senior Supervisor	1		0.6	
	7	Assistant Room Service Manager	1		0.6	
	8	Washman	1		0.6	
	9	Assistant Chief Butler	1		0.6	
	10	Assistant HK Manager	1		0.6	
	11	HK Order Taker	1		0.6	
	12	HK Shift Leader	1		0.6	
Revenue	13	Cashier	2	9	1.1	5.1
	14	Sales Executive	1		0.6	
	15	Sales Coordinator	1		0.6	
	16	Room Revenue Officer	1		0.6	
	17	Secretary to Chief Executive	1		0.6	
	18	Marketing Executive	2		1.1	
	19	Purchase Supervisor	1		0.6	
Guest Service (GS)	25	GS Officer	3		1.7	
	26	Front Office Manager	1		0.6	
	27	Guest Relations Manager	1		0.6	
	28	Front Office Supervisor	2		1.1	
	29	Concierge	1		0.6	
	30	Night in Charge Officer	1		0.6	
	31	Guest Relations Officer	1		0.6	
	32	GS Supervisor	3		1.7	
	33	“SPA” Attendant	1		0.6	
	34	“SPA” Therapist	1		0.6	
	35	Assistant “SPA” Manager	1		0.6	
	36	Bellhop	1		0.6	
	37	Security	1		0.6	
38	Senior Duty Engineer	1	0.6			

Table 7: Respondents' Job Titles (Continued)

Section	#	Job Title	Frequency	Total	%	Total %
Guest Service (GS)	39	Guest Service Associate	1	82	0.6	46.9
	40	Driver Supervisor	1		0.6	
	41	Service Manager	2		1.1	
	42	Personal Assistant to Chief Engineer	1		0.6	
	43	Maintenance Engineer	1		0.6	
	44	Shift Leader	1		0.6	
	45	Meetings and Events Manager	1		0.6	
	46	Meetings Planner	1		0.6	
	47	Events Planner	1		0.6	
	48	Acting Bouquet Coordinator	1		0.6	
	49	Assistant Operations Manager	1		0.6	
	50	Pressman	1		0.6	
	51	Learning and Development Officer	1		0.6	
	52	Security Officer	1		0.6	
	53	Frontline Associate	1		0.6	
54	Safety and Security Manager	1	0.6			
Reservation	55	Reservation Agent	2	5	1.1	2.9
	56	Room Reservation	1		0.6	
	57	Assistant Night Manager	1		0.6	
	58	Reservation Supervisor	1		0.6	
Food and Beverages (F&B)	59	Waiter	22		12.6	
	60	Captain	3		1.7	
	61	Jr. Sous Chef	1		0.6	
	62	Bartender	2		1.1	
	63	F&B Associate	1		0.6	
	64	Sous Chef	1		0.6	
	65	Restaurant Manager	2		1.1	
	66	F&B Admin Officer	1		0.6	
	67	F&B Administrator	1		0.6	
	68	F&B Manger	1		0.6	
	69	F&B Secretary	1		0.6	
	70	Order Taker	1		0.6	
	71	Host	3		1.7	
	72	Bar Supervisor	2		1.1	
73	Restaurant Supervisor	1	0.6			

Table 7: Respondents' Job Titles (Continued)

Section	#	Job Title	Frequency	Total	%	Total %
Food and Beverages (F&B)	74	Outlets Manager	1	47	0.6	26.9
	75	Supervisor—Outlets	1		0.6	
	76	Demi Chef	1		0.6	
	77	Team Leader	1		0.6	
				175		100.0

To display the above in chart form, respondents' job titles were categorized according to sections they work for, for the sake of clarity and conciseness (Figure 9). The majority of respondents (82; 46.9%) operated in the guest services section (GS), 47 (26.9%) operated in the food and beverages section (F&B), 32 (18.3%) in the housekeeping section, 9 (5.1%) in the revenue section, and 5 (2.9%) in the reservation section.

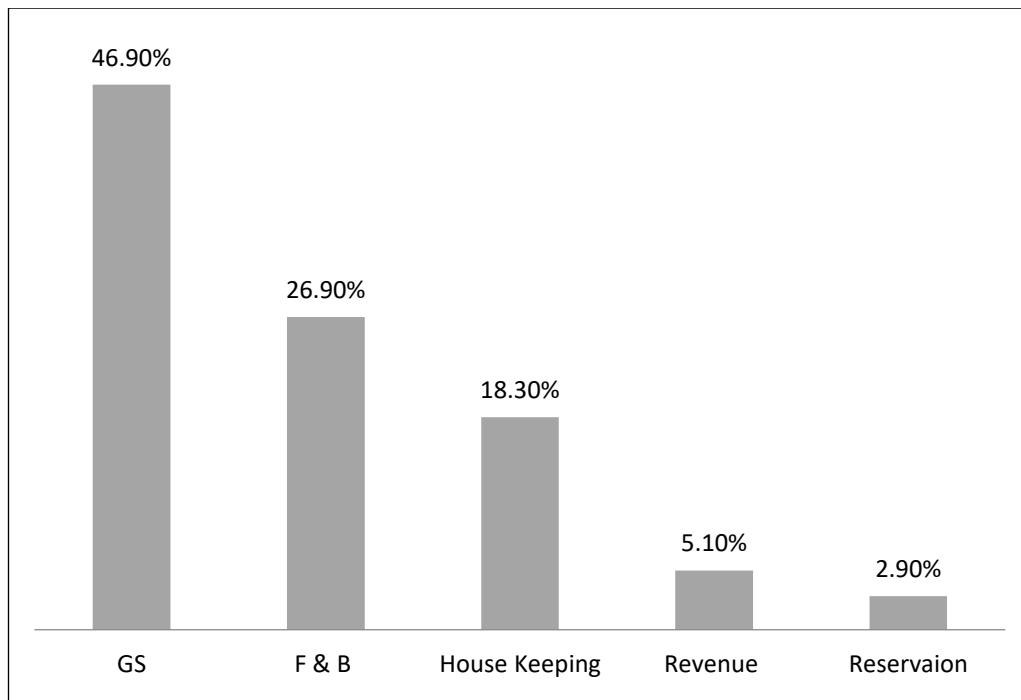


Figure 9: Respondent's Distribution based on Section

5.3.2 Respondents' Distribution According to Gender

The respondents' gender distribution is shown in Table 8 and Figure 10. The majority of respondents were male (109, 62.3%).

Table 8: Gender of Respondents

	Frequency	%
Female	66	33.7
Male	109	62.3
Total	175	100

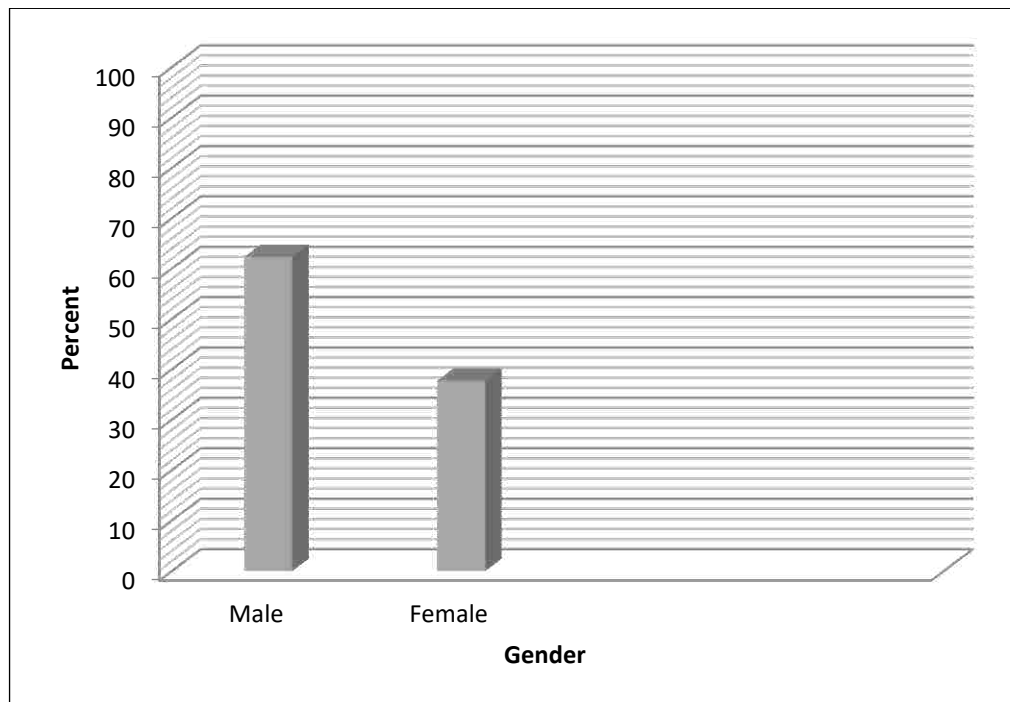


Figure 10: Gender of Respondents

5.3.3 Respondents' Distribution According to Education Level

The education level of respondents is shown in Table 9 and Figure 11. The majority of respondents had a college or university degree (113, 64.6%), followed by a high school certificate or its equivalent (36, 20.6%), some post high school education (20, 11.4%), and less than a high school certificate (6, 3.43%).

Table 9: Education Level of Respondents

	Frequency	%
Less than high school	6	3.43
High school certificate or equivalent	36	20.6
Some post high school education	20	11.4
College/university degree	113	64.6
Total	175	100

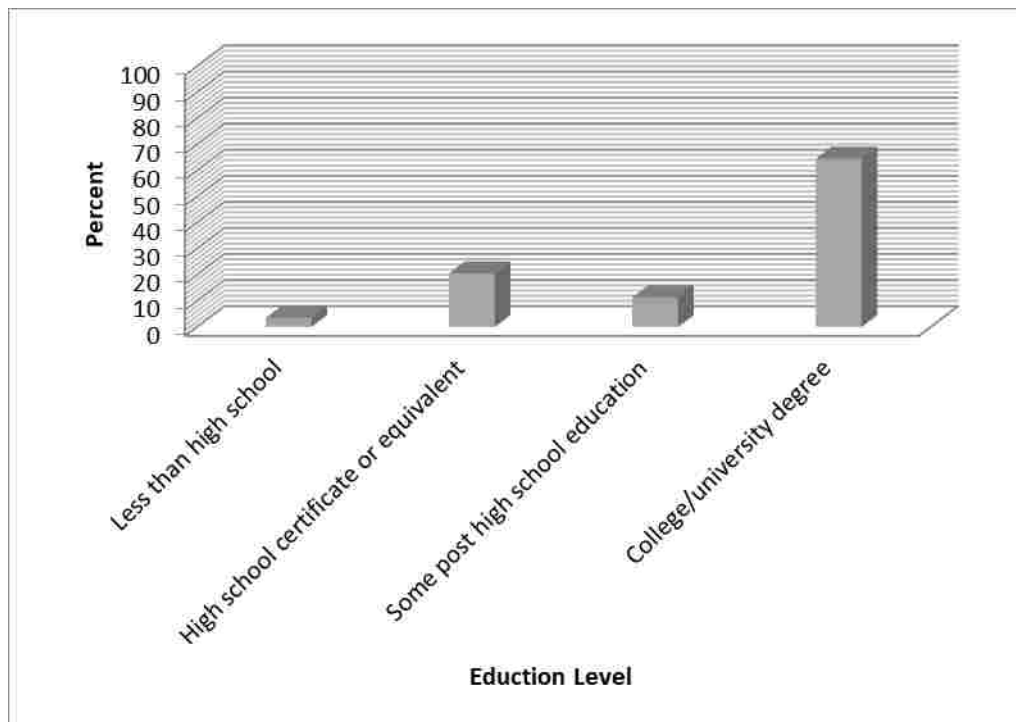


Figure 11: Education Level of Respondents

5.3.4 Respondents' Distribution According to National Origin

The national origin of respondents is shown in Table 10 and Figure 12. The top three national origins of the survey respondents were India (72, 41.14%), Philippines (43, 24.57%), and Bahrain (29, 16.57%); 31 (17.7%) were from other countries.

Table 10: National Origin of Respondents

	Frequency	%
India	72	41.1
Philippines	43	24.6
Bahrain	29	16.6
Other national origin	31	17.7
Total	175	100

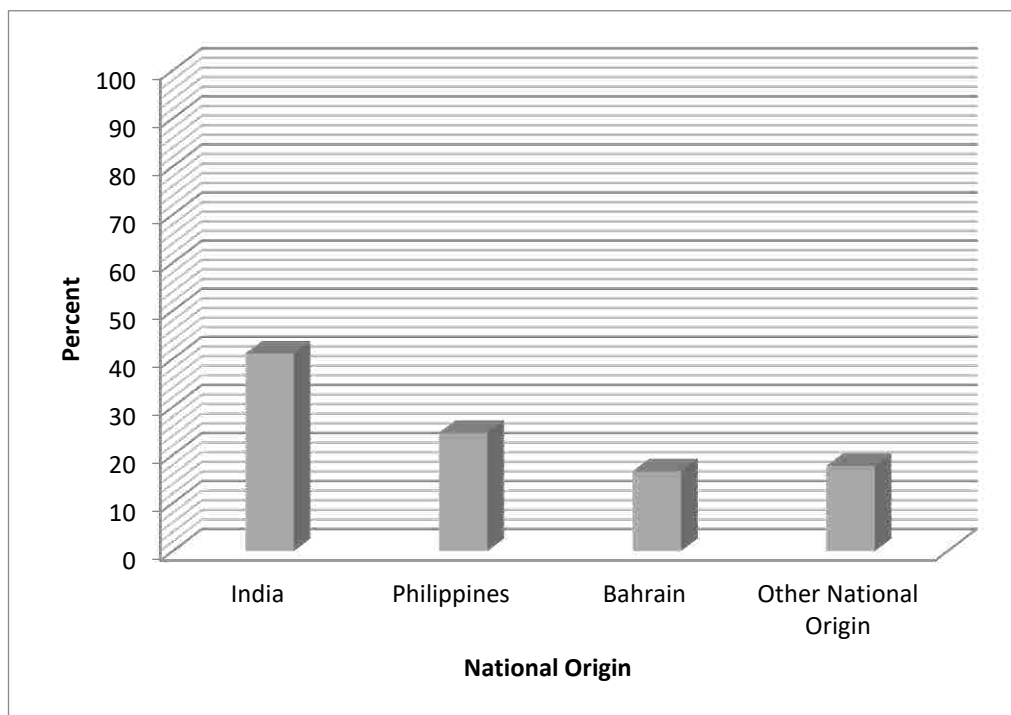


Figure 12: National Origin of Respondents

5.3.5 Respondents' Distribution According to Tenure with Current Manager/Supervisor

The respondents' tenure under their current manager/supervisor is shown in Table 11 and Figure 13. The majority of respondents (62, 35.4%) had been working with their current manager or supervisor for one to two years, while 14 (8%) had been working with their current manager or supervisor for more than 6 years, 46

(26.3%) for less than one year, 32 (18.3%) for 3 to 4 years, and 21 (12%) for 5 to 6 years.

Table 11: Respondent's Tenure with Current Manager/Supervisor

	Frequency	%
<1 year	46	26.3
1–2 years	62	35.4
3–4 years	32	18.3
5–6 years	21	12
>6 years	14	8
Total	175	100

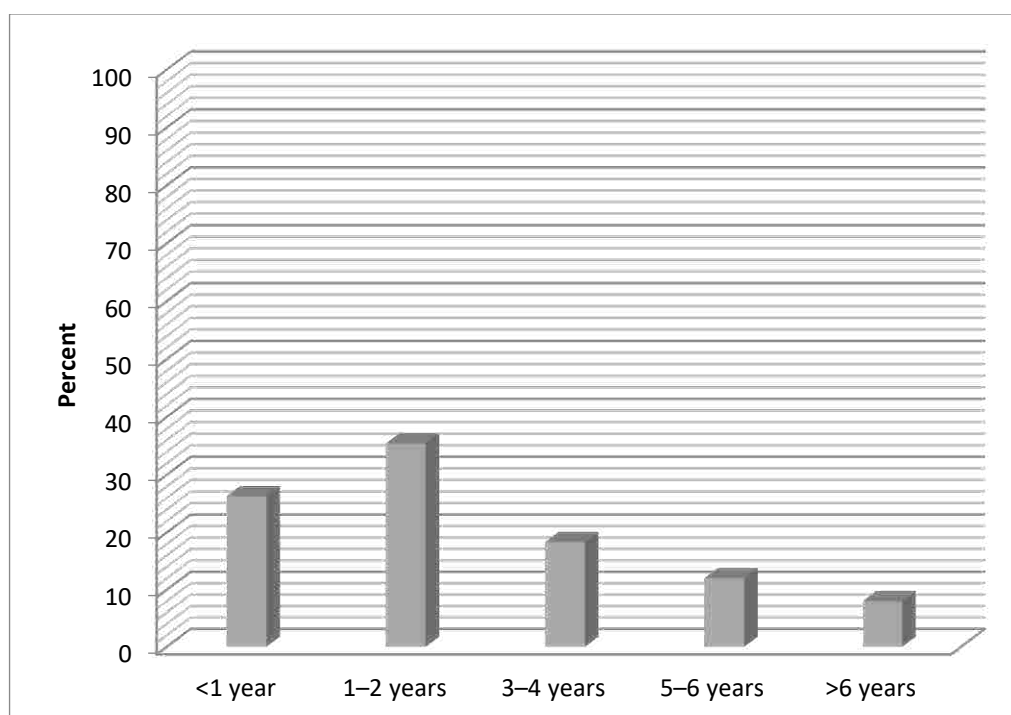


Figure 13: Respondent's Tenure with Current Manager/Supervisor

5.3.6 Respondents' Distribution According to Tenure at Current Hotel

The respondents' tenure at their current hotel is shown in Table 12 and Figure 14. The majority of respondents (122, 69.7%) had been working at their current hotel for fewer than 5 years, while 2 (1.14%) had been working at their current hotel for

more than 20 years, 3 (1.71%) for 15 to 20 years, 37 (21.1%) for 5 to 9 years, and 11 (6.29%) for 10 to 14 years.

Table 12: Respondent's Tenure at Current Hotel

	Frequency	%
<5 years	122	69.7
5–9 years	37	21.1
10–14 years	11	6.29
15–20 years	3	1.71
>20 years	2	1.14
Total	175	100

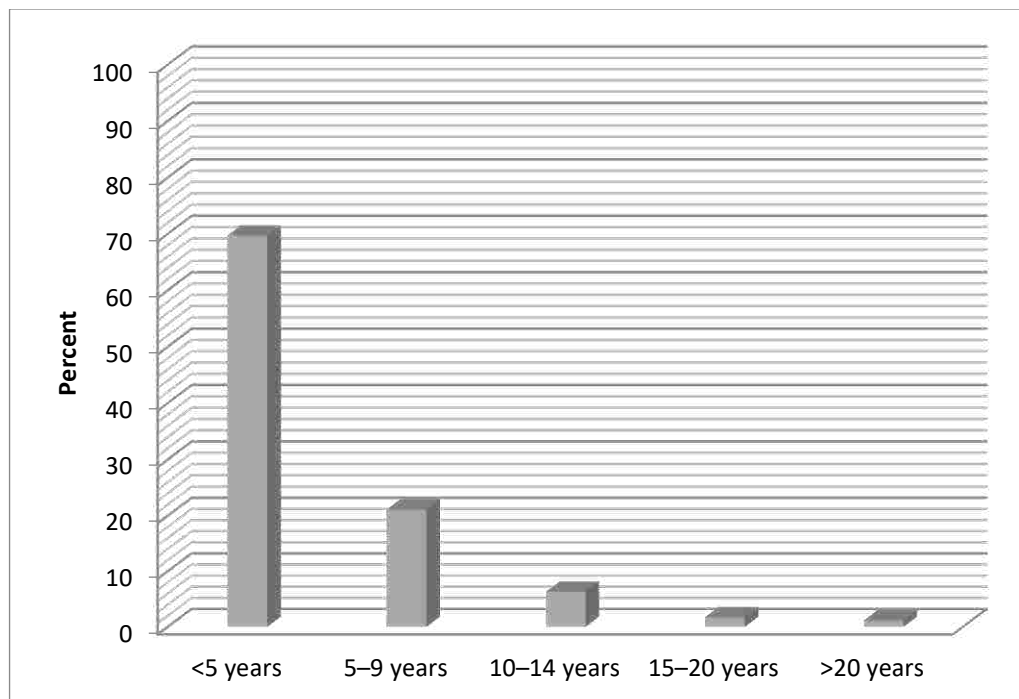


Figure 14: Respondent's Tenure at Current Hotel

5.3.7 Respondents' Distribution According to Total Years of Work Experience

The distribution of respondents' total years of work experience is shown in Table 13 and Figure 15. Most respondents (67, 38.3%) reported that their total work experience was fewer than 5 years; 5 (2.86%) respondents had more than 20 years'

work experience, 61 (34.9%) had 5 to 9 years, 28 (16%) had 10 to 14 years, and 14 (8%) had 15 to 20 years.

Table 13: Respondent's Total Years of Work Experience

	Frequency	%
<5 years	67	38.3
5–9 years	61	34.9
10–14 years	28	16.0
15–20 years	14	8.0
>20 years	5	2.86
Total	175	100

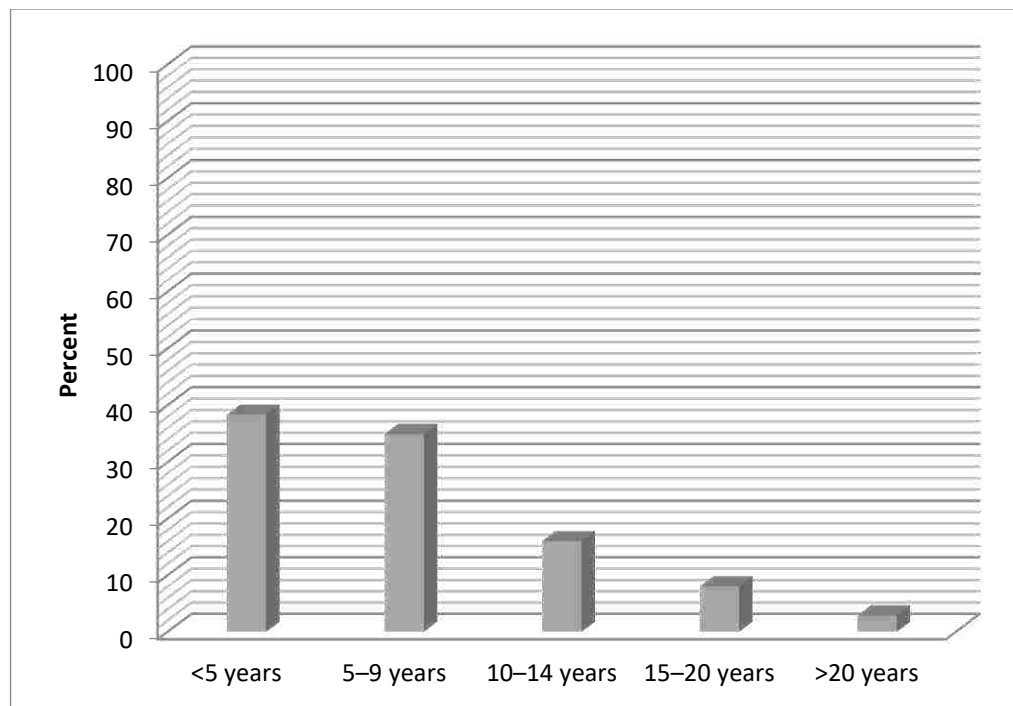


Figure 15: Respondent's Total Years of Work Experience

5.4 Descriptive Statistics on Main Study Variables and Constructs

This section presents the descriptive statistics of the variables and constructs of this study. The main descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviations are summarized in Table 14.

Table 14: Association between Employee's Demographic Characteristics and In-role Performance, OCB and Employee Voice

	IRP			OCB			EV		
	Mean	SD	p	Mean	SD	p	Mean	SD	p
Gender									
Female	-0.03	0.88	0.70	-0.06	.923	0.48	-.057	0.97	0.54
Male	0.02	1.06		0.03	1.04		0.03	1.01	
Education									
Less than high school	-0.34	0.81	0.01	-0.30	0.82	0.01	-0.52	0.98	0.28
High school certificate or equivalent	-0.39	1.04		-0.42	1.10		-0.11	1.09	
Some post high school education	-0.02	0.92		0.01	0.82		-0.12	0.75	
College/university degree	0.15	0.97		0.15	0.97		0.09	1.00	
Tenure Under Supervisor (Years)									
<1	0.09	0.98	0.25	.077	0.93	0.21	-0.17	0.97	0.65
1–2	0.03	1.03		.042	0.99		0.03	0.90	
3–4	-0.28	1.13		-.268	1.31		0.02	1.34	
0.5–6	-0.07	0.71		-.142	0.65		0.18	0.85	
>6	0.32	0.91		.369	0.67		0.07	0.78	
Tenure with Employer (Years)									
<5	0.01	1.01	0.55	0.03	0.96	0.80	0.00	0.97	0.64
5–9	-0.00	1.04		-0.11	1.23		-0.12	1.13	
10–14	0.14	0.81		0.21	0.56		0.39	0.83	
15–20	-0.28	0.04		-0.17	0.13		0.24	0.89	
>20	-0.91	0.67		-0.34	0.87		-0.10	0.90	
Work Experience (Years)									
<5	-0.00	1.10	0.96	0.00	1.04	0.94	-0.12	0.95	0.40
5–9	.008	1.00		-0.03	1.09		0.01	1.10	
10–14	.080	0.80		.092	.729		.110	.968	
15–20	-0.14	0.88		-.137	.985		.406	.852	
>20	-0.11	1.05		0.14	0.88		-0.13	0.80	

Note: EV: employee voice, IRP: in-role performance, OCB: organizational citizenship behavior. Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired t-tests or one-way ANOVA.

As shown in Table 14, most of the employee demographics showed a non-statistically significant association with the dependent variables (i.e., in-role performance and OCB). However, there is a significant association between education and in-role performance ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that employees with a college degree or more had a higher mean for in-role performance compared to employees with less than high school or high school education only. Similarly, the OCB score was significantly associated with education ($p < 0.05$), where participants with college education had a significantly higher mean compared to participants with high school, or less than high school, education.

5.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis

EFA aims to explore the data gathered and define how many factors are required to justify the relations among the observed variables. EFA helps to describe several variables using a minimum number of factors, and thereby reducing complexity. This is basically achieved by means of estimating the factor loadings and transforming relations among observed variables into a smaller number of underlying factors (Hair et al., 2010).

Maximum likelihood was used for factor extraction based on the correlation matrix. Promax rotation was used; this is a type of oblique rotation that takes into account the correlation between factors extracted. Only factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 were retained in the final model. All indicators were initially included in the analysis. Indicators were excluded from the analysis in a stepwise fashion based on communalities or loadings (communalities < 0.3 were considered as low) and cross-loadings (loading on more than one latent factor). As mentioned earlier, negatively-worded items were reversed prior to the analysis. After that, factor analysis was

performed separately for the two surveys (managers and employees); once the final factor structure for each survey had been reached, the analysis was rerun using the final items identified from each survey.

The EFA was performed using IBM SPSS statistical software package. However, other statistical analyses were applied to support the EFA. These included the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure, Bartlett’s test of sphericity, total variance explained analysis, scree plot, pattern matrix, Cronbach’s α , and reliability and validity tests for the EFA model. The following section demonstrates the results of the EFA.

5.5.1 KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity

Hair and his team (2010) pointed out that for an EFA to be meaningful it must pass both KMO and Bartlett’s tests. The KMO measure reveals how items are clustered, as they must be well and separately grouped. This measure varies between 0 and 1, with values closer to 1 indicating higher adequacy. Therefore, values over 0.9 are considered excellent while 0.6 is considered the minimal acceptable value. An acceptable KMO value indicates that data are suitable for EFA.

Bartlett’s test of sphericity, on the other hand, identifies whether observed variable constructs are related to each other and can be factored. Again, the value of Bartlett’s test of sphericity should be significant (0.00) to indicate that EFA is appropriate for the current data set. Table 15 shows that the KMO value was greater than 0.8, which is considered adequate and indicates that the variable constructs are highly related to each other.

Table 15: Results of KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Test		Value
KMO measure of sampling adequacy		0.924
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	4848.758
	Df	595
	Sig.	< 0.001

Furthermore, Bartlett's test of sphericity yielded significant results. Hence, the variables are related to each other and can be factored. Additionally, only 11% of non-redundant residuals were detected. Accordingly, the data set in this study passed the KMO and Bartlett's tests, which indicates that EFA is appropriate.

5.5.2 Analysis of Total Variance Explained

Total variance explained is assessed from the EFA output table, where factors are arranged in a descending order according to the most explained variance, to define the number of significant factors.

Based on the cut-off eigenvalue, four factors fit the suggested model. The four factors explain 61% of the variance, which is considered appropriate. The factors are speaking out and speaking up (hereinafter referred to as employee voice), ethical leadership, in-role performance, and OCB. One main difference can be observed in the EFA results compared to the original hypothesized model (Table 16).

Table 16: SPSS Output of Total Variance Explained for Extracted Factors

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	13.697	39.135	39.135	13.230	37.801	37.801
2	4.722	13.491	52.626	4.156	11.875	49.676
3	3.599	10.284	62.910	3.506	10.017	59.693
4	1.131	3.231	66.141	0.746	2.133	61.826

In support of the results obtained in Table 16, Figure 16 shows the scree plot, which is based on the eigenvalues. The scree plot shows a sharp decline from points 1 to 4, which indicates that the four-factor solution represents the best option for the proposed items.

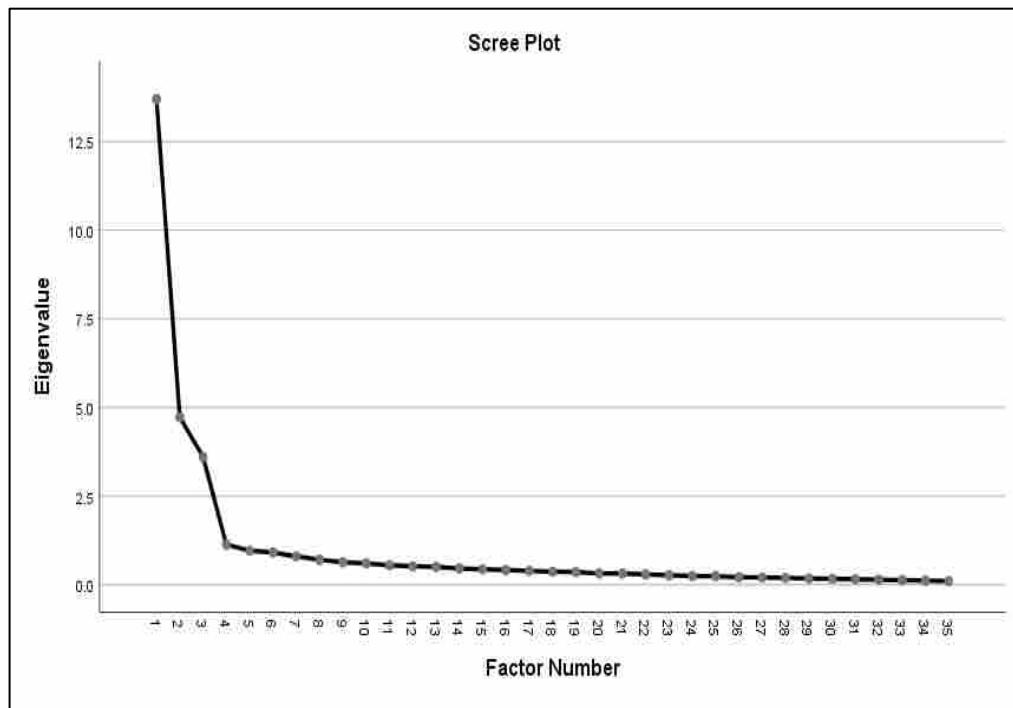


Figure 16: Scree Plot

5.5.3 Factor Structure Assessment

A pattern matrix is another applicable output of EFA. This matrix is used to assess the factor structure, and includes variables with their corresponding factors and loading values. It indicates the factors' convergent and discriminant validity, where the loading values have to be high, without major cross-loading between factors.

Hair and his colleagues (2010) explained that convergent validity is indicated by the size of the factor loading; this depends on sample size, as a small sample size

requires a high factor loading value. However, to verify convergent validity, all variables within a single factor should be highly correlated.

While convergent validity pertains to correlation between variables within a single factor, discriminant validity is concerned with factors' distinction, as variables have to load significantly on only one factor, with minimum cross-loading. Discriminant validity is examined by assessing the factor correlation matrix, where the correlation between factors should not exceed 0.7.

After running the EFA, items CA3 and CB3 were found not to load on their corresponding factors, and were thus removed from the analysis. The remaining items loaded on two factors (i.e., ethical leadership and employee voice), as expected. With regard to the managers' survey, it was observed that items loaded on three factors (whereas only two were expected). Moreover, reversed items (DA6, DA7, DC3, DC4, and DC5) loaded separately on one factor, unlike the unreversed items that loaded as expected on the two remaining factors (OCB and in-role performance). Thus, the reversed items were removed from the analysis. Furthermore, item DC6 had low communality and was removed from the analysis (0.082). Items DB5 and DB6 had low loadings (< 0.3) on their corresponding factors, and were thus also removed from the analysis.

All items loaded on one of the four proposed factors. The loading values were ~ 0.7 or more for all items except CB6 (0.585), DB3 (0.579), DB3 (0.579), and DB7 (0.544). However, the decision to remove these items was left to the CFA stage based on the discriminant and convergent validity. Table 17 presents the EFA pattern matrix of the best model fit.

Table 17: SPSS Output Pattern Matrix of Exploratory Factor Analysis

		EV	EL	IRP	OCB
Cronbach's α		0.926	0.937	0.831	0.859
Employees' Survey	B1		0.838		
	B2		0.863		
	B3		0.689		
	B4		0.820		
	B5		0.800		
	B6		0.892		
	B7		0.829		
	B8		0.846		
	B9		0.852		
	B10		0.890		
	CA1	0.759			
	CA2	0.752			
	CA4	0.766			
	CA5	0.811			
	CA6	0.854			
	CA7	0.755			
	CA8	0.701			
	CA9	0.796			
	CB1	0.724			
	CB2	0.687			
CB4	0.830				
CB5	0.713				
CB6	0.585				
Managers' Survey	DA1			0.747	
	DA2			0.865	
	DA3			0.841	
	DA4			0.833	
	DA5			0.699	
	DB1				0.654
	DB2				0.662
	DB3				0.579
	DB4				0.590
	DB7				0.544
	DC1				0.644
	DC2				0.666

Note: EL: ethical leadership, EV: employee voice, IRP: in-role performance, OCB: organizational citizenship behavior.

Additionally, communalities were greater than 0.3 for all remaining items, and since loadings were close to or greater than 0.5 for all items the convergent validity assumption was met.

5.5.4 Reliability Assessment after EFA

Reliability is defined according to whether a set of variables in a scale is consistent in measuring what is intended to be measured. The most popular method to measure construct and scale reliability is Cronbach's α (Hair et al., 2010). It is believed that reliability is a measure of internal consistency in questionnaires; in other words, how coherent items of the same scale are, or how closely correlated they are (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The recommended lower bound of acceptance for Cronbach's α is 0.7 (Pallant, 2010). Table 17 shows that the Cronbach's α was > 0.7 for all scales. This indicates good reliability of the proposed latent scales.

5.5.5 Validity Assessment after EFA

Discriminant validity was assessed by examining the correlation between factors. The correlation between any two factors should not exceed 0.7. Discriminant validity was also assessed by examining cross-loadings; that is, to ensure that no manifest variable loaded on more than one factor.

As Table 18 shows, no issues were observed regarding discriminant validity since a high correlation (> 0.7) was not observed between any of the four variables. This indicates that the discriminant validity assumption was met.

Table 18: SPSS Output of Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	Ethical Leadership	In-role Performance	Employee Voice	OCB
Ethical leadership	1.000			
In-role performance	0.538	1.000		
Employee voice	0.256	0.336	1.000	
OCB	0.475	0.464	0.474	1.000

Note: Extraction method: maximum likelihood. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser normalization.

5.5.6 Summary of EFA Analysis and Assessment

Prior to the EFA a six-factor model was expected to be extracted, where ethical leadership was expected to generate one factor, employee voice two factors, in-role performance one factor, and OCB as two factors. However, after completing the EFA, initial results showed that the resulting model was not fully in concordance with expectations. The extracted model had four factors, only where employee voice and OCB were represented by one factor each, while ethical leadership and in-role performance were similar to what was proposed in the theoretical model. Nevertheless, the variance explained by the four factors was sufficiently high (61%). In addition, several statistical analysis tools were used to perform EFA, such as KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity, and convergent and discriminant validity tests; all results were acceptable and confirming the four factor model.

5.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After conducting an EFA, and before embarking on structural model estimation using SEM, it is essential to conduct a CFA to ensure that the factors and model derived from the EFA are suitable and fit the proposed theoretical model.

EFA identifies the factor structure by detecting related variables and clustering them based on inter-variable correlations. On the other hand, CFA uses goodness-of-fit measures to confirm the factor structure. The main requirement for conducting CFA is the existence of indicators and factors to confirm that data gathered fit the hypothesized model (Hair et al., 2010).

The CFA in this study was conducted using IBM AMOS statistics software package; as Hair and his team (2016) pointed out, CFA and SEM are usually performed using AMOS statistical software because it is easy to use.

CFA was attempted using the final structure produced during the EFA step. However, speaking up and speaking out were combined, since the correlation between these two variables was high (> 0.9), suggesting that they could be aggregated into one construct (employee voice). In addition, the model fit for the five-factor model (speaking up and speaking out) and the four-factor model (employee voice) was compared, and no statistically significant difference was found between the two models. Thus, the simpler (four-factor) model was used. Discriminant and convergent validity were tested to confirm that the model was a good fit for the data.

5.6.1 Factor Loadings (Standardized Regression Weights)

Results shown in Table 19 indicate that all items loaded sufficiently on their corresponding factors (~ 0.7) for the proposed four-factor model.

Table 19: Factor Loading for the Proposed CFA Model

Items	Ethical Leadership		Employee Voice		In-role Performance		OCB	
1	B1	0.793	CA1	0.799	DA1	0.714	DC1	0.632
2	B2	0.738	CA2	0.749	DA2	0.835	DC2	0.662
3	B3	0.666	CA4	0.803	DA3	0.807	DB1	0.813
4	B4	0.799	CA5	0.778	DA4	0.808	DB2	0.825
5	B5	0.801	CA6	0.774	DA5	0.702	DB3	0.748
6	B6	0.832	CA7	0.758			DB4	0.677
7	B7	0.855	CA8	0.69			DB7	0.647
8	B8	0.841	CA9	0.764				
9	B9	0.802	CB1	0.726				
10	B10	0.776	CB2	0.638				
11			CB3	0.597				
12			CB4	0.828				
13			CB5	0.783				
14			CA6	0.774				
15			CA7	0.758				

5.6.2 Reliability, and Divergent and Convergent Validity, of the Four-Factor Model

Table 20 shows that the convergent validity of the four-factor model was met, as the average variance extracted (AVE) was ~ 0.5 or greater for all scales. This indicates that the latent variables explained 50% or more of the variance in the indicator variables. Furthermore, the composite reliability was ~ 0.9 for all factors, which is considered excellent.

Table 20: Convergent and Discriminant Validity for the Four-Factor Model

	CR	AVE	EL	EV	IRP	OCB
EL	0.944	0.627	0.792			
EV	0.931	0.5	0.553*	0.701		
IRP	0.878	0.592	0.298*	0.264*	0.769	
OCB	0.875	0.5	0.467*	0.443*	0.779	0.708

Note: AVE: average variance extracted, CR: Composite reliability, EL: ethical leadership, EV: employee voice, IRP: in-role performance, OCB: organizational citizenship behavior; * $p < 0.05$; diagonals in red represent \sqrt{AVE} .

5.6.3 Fit Measures

The results regarding the various fit measures revealed that the proposed model was a good fit for the data (Table 21). Figure 17 presents the final model.

Table 21: Fit Measure for the Four-Factor Model

Measure	Value	Acceptable Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.915	≥ 0.9
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.908	≥ 0.9
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.058	< 0.06
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) upper 90% CI	0.065	< 0.08
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	0.061	0.1
Chi-Square Minimum (CMIN) / Degrees of Freedom (DF)	1.654	< 5

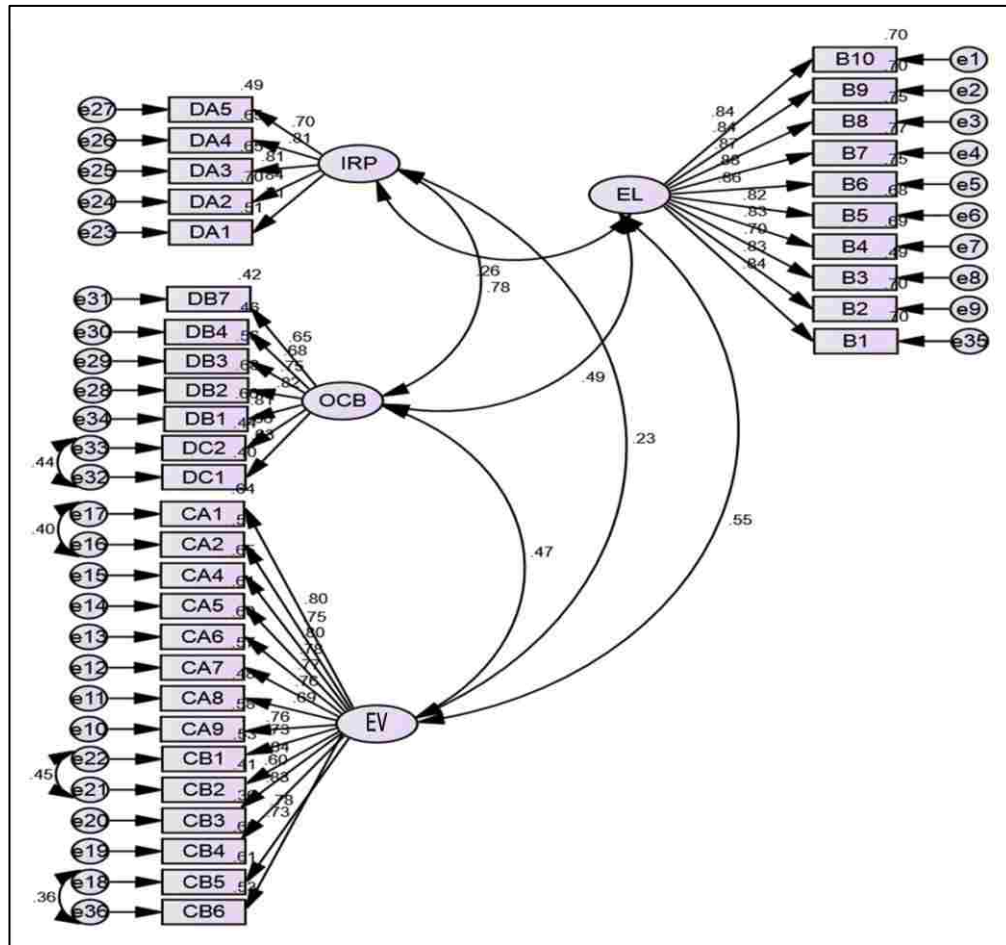


Figure 17: AMOS Output of CFA Measurement Model

5.6.4 CFA Analysis and Assessment Summary

The model with four latent factors was a good fit for the data. Reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity were found to be acceptable. Additionally, fit measures showed that the model was a good fit.

5.7 Structural Equation Modeling and Hypotheses Testing

Based on the CFA results, the modified theoretical framework illustrated in Figure 18 presents the revised hypotheses to be tested in this study.

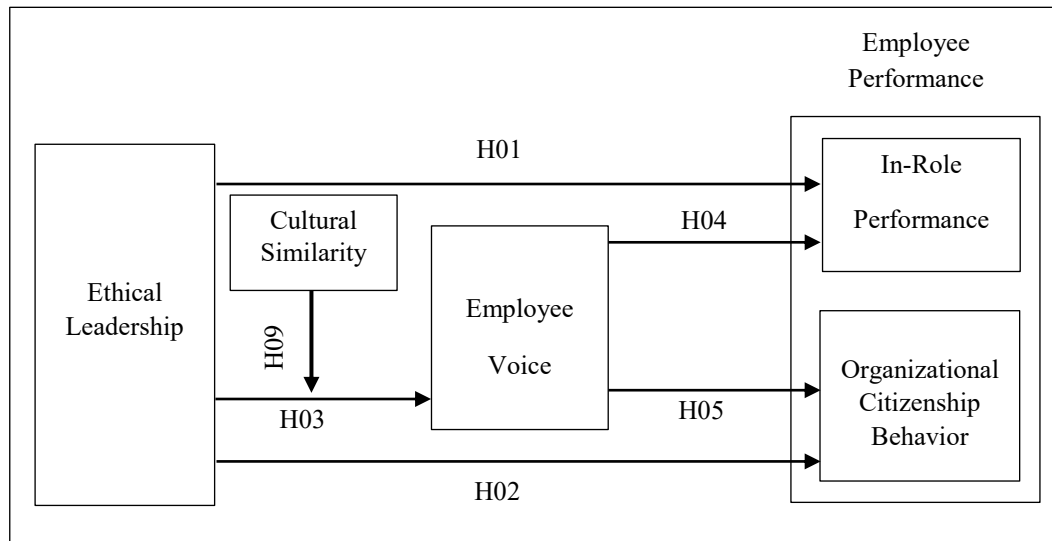


Figure 18: Modified Theoretical Framework

The revised hypotheses are listed below (hypotheses that were revised are marked with the letter R):

H01. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee in-role performance.

H02. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee OCB.

H03(R). Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee voice.

H04(R). An employee's voice behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her in-role performance.

H05(R). An employee's voice behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her OCB.

H06(R). The effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance is partially mediated by employee voice.

H07(R). The effect of ethical leadership on OCB is partially mediated by employee voice.

H08. Speaking up and speaking out are positively correlated.

H09(R). Cultural similarity between leader and follower moderates the effect of ethical leadership on employee voice. The effect of ethical leadership on employee voice is higher for followers who share similar cultural backgrounds with their leaders.

SEM is a multivariate method that is commonly used for testing and evaluating hypotheses through employing factor analysis and multiple regression. The main feature of SEM is that it transforms complex relationships into a simple graphical model while considering several conditions, including measurement errors, multiple independent constructs with multiple indicators, non-linearities, interactions, and correlations of independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, SEM was used to test the above hypotheses. In addition, model fit was assessed using the following measures: CFI, TLI, Cmin, RMSEA, RMSEA upper 90% CI, and SRMR. The cut-off values suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) were used to assess the model fit.

5.7.1 Structural Model Fit

First, regression coefficients were tested for statistical significance (i.e., to test the hypothesis that the regression coefficient was equal to 0, or $\beta = 0$). As Table 22 shows, the proposed model was a good fit for the data.

Table 22: Structural Model Fit

Measure	Value	Acceptable Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.915	0.906
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.909	≥ 0.9
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.058	0.06
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) upper 90% CI	0.065	0.08
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	0.06	0.1
Chi-Square Minimum (CMIN) / Degrees of Freedom (DF)	1.649	< 5

5.7.2 Total Effect of Ethical Leadership on In-Role Performance and OCB

As Table 23 illustrates, the total effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.296$, $p < 0.05$), which indicates that in-role performance increases by 0.296 for each 1 standard deviation (SD) increase in ethical leadership. Additionally, the total effect of ethical leadership on OCB was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.467$, $p < 0.05$), which indicates that OCB increases by 0.467 for each 1 SD increase in ethical leadership.

Table 23: Total Effect of Ethical Leadership on In-Role Performance and OCB

Variable		Total Effect		
X	Y	β	SE	p
Ethical leadership	OCB	0.467	0.082	0.002
Ethical leadership	In-role performance	0.296	0.079	0.002

Note: X: independent variable, Y: dependent variable; * $p < 0.05$; β : standardized regression coefficients.

5.7.3 Main Structural Equation Model Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

Table 24 shows, the direct effect of ethical leadership on employee voice, in-role performance and OCB was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). In addition, the direct effect of employee voice was statically significant on OCB only.

Table 24: Direct Effect

Variable			Direct Effect			Indirect Effect		
X	Y	M	B	SE	p	β	95% CI	p
EL	EV		0.553	0.087	0.003			
EL	OCB	EV	0.32	0.095	0.003	0.147	0.064	0.002
EL	IRP		0.217	0.096	0.035	0.079	0.059	0.14
EV	OCB		0.266	0.105	0.004			
EV	IRP		0.142	0.105	0.213			

Note: EL: ethical leadership, EV: employee voice, IRP: in-role performance, M: mediator, OCB: organizational citizenship behavior; X: Independent variable, Y: Dependent variable; * $p < 0.05$.

The following is presentation of the revised hypotheses testing results.

H01. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee in-role performance.

The structural model provides evidence to support H01. A statistically significant positive association was found between ethical leadership and employee in-role performance ($\beta = 0.217$, $p < 0.05$). The coefficient (0.217) indicates that in-role performance increases by 0.217 SD for each 1 SD increase in ethical leadership.

H02. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee OCB.

The structural model provides evidence to support the positive association between ethical leadership and employee OCB ($\beta = 0.32$, $p = 0.003$). The coefficient

(0.32) indicates that OCB increases by 0.32 SD for each 1 SD increase in in-role performance.

Due to the results of the EFA and CFA, H03 and H04 were combined in one hypothesis: H03(R). Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee voice.

The findings provide evidence to support this proposition. There was a statistically significant positive association between ethical leadership and employee voice ($\beta = 0.553$, $p = 0.003$), which means that employee voice increases by 0.553 SD for each 1 SD increase in ethical leadership.

For the same reason as that mentioned above, H05 and H07 were combined into one hypothesis: H04(R). An employee's voice behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her in-role performance. However, the findings did not provide sufficient evidence to support the association between employee voice and in-role performance ($\beta = 0.142$, $p = 0.243$). Therefore, employee voice was not found to have an effect on his/her in-role performance.

H06 and H08 were also combined into one hypothesis: H05(R). An employee's voice behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her OCB. Results provided evidence to support this proposition. There was a statistically significant positive association between employee voice and OCB ($\beta = 0.266$, $p = 0.004$), which means that OCB increases by 0.266 SD for each 1 SD increase in employee voice. This means that employees who use their voice in the workplace are more likely to engage in OCB.

5.7.4 The Mediating Role of Employee Voice

The most common method used to establish mediation is the causal model approach popularized by Baron and Kenny (1986). This approach involves estimating each path in the model (Figure 17) and checking whether certain statistical criteria are met. However, one of the requirements of mediation outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) is the statistical significance of the total effect. Baron and Kenny claimed that a non-significant total effect (path c) should not warrant further investigation of mediation. Thus, alternative approaches have been suggested, the most common of which is bootstrapping (Cheung & Lau, 2008; Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

Accordingly, in this research bootstrapping was applied to test the mediation (Figure 19). This approach does not require the total effect (c) to be statistically significant, but only the indirect effects (a and b). Bootstrapping is a non-parametric method that is based on resampling with replacement, which is done many times (e.g., 1,000 to 10,000 times). The indirect effect is estimated from each of these samples and a sampling distribution is generated. Using such distribution, a confidence interval, a p-value, or a standard error can be determined. The confidence interval is computed and checked to determine whether zero is in the interval. If zero is not in the interval, the researcher can be confident that the indirect effect is different from zero and statistically significant.

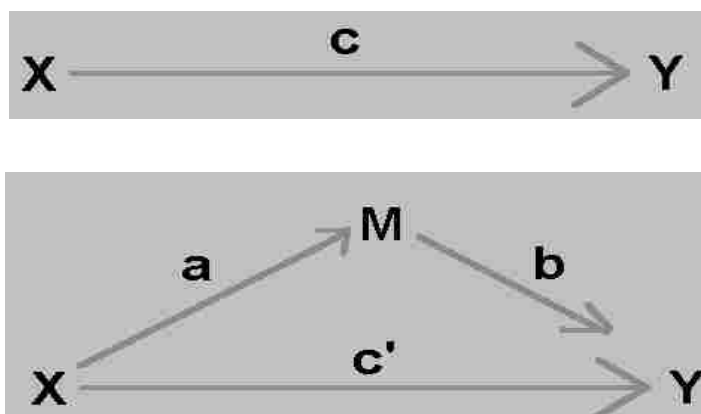


Figure 19: Diagrammatic Representation of Mediation

Complete mediation is present when variable X no longer affects Y after M has been controlled, making path c' zero—i.e., $\beta = 0$. Partial mediation is deemed to be present when the path from X to Y is reduced in absolute size but is still different from zero when the mediator is introduced. Both types require that the path a–b is statistically significant—i.e., 95% CI $\neq 0$.

Table 25: Indirect Effect

Variable			Indirect effect		
X	Y	M	β	95% CI	p
Ethical leadership	OCB	Employee voice	0.147	0.064	0.002
	In-role performance		0.079	0.059	0.14

Note: M: mediator, X: independent variable, Y: dependent variable; * $p < 0.05$, CI: confidence interval.

Building on the results shown in Table 25 related to the indirect effect of ethical leadership on employee in-role performance and OCB through employee voice, mediating hypotheses are tested as follows: H06(R). The effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance is partially mediated by employee voice.

The indirect effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance through employee voice was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.079$, $p = 0.14$). These results

do not support the mediating effect of employee voice on the relation between ethical leadership and in-role performance. Thus, the effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance is a fully direct effect.

H07(R). The effect of ethical leadership on OCB is partially mediated by employee voice.

The indirect effect of ethical leadership on OCB through employee voice was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.147$, $p = 0.002$), which supports the mediating effect of employee voice in the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB. The statistically significant direct and indirect effects of ethical leadership on OCB suggest partial mediation. This means that the effect of ethical leadership on OCB is partially mediated by employee voice. By encouraging employees to show voice behavior by making suggestions, leaders are also making those employees more likely to engage in OCB.

5.7.5 Correlation between Speaking Up and Speaking Out

Due to EFA and CFA results several Hypotheses were revised, however, correlation hypothesis remains: H08. Speaking up and speaking out are positively correlated.

Considering the EFA results (Table 17), the loading of speaking up items and speaking out items on one factor, and the CFA outcomes (Table 19) that confirmed this result, H08 is supported—that is, speaking up and speaking out are highly correlated. In fact, they represent one construct: employee voice.

IBM AMOS Statistics software package was used to estimate the structural model presented in Figure 20. At this stage, the main analysis was made on the main structural model with the mediation only.

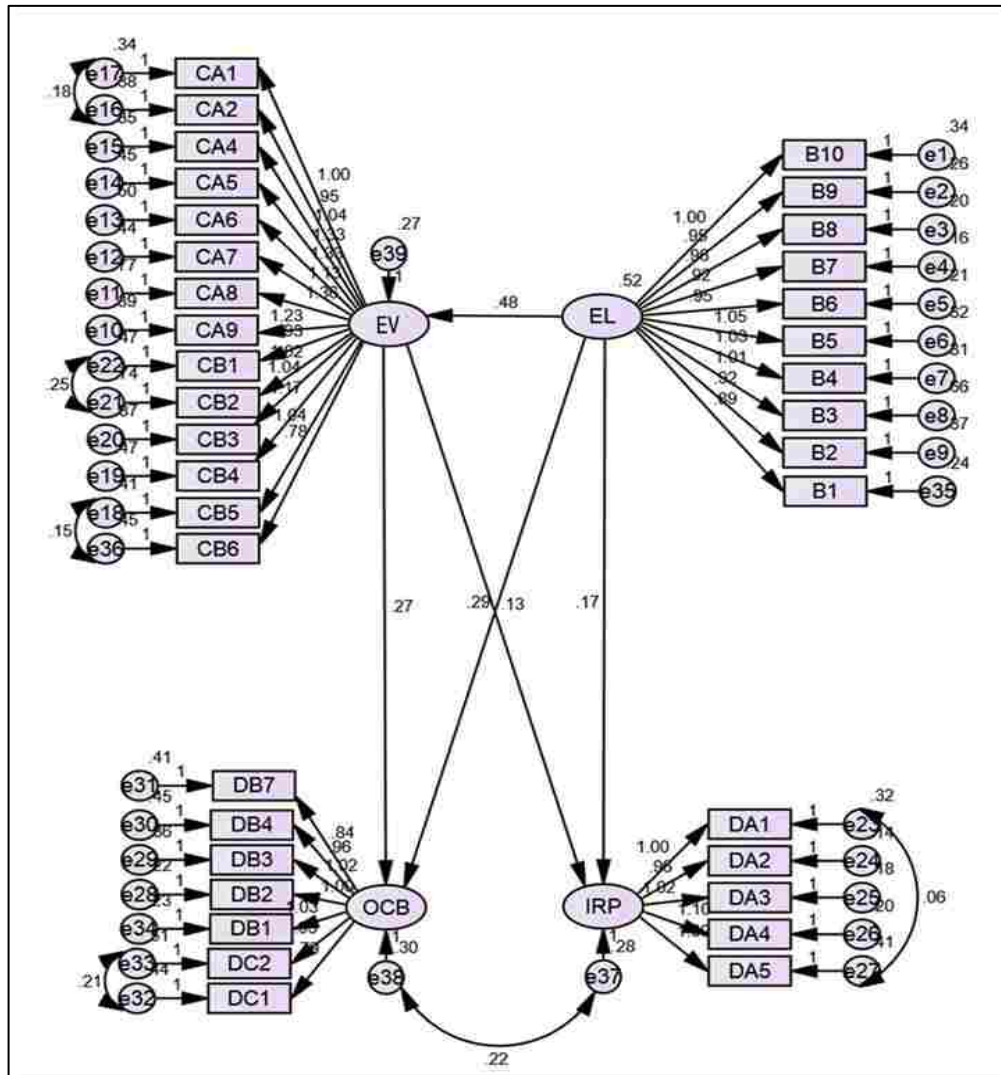


Figure 20: Standardized Estimate for the Structural Model

5.7.6 The Moderating Effect of Cultural Similarity

The final four-factor model was used to assess the moderation. Moderation analysis was performed using AMOS v. 22 (Table 26). The scores for the two manifest variables—ethical leadership and employee voice—were used for the analysis. The scores were standardized (mean 0 and SD 1) prior to moderation analysis. In order to perform this analysis (i.e., assess the effect of interaction between ethical leadership and cultural similarity on employee voice), the interaction term (ethical leadership x cultural similarity) was created by multiplying the factor

score for ethical leadership with the score for cultural similarity (1 if similar and 0 if different). Three independent variables were included as predictors in the model (ethical leadership, cultural similarity; and ethical leadership x cultural similarity). Analysis was then performed to assess whether the interaction between ethical leadership and cultural similarity was significantly associated with employee voice.

Table 26: Moderating Effect of Cultural Similarity on the Association between Ethical Leadership and Employee Voice

Independent Variable	B	Employee Voice	p
Ethical leadership	0.505	0.055	< 0.001
Cultural similarity	-0.64	0.632	0.919
Ethical leadership x cultural similarity	0.016	0.14	0.91

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; employee voice was used as the dependent variable

H12 and 13 were also combined into one hypothesis: H09(R). Cultural similarity between leader and follower moderates the effect of ethical leadership on employee voice. The effect of ethical leadership on the employee voice is higher for followers who share similar cultural backgrounds with their leaders.

Results did not provide sufficient evidence to support H09(R). The interaction between ethical leadership and cultural similarity was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.016$, $p > 0.05$), which indicates that the effect of ethical leadership on employee voice does not vary based on cultural similarity—i.e., cultural similarity does not moderate the association between ethical leadership and employee voice. Figure 21 represents the moderation analysis per the using IBM AMOS assessment model.

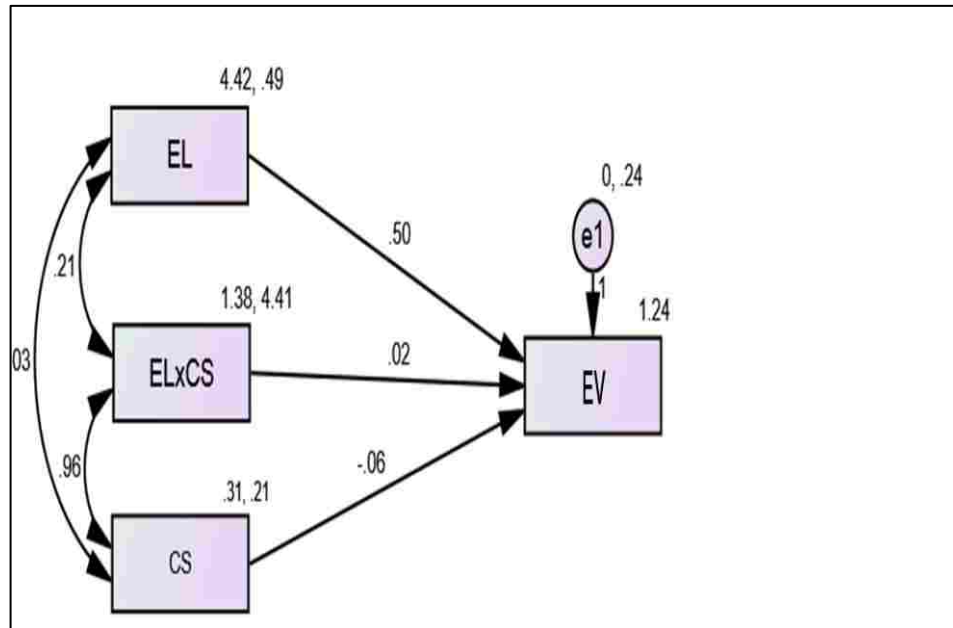


Figure 21: Moderating Effect of Cultural Similarity on the Association between Ethical Leadership and Employee Voice

The interaction between ethical leadership and cultural similarity was not statistically significant, as shown in Figure 22 by the similar slopes for ethical leadership on employee voice in both groups.

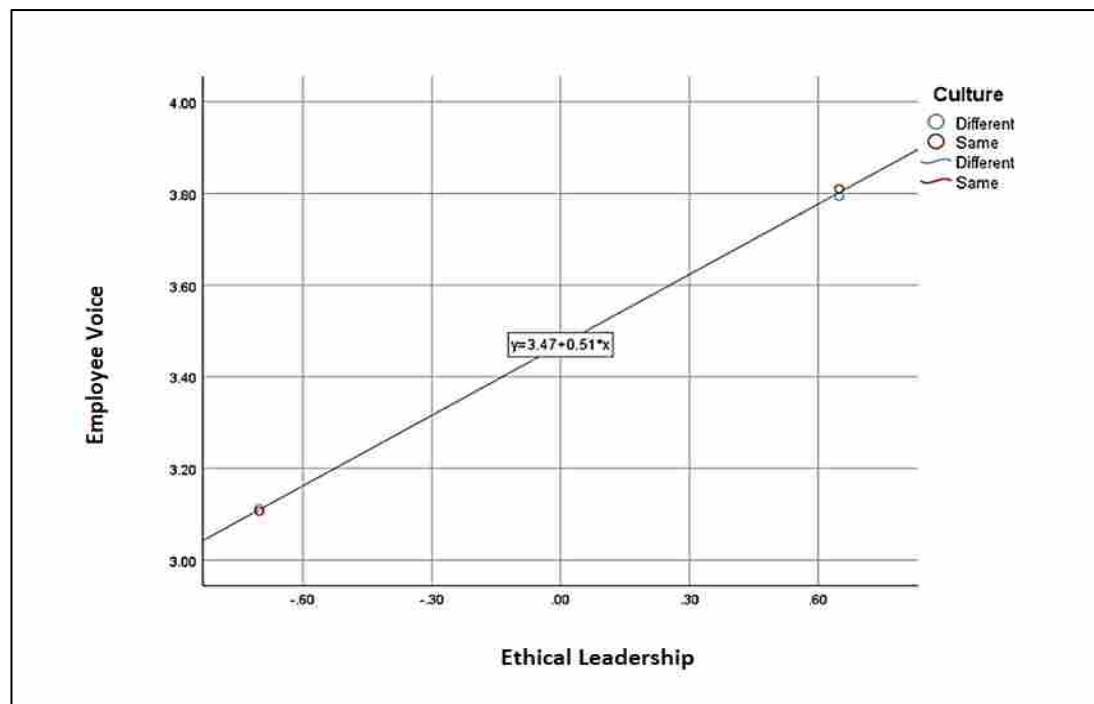


Figure 22: Interaction Plot for Cultural Similarity on EL and EV

5.8 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

A summary of the hypotheses tests is presented in Table 27. The hypotheses testing yielded support to four direct-relationship hypotheses, one indirect relationship hypotheses, and one correlation. Hence, a total of six hypotheses were supported, while three were rejected.

Table 27: Final Summary of Hypotheses Results

Research Hypotheses	Status
H01. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee in-role performance.	Supported
H02. Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee OCB.	Supported
H03(R). Ethical leadership has a significant positive effect on employee voice.	Supported
H04(R). An employee's voice behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her in-role performance.	Not Supported
H05(R). An employee's voice behavior has a significant positive effect on his/her OCB.	Supported
H06(R). The effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance is partially mediated by employee voice.	Not Supported
H07(R). The effect of ethical leadership on OCB is partially mediated by employee voice.	Supported
H08. Speaking up and speaking out are positively correlated.	Supported
H09(R). Cultural similarity between leader and follower moderates the effect of ethical leadership on employee voice. The effect of ethical leadership on the employee voice is higher for followers who share similar cultural backgrounds with their leaders.	Not Supported

5.9 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the results of the data analysis using the numerous quantitative methods. Initially, preliminary data screening was conducted to prepare the dataset and ensure its accuracy for further statistical analysis; this included

checking for missing data, outliers, and unengaged responses. Moreover, assessments were made to verify the necessary statistical assumptions for multivariate data analysis (i.e., normality, homoskedasticity, linearity, and multicollinearity). This was followed by examining the CMB. As a result, the final sample size was 175; these responses were used throughout the data analysis and statistical procedures.

Next, the respondents' demographics and profile were analyzed based on information such as their job title, gender, education level, national origin, tenure with their current manager/supervisor, tenure with their current hotel, and total years of work experience. This was followed by some descriptive statistics on the main study variables and constructs, including the association between employees' demographic characteristics and voice behavior, in-role performance, and extra-role performance.

After that, EFA was applied and a model with four factors was generated. This was followed by CFA to verify the measurement model and confirm its reliability and validity. Lastly, SEM was conducted, which confirmed that the model was a good fit to the data.

Finally, the hypotheses were tested along with a moderation analysis. As a result, four direct-relationship hypotheses, one mediation hypothesis, and one correlation were supported, while one direct-relation, one mediation, and one moderation hypothesis were rejected. This resulted in a total of six hypotheses that were supported, and three that were not.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the relationships and patterns that emerged from the analysis of survey data presented in Chapter 5. The main purpose of this chapter is to outline the study's contributions to current understandings of ethical leadership as a motivating force for employee performance through stimulating employee voice behavior, with cultural similarity as a moderator, and to evaluate the current situation regarding the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain.

This chapter comprises 11 sections. It begins by reviewing the study objectives, and then addresses the direct-relationship hypotheses, where ethical leadership has a proposed link with voice behavior and employee performance (i.e., in-role and extra role performance), while voice itself is related to employee performance. The mediation hypotheses are then discussed with respect to employee voice as a mediator in the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance.

Subsequently, the findings on the correlation between speaking up and speaking out are considered, and the moderation hypotheses are discussed with respect to cultural similarity as a moderator in the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice in the context of the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the main findings.

6.2 Review of the Study Objectives

The main objectives of the present research were to examine the effect of ethical leadership on employee performance, with employee voice behavior as a

mediator in this relationship, and cultural similarity as moderator of the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice. Consequently, the theoretical framework model (see Figure 1) was developed based on a literature review, and then empirically tested and validated using a sample collected from managers and frontline employees of four- and five-star hotels in Bahrain. Quantitative methods, including SEM, were applied to test the hypotheses.

The findings will be discussed in light of the modified theoretical framework (Figure 18). In addition, literature and the perspective of key theories and practices in the context of the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain are used to answer the present study RQs.

Two main theories have been applied to most ethical leadership studies: SLT (Bandura, 1977) and SET (Blau, 1964). In the past decade SET has gained more attention (Newman et al., 2014), yet both are used to guide the discussion in this study, along with Byrne's (1971) similarity-attraction paradigm.

As revealed during the literature review, SLT describes the impact of managers' promotion of ethical behaviors (Zhang et al., 2019). It indicates that managers promote ethical leadership by demonstrating appropriate behaviors in the workplace, and employees learn it through detecting and imitating this behavior. From another perspective, SET is concerned with the illustration of ethical leadership aspects (Zhang et al., 2019), and proposes that employees who experience a positive relation with their leader (i.e., the manager treats his or her employees with respect and demonstrates ethical behaviors) will reciprocate this favorable treatment with better performance as a way to return the favor to their leader (Brown et al., 2006;

Brown et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2019) and seek to match the goodwill their leader shows (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) with a better job performance.

Byrne's (1971) similarity-attraction paradigm is applied in the discussion on the moderating role of cultural similarity. This paradigm indicates that when leaders and followers come from the same cultural background, it may result their having a better mutual understanding.

6.3 The Influence of Ethical Leadership of Direct Managers on Employee Performance

According to Ng and Feldman (2015), many individual and organizational outcomes can be derived from ethical leadership. In addition, as Buil et al. (2019) noted, several practitioners have suggested that supervisor behavior influences the performance of frontline employees. The current study investigated this latter claim, and found that ethical leadership of the direct manager has a significant effect on the in-role performance ($\beta = 0.217, p < 0.05$), and OCB, or extra-role performance ($\beta = 0.32, p = 0.003$), of frontline employees. Hence, the answer to RQ1, "Does ethical leadership of a direct manager influence employee performance?" is positive.

The results on this matter are consistent with SEL and SET. As SLT proposes, the ethical leader acts like a role model and an instructor for his or her employees. Employees observe how their manager performs job tasks, deals with customer complaints, and solves problems, and try to these actions and reactions, which in turn improves their work performance (Brown et al., 2005). On the other hand, SET involves the leader demonstrating his or her ethical values (e.g., fairness, integrity, and care), which affects employees and encourages them to repay the leader by improving their performance (Brown & Treviño, 2006).

With respect to in-role performance, this study supports Kia, Halvorsen, and Bartram (2019) conclusion that ethical leadership is a good predictor of in-role performance. However, it contradicts findings by Liu and his colleagues (2013) that the relationship between ethical leadership and in-role performance is insignificant. However, the same authors pointed out that their conclusion could not be generalized due to the distinctive features of the Chinese culture in which their study was conducted. Moreover, the influence of ethical leadership on performance was measured in six-month intervals; hence, other factors might have impacted the study outcomes.

With regard to extra-role performance, the results of the current study were consistent with those of research that has found support for the significant direct relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance (e.g. Liu et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2014; Sharif & Scandura, 2014; Tu & Lu, 2016; Wang & Sung, 2016). Furthermore, they reinforced the importance of ethical leadership as an important predictor of extra-role performance. The main implications of this relationship are that ethical leadership improves employees' ability to handle problems, imperfect situations, and complaints; and strengthens employees' interest in the development of organizational life, which enhances the organization's overall performance (Organ, 1997).

O'Neill and Davis (2011) indicated that turnover rate in the hospitality and tourism industry is known to be high; further, several practitioners have found a negative relationship between OCB and employee turnover (Chen, 2005; Chen et al., 1998; Mossholder et al., 2005). Accordingly, the results of this study should

encourage hotel organizations to adopt an ethical leadership style, as this could help to lower the industry turnover rate.

6.4 The Influence of Ethical Leadership on Employee Voice

Employee voice requires a climate of trust that is created by leaders encouraging employees to speak up with suggestions and speak out about their thoughts, thereby developing work techniques, resolving possible complications (Chen & Hou, 2016), and creating a better work environment (Dundon, Wilkinson, Marchington, & Ackers, 2004). This study demonstrated a significant direct effect ($\beta = 0.553, p = 0.003$) of ethical leadership on employee voice, and the findings provide support for SLT and SET. Following the SLT rationale, employees observe their leader behavior and detect his or her behavioral values (Brown et al., 2005; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009); thus, whenever they notice a behavior that clashes with these behavioral values they will use their voice to resolve the issue. According to the SET—more specifically, the reciprocity rule—employees are motivated by their ethical leader, how he or she interacts with them, and whether he or she treats them with fairness and integrity so that they feel safe and encouraged to provide suggestions, address problems, and improve services.

The results are consistent with prior findings that there is a relationship between employee voice and ethical leadership (e.g. Lee et al., 2015; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009; Weiss et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2015), hence proving that ethical leadership is a motivating force for employees to express opinions and suggestions. Cialdini and Goldstein (2004) provided an interesting justification for this relationship, where they assumed that the direct effect between ethical leadership and employee voice comes from authority figures in the

organization, whose power forces employees to comply with and obey their leaders. In other words, employees use their voice not because they want to but because they have to. However, this was not the case in the present study because the basic principle of ethical leadership is to create a climate of trust and freedom (Brown & Treviño, 2006) so that employees feel comfortable in expressing their opinions and report transgressions. Furthermore, some researchers (e.g. Liu et al., 2010; Morrison, 2014; Stamper & Dyne, 2001) have considered employee voice to be a form of OCB; hence, it is discretionary and is not part of the employee's job, nor it is clarified in the job description. Therefore, employees have to be sufficiently motivated to practice it because they have no obligation to do so and cannot be officially punished for failing to do so.

Another interesting point of view that was used to explain the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice was presented by Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005). They suggested that the context of hospitality industry motivates hotels to try to compensate the shortcomings of staffing options by heavily relying on individuals with relatively little knowledge or experience. Accordingly, employees use their voice not for pointing out problems and providing recommendations for service improvement, but to seek assistance because they do not have the necessary knowledge and experience to accomplish their job tasks. However, this is inconsistent with the study sample's demographics, where 64.6% of respondents held a college or university degree, and a significant association was found between education and employee performance. Therefore, it is not plausible to say that individuals lack the knowledge to complete their jobs, so Ahearne et al. (2005) explanation does not seem to apply to the current study.

6.5 The Influence of Employee Voice on Employee Performance

Scholars' interest in employee voice and its outcomes has increased exponentially in recent years (Song, Gu, Wu, & Xu, 2019). In this context, the present study found a somewhat controversial and interesting relationship between employee voice and employee performance, where voice has a significant direct effect on extra-role performance, or OCB ($\beta = 0.266$, $p = 0.004$), but an insignificant direct effect on in-role performance ($\beta = 0.142$, $p = 0.243$). Indeed, previous research has also reported inconclusive findings with regard to the relationship between employee voice and performance. For example, Butler and Whiting (2019) indicated that empirical research on the relationship between employee voice and employee performance has produced inconsistent outcomes. Furthermore, Song et al. (2019) pointed out that findings on the link between voice and employee performance have been inconclusive. For instance, Ng and Feldman (2012) found through an empirical study that employee in-role performance that is rated by others—as in our case, where the direct manager evaluated his or her employees' performance—is significantly related to voice. In addition, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) pointed out that voice improves in-role performance. However, Kim and Yun (2015) argued that voice behavior does not always affect in-role performance.

Furthermore, Dundon et al. (2004) noted that the effect of employee voice is difficult to quantify; hence, it is challenging for researchers to demonstrate a link between employee voice and performance. In addition, Dundon and his team (2004) suggested that the relationship between voice behavior and performance is difficult to detect due to the following reasons: First, there is a benchmarking dilemma in deciding which data to use to compare the effect of voice on employee performance.

Second, it is difficult to separate the voice effect from other contextual factors, which might have a collective impact on performance as well. An example of this is employee turnover, which is considered high in the hospitality industry; high turnover might reduce employees' desire to engage in voice behavior due to a lack of motivation or a fear of reprisal by management. Third, the accuracy of performance measures applied by the organization varies, and most measures in fact lack precision.

One possible explanation for the insignificant relation between voice behavior and employee in-role performance found in this study is that in-role performance depends mainly on employees' knowledge and skills, which is independent of voice. As the sample demographics demonstrate, most employees in the current study held a college or university degree, and could therefore most likely accomplish their tasks effectively regardless of voice behavior. Furthermore, employees depend on the job description, code of conduct, and best practices for task performance because these provide detailed information about employees' job responsibilities, and they may thus consider managers and subordinates to be the last resort for any inquiries. In a similar vein, as service providers hotels pay great attention to employees' orientation and training, so jobs are assigned to employees only after they have passed the required training and obtained the necessary knowledge and skills to complete their tasks.

With respect to the relationship between voice and extra-role performance (OCB), the findings of this study are consistent with SET theory. When applying SET to the current situation, an employee might offer suggestions to his or her leader in order to change nonproductive procedures and processes (Liu et al. , 2010; Van

Dyne & LePine, 1998); the leader, in turn, should accept—or at least appreciate—these initiatives, which makes the employee feel that his or her suggestions have been acknowledged. Thus, the employee’s organizational loyalty or extra-role performance improves.

Several extant studies are also in line with this finding (e.g., Chiaburu & Harrison (2008); Liu et al., (2010); Van Dyne & LePine (1998) and Sulisty (2017)). Additionally, some scholars, such as Raub and Robert (2013) and Stamper and Dyne (2001), have considered employee voice as a form of OCB that is very important to the multinational hospitality industry, which again supports the findings of the current study. That is to say, voice behavior affects extra-role performance because it is basically a form of extra-role performance.

Although the results regarding the relationship between voice and employee performance were not fully consistent with the study’s theoretical arguments, the findings demonstrated that employee voice is an important factor for extra-role performance, yet is often neglected by management.

6.6 The Mediating Role of Employee Voice in the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Employee Performance

There has been growing interest in understanding how ethical leadership could improve employees’ performance (Zhu et al., 2015). In response to the recent call (Koopman et al., 2019) for extended research on how ethical leaders stimulate employees’ work behavior within organizations, this study aimed to test the premise that when employees are recipients of acts of ethical leadership, they respond with improved performance. The results confirm this premise with regard to extra-role

performance (OCB) only, and demonstrate that this behavioral reaction can be explained by the mediating role of employee voice ($\beta = 0.147$, $p = 0.002$).

The finding of the indirect effect of ethical leadership on extra-role performance through voice behavior extends prior approaches that have investigated job-related attitudes as mediators of the relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance from a social exchange perspective. Therefore, organizations should encourage the practice of ethical leadership, and cultivate voice behavior in order to improve extra-role performance. A well-embedded ethical leadership concept provides managers with the ability to rely on employee voice, rather than spending time monitoring employees' performance and giving instructions, and hence saves work time and enables them to focus on other tasks. Moreover, this indirect link could reveal reasons behind current situation of hospitality and tourism industry related to tough working conditions (e.g. long and inflexible working hours, low wages and lack of career development), and provide appropriate solutions. Employee voice could be the mechanism for better communication between managers and employees to possibly address employees' concerns and improve working conditions. In addition, as turnover rate is supposed to be negatively related to voice behavior (Nienhüser, 2014), then this result should help with the industry problem of turnover rate. Furthermore, it could guide managers on finding ways to attract new employees.

Contrary to expectations, the results of the current study rejected voice behavior as a mediator in the link between ethical leadership and in-role performance ($\beta = 0.079$, $p = 0.14$). This contradicts Mo and Shi (2018) findings on the indirect effect of ethical leadership on in-role performance through voice, though the authors

pointed out that their research results cannot be generalized since the sample was collected in China, which has a population with a strong collectivist culture.

Nevertheless, Kwon and Farndale (2020) claimed that despite the positive outcomes of voice behavior, employees will not speak until they detect certain organizational indicators. This is because employees need to feel that it is safe and effective to use their voice and reveal their intentions. Kwon and Farndale (2020) extended this argument to suggest that the same rule could be applied to the leader him- or herself, where organizational indicators are used by managers to decide whether listening to and acting on the employee's voice is appropriate. Subsequently, voice might fail to mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and in-role performance not because it is an ineffective mechanism, but rather because the effect of organizational norms is greater than the effect of the manager's ethical values.

In addition, results in this regard are consistent with those found for H05 and H07 pertaining to the rejected link between voice behavior and employee in-role performance, and justifications therefor. These findings can be explained based on the significant association between education and in-role performance ($p < 0.05$): In the sample gathered, it was found that average in-role performance of employees with college/university degree or more is higher compared to employees with less than high school and or high school education only, which indicates that an employee's in-role performance mainly depends on his or her knowledge and a skills. Therefore, employees do not ask their superiors questions or discuss issues with subordinates in matters related to task performance because they are well educated and have the required knowledge to conduct their job duties effectively.

Moreover, as service organizations, hotels heavily depend on the performance of frontline employees (Singh, 2000), so usually provide a job description and induction course once employees join the organization. In other words, they do not assign jobs to employees until they are assured that tasks and duties are clear and employees are capable of effectively completing them. For these reasons, it is not surprising that the mediating effect of voice was found to be insignificant in the relationship between ethical leadership and in-role performance.

Consistent with our results, Victorino and Bolinger (2012) explained that organizations that provide high-quality services (such as four- and five-star hotels) requires employees to demonstrate innovative and spontaneous activity, such as giving suggestions (i.e., extra-role performance), in all tasks except for the most repetitive (in-role performance). This explains why employee voice had a mediating effect in the relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance, but not in the relationship between ethical leadership and in-role performance. In general, extra-role performance has a discretionary nature and cannot be easily recognized; hence, voice is essential to exhibit and illustrate it. Meanwhile, in-role performance or task performance is usually clear and defined in the job description; therefore, voice role is insignificant.

Despite the unexpected result regarding the insignificant mediating effect of voice on the relationship between ethical leadership and in-role performance, an important point can be raised here: Ahearne et al. (2005) claimed that employees rely on their leader because employees lack their own knowledge and experience (as discussed in section 6.4). In support of the rationale used to disprove claim of Ahearne and his team, if this assumption was accurate then in-role performance

should have been affected by ethical leadership through employee voice; however, this was not found in the case of frontline hotel employees in this study.

Therefore, RQ2, “Does employee voice mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance?” has been answered: voice only partially mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance.

6.7 Findings on the Correlation between Speaking Up and Speaking Out

Regarding speaking up and speaking out, the findings suggest that these two constructs are highly correlated. In fact, separate measures of speaking up and speaking out were applied at first, but the results showed that the two constructs were almost identical in the study sample, and they were therefore combined into one measure of employee voice in subsequent analysis. SLT offers an explanation for this correlation. The rationale is that as employees observe the voice behavior of their role model (i.e., manager) they will try to understand the logic behind it, remember it, and then imitate and practice it with others. To clarify, it is known that because managers and supervisors have a higher organizational position they also have authority and access to certain information. For that reason, Morrison et al. (2011) stated that employees remain alert to any cue given by managers and supervisors to participate in voice behavior, as they already know whether the proposed suggestion is going to be executed, or whether the raised issue will be punished or rewarded (Xu, Qin, Dust, & DiRenzo, 2019).

In addition, Nemeth (1986) claimed that speaking up with an opinion that dissents from the views of the majority may prompt co-workers to think and speak out about an alternative solution. Arguably, this result is consistent with those of Van

Dyne and LePine (1998), but contradict those of Liu and colleagues (2010). Van Dyne and LePine (1998) assumed that voice is a general concept with no distinction between speaking up and speaking out; in other words, employees use voice behavior without noticing its direction, whether it is toward superiors (i.e., speaking up) or subordinates (i.e., speaking out). This supposition is in accordance with results obtained from the EFA and CFA, as shown in Tables 17 and 19, respectively, where items related to speaking up and speaking out loaded into one factor—employee voice. On the other hand, as mentioned above, findings in this regard contradict those of Liu et al. (2010), who claimed that speaking up and speaking out are distinct concepts with different antecedents, and that employees are able to recognize the difference between them. Nonetheless, Liu et al. (2010) suggested interpreting their finding with caution because behavioral variables were peer-reviewed, and peers were recommended by the focal employee; hence results may have been biased. In addition, they used convenience sampling and obtained their sample from China; due to features of the Chinese context, this also limits the findings' generalizability to other cultural contexts.

The importance of this correlation is derived from the proved influence of voice behavior. From a holistic viewpoint, hospitality organizations require frontline employees to interact with customers, and therefore provide opportunities for them to recognize possible problems (Raub & Robert, 2013) and issues pertaining to ethics; hence, if employees are unable to share information with their direct manager, or to cross-functionally engage with other staff, aspects of extra-role performance, such as helping behavior, organizational loyalty, self-development, and individual initiative (Ocampo et al., 2018) might be missing. This is because acts of extra-role

performance are not included in the formal job description or officially recognized by the rewards system, so employees are not obliged to practice them.

In spite of the differences between prior work by Liu et al. (2010) and Van Dyne and LePine (1998), the joint effect of speaking up to managers and speaking out to subordinates is very obvious and must be considered if hotels intend to create a work environment that encourages employees to make initiatives, give suggestions, develop work procedures, and improve performance.

6.8 The Moderating Role of Cultural Similarity in the Relationship between Ethical Leadership and Employee Voice

Recent calls from academics have stressed the need for more research into cultural differences in voice behavior (Morrison, 2014). Therefore, this study investigated the moderating effect of cultural similarity on the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice. Surprisingly, the results did not conform to Byrne's (1971) similarity-attraction paradigm, since cultural similarity was found not to have a moderating effect on the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice ($\beta = 0.016$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, the answer to RQ3, "Does cultural similarity moderate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice?" is negative, according to the findings.

However, before discussing a possible explanation for this result, it is pertinent to consider other studies on this topic. First, Testa (2007) claimed that cultural similarity influences the effectiveness of the communication process and enhances mutual understanding between leader and follower. Though this contradicts the results of the current study, Testa (2007) pointed out that his findings cannot be generalized because his study was conducted in a cruise environment, which differs from land-based hospitality organizations, and within one single organization.

Another study whose findings differ from those of the current research is that by Ma, Wang, and Hao (2012), who confirmed the effect of cultural similarity on speaking out. Nevertheless, again, in their study cultural similarity was operationalized at the country level, and with few values, which resulted in a limited variation of cultural similarity.

Avloniti and Filippaios (2014) claimed that current measures of national culture are inconsistent, hence, nationality was used as a proxy for culture. Certainly this is ineffective measure of culture and didn't reflect the cultural orientations of candidates, where people from the same culture might have different cultural orientations. Therefore, the lack of effect of cultural similarity on the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior might be caused by the measure used.

Afsar and his colleagues (2019) illustrated that voice can be considered a complex concept in a multicultural workplace (such as a hotel organization). Moreover, it may be influenced by context (Mayrhofer, Gooderham, & Brewster, 2019). In this regard, there is a possible explanation for the insignificant effect found in the current study, which is the impact of the study sample's national origins. As shown in Table 10, most respondents were from India (41.1%) or the Philippines (16.6%), which are considered to be high in-group collectivist societies that might perceive employee voice as inappropriate, ineffective, or unsafe.

Singelis and his team (1995) pointed out that people from in-group collectivist cultures favor collective interest over self-interest, and that once an individual joins a group, a sense of obligation and duty toward this group is developed. Further, people that belong to this culture value and prioritize group

consciousness, identities, and benefits (Sullivan, Mitchell, & Uhl-Bien, 2003). As a result, any behavior (i.e., voice) that might involve pursuing self-interest instead of organizational interest will be considered as a disruptive and harmful act that threatens group cohesiveness and harmony (Ng & Feldman, 2015; Thomas & Au, 2002). In line with this, Mackenzie, Podsakoff P, and Podsakoff N (2011), claimed that despite voice's positive impact on performance, it could also harm interpersonal relationships and damage unit functioning, which may explain why some people prefer not to be involved therein.

Additionally, in-group collectivistic societies consider voice to be challenging if it comes from lower levels, and to indicate disloyalty, causing relationship conflicts and violating group harmony (Kwon & Farndale, 2020). In the same vein, practitioners have pointed out that organizations with the majority of employees coming from in-group collectivistic societies will try to show that they support voice behavior through copying other organizations' best practices (Brewster, Croucher, Wood, & Brookes, 2007; Godard, 2014; Pudelko & Harzing, 2008). Nevertheless, Kwon and Farndale (2020) explained that the effect of managers in this culture is so powerful that even if a formal voice system is established in the organization, it will not make any difference because employees will intentionally avoid responding to it in order to stay away from any behavior that could threaten group coherence.

Building on this argumentation, cultural similarity did not have any influence on the relationship between ethical leadership and voice in the current study because the dominant cultures in the sample do not favor any form of voice channels. In this vein, Testa (2007), argued that certain features differentiate one culture from another

and could be used as indicators to predict how effective it is to apply certain leadership styles and managerial practices in the context of that culture.

Raub and Robert (2013) suggested that managers who come from high power distance countries are hesitant to empower employees through voice behavior because they consider this to decrease their own status and power. Hence, voice behavior as a sign of power is less successful in countries with high average levels of power distance, such as India. In addition, Landau (2009) recognized high power distance as a factor that influences voice, as it involves considering employees' hierarchical position when determining appropriate behavior and attitudes, so if the behavior comes from lower levels then it is considered inappropriate. In turn, this impacts the process of sharing thoughts and ideas, giving suggestions, addressing problems, and raising issues pertaining to ethics (Wei, Zhang, & Chen, 2015). Kwon and Farndale (2020) extended this to suggest that a workplace led by a high power distance manager will have few organizational voice channels so as to highlight the negative overall view of voice behavior to employees and discourage them from practicing it.

On the bright side, the results regarding voice indicate that ethical leadership principles are persistent, as previously declared (Brown et al., 2005; Treviño et al., 2003) and the voice behavior is not influenced by cultural similarity nor by cultural differences. As mentioned earlier, Bahrain society is known to be multi-denominational and multi-cultural hence cultural differences exist between expatriates and locals and between expatriates themselves. However, these differences do not impact the voice behavior. This is probably because hotels apply international standards for communication process among employees.

6.9 Association between Education and Employee Performance

The findings of this study revealed a significant link between the education level and performance (both in-role and extra-role) of frontline hotel employees in Bahrain. Our findings suggested that frontline employees with a college/university degree had higher in-role and extra-role performance compared to employees with high school or less than high school education. This finding is not a surprise as it is consistent with the well-established human capital theory (Becker, 2009) which predicts that education and training improves productivity and performance of workers in general. In this vein, Van der Sluis, Van Praag, and Vijverberg (2008) found that education has a positive effect on performance. Moreover, Clinton (1999) pointed out that there is a positive relationship between basic skills education and employee performance. In addition, an earlier study by Wise (1975) highlighted an indirect link between an employee's education level and performance.

On the other hand, several practitioners have argued that a college/university degree does not affect performance or productivity of employees (e.g. Ariss & Timmins, 1989; Woo, 1986). Further, Ariss and Timmins (1989) explained that when it comes to performance, employee's personal characteristics are more important than education. However, results of empirical studies on this matter have been inconclusive (Bowman & Mehay, 1999). Additionally, most studies that have rejected the relationship between education and employee performance have been conducted during the 1980s or earlier (Ariss & Timmins, 1989).

Accordingly, this research expands existing literature on the link between education and employee performance, since such research has been limited and prior studies have focused on the link between education and task performance. The

current study sheds light on the link between education and both in-role and extra-role performance. On the practical side, this study underlines the importance of a college/university education for frontline employees. There is a general view that frontline employees are not required to have a college degree as their personality defines their ability to perform their job (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2019). However, our findings contradict this view; a college/university degree is important, and worth the time, effort, and money spent. In addition, this finding should discourage hotel managers from hiring employees without a college degree as a way to lower costs, since doing so will hinder performance.

6.10 The Hospitality and Tourism Industry in Bahrain

There are few published studies that have addressed human resource management issues in the hospitality industry in Bahrain. The current study provides insights into the current situation with regards to frontline employees.

Despite notable initiatives by the Supreme Council for Women for empowering Bahraini women, and EDB (2018) claim that Bahraini workforce has a good gender balance, the frontline section of the hospitality and tourism industry is still dominated by men (62.3%). Surprisingly, the Council of Travel and Tourism has considered the gender gap in Arab countries as a typical problem due to these countries' restrictive cultural and gender norms (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2019). In this regard, Marinakou and Giousmpasoglou (2015) explained that Bahraini society discourages women from working in hotels, and considers mixed-gender working environments taboo. In addition, some Muslims consider working in hotels that serve alcohol as haram (forbidden), because alcohol is banned in Islam.

Another possible reason for the gender gap pertains to the long and inflexible working hours in hotels, low wages and lack of career development opportunities (Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015; O’neill & Davis, 2011). Accordingly, policies should be developed to increase female participation in the hospitality and tourism industry. These could include proactive government initiatives and cooperation programs with international organizations to support female participation; elimination of the gender pay gap; and the provision of attractive working conditions, such as a flexible working environment, maternity protection, and childcare and social benefits (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2019).

Another important finding in this research is that most frontline employees working in the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain are well educated, with a college or university degree (64.6%). In this context, the significant association ($p < 0.05$) between education and employee performance (both in-role and extra-role) illustrates that frontline employees working in the Bahraini hospitality and tourism industry are high performers, yet suffering from low wages (Lu & Gursoy, 2016; Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015) and a lack of career development opportunities, which might affect their performance and result in increased turnover rates (O’neill & Davis, 2011). This contention is supported by the study finding that only 2.86% of respondents had more than 20 years’ work experience. Consequently, serious initiatives must be put in place to raise wages and address high turnover rates. This may include redesigning jobs and increasing employees’ awareness about the potential for career development within the hotel; providing them with the required training for career progression; and, most importantly, focusing on internal hiring. These steps will ensure employees that the hotel management cares about their future, which will then decrease turnover rates.

The majority of frontline employees working in the hospitality sector in our sample had a moderate level of experience (i.e., fewer than five years) nearly 40%, and had been working at the current hotel for fewer than five years (69.7%), and with their current manager for only one to two years (35.4%). Nonetheless, statistics in this regard are controversial, because it could indicate that frontline employees have high turnover rate, as O’neill and Davis (2011) suggested, therefore serious initiatives must be made or it might indicate that the majority of frontline employees are in their early twenties, with moderate experience in hospitality. Unfortunately, age was not included in the survey demographics section, so it is not possible to draw conclusions in this regard.

Another interesting finding of this study is that the frontline area of the hospitality industry in Bahrain is dominated by non-Bahrainis. The results on this matter are consistent with the study context as expatriates represent more than 50% of Bahrain population, Indian nationals are majority (Gulf labour Markets & Migration, 2019). Thus, in spite of the Bahraini government calling for “Bahrainization,” and the Ministry of Labor and Social Development’s efforts toward improving the Bahrainization rate, study shows that participation by Bahraini workers in the hospitality and tourism industry is very low (16.57%). Practitioners have pointed out that the unique features of the industry discourage Bahrainis from joining its workforce (Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015; O’neill & Davis, 2011). In this vein, the CEO of a consulting firm in hospitality and tourism (H & J) who was contacted during the data-collection stage of this study explained that the main reason for his resignation from his former job as CEO of a four-star hotel was that he had to work up to 15 hours a day, and therefore had no social life.

In addition, Marinakou and Giousmpasoglou (2015) elucidated that the Bahraini hospitality and tourism industry relies on expatriate managers and immigrant workers because it is difficult to attract Bahraini staff, even to managerial positions. The difficulty comes from the negative reputation of hotel bars in terms of serving alcohol and having a mixed-gender workforce, which contradict Islamic principles and sociocultural norms.

On the other hand, hotels often target low-wage staff to cut costs. As an HR manager of a five-star hotel explained, the number of hotels in Bahrain is increasing, so there is a need to cut costs in order to increase profits and compete with other hotels. This involves targeting qualified foreign employees who accept low wages and long working hours.

6.11 Summary

This chapter discussed the relationships and patterns generated from analysis of the effects of ethical leadership on employee performance, with employee voice as a mediator. The first section elaborated the principles that guided this discussion, starting from the study objectives and moving to the modified theoretical framework and theories applied to explain the identified relationships. Next, the results were discussed and explained.

The study answered the three RQs that were asked in the first chapter. It was found that ethical leadership of direct manager influences employee performance, which answers RQ1. In addition, it was found that voice only partially mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance, in answer to RQ2. Indeed, most findings to date have been inconclusive on the link between voice and employee performance (Song et al., 2019); the relationship is difficult to detect

and the effect of employee voice is challenging to quantify (Dundon et al., 2004). However, a possible explanation for the insignificant relation is that in-role performance mainly depends on the employee's knowledge and skills, which were considered high for this study sample.

Finally, cultural similarity was found not moderate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice, which answers RQ3. A possible explanation for this is that in the current study culture was not directly measured since nationality was used as a proxy for culture which is certainly ineffective measure because it did not necessarily reflect the cultural orientations of individual respondent. In addition, most participants in this study were from in-group collectivist cultures that do not favor any form of voice channels and perceive employee voice as inappropriate, ineffective, and unsafe (Ng & Feldman, 2015; Thomas & Au, 2002). Also, voice behavior is less successful with nationals that have high level of power distance, such as Indians, who represented the majority of our study sample (Raub & Robert, 2013).

The chapter ended with a discussion of the findings regarding the association between education and employee performance (i.e., in-role and extra-role) and a description of the current situation of frontline employees in the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain. This industry is dominated by male, non-Bahraini individuals who are well educated, with college/university degrees and adequate work experience. This situation requires attention from the Bahraini government.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, Implications, and Future Research

This final chapter consists of three parts and a summary. It begins by outlining key findings of the study and how they helped to fill gaps in the literature; it then presents the practical implications of the research, the research limitations, and areas of study that merit further investigation.

7.1 Conclusions

This study intended to fill a research gap (Elsetouhi et al., 2018; Ko et al., 2017) regarding the underlying mechanism through which ethical leadership generates desirable performance results (Byun et al., 2018; Ko et al., 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2011). In addition, as scholars have to date paid little attention to the hospitality and tourism industry in the Middle East (Seyfi, 2018), a moderated mediation model was proposed and tested to assess how ethical leadership influences employee performance, with voice behavior as a mediator and cultural similarity as a moderator, in the context of the hospitality and tourism industry in Bahrain. A structural equation model and hypotheses were developed and tested using factor analysis via AMOS for model testing.

The findings indicated that ethical leadership is positively related to employee performance (i.e., in-role and extra-role performance) and voice behavior, whereas voice is positively related to extra-role performance only. Furthermore, voice behavior partially mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance, while cultural similarity does not moderate the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior.

This study offers a number of important contributions to the literature on ethical leadership, voice behavior, and the hospitality and tourism industry in the

Middle East. Research on ethical leadership has typically demonstrated the role played by ethical leadership in producing favorable individual and organizational outcomes; however, the current research also suggests that ethical leadership can be used to improve employee extra-role behaviors through stimulating voice behavior. To achieve this, hotel organizations are recommended to redesign their rewards system and performance practices to reinforce ethical values, recruit and promote candidates who feel comfortable with an ethical leadership style, and organize training courses on the principals of ethical leadership (Montague, Larkin, & Burgess, 2016) through utilizing online and/or built-in training courses.

The findings also shed light on the role of voice of frontline employees, and help to counter the common negative view on employee voice (Burriss, 2012). Hence, providing new insights into the leader–follower relationship, where managers are motivated to rely on their employees’ voice from one side, and employees are encouraged to use their voice from the other. Several techniques are proposed to encourage voice behavior, such as conducting mentor programs, sharing best practices, and promoting the use of informal social platforms among employees and managers (Xiong, So, Wu, & King, 2019).

Regarding the current situation of frontline employees working in the Bahraini hospitality and tourism industry, the results show that it is dominated by male, non-Bahraini individuals with college/university degrees and with adequate work experience. This situation requires attention from Bahrain government and reevaluation of its “Bahrainization” strategy.

Another interesting finding of this research pertains to the significant relationship between education level and extra-role performance of frontline hotel

employees. This contributes to expanding existing literature on the link between education and employee performance, where prior research has focused on the relationship between education and employee productivity or in-role performance, neglecting the possible association between education and extra-role performance. Interestingly, this association helped to explain the disproved relationship between voice behavior and in-role performance, and the partial mediation of voice behavior in the relationship between ethical leadership and in-role performance, indicating that voice behavior does not trigger in-role performance for employees with a high education level.

In addition, this research provides additional support for, and expands understanding and application of, SLT and SET through its investigation of the processes pertaining to social leaning and social exchange by which ethical leadership affects the in-role and extra-role performance of employees, how ethical leadership stimulates voice behavior and how voice behavior helps in enhancing this impact for extra-role performance. SLT modeling principle and SET principle of reciprocity were applied in articulating relations in this study's theoretical model. In particular, SLT and SET helped in explaining the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance; SET in illustrating relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice and the mediating effect of voice behavior in the relationship between ethical leadership and extra-role performance, while SLT helped in explaining the correlation between speaking up and speaking out.

Despite the fact that the results did not support the hypothesis on the moderating effect of cultural similarity, it revealed two issues related to multinational hotel organizations that require further investigation. First, principles of ethical

leadership seem to be universal human qualities, and therefore are not affected by cultural similarity between managers and staff members. Second, in a multinational organization the impacts of traits related to the dominant culture seem to diminish the impact of other values related to organizational culture or country culture. For instance, in our sample there were three aspects presenting different cultural values and norms: the country culture (i.e., Bahraini culture), the hotel culture, and the dominant culture (i.e., Indian culture). However, the relations proposed in this study were affected by traits of the Indian culture (i.e., in-group collectivist and high power distance) only, indicating that traits of the dominant culture weaken the effect of other cultural values.

Lastly, the results of this research may be beneficial to other Middle Eastern countries, and can be generalized to other GCC countries since they share the situational characteristics of the Bahraini hospitality and tourism industry.

7.2 Practical Implications

This study provides a number of practical implications for organizations operating in the hotel industry. First, it highlights the role of ethical leadership in improving employee performance; therefore, it is recommended that hotel managers remodel their rewards system and performance-evaluation practices, through which ethical values have to be reinforced. Mayer and his colleagues (2009) proposed several methods to incorporate ethical values, such as providing rewards for employees' ethical acts and sharing of ethical messages. Also, employee training should be conducted with regard to the principals of ethical leadership (Montague et al., 2016) to embed this concept in the hotel system and make use of its outcomes. Examples of principles of ethical leadership include fairness, self-discipline, and

accountability (Mayer et al., 2009). In addition, an ethical code of conduct should be developed and communicated to every employee within the organization to provide a clear vision of integrity and assist them when they face a moral dilemma. Ways to do this include: team meetings, organizational policy, training sessions and newsletters.

Furthermore, as managers hold the responsibility for developing hotel's culture, they have to enhance trust in relationships between supervisors and employees, and reinforce consistency and equilibrium in order to create an ethical-based culture. Meanwhile, hotels should pay attention to the ethical leadership of their managers, as managers act as role models for their employees and should adopt and encourage ethical acts. In line with this, Schmidt and Hunter (1998) suggested implementing an integrity test for leaders, as this is a good predictor of job performance. Additionally, hotel management must apply appropriate selection and recruitment procedures when hiring new employees. In particular, individuals who will be the most responsive to ethical leadership must be highly considered, as the effect of the ethical leader lies in employees' support for the ethical leadership concept.

Now considering the research context, when a manager applies ethical leadership then he stimulate his employees to behave ethically in the workplace. Accordingly, reducing problems related to ethical practices in the hospitality industry such as; low wages for workers, cheating tourists, long working hours and broken promises. Additionally, Functional flexibility might help with hospitality turnover problem. Hotels can use "functional flexibility" approach (Riley, 1992). This approach involves employing full-time employees who are capable of switching between different tasks instead of relying on part-time workers. Functional flexibility

encourage hotels to rely on full-time workers, who are known to be loyal and more dedicated to their organization. Moreover, they are more likely to engage in OCBs (Moorman & Harland 2002; Stamper & Van Dyne 2001). Ethical leadership might facilitate and encourage the introduction of functional flexibility concept to hotel industry as a way to improve working conditions and rewards for workers.

Second, with regard to employee voice behavior, hospitality organizations should foster certain norms that encourage employees to use their voice. This is not an easy task, and has to be enforced through clear managerial actions and behaviors, such as reviewing reward systems and promotion criteria with regard to remarkable and value-added initiatives. Also, utilizing HR practices such as internal newsletters to share knowledge, ideas and enhance existing work procedures. Moreover, hotels should create an organizational climate (Morrison et al., 2011), and establish organizational values, that support employee voice behavior, such as by encouraging leaders to support voice (Milliken et al., 2003).

A supportive work environment will help in reducing employees turnover intention. Similarly, voice behavior could assist with turnover problem as manager will be able to understand the factors motivating employees to leave their job, therefore, retaining employee, and decreasing costs associated with recruiting, and training new employees (Raub & Robert, 2013).

In addition, the study findings should motivate managers to listen to their employees' opinions, initiatives and provide them with the ability to participate in decision-making as this will motivate them to complete their tasks and fulfill their responsibilities. On the other hand, it should encourage employees to speak up and share their thoughts with their manager and associates, given the positive outcomes

of employees' expressing their voice. Voice behavior can be encouraged through facilitating certain practices, such as conducting mentor programs, sharing best practices, and promoting the use of informal social platforms among employees and managers to facilitate the communication process, which in turn will improve overall performance (Xiong et al., 2019). Meanwhile, these efforts should be evaluated on a regular basis to ensure their suitability and effectiveness. Suggested ways include employee's performance appraisals and assessment of employee's absenteeism and attendance (Elsetouhi et al., 2018).

Another important implication of this study relates to the findings on cultural similarity, where promotion and managerial practices and procedures can be developed without considering cultural differences between hotel staff. This means that hotel management does not have to perceive cultural differences as problematic in efforts to organize work teams and harmonize a diverse workforce. For instance, an HR officer of a four-star hotel who participated in the survey complained that foreign managers were continuously seeking to transfer their Bahraini employees to one specific department led by a Bahraini manager due to issues arising from cultural differences. Considering the findings of this research, cultural differences should not, in fact, be a cause for concern.

Finally, this study highlights the significance of college/university education for frontline employees, as personality cannot replace a college/university degree in terms of successful job performance. Therefore, hotel managers should be discouraged from hiring employees without a college/university degree as a way to cut costs.

7.3 Limitations of the Study, and Future Research

Although this research adds value to the literature, there are few limitations that can be considered as future research directions. First, this study was cross-sectional; hence, determining cause-and-effect relationships was not possible (LePine J, Podsakoff, & LePine M, 2005). Accordingly, future studies should investigate the relationships in a longitudinal fashion in order to examine possible causality.

Second, choosing nationality as a proxy for culture is certainly ineffective measure of culture and may cause the lack of effect of cultural similarity on ethical leadership and employee voice behavior. Hence, future research would benefit of including a clear measure of cultural orientations such as power distance and how it affect voice behavior.

Third, although including age in the survey demographics section did not seem important during the data-collection stage, it was later realized that age might be a factor in understanding reasons for the high turnover rates in the Bahraini hospitality and tourism industry. Hence, age should be considered in future research.

Clearly, there is also an avenue for further research to consider other important mediators and contextual factors to explain the ethical leadership–employee performance relationship. For instance, frontline hotel employees have to continuously interact with customers as they serve them. Thus, it is logical that customers have an influence on the voice behavior of frontline employees. Therefore, future research should examine the customer influence, and whether the quality of customer–employee relationships impacts the relationship between ethical leadership and voice behavior. Moreover, as traits of the dominant culture were found to affect the role of employee voice, the impact of cultural traits, such as collectivism and

power distance, on the relationship between ethical leadership and voice behavior should be considered in future research (Song et al., 2017).

Another area for further study is the influence of employee education level on the relationship between voice behavior and employee in-role performance. In this study, the participants' education level was used as an explanatory variable regarding the performance of frontline hotel employees; however, few previous studies have yielded findings in support of ours in this regard. Therefore, it is important to examine this aspect further in future.

7.4 Summary

This chapter presented the conclusions of the study. It started by revisiting the study problem and literature gaps described at the first chapter of the research, and then moved to discuss the major findings of the analysis, and indicating significant contributions. Such contributions include extending the literature on ethical leadership, voice behavior, and the hospitality and tourism industry in the Middle East; shedding light on the voice role of frontline employees and helping to counter the common negative view on employee voice (Burriss, 2012); reflecting the current situation of frontline employees working in the Bahraini hospitality and tourism industry; and finally providing additional support for, and expanding understanding of, SLT and SET.

This was followed by a description of the practical implications of the research with regard to the main findings regarding ethical leadership, employee voice, cultural similarity, and the link between education and employee performance. The chapter ended by outlining the limitations of this study and opportunities for further investigation. Recommended areas for future research include conducting the

same study in a longitudinal fashion, or with other important mediators and contextual factors (e.g., customer influence, cultural traits, education level).

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Sample of the Permission Request Letter Sent to Hotels



UAEU College of Business
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Doctorate of Business Administration

August 9, 2019

Subject: Permission to Conduct Research Study

Dear sir

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at your hotel. I am enrolled in the Doctorate in Business Administration Program at the United Arab Emirates University in UAE, and I am currently in the process of writing my dissertation. The study is entitled 'The Impact of Ethical Leadership on Employees Performance through Driving Positive Employees Behavior'.

I hope that the hotel administration will allow me to recruit few frontline employees (reception staff) from your hotel to anonymously complete a questionnaire (copy enclosed). Due to the nature of the study, I hope also to have direct managers or supervisors of these employees to complete their own short questionnaire (copy enclosed). Each interested frontline employee, who volunteer to participate, will be given two questionnaires; one to be completed by the employee and the other one will be filled by his/her direct manager/supervisor. Completed questionnaires will be sealed and returned to HR/PR manager who will hand them directly back to me. Matching of the questionnaires completed by the employee and his/her supervisor will be done using code numbers without identifying any individual names.

If approval is granted, all participants will complete the survey on the hotel site during work time, after hotel permission. The survey process should take no longer than 10-15 minutes.

The survey results will be pooled for the dissertation project and analyzed on aggregate basis while individual responses will remain absolutely confidential and anonymous. Should this study be published, only pooled results will be documented with no mention of any individual or hotel names.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated. I will follow up with a telephone call next week and would be happy to answer any questions or concerns that you may have at that time. You may contact me at my email address: 201690115@uaeu.ac.ae or phone 33047777.

I would greatly appreciate your support by allowing me to distribute the survey to a small group of your frontline employees.

Looking forward to hearing from you

Sincerely,

Alyaa Rebea Aldoseri

Appendix 2: Sample of the Employee's Questionnaire

Code #

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Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in an academic study that examines the impact of ethical leadership on employee performance through driving positive employee behavior. I would greatly appreciate it if you could kindly spend some of your precious time to fill the questionnaire. Your participation in this study is well valued.

Any information obtained from this questionnaire will be treated in strict confidence and will be used solely for the purposes of this study. Please be assured that the information you provide in this survey will not be distributed to any third parties. Your responses are anonymous and not labeled so they cannot be traced to any individual. Although your responses will be greatly valued, your participation is voluntary and you would be free to withdraw from the study at any time by contacting me at [201690115@uaeu.ac.ae]. Completion and return of this questionnaire will be regarded as a consent. If you agree to participate in this study, you will be given two questionnaires with a code number on each of them; one to be completed by you and the other one need to be filled by your direct manager/supervisor. Completed questionnaires will be sealed and returned to HR/PR manager who will hand them directly back to me. Matching of the questionnaires completed by the employee and his/her supervisor will be done using the code numbers without identifying any individual names.

The purpose of this study is to explore the driving mechanism of employee performance by studying the influence of ethical leader behavior on employee performance. Findings of this study will disclose the vital role of employee voice in the hospitality and tourism industry and help organizations in improving performance of their employee.

I would greatly appreciate your support by completing this survey. Please feel free to contact me in case you have any queries.

Thank You.

Alyaa Rabea Aldoseri

Mobile: +97333047777

Email: 201690115@uaeu.ac.ae

A. Demographic Information:

Please indicate your current job title	_____
Please indicate your gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
Please indicate your national origin	_____
Please indicate your education level	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than High School <input type="checkbox"/> High school or equivalent <input type="checkbox"/> Some post High School <input type="checkbox"/> College/University degree
Please indicate how long you served under your current manager/supervisor?	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 year <input type="checkbox"/> 1 - 2 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3 - 4 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 - 6 years <input type="checkbox"/> More than 6 years
Please indicate how long you have been working in your current hotel	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 - 9 years <input type="checkbox"/> 10 - 14 years <input type="checkbox"/> 15 - 20 years <input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years
Please indicate your total number years of working experience	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 - 9 years <input type="checkbox"/> 10 - 14 years <input type="checkbox"/> 15 - 20 years <input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years

B. Ethical Leadership: This section describes the leadership style of your direct manager. There are ten descriptive statements listed below. Please read each statement carefully and indicate to which you agree or disagree regarding your current supervisor/direct manager using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	My direct manager listens to what employees have to say.					
2	My direct manager disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.					
3	My direct manager conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner.					
4	My direct manager has the best interests of employees in mind.					
5	My direct manager makes fair and balanced decisions.					
6	My direct manager can be trusted.					
7	My direct manager discusses business ethics or values with employees.					
8	My direct manager sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.					
9	My direct manager defines success not just by results but also the way they are obtained.					
10	My direct manager asks "What is the right thing to do?, when making decisions.					

C. Employee Voice: This section measures the extent to which your manager allows you to speak up to him/her and speak out to your colleagues. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following statement by marking the appropriate number from 1 to 5.

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Speaking Up		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	I develop and make recommendations to the supervisor concerning issues that affect our hotel.					
2	I speak up and influence the supervisor regarding issues that affect the hotel.					
3	I communicate my opinions about work issues to the supervisor even if his or her opinion is different, and the supervisor disagrees with me.					
4	I speak to the supervisor with new ideas for projects or changes in procedures.					
5	I give constructive suggestions to the supervisor to improve the supervisor's work.					
6	I point out to my supervisor to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures.					
7	If my supervisor made mistakes in his or her work, then I would point them out and help the supervisor correct them.					
8	I try to persuade my supervisor to change hotel rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive.					
9	I suggest my supervisor to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.					

Speaking Out		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	I develop and make recommendations to colleagues concerning issues that affect our hotel.					
2	I speak out and encourage colleagues to get involved in issues that affect the hotel.					
3	I communicate my opinions about work issues to colleagues even if my opinion is different, and colleagues disagree.					
4	I speak to colleagues with new ideas for projects or changes in procedures.					
5	I give constructive suggestions to colleagues to improve their work.					
6	If my colleagues made mistakes in their work, I would point them out and help correct them					

Thank you for your participation in completing this survey. We appreciate learning your views and drawing on your experience.

Appendix 3: Sample of Manager's Questionnaire

Code #

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Doctorate of Business Administration

Dear manager/supervisor,

You are invited to participate in a research study that examines the impact of ethical leadership on employee performance through driving positive employee behavior. I would greatly appreciate if you could kindly fill the questionnaire with regard to your subordinate who gave you this survey. Your participation in this study will be greatly appreciated. The questionnaire will take around 10 minutes of your time.

Any information obtained from this questionnaire will be treated in strict confidence and will be used solely for the purposes of this study. Please be assured that the information you provide in this survey will not be distributed to any third parties. Your responses are anonymous and not labeled so they cannot be traced to any individual. Although your responses will be greatly valued, your participation is voluntary and you would be free to withdraw from the study at any time by contacting me at [201690115@uaeu.ac.ae].

The purpose of this study is to explore the driving mechanism of employee performance by studying the influence of ethical leader behavior on employee performance. Findings of this study will disclose the vital role of employee voice in the hospitality and tourism industry and help organizations in improving performance of their employees.

I would greatly appreciate your support by completing this survey. Please feel free to contact me in case you have any queries.

Thank You.

Alyaa Rabea Aldoseri

Mobile: +97333047777

Email: 201690115@uaeu.ac.ae

B. Demographic Information:

Please indicate your current job title	_____
Please indicate your gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
Please indicate your national origin	_____
Please indicate your education level	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than High School <input type="checkbox"/> High school or equivalent <input type="checkbox"/> Some post High School <input type="checkbox"/> College/University degree
Please indicate how long you have been working in your current hotel	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 - 9 years <input type="checkbox"/> 10 - 14 years <input type="checkbox"/> 15 - 20 years <input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years
Please indicate your total number years of working experience	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5 - 9 years <input type="checkbox"/> 10 - 14 years <input type="checkbox"/> 15 - 20 years <input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years

D. Employee Performance: This section measures different aspects of subordinate performance. Please read each statement carefully and indicate to which you agree or disagree regarding your subordinate using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

In-role performance		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Adequately completes assigned duties					
2	Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.					
3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.					
4	Meets formal performance of the job.					
5	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.					
6	Neglects aspects of the job he/she obligated to perform.					
7	Fails to perform essential duties.					

Organizational citizenship behavior-individual		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Helps others who have been absent.					
2	Helps others who have heavy workloads.					
3	Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).					
4	Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.					
5	Goes out of way to help new employees.					
6	Takes a personal interest in other employees.					
7	Passes along information to co-workers.					

Organizational citizenship behavior-organization		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Attendance at work is above the norm.					
2	Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.					
3	Takes underserved work breaks.					
4	Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations.					
5	Complains about insignificant things at work.					
6	Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.					

Thank you for your participation in completing this survey. We appreciate learning your views and drawing on your experience.


 Digitally signed by
 Shrieen
 DN: cn=Shrieen,
 o=United Arab Emirates
 University, ou=UAEU
 Library Digitization,
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 Date: 2020.08.16
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