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The Relationship between CEO Traits Atttributes and Best Workplace Organizations

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Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational research paper was to examine to what extent a relationship existed between leadership trait attributes and corporate rank on the Best Workplaces List published by the Great Places to Work Institute. The study included a sample of 35 chief executive officers (CEOs) whose organizations were ranked among the 2012 best workplaces in the United States. The study had a sample of 35 chief executive officers whose organizations were ranked among the 2012 best workplaces in the United States. Study participants completed a mailed self-report survey in form of an adapted Personal Value Scale. Companies of participants were categorized by size and ranked based on the Best Workplace List. The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationship between the variables of interest. The findings of this study indicated no significant relationships between leadership trait attributes and corporate ranking for the small and midsize companies. Overall, the findings of this study do not support the interactive relationship between transformational and transactional leadership attributes of CEOs and corporate ranking of best workplaces. The small sample size was the primary confounding factor, and therefore additional research is warranted with a larger sample.

Keywords: CEO success, Great Place to Work Institute, Leadership traits, Organizational performance

Introduction

According to Wong and Davey (2007), though there appears to be a lot written about organizational leadership and management, and several graduate schools appear to have been improved their curricula in terms of teaching leadership and management. However, one might still ask the question: Are the right leaders being trained/developed for what is described for today's complex and unpredictable future? Thus, there appears to be a pressing need to do what is described as some soul *searching and hard thinking* concerning how to develop leadership for the next generation (Wong & Davey, 2007). Furthermore, theorists such as Posner believed that there appears a shift in leadership about self to one

about others. As a result, certain values are considered critical to maintain what is described as ethical management in an organization such as honesty, concern for others, justice, among others (Russell, 2001). This is because positional power is not as influential in today's organization. Instead, today's leaders (CEOs) tend to derive one's influence from values. For example, when an organizational leader brings ethical values into one's organization it tends to lead to increase productivity, profitability, customer loyalty, and employee retention (McLaughlin, 2009).

Thus, the researcher is a proponent that today's leadership should not be one based on what is described by Wong and Davey (2007) as process and outcome. Instead, the researcher agrees that the new paradigm of leadership as one based on people and the future to be the only way for a 21st century leader to lead (Wong & Davey, 2007), and therefore organizations need to develop the right kind of organizational leaders (CEOs) for today's complex and unpredictable future. This is because there is usually condition for change that might emerge over time as the social climate tends to influence the well-being of certain groups such as employees, among others (Hickman, 2010). As a result, the dominant philosophy of only profit maximization for a particular organization needs to be balanced with a sense of caring for others such as employees in the workplace. In essence, the bottom line is insufficient in order to make an organization successful. It also needs a sense of humanity and community as well (Wong & Davey, 2007).

Wood and Vilkinas (2005) stated that a chief executive officer (CEO) should possess certain leadership attributes such as values/traits in order to lead an organization effectively. Several studies identified leadership traits and behaviors of successful CEOs. However, these studies appeared to use varying methodology and participant types (Sternke, 2011). Additionally, most of these studies appeared theoretical in nature and may have studied middle level managers or senior level managers, rather than CEOs. To date, the leadership literature does not appear to differentiate enough between the attributes of a successful middle level manager or a senior level manager and a successful CEO because traditionally these executive groups (middle level managers and senior level managers) have been the focus of executive leadership (Wood & Vilkinas, 2005). Studies with mixed level leaders as participants usually do not provide clarity on CEO level attributes that may be related to successful leadership efforts.

The accomplishment of being selected as a best workplace organization in the United States appears to have implications for people's self- esteem. For instance, an employee who tends to high self –esteem usually views oneself as useful, invaluable, and competent (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). As a result the Great Place to Work Institute found that an organization tends to have higher levels of productivity and profitability when there are employees who are engaged and loyal when compared to an organization with disengaged employees. In essence, one might argue these engaged individuals have higher self-esteem of themselves than those who are disengaged. This is because a person's self –esteem usually relate s to one's self-worth (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). For example, according to the Great Place to Work Institute, there are cases in which performance increased by up to 50 percent when there were loyal and engaged employees. Furthermore, overall engaged employees were approximately 65 percent less likely to leave their jobs in best workplace organizations (Great Place to Work, 2012). In addition, the Great Place to Work Institute also found that best workplace organizations tend to provide three times the rate of returns to shareholders when compared to other organizations.

Theoretical basis of research

Attributes and Leadership

Leadership theory has changed significantly in the past 100 years. Hence, there are as many explanations for the term *leader* as there are leaders. However, researchers continue to focus their attention on leadership attributes of a leader such as a CEO or upper level manager (Janssen, 2004). Despite these studies, little is known about the defining attributes of effective leadership (Fleming, 2009). According to

Ulrich, Zenger, and Smallwood(1999), an attribute is an ambiguous concept, because it might consist of traits/values, behaviors, styles, among others characteristics. Nevertheless, one might classify leadership attributes into two main groups: who a leader is, and what a leader does. For example, Northouse (2012) noted that who a leader is, tends to have implications for leadership traits/values. On the other hand, what a leader does has implications for leadership behavioral style. In addition, some theorists proposed that an organizational leader usually leads from one's personal values/traits and beliefs (Russell, 2001). This is because an organizational leader's personal value system is described as being a part of one's *psyche* and influences one's behavior (Russell, 2001).

CEO Traits and Organizational Performance

Northouse (2012) stated that trait theories appear to be the first attempt to examine leadership effectiveness. The development of the trait theory began to evolve in the United States during the early 1900s (Janssen, 2004). During this time, leadership theorists studied which traits were linked to successful leaders. Moreover, these earlier trait theories, called the "great man" theories, focused primarily on hereditary characteristics of outstanding leaders such as those who held military and political positions. For instance, these earlier trait theories suggested then, that influential leaders such as Abraham Lincoln and Mahatma Gandhi were born with distinct innate characteristics, which transcended them into "great" leaders (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012; Northouse, 2012). Subsequently, the trait approach replaced the great man theories as theorists began to suspect that traits are learnable over time (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012). This means that leadership theory progressed from the ideology that a leader is destined to be in one's role at a certain time to a contemplation of certain traits that explain a potential for leadership (Janssen, 2004). Theorists such as Stogdill (1948) argued that there was no general set of traits to differentiate military and non-military leaders from followers in all situations (Northouse, 2012). This is because one might be a leader in one situation, and not be a leader in a different situation.

Stogdill's (1948) research on the relationship between traits and leadership consisted of two surveys. Stogdill's first survey conducted between 1904 and 1947 found that there was a set of traits responsible for one to become a leader. These traits included: intelligence, responsibility, initiative, and self-confidence, among others (Northouse, 2012). However, Stogdill believed that a person did not become a leader only because of these traits. Instead, the study demonstrated that these traits mainly depended upon the situation at hand. Thus, the situation was significant for the development of a person's leadership ability. It also determined which traits were more critical than others (Stogdill, 1948) were. Subsequently, Stogdill's second survey found that both traits and situational factors are essential to one's leadership (Northouse, 2012). Although, Stogdill appeared to believe that the most critical traits a leader might possess were those most closely related to the task. Interestingly, Stogdill's second survey coincided with the original trait concept that stated individual leadership traits are indeed critical for effective leadership (Northouse, 2012).

The literature appears to demonstrate that little consensus exists when one compares empirical findings that relate to distinctive traits needed for effective leadership (Sternke, 2011). Nevertheless, most of the studies conducted on traits appear to identify a common set of traits. Consequently, Sternke (2011) claimed that traits identifiable for effective leadership appear to offer a strong foundation for making sense of leadership traits. For example, theorists such as Stogdill (1974) observed approximately 13 traits that a successful leader needs to possess. These traits included dominance, self-confidence, adaptability to situations, and being achievement oriented, among others in Table 1.

Table 1:Stogdill's Leadership Traits and Skills

Traits	Skills
Adaptable to situations	Clever (intelligent)
Alert to social environment	Conceptually skilled
Ambitious and achievement orientated	Diplomatic and tactful
Assertive	Fluent in speaking
Cooperative	Knowledgeable about group task
Decisive	Organized (administrative ability)
Dependable	
Dominant (desire to influence others)	
Energetic (high activity level)	
Persistent	
Self- confident	
Tolerant of stress	
Willing to assume responsibility	

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) found that a successful leader needs to possess six key traits. These traits included: drive, motivation, honesty and integrity, intelligence, knowledge of one's business, and self-confidence. Kouzes and Posner (2012) surveyed over 70,000 participants concerning the characteristics for effective leadership. Subsequently, they developed the Leadership Practices Inventory, which identified approximately 20 traits needed by a successful leader. These traits included: intelligence, caring, determination, cooperativeness, being achievement oriented, thoughtfulness, and honesty, among other traits (See Table 2, below). Meanwhile, Northouse (2012) found that, from the lengthy list of traits studied, only intelligence, self- confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability appear to be universal determinants of an effective leader.

Table 2: Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Traits

• Honest	• Broadminded
• Forward–looking	• Imaginative
• Competent	• Ambitious
• Inspiring	• Courageous
• Intelligent	• Caring
• Fair-minded Supportive	• Mature
• Straight-forward	• Loyal
• Dependable	• Self-controlled
• Cooperative	• Independent
• Determined	

Derue Scott, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011) examined the contribution of Bass' research on traits. Specifically, they found support for the following: (1) a description of the specific traits that differentiate a leader from a follower, and (2) the extent of the differences between leaders and nonleaders. The authors jointly explained a variety of studies on traits of successful leaders, but there have been limited studies to assess the extent of the difference in leadership traits (Derue Scott et al.,

2011). Derue Scott et al. later stated that the traits of an effective leader might include certain demographic characteristics such as gender, age, or education; task competence such as intelligence; interpersonal attributes such as agreeableness, and extraversion. The demographic characteristic gender appears to have received the most interest in the literature, compared to other personal characteristics such as education and experience. Nonetheless, the literature has thus far determined that there is an insignificant relationship between the demographic characteristic gender and leadership effectiveness. Instead, one needs to include other traits such as intelligence, in order to determine the validity of one's gender to leadership effectiveness (Derue Scott et al., 2011).

Derue Scott et al. (2011) found that the term task competence consisted of a group of traits that determine how well a leader does tasks. Task competence has included traits such as intelligence, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional intelligence. Intelligence, for example, represents one's capability for cognitive thinking and problem solving. However, Gardner (1999) believed that intelligence is not comprised of cognitive abilities only. The term also includes a set of social, physical abilities and skills. This means that intelligence incorporates "an individual's capacity to diagnose and respond to their environment" (Kutz & Bamford-Wade, 2013, p. 64). Gardner then classified intelligence as multiple intelligences. Examples of these include linguistics intelligence, logical mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, intrapersonal, and interpersonal types of intelligence (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012). Nevertheless, Gardner stated that intelligence such as intrapersonal, linguistic, and interpersonal characteristics are crucial to effective leadership. Northouse (2012) asserted that intelligence in terms of cognitive abilities also tends to relate positively with one's leadership effectiveness. This means that one's reasoning, verbal, and perceptual abilities assist with one's leadership. In spite of the type of intelligence identified, recent studies found that the construct of "intelligence" is indeed critical for effective leadership (Wilson & Mujtaba, 2010).

Meanwhile, traits such as conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional intelligence, which may appear to be related to how one reacts to one's task (Derue Scott et al., 2011), must also be considered. For instance, the trait conscientiousness appears to include one's initiative and ambition to accomplish a task. In contrast, the trait openness to experience appears to include one's willingness to become creative and open minded in doing one's task; whereas emotional intelligence appears to include one's emotional stability in difficult situations (Derue Scott et al., 2011). The literature supported that all of these traits demonstrated a positive relationship with leadership effectiveness. In addition, interpersonal attributes consisting of "agreeableness" and "extraversion" also have demonstrated a positive relationship with leadership effectiveness in some studies (Derue Scott et al., 2011).

Individual attributes such as competence and agreeableness appear comparable to leadership skills such as technical and social skills are noted in the literature. Technical skills that include education or knowledge and are thought to be responsible for problem solving in an organization, In addition, the literature suggested that technical skills help to define and solve organizational problems may be critical in leadership (Northouse, 2012). On the other hand, one's social judgment skill enables a qualified person to get along with others to solve organizational problems. It also enables one to garner assistance in implementing organizational change (Northouse, 2012), both needed skills for effective management. Herman's (2008) study investigated the relationship existing between organizational factors and workplace spirituality. The study had a sample size of 400 participants, some 43% whom were relatively new leaders with only one to six years' experience. The results demonstrated that there was a positive relationship between one's role in an organization, and workplace spirituality (Herman, 2008). As a result, traits such as competence and agreeableness appear to create a "shared system of beliefs, attitudes, values, expectations and norm of behavior" (Taylor, 2006, p. 12). The study had limitations in terms of the sample size and additionally, it used participants only from nonprofit and educational organizations. These limitations usually have implications for generalization of results to for-profit and large corporations (American Psychological Association, 2010).

Research Questions/Hypotheses

The main research question will relate to the question of a possible relationship between the trait attributes and organizational performance in terms of an organization being listed as a best workplace. In the research, the independent variables will be CEOs trait attributes. Meanwhile, the dependent variable will be the ranking given to the best workplace organizations for a particular year, which is published in the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute. This ranking for best workplace organizations might be considered as a discrete variable because it is not continuous (Bluman, 2011). The Great Place to Work Institute tends to rank an organization as a best workplace based on a standardized metric scores obtained from its Trust Employee Survey and Culture Audit. In addition, the higher the score, the higher ranking a best workplace organization tends to obtain (Great Place to Work, 2012).

According to Creswell (2013), an independent variable is a variable that tends to affect a particular outcome, and a dependent variable usually depends on the independent variable. Furthermore, in a quantitative research, a researcher usually tests a particular theory with the use of hypotheses/questions that are derived from this particular theory (Creswell, 2013). Thus, the following research questions and hypotheses will guide this research study:

R1: Is there a positive correlation between ranking given to small sized best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute and CEO trait attributes?

H_1: There is a positive correlation between ranking given to small sized best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute and CEO trait attributes?

H_o: There is no positive correlation between ranking given to small sized best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute and CEO trait attributes?

R2: : Is there a positive correlation between ranking given to midsized best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute and CEO trait attributes?

H_1: There is a positive correlation between ranking given to midsized best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute and CEO trait attributes?

H_o: There is no positive correlation between ranking given to midsized best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute and CEO trait attributes?

Research methodology

I decided to use the research design such as the survey design to conduct one's research study. The population for the study consisted of CEOs of organizations whose organizations are among the 2012 best workplaces in the United States and ranked by the established research institute called the Great Place to Work Institute. The sampling procedure was sampling frames in terms of published lists. This method determines and identifies individuals in the population (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, Cooper and Schindler (2010) stated that a good sampling design is determined by how well that design represents the characteristics of the population it implies to represent.

The current study targeted all of the organizations companies ranked among 2012 best workplaces in terms of diversity in the United States listed by *Fortune* magazine (i.e., 100% of the total population). Because the current study used all the population of the small and midsized businesses including small and midsized Fortune 500 companies ranked among the 2012 best workplaces in the United States as

listed by *Fortune* magazine, calculation for the minimum sample to be included in the study was not needed. However, there will be an eligibility criterion in choosing a particular CEO for an organization, in that, he/she needs to be in one's position for at least two years (i.e., the researcher will collect demographic information such as age, tenure as CEOs, among others), which appears sufficient in order to effect change in the particular organization (Wood & Vilkinas, 2005).

This particular research study uses a quantitative approach, in that, it is considered as an applicable methodology to conduct leadership studies such as to build knowledge by validating an existing theory (Borland, 2001). Furthermore, a quantitative methodology is where the research study uses what is described as deductive / postpositivistic form of inquiry to investigate the relationship among independent and dependent variables as in the case of the current research (Creswell, 2013). Thus, a quantitative methodology will provide objective findings based on statistical /measurable evidence, and this process will be aided with the use of a survey- based instrument to collect data (Creswell, 2013).

The data collection process consisted of an established self –report survey called the adapted Personal Value Scale (PVS). This survey was mailed and requested CEOs to manually fill out the hard copy of the survey and returns it via postage paid mail to the current researcher. According to American Psychological Association (2010), a researcher such as the current researcher should maintain confidentiality and anonymity in the data collection process. One of the reasons for a mailed survey is that it gives the time and convenience to a particular respondent to complete the survey. In essence, it gives a rapid turnaround time in data collection (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, I will offer a copy of the findings to the participants along with emphasis on the importance of one's research study; the use of stamp, self-addressed envelopes; personalizing letters with individualized signatures preferably in blue ink, in order to increase response rates. This is because Dillman (2007) stated that a researcher should follow certain techniques to increase the response rates from a research using mailed survey. In essence, this type of exchange process is such that, a participant is more likely to return a mailed survey if the perceived benefits appear to exceed the costs of participation, and where there is the establishment of trust. The current researcher had requested permission to use the survey questions based on the 12-item Personal Traits component of the adapted PVS in order to measure the traits of CEOs, whose organizations are listed among the best workplace organizations in the United States by the Great Place to Work Institute. These traits are high ability, ambitious, skillful, cooperative, achievement – oriented, satisfied with one's job, creative, successful minded, flexible, competitive, caring, and connected with others.

The instrument was originally developed by England (1967), "under a Ford Foundation Faculty Fellowship for Research on Business" (Strom-Borman, 1993, p. 69). The original instrument had 66 items grouped into five categories. The instrument had a seven-point scale used to measure values of managers in an organization. The scale also appeared consistent with scales used to measure managerial values such as the Rokeach Value Survey (Strom Borman, 1993). Values are among the attributes that indicate who a leader is (Ulrich et al., 1999). Further, Englund (1967) believed that values are a trait attribute that are stable in an executive over time and shapes that executive behavior. According to Strom-Borman (1993), Powell, Posner, and Schmidt (1984) adapted the instrument to test its psychometric properties. Subsequently, the adapted version of the instrument consisted of only three categories and 48 items. The three categories are organizational goals, stakeholders, and personal traits. Additionally, the revised scale uses a 5-point Likert response format that ranges from 1= "n*ot at all important*" to 5 = "v*ery important.*"

It is telling that the revised instrument also had implications for gender in terms of managerial values (Strom-Borman, 2003). American Psychological Association (2010) argued that even when a researcher does not use a demographic characteristic in one's data analyses; it oftentimes increases generalizability of one's results. For example, gender might add to the external validity of the current study. In addition, the adapted PVS consisted of a valid Likert scale appropriate to measure upper level executive (CEO)traits. I analyzed the collected data using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software,

however, the Spearman correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship among the dependent and independent variables. This is because the dependent variable is discrete and the independent variables are continuous (Bluman, 2011). In this study, Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the adapted PVS instrument. Storman -Borman (1993) emphasized that one needs to retest the internal consistency for the adapted PVS scale. According to Sun et al. (2007), Cronbach's coefficient is the most appropriate index to estimate the internal consistency for an instrument that has multiple items. The researcher performed this test on the adapted PVS scale using the SPSS software during the data analysis process. The calculated Cronbach's coefficient for the adapted PVS scale was 0.79. This score is considered to have sufficient internal consistency (Gay & Airasian, 2011).

Results/Conclusion

According to American Psychological Association (2010), the results/findings section of a particular research study as in the case of the current research study, tends to summarize the collected data and the analysis conducted on these data. However, a researcher such as the current researcher needs to make sure that one mentions all pertinent results, even if these findings run counter to the expected results. Subsequent to presenting one's findings, a researcher usually interprets and evaluates the implications of one's findings for instance, in terms of the original hypotheses (American Psychological Association, 2010). In essence, one examines, interprets, and qualifies one's findings and draws inferences and certain conclusions (American Psychological Association, 2010).

Babbie (2009) explained that when there is no response bias in one's research study it is considered more significant than the actual response rate in a particular research study as in the case of the current research study. However, I obtained a response rate nearing 44 percent from using Dillman's (2007) techniques for mail survey. The finding of this study indicated that there was no significant result between the interaction of trait attributes and and corporate rank on the Best Workplaces List (BWL) published by the Great Place to Work Institute in terms of small businesses, midsized businesses, small-sized Fortune 500 companies, and midsized Fortune 500 companies. Please see Table 2 below, r_s (35) = -.127, p >.05

Table 3: Spearman's Correlation Coefficient between Rank on Best workplaces and Trait Attributes

		RaRank
Avg. Trait	Spearman's Rho Rank Correlation Coefficient	-.127
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.236
	N	35

Discussion

It was not known if a relationship existed between the CEO trait/values attributes and organizational performance in terms of best workplaces. This might be applicable because Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (2009) commented that traits relate to recurring regularities in a leader's behavior. As a result, leaders are believed to behave the way they do based upon the strengths of traits they possess. In addition, an organizational leader (e.g., a CEO) usually imposes one's personal values on organizational members to

establish the culture in the particular organization (Russell, 2001). Consequently, it is this shared values and beliefs, which lead to what is described as sustained success in that particular organization (Russell, 2001).

Thus, this study examined how CEO trait attributes associates with organizational performance in terms of best workplaces. However, a major weakness of this particular research study was a low response rate, and this tends to produce what is described as a non-response bias in the study (Paxson, 1995). This is because the CEOs, who did not complete the survey, usually do not sufficiently represent the true sample population. In essence, the perspectives of those CEO who did not participate in the research study may differ considerably from those CEOs who actually engaged in the research study (Paxson, 1995).

Limitations

The sample size in this study deserves some comment. The CEOs selection process was difficult. An important limitation in this study is that low response rates may produce a major source of error through non –response bias. This is because those who completed the survey questionnaires probably do not adequately represent the population. This means that opinions of those who did not respond may differ significantly from those who did respond (Paxson, 1995). In addition, I am cognizant that some of the CEOs who answered the survey might have scored themselves higher than they should have. Therefore, ranking given to best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute does not seem to be a factor in terms of CEO trait attributes. Instead, I decided to examine the overall scores for CEO trait attributes and the overall best workplace organizations in the United States.

Implications

The objective of the findings was an attempt to assist in the development of certain leadership attributes in future CEOs to achieve success in terms of an organization-based award such as best workplaces. This is because there is still little known about the defining attributes of effective leadership. The study used traits concerning trait theory pertaining to organizational leaders. However, the results found that overall there was no relationship between trait attributes and the ranking by the Great Place to Work Institute.

Recommendation

The Recommendation section of this particular research study will discuss recommendations in order to advance research studies on this particular topic: What is the relationship between CEO transactional/transformational leadership attributes and ranking given to best workplace organizations in the United States published by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute. Though, I did not find a positive relationship between the independent and independent variables, one is cognizant that the findings might be improved. Thus, I will give some recommendations on how a future researcher might improve one's findings based on this particular research study.

For example, according to Larson and Poist (2004), one might need to address the response rates for CEOs in order to guard against non-response bias. Thus, a recommendation might be for a future

researcher to obtain trade association sponsorship, and then the particular researcher sends mail survey to CEOs through one's university. Another recommendation might be to provide an alternative for a CEO to fill out the particular survey. This means that the particular researcher gives a particular CEO an option to complete the survey, either manually and then one returns the mail survey to the researcher through a postage paid mail. Another option might be that particular CEO logs onto a secured website and completes the survey online. This particular recommendation might provide flexibility to the respondent to complete the survey, and therefore might increase the response rate. Finally, I have focused only on CEOs of best workplace organizations in the United States ranked and listed by the Fortune magazine in collaboration with the Great Place to Work Institute. However, a future researcher might replicate this particular research study to include CEOs from abroad. This is because the Great Place to Work Institute also ranked international organizations as best workplaces as well. For example, when one replicates this particular study with international participants, the particular researcher might compare the findings for similarities with the participants from the United States. Thus, this might add to the generalization of one's findings in terms of certain defining leadership attributes to make an organization becomes a best workplace organization regardless of culture/nationality such as in India among others.

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