An Empirical Examination of the Relationships Among Perceived Authentic Leadership, Follower's Hope, Follower's Trust in the Leader, and Follower's Work Engagement

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AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PERCEIVED AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP, FOLLOWER'S HOPE, FOLLOWER'S TRUST IN THE LEADER, AND FOLLOWER'S WORK ENGAGEMENT

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Abstract

George (2003) discussed how the complexities of 21st-century corporations demand new leadership; George believed leaders need to lead with purpose, promoting values, integrity, and a strong ethical system. Researchers have noted that authentic leadership is positively related to engagement because often authentic leaders strengthen the feelings of self-efficacy, competence, and confidence of their followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). This study tested the extent to which follower's hope and follower's trust in the leader mediated a follower's perceptions of authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and the follower's level of employee work engagement. Data were collected from a sample of 203 participants that worked in corporate America. Findings from the study revealed there was a positive and significant relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement. Follower's hope and trust in the leader both partially mediated the relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement since the analysis revealed that after the addition of the mediator, there was very little reduction in the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement. Theoretical implications of these findings are discussed as well as recommendations for future research.

Keywords: authentic leadership behaviors, follower's hope, follower's work engagement, trust in the leader

Dedication

Praise God from whom all blessings flow.

I dedicate this dissertation in remembrance of my parents, Rev. Leon and Dorothy Mosby.

To my mother, you were such a wonderful nurturer and cheerleader. You provided an exemplary example of courage and selfless love. Mom, this Ph.D. is for you.

To my father, thank you for instilling the power of education into me. I know you dreamed of attaining your Ph.D. Dad, this Ph.D. is for you.

To my daughters, Kaya and Nuri, you inspire me to do and be better. Thank you for showing me a most profound love that a mother could ever experience. May this accomplishment encourage you to soar to unimaginable heights, the world is your oyster . . . enjoy it!

To my beautiful family and extended family, as my brilliant brother, Anthony, proclaims, we are under the blood. Aunt Harriet, you are the backbone of this family and you never complain, you are simply amazing. Aunt Chris, thank you for always living outside the box, showing me how to tackle the "possible" impossible. Fam, thank you for being the wings I needed in order to fly! The love you all have poured into me during this process is nothing more than miraculous. This Ph.D. is for you.

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I also would like to take this opportunity to honor and thank my best friends, Mistie and Erin, thank you for always supporting/loving me through the years and helping me laugh through the madness that is sometimes called life. To my spiritual sisters, Jeanenne and Cheryl, thank you for being my spiritual warriors, always going to battle with me whenever it was needed. Lastly, I would like to thank Seal Team 9. I would like to honor our captain, Dr. Paul Carr. Dr. Carr you have instilled a sense of unrelenting pride within me and you are a spectacular vison of hope—*carpe diem*. To my seals, God has blessed each and every one of you with such amazing talents. I am honored that I have experienced and seen your brilliance in action. To my sis, Keyonna Beverly, your soul is so sweet and nurturing, thank you for always praying for me. To my big sis, DeVata Davis, we did it! Your unrelenting encouragement helped propel me to the finish line.

If you can't fly then run, if you can't run then walk, if you can't walk then crawl, but whatever you do you have to keep moving forward.

– Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.

I've learned that people will forget what you said, people will forget what you did, but people will never forget how you made them feel.

– Dr. Maya Angelou

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

George (2003) discussed how the complexities of 21st-century corporations demand new leadership. In fact, George believed leaders need to lead with purpose, promoting values, integrity, and a strong ethical system. Leadership is "a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow. It's the quality of this relationship that matters most when we're engaged in getting extraordinary things done" (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, p. 24). In recent years, new research was conducted that looked at the needs of the follower (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). Rath and Conchie (2008) and a Gallup research team asked more than 10,000 followers what most influential leaders contributed to their lives; and the most common answers that emerged were trust, compassion, stability, and hope.

Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) created a theoretical framework that examined how authentic leadership behaviors influenced followers' attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Avolio, Gardner, et al. posited, "Authentic leaders are able to enhance the engagement, motivation, commitment, satisfaction, and involvement required from followers to constantly improve their work and performance outcomes" (p. 804). This framework also suggests that hope and trust are enhanced by authentic leadership behaviors, which lead to increased commitment and job satisfaction. Avolio, Gardner, et al. highlighted that these intervening variables may generate a hopeful, trusting, and optimistic outlook in the follower that increases commitment, job satisfaction, engagement, and a sense of meaningfulness. Reflecting on Avolio, Gardner, et al.'s model, hope and trust were directly affected by authentic leadership and may subsequently improve attitudes like commitment.

Both Rath and Conchie (2008) and Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) identified hope and trust as intervening variables that are impacted by authentic leadership and may in turn act to increase a follower's level of work engagement. The current study builds on Avolio, Gardner, et al.'s work by empirically testing the extent to which follower's hope and trust in leader are mediating variables in the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

Research Questions

This study examined the following research questions:

RQ_1: To what extent is a follower's perceptions of the authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader related to a follower's work engagement in current job?

RQ_2: To what extent is the relationship between a follower's perceptions of the authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and a follower's work engagement mediated by a follower's level of hope?

RQ_3: To what extent is the relationship between a follower's perceptions of the authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and a follower's work engagement mediated by his or her level of trust in the leader?

Research Hypotheses

The current study examines the perceived authentic leadership behaviors experienced by followers and their relationship to the follower's level of work engagement. The study also examines the possible mediating effects that trust in the leader and follower's hope may have on this relationship. Investigating such topics adds to the theoretical body of authentic leadership literature.

Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors and Employee Work Engagement

Looking through the lens of authentic leadership, Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005) added authentic leaders exhibit the following behaviors: "Authentic leaders are deeply aware of their values and beliefs, they are self-confident, genuine, reliable and trustworthy, and they focus on building followers' strengths, broadening their thinking and creating a positive and engaging organizational context" (p. 374). Work engagement describes the state of mind in which employees exhibit vigorous attention and dedication to work; engagement is also associated with a high level of enthusiasm while at work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Rurkkhum and Bartlett (2012) explained as individuals become increasingly disenchanted with work, their fatigue increases, which may lead to disengagement.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) posited it is the leader's responsibility to actively restore the balance and recognize the emotional aspects of the follower. Schaufeli and Bakker clarified this recognition is critical in creating a more energized and engaged workforce.

Previous research has found that engagement positively influences employee productivity, customer satisfaction, and retention (J. K. Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). Authentic leadership can facilitate work engagement among employees (Bamford, Wong, & Laschinger, 2013; Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Research has also shown evidence of a positive relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; Ilies et al., 2005). A key question arises. When leaders exhibit authentic leadership behaviors, are these behaviors enough to keep employees engaged at an individual level? Because it has been theorized that authentic leadership behaviors may directly affect a follower's work engagement, the first hypothesis tested follows:

H_1: Perceived authentic leadership behaviors are positively related to follower's work engagement.

Follower's Hope Mediating Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors and Employee Work Engagement

In a 2009 study, Gallup asked more than 20,000 individuals three question to measure hope in their workplace (Crabtree & Robison, 2010): Will a person be an important part of this organization in the future? Does a person set clear and meaningful goals and accomplish them? Does a person find ways to solve almost any problem in one's workplace? Crabtree and Robison (2010) indicated overall only 15% of employees strongly agreed with all three items, suggesting only a small minority were completely free of doubts about their current and future contributions to their organizations. Crabtree and Robison highlighted that percentage was almost doubled to 29% among employees who were emotionally engaged in their workplaces and dropped to just 2% for those individuals who were actively disengaged.

Luthans and Jensen (2002) showed how hope can be developed at the individual, team, and organizational levels in today's workplace. Gardner (1993) theorized that the two tasks at the heart of numerous leadership theories are goal setting and motivating, which can be aligned with the hope theory. The hope theory defines hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). A critical task of authentic leaders is to create hope among their followers, help them set their goals, and help followers decide how to reach/achieve these goals (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). Additionally, high hope individuals are usually more certain of their goals and challenged by them; they are also less anxious in stressful situations and more adaptive to change (Snyder, Cheavens, & Sympson, 1997; Snyder, Feldman, Taylor, Schroeder, & Adams, 2000). Thus, follower's hope may mediate the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and a follower's work engagement. The second hypothesis tested follows:

H_2: A follower's level of hope mediates the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

Trust in Leader Mediating Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors and Employee Work Engagement

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) explained followers' trust in the leader is measured as one of the most important variables that mediate leadership effectiveness. The level of commitment in which followers will connect to their leader's vision depends on the leader's capability to build trust with the follower (Yukl, 1998). Helland and Winston (2005) posited,

> Authentic leadership goes beyond existing charismatic and transformational leadership theories by focusing on a leadership approach that fosters high levels of trust which in turn encourages people to be more positive, to build on their strengths, to expand their horizon of thinking, to act ethically and morally and to be committed to continuous improvement in organization performance. (p. 49)

Ilies et al. (2005) noted there are positive research results when leaders interact with employees with openness and truthfulness; the authors theorized that this promotes unconditional trust from employees. Additionally, by setting personal high moral standards rooted in integrity and allowing involving employees in the decision-making process, authentic leaders are able to build a deep sense of trust in employees (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). Schaufeli and Salanova (as cited in Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008) explained there can be an increase in work engagement among employees if there is a solid sense of trust in the competence and capability of their immediate supervisors. Authentic leaders are guided by deep personal values and convictions that generate credibility as well as follower respect and trust (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). Shamir and Eilam (2005) added this exchange stimulates equally authentic engagement among them. Thus, a follower's trust in the leader may mediate the relationship between authentic leadership behaviors and a follower's work engagement. The third hypothesis tested follows:

H_3: A follower's level of trust in his or her leader mediates the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

The hypothesized relationships among the study variables are illustrated in Figure 1.

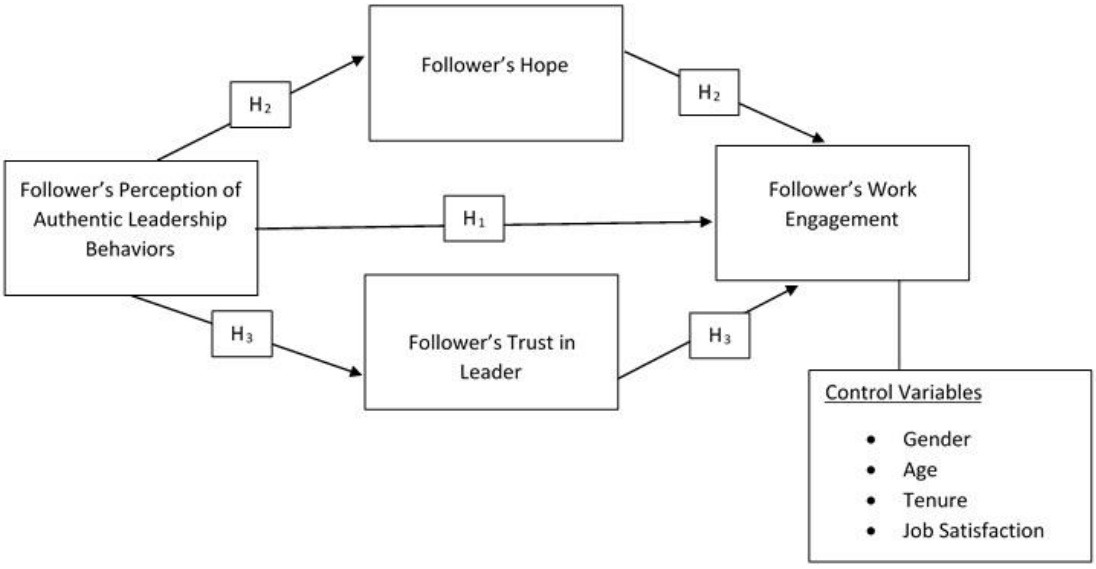

Figure 1: Research model depicting relationships between a follower's perceived authentic leadership behaviors, follower's hope, follower's trust in leader, and follower's work engagement controlling for gender, age, tenure, and job satisfaction.

Theoretical Perspective

Man know thyself is an ancient Egyptian proverb found in many temples of that time. Building upon this ancient Egyptian concept, S. Harter (2002) explained the construct of authenticity is captured well by the injunctions of ancient Greek philosophers who investigated the meaning of *knowing thyself* and the importance of remaining true to one's self. The concept of authenticity has also been covered extensively in various disciplines, including humanistic psychology (Maslow, 1971; Rogers, 1959), developmental psychology (Erickson, 1995), and existential philosophy (Heidegger, 1977). Terry (1993) proclaimed,

> Authenticity is ubiquitous, calling us to be true to ourselves and true to the world, real in ourselves and real in the world. When authenticity is acknowledged, we admit our foibles, mistakes and protected secrets, the parts of ourselves and society that are fearful and hide in the shadows of existence. (p. 139)

Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) added by authentic leaders acting in accordance with deep personal values and convictions, it builds credibility and

wins the respect and trust of followers. Avolio, Gardner, et al. explained that this relationship builds networks of collaborative relationships with followers and the followers in turn recognize their leader as authentic. Authentic leadership is positively related to engagement (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005). Avolio and Gardner (2005) posited authentic leaders strengthen the feelings of self-efficacy, competence, and confidence of their followers and also strengthen the identification with the leader and the organization, which results in higher levels of engagement. Avolio, Gardner, et al. discussed, in today's world, there is a strong need for more authentic leadership.

Authentic Leadership Behaviors

George (2003) posited, "After years of studying leadership and their traits, I believe leadership begins and ends with authenticity. It's being yourself; being the person you were created to be" (p. 11). Erickson (1995) theorized that the more leaders remain true to their core values, identities, preferences, and emotions, the more authentic they will become. Walumbwa, Avolio, et al. (2008) defined authentic leadership as a pattern of leader behaviors inspired by positive psychological capacities, which stimulates these same capacities and a positive ethical climate in groups and followers. Luthans and Avolio (2003) further noted authentic leadership "is a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (p. 243). Chan, Hannah, and Gardener (2005) addressed the fact that authentic leadership is virtually a newcomer to the leadership literature, first appearing in the 1990s in the field of sociology.

Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) explained authentic leaders are those individuals who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own as well as others' values/morals, knowledge, and strength. Gardner, Avolio, et al. (2005) added, "By being true to one's core beliefs and values and exhibiting authentic behavior, the leader positively fosters the development of associates until they become leaders themselves" (p. 345). The

authors postulated authentic leaders draw from the positive psychological states that accompany optimal self-esteem and psychological well-being, such as confidence, optimism, and hope. Gardner, Avolio, et al. theorized by leaders modeling these behaviors, they essentially develop these behaviors in their followers.

Looking from a different perspective, Reicher, Haslam, and Hopkins (2005) addressed the notion that authentic leaders' actions may be authentic to themselves, but this view may not be shared by those who follow them. Reicher et al. posited, if this is the case, these leaders may soon find themselves being authentic individuals instead of authentic leaders. Luthans and Avolio (2003) proposed that one of the key challenges for authentic leaders is to identify followers' strengths while mentoring and directing them appropriately toward a common purpose or mission while doing what is right and fair for them as a leader as well as their follower. Hogg (2001) explained authentic leaders are better able to understand the moral implications of a given situation and keep their followers engaged over time for the benefit of the whole organization.

Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) conceptualized a theoretical leadership framework that examines how authentic leaders influence followers' attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Avolio, Gardner, et al. posited that not only are authentic leaders able to enhance the engagement and motivation, they also help instill hope and trust in their followers. To strengthen and measure authentic leadership Walumbwa, Avolio, et al. (2008) created the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ), which defined and validated four dimensions of authentic leadership: (a) self-awareness, showing an understanding of one's strengths and weaknesses, acquiring insights into oneself in living with others, and being conscious of one's impact on others; (b) relational transparency, showing one's true self and sharing information and expressing one's thoughts and genuine feelings in an emotionally appropriate manner; (c) balanced information processing, engaging all relevant information in an objective analysis before making a decision, including opinions different than one's own; and (d) internalized moral perspective, showing engagement in self-regulation directed by internal moral principles and

values in making decisions and acting, as opposed to consent to group, organizational, or social pressures.

Neider and Schriesheim (2011) developed the Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI) because they were concerned about the subjective content analysis of the ALQ. The ALI measures the same dimensions as the ALQ and has been successfully used as a single factor measure of authentic leadership.

Employee Work Engagement

Fay and Luhrmann (2004) explained that survival for many organizations depends on their ability to attend to customer needs, while achieving quality, flexibility, and innovative ideas. Fay and Luhrmann explained having engaged and committed employees is a critical component. *Engagement* (2017) is defined as the "state of being engaged"; "to be engaged is to be involved in activity"; or "to be occupied, busy, greatly interested, or committed." J. K. Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2003) defined employee engagement as "the individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work" (p. 269).

Looking through the lens of positive psychology, Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzáles-Romá, and Bakker (2002) defined engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (p. 74). Schaufeli and Salanova (as cited in Bakker, Schaufeli, et al., 2008) discussed that burnout causes a deterioration of working health, while work engagement is associated with improving working health. Schaufeli and Salanova argued their research found that work engagement is positively associated with mental health, intrinsic motivation, efficacy beliefs, positive attitudes toward work and the organization, and high performance.

Although the concept of employee engagement has aspects of employee satisfaction, research has suggested a clearer distinction between the two constructs. "Employee Satisfaction is a measurement of an employee's 'happiness' with current job and conditions but it does not measure how much effort the employee is willing to expend" (ADP Research Institute, 2012, p. 3). "Employee Engagement is a measurement of an employee's emotional commitment to an

organization and it takes into account the amount of discretionary effort an employee uses on behalf of the organization" (ADP Research Institute, 2012, p. 3).

May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) explained meaningfulness at work has been found to be a significant determinant of psychological engagement at work. Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) contested still relatively little attention has been devoted to the relationship between leadership and task engagement. J. K. Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2003) indicated engagement is positively and strongly related to a variety of key business performance outcomes, including productivity and employee turnover. Absenteeism and turnover are critical disadvantages organizations often face when employees are disengaged, thus engagement is increasingly being viewed as a critical element in inspiring organizational effectiveness (Saks, 2008). Macey and Schneider (2008) posited engaged employees not only contribute more but are more loyal and less likely to willingly quit their job. Litten, Vaughan, and Wildermuth (2011) explained that employee engagement is a complex yet dynamic process that reflects each individual's unique, personal relationship with work. Bakker, Albrecht, and Leiter (2011) noted that engaged employees are happily involved and find their work captivating.

Mediating Variables

Since the original classic articles on mediation by Alwin and Hauser (1975) were published, numerous studies in a variety fields have applied mediation analysis (MacKinnon, Coxe, & Baraldi, 2012). MacKinnon et al. (2012) explained in business psychology research, mediators play an important role because mediating variables explain the process by which one variable causes another. The intent of the current study is to analyze and evaluate the mediating effects that follower's hope and trust in leader may have in regard to authentic leadership and employee work engagement.

Follower's hope. Luthans and Avolio (2003) theorized, "The force multiplier throughout history has often been attributed to the leader's ability to generate hope" (p. 253). Even with this acknowledgment, research on hope within leadership studies has been limited (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). Pekrun, Elliot, and Maier (2009) explained hope as one of several academic achievement emotions

resulting from mastery and performance approach goals. However, the authors posited hopelessness results from performance avoidance goals. Research conducted over the past decade has resulted in a cognitive based theory of hope and has confirmed it is a viable theory (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b; Snyder, Irving, et al., 1991).

Snyder (2002) theorized that hope is not just an emotion; it is a powerful and pervasive cognitive process that is observable across numerous contexts, including organizations. Schuitema (2004) posited followers want to work in a place that resonates with their personal values and goals, and they want to be able to engage in meaningful work where they can make a difference. Hope in regard to organizational leadership can be described as a positive motivational state that contributes to leaders and followers expending the requisite energy necessary to pursue and attain organizational goals (Shorey & Snyder, 2004).

Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivastva (1997) revealed four enduring qualities of hope: "It is: a) born in relationship, b) inspired by the conviction that the future is open and can be influenced, c) sustained by dialogue about high human ideas, and d) generative of positive action" (p. 9). Shorey and Snyder (2004) conceptualized hope as a common process of leadership where pathways and agency are present in organizations as leaders and followers pursue valued personal and organizational goals. Shorey and Snyder also theorized that effective leadership instills hopeful thinking. Crabtree and Robison (2010) speculated that employees with high levels of hope are more likely to maintain their psychological commitment to their current workplace rather than look for other opportunities. Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) discussed how authentic leaders have the ability to nurture and enhance hope in followers by modeling hopeful thinking as well as interacting with followers in ways that increase follower willpower. This guidance helps followers increase optional ways to achieve their work and personal goals.

It is important for staff to have hope for the future and believe that they will be able to grow and develop their skill set to be able to have the opportunity for job advancement, which creates higher earning potential (Branham, 2005). Snyder (2002) added high hope employees also are more goals oriented and make their

groups more productive and work life more enjoyable (Snyder, Cheavens, et al., 1997). Building on Snyder's previous work, Juntunen and Wettersten (2006) introduced a concept of work hope and defined it as "a positive motivational state that is directed at work and work-related goals and is composed of the presence of work-related goals and both the agency and the pathways for achieving those goals" (p. 97). Juntunen and Wettersten focused primarily on vocational counseling and have been beneficial in regard to understanding how hope in the workplace influences the work environment.

Trust in the leader. Many earlier researchers have been concerned with understanding if leaders could have an impact on the trust levels of their subordinates (Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Trust is "an expectancy that the word, promise, or statement of another can be relied upon" (Rotter, 1967, p. 651). Trust has long been identified as a fundamental component of cooperative relationships (Blau, 1964; Deutsch, 1958). Mayer, Davis, et al. (1995) theorized the expectation that the trustee performing a particular action important to the trustor will lead the trustor to be willing to be vulnerable to the actions of the trustee.

Trust enhances people's willingness to engage in cooperative and unselfish behavior (Kramer, 1999). Wei (2003) added that in the workplace, trust in the supervisor is critical because subordinates have a dependency and vulnerability to their supervisor. Some researchers have described trust in leadership as operating according to a social exchange process between followers and leaders (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Blau (1964) postulated followers see the relationship with their leader as beyond the standard economic gain, and this relationship often operates on the basis of trust, goodwill, and the perception of mutual commitments. Bromily and Cummings (1992) theorized that the loss of trust between leaders and subordinates will lead to poor communication, lack of respect, avoidance, and spiteful conformity.

Connell, Ferres, and Travaglione (2003) discussed trust levels throughout organizations most likely suffered from widespread downsizing as well as the high-profile cases of leader misconduct, as seen at Enron, WorldCom, and Tyco. Mayer

and Schoorman (1992) found that measures of trust correlate positively with performance and negatively with turnover. Additionally, in a meta-analysis, K. T. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found trust in leadership was associated with commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, satisfaction with leaders, and intention to stay, which are all critical elements of organizational effectiveness.

Recent studies on trust in the leader have discussed the importance of leader behavior and characteristics influencing how followers build trust (K. T. Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Luthans and Avolio (2003) explained since followers' perceptions of trust in the leader are largely based on the leader's behaviors, his or her actions must be aligned with his or her values, and the behavior must be consistent to be seen as genuine or authentic behavior. Mayer and Davis (1999) even theorized that calculated efforts and positive actions displayed by the leader lead to trust formation.

Significance of Study

The current study empirically tests components of the theory proposed by Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004), who examined how authentic leaders' behaviors influence followers' attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Specifically, this study empirically tests the extent to which follower's hope and follower's trust in leader mediate the relationship between a follower's perceptions of the authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and the follower's level of employee work engagement.

R. House et al. (as cited in Yukl, 2006) explained, "Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization" (p. 3). Avery, McKay, and Wilson (2007) added leaders often underestimate the challenge of engaging employees, but it is becoming increasingly important given the fact that disengaged employees represent a high cost to organizations. Lockwood (2007) stated, "The challenge today is not just retaining talented people, but fully engaging them, capturing their minds and hearts at each stage of their work lives" (p. 1).

As previously discussed, authentic leadership is positively related to engagement because often authentic leaders strengthen the feelings of self-efficacy, competence, and confidence of their followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, et al. 2005). To address present and future leadership needs, Gardner, Avolio, et al. (2005) contended that a model of authentic leader and follower development is needed to strengthen its relationship to genuine, sustainable follower performance. Toor and Ofori (2008) explained,

> Authentic project leaders possess positive values, lead from the heart, set the highest levels of ethics and morality, and go beyond their personal interests for the well-being of their followers. They capitalize on the environment of trust and are able to motivate people and accomplish challenging tasks. (p. 620)

Therefore, the current study's practical significance is it contributes to the leadership literature by adding to the limited authentic leadership studies that have focused on the mediating effects of follower's hope and follower's trust in leader on follower's work engagement.

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of the current study is to build upon the theoretical work of Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) by examining the underlying effects authentic leadership behaviors may have in influencing a follower's work engagement looking through the lens of corporate America. The traditional organizational hierarchy between leaders and their followers has decreased over time due to expanding social networks and the growing empowerment of followers because they have more and easier accessibility to information (Brown, 2003; Cross & Parker, 2004). Brown (2003) explained leaders are "no longer the exclusive source of vital information about their companies or fields; therefore they can no longer expect to be followed blindly by their now well-informed, more skeptical ranks" (p. 68). Furthermore, the incidents at such companies as Enron and WorldCom have led followers to question and distrust top leadership (Gardner, Avolio. et al., 2005). Luthans and Avolio's (2003) discussed the importance of authentic leaders' and

followers' development and recognized that followers are a key component to the building of leadership models, and this is no different when investigating authentic leadership.

As authentic leadership is still an evolving theory (Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2010), it needs further development. It is vital that further empirical research be conducted that examines the validity of authentic leadership as a theoretical construct. The current study provides a better understanding looking at how a follower perceives authentic leadership behaviors and how this relationship influences a follower's work engagement.

Research Method and Design

To test the hypotheses posited in this study, empirical data were needed to measure the relationships among perceived authentic leadership behaviors, a follower's hope, trust in leader, and a follower's work engagement. The study employed a quantitative method of inquiry to examine the possible mediating effects that a follower's hope and trust in leader may have on the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and a follower's work engagement. The study used Qualtrics, a private research software company, to capture data from a sample of workers within corporate America.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The target population for this study was employees who worked in corporate America throughout the United States utilizing a sample population from Qualtrics. A sample of at least 120 participants was desired for this study, 203 surveys were collected. Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) suggested 15-20 observations for each independent variable or category. The desired sample size was determined based on one independent variable (authentic leadership), two mediating variables (hope and trust), and four control variables (gender, age, tenure, and job satisfaction). A convenience sample was used for this study since the sample was chosen through Qualtrics.

This study used Qualtrics to electronically distribute the survey to 210 of their members who met the criteria to be participants in this study (work in

corporate America and have an immediate leader). Once the initial email was sent to participants, data collection began and lasted for 15 business days giving respondents enough time to complete the survey and ensure the sample size was met. After the 15 days had passed, the survey was deactivated, and 210 responses had been collected. After checking for outliers such as ranges that were out of scope (e.g., a respondent may have listed size of organization as 100-900, or on a preliminary question the respondent may have typed "prefer not to say"), 203 survey responses were used in this study.

The survey began with an instructional page and consent form. After the instructions, the first section of the questionnaire contained demographic questions that included time working with leader and the participant's age, gender, and how much tenure he or she has with the organization. In addition to the demographic items, the survey consisted of 59 Likert-type scale items, including 14 items to measure authentic leadership, nine items to measure employee work engagement, 24 items to measure follower's hope, six items to measure trust in leader, and six items to measure job satisfaction (which is a control variable).

Measures and Instrumentation

The instrument consisted of four main parts: perceived authentic leadership behaviors, follower's work engagement, follower's hope, and follower's trust in leader. Data were also collected to identify gender, tenure, age of the respondent, and the level of job satisfaction; these variables was used as control variables. Research has suggested age, gender, and tenure relate to work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI). The ALI was used to measure subordinates' perceptions regarding the authenticity of their leader's behaviors (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011). The four dimensions of authentic leadership, which are self-awareness, balanced processing, relational transparency, and internalized moral perspective, were measured as one factor. The ALI measures the same dimensions as the ALQ developed by Walumbwa, Avolio, et al. (2008) and can be measured as a single factor. The ALI has 14 items where responses are arranged on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Example items on the ALI include the following: "My leader carefully listens to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion" and "My leader uses his and/or her core beliefs to make decisions." Previous studies have found acceptable reliabilities with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging between 0.74 and 0.90 (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011). Reliability analysis was conducted for this scale, and the Cronbach's alpha was .95 within the study sample.

Follower's work engagement. Employee work engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale 9 (UWES-9). UWES was developed by Schaufeli, Martinez, Marques-Pinto, Salanova, and Bakker (2002); for the current study, the short form was used, UWES-9. The UWES-9 assesses three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Sample items include "At my work, I feel bursting with energy," "I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose," and "Time flies when I'm working." The internal consistency of the original instrument (Cronbach's alpha) was .91 through .96. There are very high correlations between the factors of the UWES, and although the instrument is composed of three dimensions, for practical purposes the three factors can be collapsed into one factor (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The authors explained this applies particularly to the shortened version, UWES-9, and the current study measured work engagement as one factor. Reliability analysis was conducted for this scale; the Cronbach's alpha for the work engagement scale was .94 within the study sample.

Follower's hope. Hope was measured using Juntunen and Wettersten's (2006) Work Hope Scale (WHS). Building on Snyder, Irving, et al.'s (1991) previous work on hope, Juntunen and Wettersten introduced a concept of work hope. The WHS consists of 24 items scored on a Likert-type scale. Sample items include "When I look into the future, I have a clear picture of what my work life will be like, I am confident that things will work out for me in the future, and There are many ways to succeed at work." The Pearson's bivariate correlation indicated adequate test–retest reliability for the WHS total score and subscales; the total WHS score reliability coefficient from scale development was .90. Reliability

analysis was conducted for this study; the Cronbach's alpha for the WHS was .87 within the study sample.

Trust in the leader. Trust in leaders was measured using McAllister's (1995) six-item measure of cognitive trust in a specific coworker. For the current study, all questions related to *coworker* are changed to *leader*. This measure asks respondents to answer six cognition-based trust items on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Sample items include "This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication" and "Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider him/her to be trustworthy." The reliability from previous scale development was 0.91 for the cognition-based trust scale. Reliability analysis was conducted for this scale; the Cronbach's alpha for the trust scale was .72 within the study sample.

Control variables. Kraemer and Thiemann (1987) explained that some variables may be associated with the main variables under study and may distort the results of the research since one could be the underlying agent that is actually causing a change in the response variable. Sweet and Martin (2012) posited one way to deal with the problem while seeking to establish causal relationships is to control for suspected variables. In this study, gender, tenure, age of the respondent, and job satisfaction were controlled because of their possible influence on the outcome variable included in the present research. Data on gender, tenure, and age of the respondent were collected on the demographics section of the questionnaire.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) suggested that age, gender, and tenure relate to engagement. Abdulla and Shaw (1999) found organizational tenure to have a positive correlation with employee engagement. Also, job satisfaction was measured to see the influence it may have on work engagement since research has shown a correlation between the two variables (Berry & Morris, 2008). In the current study, job satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Index (Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980). Fields (2002) explained the Job Satisfaction Index uses six items to form and index that measures overall job satisfaction. Sample items include "How satisfied are with the nature of the work you perform?" and "How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you-your organizational

superior?" In previous studies, the coefficient alpha ranged from .73 to 78 (Fields, 2002). Reliability analysis was conducted for the scale, and the Cronbach's alpha for the job satisfaction scale was .89 within the study sample.

Though the original study model planned to control for job satisfaction, examination of the correlation matrix and regression analyses indicated a substantial level of multicollinearity of job satisfaction with authentic leadership. Therefore, it was removed as a control variable. Specifically, the zero-order correlation of job satisfaction with authentic leadership was .67, indicating the two variables shared 45% of their variance.

Data Analysis Procedures

The research was summarized and analyzed utilizing SPSS software. This study utilized multiple regression analysis, which is a component of multivariate analysis. Multiple regression is "not just one technique but a family of techniques that can be used to explore the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and a number of independent variables or predictors" (Pallant, 2010, p. 148). As mentioned previously, the variables to guide this study are a follower's perceived authentic leadership behaviors (independent variable), follower's work engagement (dependent variable), follower's hope (mediating variable), and follower's trust in the leader (mediating variable).

The data analysis phase started by running descriptive statistics in SPSS. It is important to "run descriptive statistics to describe the characteristics of the sample; check variables for any violation of assumptions underlying the statistical techniques that will be used to address the research questions" (Pallant, 2010, p. 53). First, the survey response rate was calculated and presented. Next, results from the descriptive analyses (i.e., means, standard deviations, and range of scores) of all variables were reported and discussed. After the descriptive statistics were run, multiple regression analysis was employed to examine the relationships between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement. This study utilized Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach for testing for mediation. When there are multiple mediators, a simple approach is to evaluate one mediator at a time. Thus, hierarchical linear regression tested for the mediating effects of

follower's hope and follower's trust in the leader on the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement. Looking at a single mediator at a time is a useful approach because specific theoretical hypotheses often focus on single mediators rather than groups of mediators (MacKinnon et al., 2012).

Limitations

A major limitation of this study is the data were collected for a private research software company, so the researcher had limited involvement during the data collection process. Also, causality cannot be determined in a cross-sectional study. Cone and Foster (1996) discussed causality in quantitative studies can be problematic. Because the study utilized a survey method, it was not able to prove causation. The study also had potential threats in regard to external validity limitations due to limited generalizability. Creswell (2009) explained, "Because of the narrow characteristics of participants in the experiment, the researcher cannot generalize to individual who do not have the characteristics of participants" (p. 165). This study was limited to individuals who work within corporate America and do not reflect a global perspective.

Operational Definitions

Authentic leader behaviors. Authentic leaders are

> those individuals who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspective, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and high on moral character. (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004, p. 4)

Hope. Hope theory defines hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, et al., 1991, p. 287).

Trust. Trust is "an expectancy that the word, promise, or statement of another can be relied upon" (Rotter, 1967, p. 651).

Work engagement. Employee work engagement is "the individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work" (J. K. Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003, p. 269).

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to build upon the theoretical work of Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004), examining the relationship between a follower's perceived authentic behaviors of his or her leader and a follower's level of work engagement, looking through the lens of corporate America. This literature review expands on the theoretical foundation and hypotheses presented in Chapter 1. A general overview of a follower's perceived authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader (independent variable) and a follower's work engagement (dependent variables) is provided. The review also examines the possible mediating variables follower's hope and trust in the leader and how they relate to the independent and dependent variables. Authentic leadership is an evolving theory (Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2010); thus, it needs further development and examination. This literature review contains four main sections: authentic leadership theory and construct definitions, which build on perceived authentic behaviors; employee work; a follower's hope; and a follower's trust in the leader.

Authenticity

It is important to define authenticity before authentic leadership is expanded upon. Terry (1993) proclaimed,

> Authenticity is ubiquitous, calling us to be true to ourselves and true to the world, real in ourselves and real in the world. When authenticity is acknowledged, we admit our foibles, mistakes and protected secrets, the parts of ourselves and society that are fearful and hide in the shadows of existence. (p. 139)

Authenticity (2017) is defined as "true to one's own personality, spirit, or character—is sincere and authentic with no pretensions." "Man know thyself" is an ancient proverb found in many Egyptian temples. Building upon the ancient Egyptian exploration of authenticity, S. Harter (2002) explained ancient Greek philosophers investigated the meaning of "knowing thyself" and the importance of remaining true to one's self. "Know thyself" was written on the forecourt of the Temple of Apollo at Delphi. Legend says that the seven sages of ancient Greece,

philosophers, statesmen and law givers, who laid the foundation for Western culture, gathered in Delphi to inscribe "know thyself" at the entry to its sacred oracle (Ark in Time, 2018).

Authenticity is fairly new; it has been researched in various disciplines, including humanistic psychology (Maslow, 1971; Rogers, 1959), existential philosophy (Heidegger, 1977), and developmental psychology (Erickson, 1995). George (2003) posited, "After years of studying leadership and their traits, I believe leadership begins and ends with authenticity. It's being yourself; being the person you were created to be" (p. 11). Erickson (1995) theorized that the more leaders remain true to their core values, identities, preferences, and emotions, the more authentic they will become.

Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors

Chan et al. (2005) noted authentic leadership is still fairly new in regard to the leadership literature, first appearing in the 1990s in the field of sociology and academic research. Studies have shown that authentic leadership is positively related to engagement because authentic leaders strengthen the feelings of self-efficacy, competence, and confidence of their followers and also strengthen the identification with the leader and the organization, which results in higher levels of engagement (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005). Luthans and Avolio (2003) further noted authentic leadership "is a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which result in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (p. 243). Ilies et al. (2005) declared authentic leaders are engaged in empowering their followers to make a difference through fostering high-quality dyadic relationships rooted in principles of social exchange rather than economic exchange.

Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) explained authentic leaders are individuals who are deeply aware of how they behave, think, and act. These leaders are often perceived by others as being aware of their own as well as others' knowledge, values, morals, and strengths (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). Gardner, Avolio, et al. (2005) explained, "By being true to one's core beliefs and values and exhibiting

authentic behavior, the leader positively fosters the development of associates until they become leaders themselves" (p. 345). Gardner, Avolio, et al. theorized that authentic leaders draw from the positive psychological states that are associated with optimal self-esteem and psychological well-being (such as confidence, optimism, and hope). Looking from a different viewpoint, Reicher et al. (2005) addressed the notion that authentic leaders' actions may be authentic to themselves, but this view may not be shared by those who follow them; if this is the case, these leaders may soon find themselves being authentic individuals instead of authentic leaders. George (2015) explained, "The reality is that no one can be authentic by trying to be like someone else" (p. 5).

Luthans and Avolio (2003) proposed that a key challenge for authentic leaders is to identify followers' strengths while mentoring and directing them appropriately toward a common purpose or mission that is beneficial for all parties involved while aligning to organizational expectations. Reflecting on their own selves and others, authentic leaders are skilled at understanding the moral implications of a given situation and keeping their followers engaged over a period of time for the benefit of the whole organization (Hogg, 2001).

Ilies et al. (2005) theorized that authentic leaders are deeply aware of their values and beliefs in this since they are self-confident, genuine, reliable, and trustworthy, and they focus on building followers' strengths while broadening their thinking. Luthans and Avolio (2003) pronounced that authentic leaders possess positive traits such as they are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, ethical, and future-orientated. Ilies et al. defined authentic leadership as a "broad psychological construct reflecting one's general tendencies to view oneself within one's social environment and to conduct one's life according to one's deeply held values" (p. 76). According to Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004), authentic leadership is a root construct of various forms of positive leadership styles, which include transactional, charismatic, transformational, visionary, and ethical. Authentic leaders do not have to have the characteristics of a leadership style (charismatic, transformational, inspirational, or visionary), they just need to display genuine

ethical qualities associated with authentic leadership as they engage with followers (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004).

Effects of Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors

Exhibiting personal modeling traits such as confidence, optimism, hope, resilience, and a positive moral perspective among their followers, authentic leaders have shown to achieve higher levels of follower trust, engagement, and well-being (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). Authentic leaders significantly motivate their followers to be moral and authentic in their decision-making intent through authentic words and deeds, positive psychological capital, moral and authentic behavior, and self-awareness (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Authentic leaders who exhibit high levels of self-regulation are able to raise the distinction between the current standards and actual or possible outcomes, set up internal standards, and identify potential actions that can address any inconsistencies that can deter a positive outcome (Avolio, Gardner, et. al., 2004; Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005).

Followers of authentic leaders are more likely to exhibit positive emotions and higher moral values, beliefs, and achievable goals as they identify with their leader and build a strong connection (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Kernis, 2003). Avolio and Gardner (2005) added leaders' and followers' self-awareness includes their values/moral perspective and attributions and involves the psychological contract between leaders and followers. Leaders' values influence their own and followers' motivation, affect, and cognition (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Avolio and Gardner explained authentic leaders influence the process through which followers understand and interpret their own self and how followers perceive their leaders. It has been argued that authentic leadership positively influences a follower's self-awareness as well as a follower's levels of self-efficacy, self-control, self-regulation, and trust in the leader (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) created a theoretical framework that examines how authentic leaders influence followers' attitudes, behaviors, and

performance. A component theorized in this framework was an employee's level of work engagement while on the job. Avolio, Gardner, et al. posited, "Authentic leaders are able to enhance the engagement, motivation, commitment, satisfaction, and involvement required from followers to constantly improve their work and performance outcomes" (p. 804). This framework also discussed how intervening variables such as hope, trust, positive emotions, and optimism can be enhanced through the authentic leadership process. Avolio, Gardner, et al. highlighted that these intervening variables may generate a hopeful, trusting, and optimistic outlook in the follower that increases commitment, job satisfaction, engagement, and a sense of meaningfulness. Avolio, Gardner, et al. emphasized authentic leaders influence followers' attitudes and behaviors (i.e., levels of follower's hope and trust) and this may impact employee outcomes (i.e., level of employee work engagement).

Measuring Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors

Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). To strengthen and measure authentic leadership, Walumbwa, Avolio, et al. (2008) created the ALQ, which defines and validates four dimensions of authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced information processing, and internalized moral perspective. Leader self-awareness refers to leaders' understanding of their individual strengths, weaknesses, and how they view events around them (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009). Self-awareness is not a fixed state but an ongoing development process in an individual; this consists of one continually reflecting upon and examining one's values, identity, knowledge, abilities, and goals (Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005). Ilies et al. (2005) added self-aware authentic leaders become confident that they clearly and accurately see themselves and thus perform their leadership role in accordance with this internal vision, instead of in response to the expectations of others or the situational influences of their leadership.

The second factor of authentic leadership is relational transparency. Relational transparency involves leaders presenting their genuine self to their followers as opposed to presenting a situational, inauthentic, adopted persona

(Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005). Authentic leaders who exhibit relational transparency promote active self-disclosure and sharing of their self in order to develop a higher level of mutual intimacy and trust with followers (Ilies et al., 2005). Relational transparency involves individuals showing both positive and negative aspects of themselves, communicating openly, and being real in relationships with others (Northouse, 2010).

The third factor of authentic leadership is balanced processing. Balanced processing is where leaders objectively evaluate and understand both positive and negative aspects of themselves and their current situation (Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005). Ilies et al. (2005) advocated that balanced processing is at the heart of personal integrity and character. Kernis (2003) added this component of authenticity is comprised of the ability to avoid ignoring, exaggerating, or distorting one's knowledge and experiences. Kernis noted that this demands that leaders avoid the rationalization of weaknesses and requires them to include even their lesser qualities, attributes, and emotions in their consideration of their core self, thus avoiding ego defense mechanisms. Ilies et al. suggested leaders who exhibit openness to learning and challenge are inclined to establishing authentic relationships with peers and followers, leading to leader–follower relationships that are characterized by mutual respect, openness, and trust.

The fourth factor of authentic leadership is the authentic leader's internalized moral perspective. This factor describes a leader's internalized manner of self-regulation (Walumbwa, Avolio, et al., 2008). A leader's self-regulation is guided by his or her internal moral standards and personal values, as opposed to the external values and traditions presented by his or her group, organization, or society as a whole (Walumbwa, Avolio, et al., 2008). Self-regulated leaders are aware of their intentions, actions, and decisions; this awareness regulates their individual moral standards and values (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). This is a self-regulated process because people have control over the extent to which thy allow others to influence them (Northouse, 2010).

Authentic leadership, which is comprised of a combination of these four factors, was found to be discriminately valid from other leadership approaches

(Avolio, Reichard, et al., 2009). Walumbwa, Wang, et al. (2010) noted how each one of the four component factors of the higher-order authentic leadership construct is both unique and individually important to the construct. Walumbwa, Wang, et al. explained there is considerable overlap among the four component factors of authentic leadership, but it is often used as a single factor.

Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI). The ALI was developed in response to analysis that Neider and Schriesheim (2011) conducted concerning the original ALQ (Walumbwa, Avolio, et al., 2008), examining the reliability and validity of the instrument. Schriesheim and Cogliser (2009) discussed the two concerns: (a) the instrument was not available for commercial use, and future use for research purposes was going to become challenging, and (b) content analysis was very subjective—rigorous procedures should be used to determine the validity and reliability of instruments in the field of leadership. Neider and Schriesheim developed the ALI based on the four dimensions conceptualized and operationalized by Walumbwa, Avolio, et al. (2008) to address the concerns by using more rigorous assessment procedures for content and convergent validity and to test competing models without *garbage parameters*. Neider and Schriesheim's ALI initial results support internal consistency, content, and construct and discriminant validity. For this reason, it was determined as a valid and acceptable replacement for the ALQ. Similar to ALQ, this questionnaire can also be utilized as a single factor. The current study used ALI as a single factor to measure authentic leadership.

Employee Engagement

May et al. (2004) explained there is part of the human being that seeks fulfillment through self-expression at work. Fay and Luhrmann (2004) expanded upon this thought with the belief that the survival of organizations depends on their ability to satisfy customer needs, while achieving quality, flexibility, and innovative ideas. The authors explained having engaged and committed employees is a critical component. *Engagement* (2017) is defined as the "the act of engaging: state of being engaged." J. K. Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2003) defined employee

engagement as "the individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work" (p. 269). Looking through the lens of positive psychology, Schaufeli, Salanova, et al. (2002) defined engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (p. 74).

One way that organizations can maintain a competitive advantage in this challenging environment is by fostering employee engagement (J. K. Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003). Schaufeli and Salanova (as cited in Bakker, Schaufeli, et al., 2008) discussed that burnout causes a deterioration of working health, while work engagement is associated with improving work health. In regard to work health, work engagement is positively associated with mental health, intrinsic motivation, efficacy beliefs, positive attitudes toward work and the organization, and high performance (Schaufeli & Salanova, as cited in Bakker, Schaufeli, et al., 2008). Litten et al. (2011) explained that employee engagement is a complex yet dynamic process reflecting each individual's unique yet very personal relationship with work. J. K. Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2003) indicated engagement is positively related to productivity and employee turnover. Absenteeism and turnover are key disadvantages organizations often face when employees are disengaged, which can be very costly; thus, engagement is increasingly viewed as a critical element in inspiring organizational effectiveness (Saks, 2008). Macey and Schneider (2008) revealed engaged employees contribute more, are more loyal, and are less likely to quit their job. Bakker, Albrecht, et al. (2011) highlighted engaged employees are happily involved and continuously find their work appealing.

Katzenbach (2000) explained highly engaged individuals do not drag themselves to work; instead, they are committed, motivated, energetic, enthusiastic, and enjoy problem solving. Engaged employees may even thrive on the challenge of a frantic work environment (Katzenbach, 2000). May et al. (2004) theorized for humans to thrive at work, they must be able to completely immerse themselves in their work. They must be able to engage the cognitive, emotional, and physical dimensions of themselves in their work (May et al., 2004). Engaged employees are energized by the work itself and feel passionate about their work; with passion

comes excitement, enthusiasm, and productivity (Boverie & Kroth, 2001). Katzenbach added Southwest Airlines, 3M, The Home Depot, Toyota, and Hewelett Packard credit their sustainable competitive advantage to their ability to foster employee engagement.

Employee engagement is an important topic for both researchers and practitioners (J. K. Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Rothmann & Rothmann, 2010). J. K. Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) asserted that work engagement is associated with various positive organizational outcomes, including higher customer loyalty, higher productivity and profitability, and lower rates of staff turnover. These positive outcomes occur in addition to evidence of a negative relationship with absenteeism (J. K. Harter, Schmidt, Killham, & Asplund, 2006). Engagement has also been an important focus of the research into positive psychology (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Robertson and Cooper (2009) acknowledged that employee engagement is important not only because of its effects on organizational outcomes but also because it has a positive impact on the psychological well-being of employees (May et al., 2004; Rothmann & Rothmann, 2010; Schueller & Seligman, 2010).

Recently, there has been more interest in employee engagement and more research studies regarding this topic have been undertaken (Bakker, Schaufeli, et al., 2008; Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002). In the academic community, the employee engagement concept is still seen as a rather new and emerging concept. Thus, research into the concept is in the early stages; a very limited number of antecedents and consequences have been identified (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; J. K. Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008; May et al., 2004; Rurkkhum & Bartlett, 2012; Saks, 2006).

The review of literature regarding employee engagement reveals this concept has been conceptualized in different ways. According to Kahn (1990), personal engagement is "the harnessing of organization members selves to their roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance" (p. 694). Kahn theorized,

"Personal engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full role performances" (p. 700). In contrast, Kahn defined disengagement as "the uncoupling of selves from work roles" (p. 694) and described disengaged persons as those who "withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances" (p. 694). Kahn concluded that disengaged employees become physically uninvolved in their job and emotionally detached from coworkers or managers.

Schaufeli, Salanova, et al. (2002) provided a different approach for employee engagement, providing a perspective to the engagement-burnout continuum theory. Work engagement is a "positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002, p. 74). Schaufeli, Salanova, et al. also distinguished engagement from other employee work-related constructs; engagement is a more "persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior . . . [instead of a] momentary and specific state" (Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002, p. 74).

Vigor refers to "high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest efforts in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties" (Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002, p. 74). Dedication encompasses "a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge" and thus is the opposite dimension of cynicism (Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002, p. 74). Finally, absorption is "being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work" (Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002, p. 75).

Antecedents of Employee Engagement

Antecedents of employee engagement have primarily been studied from two perspectives: the work activities as reference for engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and engagement as an extension of the self (Kahn, 1990). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that employee engagement can be explained by the

obtainability of job resources as well as the balance between job demands and job resources. Albrecht (2010) proposed that employees engage in their work when the procedures and systems in the organization are perceived as trustworthy, predictable, and sensible.

Referring to engagement as an extension of the self, Kahn (1990) identified psychological meaningfulness, psychological availability, and psychological safety as contributing to employee engagement. The author explained work-role fit, supervisor support, and coworker support my also increase employee engagement. Mendes and Stander (2011) found that leadership and role clarity indirectly affect employee engagement via psychological empowerment (i.e., meaningfulness, self-determination, and impact). Chughtai and Buckley (2011) measured the effect that downsizing had on trust in an organization and found that employees who experienced an increase in trust also experienced an increase in work engagement. Wong, Laschinger, and Cummings (2010) confirmed that trust has a direct positive effect on work engagement. They also indicated that increased trust includes the free exchange of knowledge, ideas, and information and that this trust leads to a climate in which employees are engaged in their work (Wong et al., 2010).

Employee Engagement and Employee Satisfaction

Some organizations see employee engagement and employee satisfaction as one and the same. In reality, employee satisfaction is the bare minimum (Dukes, 2017). Dukes (2017) explained job satisfaction keeps employees around, but it does not really inspire them to do more than fulfill the fundamental requirements of their role. Although the concept of employee engagement has aspects of employee satisfaction, a growing stream of research has suggested a clearer distinction between the two constructs. ADP Research Institute (2012) explained, "Employee Satisfaction is a measurement of an employee's 'happiness' with current job and conditions but it does not measure how much effort the employee is willing to expend" (p. 3). They also explained, "Employee Engagement is a measurement of an employee's emotional commitment to an organization and it takes into account the amount of discretionary effort an employee uses on behalf of the organization" (p. 3).

Radosevich, Salomon, Radosevich, and Kahn (2008) argued that highly engaged employees have higher job satisfaction when compared to disengaged employees. Saks (2006) suggested that highly engaged employees are more likely to demonstrate positive attitudes, intentions, and behaviors within the work environment. Recent findings consistently have concluded that employees' work engagement serves as a key determinant of job satisfaction (Radosevich et al., 2008; Wefald & Downey, 2009). Job satisfaction can be conceptualized as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). The importance of job satisfaction has been largely emphasized in the literature because of its positive effect on job performance (Lu & Gursoy, 2013).

A 2016 report from the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) stated that 88% of U.S. employees in 2015 reported they were satisfied with their job overall, 37% reported they were very satisfied, and 51% reported they were somewhat satisfied. This percentage marks the highest level of satisfaction over the last 10 years. SHRM highlighted that since 2013, the percentage of satisfied employees has been trending upward. On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 = *the least engaged* and 5 = *the most engaged*, SHRM also found employees to be moderately engaged with an index of 3.8, relatively similar to prior years (3.7 in 2014 and 3.6 in 2013).

Measuring Employee Engagement

ISA Engagement Scale. One of the most recent measures of engagement is the ISA Engagement Scale (Soane et al., 2012). The ISA Engagement Scale was created utilizing three academic research studies that have demonstrated the scale to be statistically valid and reliable and that have shown the scale to measure engagement clearly distinct (Engage for Success, 2016). The nine-item engagement scale is based on the view that engagement has an *intellectual* component (e.g., "I focus hard on my work"), a *social* component (e.g., "I share the same work values as my colleagues"), and an *affective* component (e.g., "I feel positive about my job").

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) General Survey. This third version of the MBI was developed across several occupations and countries in order to assess burnout in all occupations (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). This survey is an important measuring instrument for burnout (Maslach et al., 1996). It encompasses three scales: (a) emotional exhaustion, which measures feelings of being emotionally overextended or exhausted by one's work; (b) depersonalization, which measures an unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one's service, care treatment, or instruction; and (c) personal accomplishment, which measures feelings of competence and achievement in one's work. The 22-item survey is self-administered, and the responses are rated using a 7-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*everyday*).

Gallup Q12. After an iterative process of item formulation and testing that took several decades, the final wording of the Gallup questionnaire was established in 1998. It was dubbed Q12 since it includes 12 items. The Q12 has been administered to more than 7 million employees in 112 countries (J. K. Harter, Schmidt, Killham, et al., 2006). J. K. Harter, Schmidt, Killham, et al. (2006), the developers of the Q12, considered the practical considerations regarding its usefulness for managers in creating change in the workplace have been the leading principle; the Q12 has been designed as a management tool. J. K. Harter, Schmidt, Killham, et al. explained the Q12 focuses on employees' perceived job resources. The Q12 items are scored on a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Job Engagement Scale (JES). The JES (Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010) is based on engagement as conceptualized by Kahn (1990). It consists of 18 items and measures three dimensions of employee engagement: physical, cognitive, and emotional. Each dimension on the questionnaire consists of six items. The items measure employee engagement levels (e.g., I exert my full effort to my job; I am excited about my job; At work I concentrate on my job). The scale is self-administered, and the responses are rated on a 5-point Likert scale, which ranges from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach's alpha of the original questionnaire was .95 (Rich et al., 2010).

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). The most commonly used measure within the research community has been the one associated with the definition of engagement as a "positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind" (Schaufeli, Salonova, et al., 2002, p.74). Based on the definition of work engagement that includes vigor, dedication, and absorption, a three-dimensional questionnaire was developed (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003; Schaufeli, Salonova, et al., 2002). The UWES is available in 19 languages, and an international database exists that currently includes engagement records of over 30,000 employees. In addition to the original UWES that contains 17 items, there is a shortened version (UWES-9). The UWES-9 was chosen to measure follower's work engagement.

The UWES has three measures to determine the level of work engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. It is a test of how to measure work engagement both as a single factor or multiple factors:

1. Vigor is having a high level of energy and mental resilience while working, investing effort in one's work, and having persistence in the face of difficulties (e.g., "At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy").
2. Dedication is being involved in one's work; finding meaning in one's work; experiencing a sense of enthusiasm, inspiration, and pride; and being challenged (e.g., "I am enthusiastic about my job").
3. Absorption is being fully engrossed in one's work. When one is absorbed in work, time passes quickly, and one has difficulty detaching oneself from work (e.g., "I am immersed in my work").

Authentic Leadership and Employee Work Engagement

Walumbwa, Avolio, et al. (2008) argued that, from a social exchange perspective, the followers of supervisors who exhibit higher levels of authenticity are willing to put extra effort into their work to reciprocate the highly valued relationships with their leader. Researchers have suggested that authentic leadership may positively affect employee attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction, work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005; George, 2003; Ilies et al.,

2005). Supportive environments allow members to experiment, try new things, and even fail without fear of the consequences (Kahn, 1990). Ilies et al. (2005) added employees are intrinsically motivated as a result of their supervisors' authentic leadership, taking the initiative for their own development as they realize they can achieve more than they previously thought they could. Their intrinsic motivation may not result in higher levels of work engagement if they do not feel their efforts are supported by their supervisor. It has been researched and proven that authentic leadership can facilitate work engagement amongst employees (Bamford et al., 2013; Walumbwa, Wang, et al., 2010; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Research has also shown evidence of a positive relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Gardner, Cogliser, et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2005). Because it has been theorized that authentic leadership behaviors may directly affect a follower's work engagement, the first hypothesis to be tested follows:

H_1: Perceived authentic leadership behavior is positively related to follower's work engagement.

Follower's Hope

Gill (2016) theorized that hope is the only thing we can never afford to be without and even compared it to jet fuel for the journey of work and life. Gill explained while hope is related to its emotional cousin optimism and happiness, often collectively called *positive thinking*, hope has a distinction focusing on situation-specific and future-focused goals. In other words, when you are hopeful, you believe that the future will be better than the past and that you have a direct role in making that happen.

R. J. House (1995) suggested that people engage in moral behaviors with a hope that perhaps they can create a better future. Walker (2006) stated, "Through presence, by communicating positive expectations, and by exhibiting a confidence in a person's ability to overcome difficulties, one person can influence another's hope" (p. 553). Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. provided people with a sense of hope. Even when things looked their bleakest, he expressed hope:

> Somehow, I still believe we're going to get there, he'd say. And then he encouraged everyone to take control of their own destiny, to get involved, to accept the task of helping make the world a better place to live in. (Phillips, 2000, epilog)

Although Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. was the leader, it was through his followers and the transference of hope that a movement was born. Luthans and Avolio (2003) theorized, "The force multiplier throughout history has often been attributed to the leader's ability to generate hope" (p. 253).

Helland and Winston (2005) explained numerous books have been written on the leadership challenges faced in the 21st century, but a limited number have researched the potential connection between leadership and hope. Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) added research on hope within leadership studies are limited. Pekrun et al. (2009) explained hope as one of several academic achievement emotions resulting from mastery and performance approach goals; on the other hand, the authors theorized hopelessness results from performance-avoidance goals. Over the past decade, research has been conducted on the topic of hope, resulting in a cognitive-based theory of hope and has confirmed it is a viable theory (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b; Snyder, Irving, et al., 1991).

In a 2009 study, Gallup asked more than 20,000 individuals three questions to measure hope in their workplace, which focused on knowing one will be an important part of this organization in the future as well as setting clear and meaningful goals and accomplishing them and finding ways to solve almost any problem in one's workplace (Crabtree & Robison, 2010). Results from the study indicated overall only 15% of employees strongly agreed with all three items suggesting only a small minority were completely free of doubts about their current and future contributions to their organizations. Crabtree and Robison (2010) highlighted that the number was almost doubled (29%) among employees who were emotionally engaged in their workplaces and just 2% of those who were actively disengaged. It is important for staff to have hope for the future and believe that they will be able to grow and develop their skill set to be able to have the opportunity for job advancement, accompanied by higher earnings (Branham,

2005). Schuitema (2004) added followers want to be in a place that resonates with their personal values and goals and be able to engage in meaningful work where they can make a difference, are valued, and are respected. Snyder (2002) added high-hope people also are more goals oriented and make their groups more productive as well as work more enjoyable (Snyder, Cheavens, et al., 1997).

Hope, as a construct, provides the motivation to achieve organizational goals (Tanoff & Barlow, 2002). It involves agency and pathway thinking and is one of the moral virtues that can strengthen the moral character of followers (Snyder & Lopez, 2005). Hope is one component of positive psychology and is a unique characteristic of positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002). Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2007) added hope is known to impact human and organizational performance and is a key characteristic of psychological capital—a "higher-order positive construct" (p. 4). Hope meets the criteria for positive organizational behavior in that it is related to leader effectiveness, has a valid measurement, and impacts employee performance (Luthans, 2002).

Snyder, Irving, et al. (1991) defined hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (p. 287). Helland and Winston (2005) added, "Leaders are purveyors of hope" (p. 42). Tanoff and Barlow (2002) conducted one of the first-known empirical studies on the relationship between leadership and followers and suggested that leaders and followers share the same traits. Tanoff and Barlow stated, "Possibly the parallel between leadership and followership is the convergence on doing (behavior) with purpose (goals)" (p. 163). Yet, Tanoff and Barlow provided evidence to suggest that followers can also be the initiators of hope within the leader–follower relationship. Snyder and Lopez (2005) believed, "Hope theory could be applied to help build environments where people can work together to meet shared goals" (p. 268). In an organizational context, hope is a strength that would complement courageous follower behavior as followers work in partnership with the leader to achieve the common purpose (Snyder & Lopez, 2005)

Effects of Follower's Hope

A leader's hopeful outlook enables people to see beyond today's challenges to tomorrow's answers (Gill, 2016). Hope is "enhanced by positive feedback and lessened by negative information. Hope anticipates goal attainment" (Sumerlin, 1997, p. 1104). Snyder (2002) theorized that hope is not just an emotion; it is now becoming a powerful and pervasive cognitive process that is observable across numerous contexts including that of formal organizations. Schuitema (2004) posited from a follower's perspective followers want to work in a place that resonates with their personal values and goals and they want to engage in meaningful work where they can make a difference. Luthans and Jensen (2002) showed how hope can be developed at the individual, team, and organizational levels in today's workplace.

A closer look into the leadership literature reveals that hope has been a dominant feature in many leadership theories (Shorey & Snyder, 2004). For example, Gardner (1993) wrote that the two tasks at the heart of the popular notion of leadership are goal setting and motivating. Bass (1998) noted that teams working under transformational leaders set individual goals that were for the good of the team. High-hope individuals tend to be more certain of their goals and challenged by them; they are also less anxious in stressful situations and more adaptive to environmental change (Snyder, Cheavens, et al., 1997; Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2000). Hope's reciprocal nature infers that hope can be initiated by the follower in order to impact leader behavior also.

Measuring Follower's Hope

Herth Hope Index. Herth (1992) explained that the Herth Hope Index was "designed to incorporate not only the critical elements incorporated in other scales, but also more recently identified concepts" (p. 1252). Herth used three factors of hope in the Herth Hope Index: "temporality and future, positive readiness and expectancy, and interconnectedness" (p. 1258). The contextual focus of the Herth Hope Index was adult clients in a clinical setting. This instrument was only validated and applied in this specific clinical setting.

Hope Scale. The Hope Scale developed by Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991) for measuring trait hope evolved over a series of research projects. This research resulted in the identification of four items that most clearly measure agency or will and four items that most clearly measured pathways. The resulting scale of 12 statements has eight statements related to hope (agency and pathways) and four filler statements.

State Hope Scale. Building on the foundation of the Hope Scale, Snyder, Sympson, et al. (1996) accomplished a series of four studies that resulted in the development and validation of the State Hope Scale. This scale has six statements—three related to pathways and three related to agency. The State Hope Scale has fewer statements because it focuses on the present and has no future orientation like the Hope Scale.

Work Hope Scale (WHS). Building on Snyder, Harris, et al.'s (1991) previous work, Juntunen and Wettersten (2006) introduced a concept of work hope and defined it as "a positive motivational state that is directed at work and work-related goals and is composed of the presence of work-related goals and both the agency and the pathways for achieving those goals" (p. 97). Juntunen and Wettersten focused primarily on vocational counseling but went further than Snyder in regard to adapting the hope theory into the work environment. In the current study, hope is measured using the WHS.

The WHS consists of 24 items scored on a Likert-type scale. Sample items include "When I look into the future," "I have a clear picture of what my work life will be like," "I am confident that things will work out for me in the future," and "There are many ways to succeed at work." The Pearson's bivariate correlation indicated adequate test–retest reliability for the WHS total score and subscales. The total WHS score reliability coefficient from scale development was .90.

Follower's Hope Mediating Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors and Employee Work Engagement

The construct of authentic leadership is closely related to hope theory (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). According to Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004), authentic leadership is a root construct that should be part of all leadership theories.

An authentic leader is one who can nurture hope in followers; he or she does this primarily by modeling hopeful thinking and by helping followers develop stronger willpower and waypower (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). A critical task of authentic leaders is to create hope among their followers, and it will help employees/followers to set their goals and decide how to reach and achieve those (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). Youssef and Luthans (2007) explained that emerging research has revealed the impact of hope on performance and work attitudes. Hopeful people have the desire or agency to achieve goals and the capability to develop various pathways or strategies toward goal accomplishment (Shahnawaz & Jafri, 2009). Othman and Nasurdin (2011) found that hope and resilience are positively related to work engagement. Thus, follower's hope may mediate the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and a follower's work engagement. The second hypothesis to be tested follows:

H_2: A follower's hope mediates the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

Follower's Trust in the Leader

Carnevale (1995) noted that people in organizations respond in kind to the amount of trust they experience and cautioned that trust could not be commanded or manipulated into existence, instead it is an attitude that is voluntarily extended to others only after assessing whether the recipients are worthy of such consideration. Chemers (2002) viewed effective leadership as including the ability to work with others to achieve goals and labeled it as the foundation for organizational success. When dealing with organizational members leaders need to be effective, they must demonstrate the trustworthiness characteristics as defined by Mayer, Davis, et al. (1995). Carnevale explained trustworthiness allows leaders to take advantage of member skills and abilities without taking advantage of members, thereby creating an organizational climate of mutual trust and commitment.

Mayer, Davis, et al. (1995) explained when a follower considers a leader trustworthy and dependable, that leader develops trust and greater effectiveness. Chemers (2002) added people are more effective and creative when there is mutual

trust between them. Podsakoff et al. (1990) explained followers' trust in the leader is measured as one of the most important variables that mediate leadership effectiveness. The level of commitment in which followers will connect to their leader's vision depends on the leader's capability to build trust with the follower (Yukl, 1998). Bruhn (2001) emphasized that high levels of trust generally result in the creation of flatter organizations with greater empowerment, thus producing increased participation and productivity. Bruhn further stated that followers who trust their leader are more likely to provide superior performance, experience positive attitudes, and exhibit greater organizational commitment.

Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) defined trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another" (p. 395). Trust is "an expectancy that the word, promise, or statement of another can be relied upon" (Rotter, 1967, p. 651). Mayer, Davis. et al. (1995) defined trust as

> the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. (p. 712)

For decades, trust has been identified as a fundamental component of cooperative relationships (Blau, 1964; Deutsch, 1958). Many researchers have pondered, can leaders influence and have an impact on the trust levels of their subordinates? This is a challenging question that has been addressed by many earlier researchers (Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Lewicki et al., 1998; Mayer, Davis, et al., 1995). The significance of trust in leadership has also been recognized by researchers for at least five decades with early exploration empirical articles (e.g., Mellinger, 1959; Read, 1962).

Mayer, Davis. et al. (1995) theorized the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action important to the trustor; this relationship will lead the trustor to be willing to be vulnerable to the actions of the trustee. Past studies have demonstrated that trust enhances people's willingness to engage in cooperative and unselfish behavior (Kramer, 1999). Wei (2003) added that, in the workplace, a

prevalent form of relationship is that between a subordinate and a supervisor, and trust in the supervisor is critical in such dyadic relationships because subordinates have a dependency and vulnerability to their supervisor. Some researchers have described trust in leadership as operating according to a social exchange process between followers and leaders (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Blau (1964) postulated followers see the relationship with their leader as beyond the standard economic gain; this relationship often operates on the basis of trust, goodwill, and the perception of mutual commitments. Bromily and Cummings (1992) theorized that the loss of trust between leaders and subordinates will lead to poor communication, lack of respect, avoidance, and spiteful conformity.

Connell et al. (2003) discussed trust levels throughout organizations most likely have suffered from widespread downsizing, coupled with high-profile cases of leader misconduct, such as what we have seen at Enron, WorldCom, and Tyco (to name a few); these instances gave reason to lower employees' trust in leaders. Researchers have also focused on high-quality relationships to describe how trust in leader and follower relationships produces citizenship behavior (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Mayer and Schoorman (1992) found that measures of trust correlate positively with performance and negatively with turnover. Additionally, in a meta-analysis conducted by K. T. Dirks and Ferrin (2002), trust in leadership was found to be associated with commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, satisfaction with leaders, and intention to stay, which are all critical elements of organizational effectiveness.

Effects of Trust in Leader

Many leadership styles have been investigated in relation to outcomes in organizations. Recently, there has been an emphasis on understanding the importance of trust in leaders, specifically looking at the psychological state of a follower comprising willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of a leader (K. T. Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Rousseau et al., 1998). Gillespie and Mann (2004) explained trust in leaders has received attention from researchers and practitioners alike because it is fundamental to the relationships between employees and their leaders with implications for

important employee outcomes. Employee trust in leaders has been shown to relate to a wide range of individual-level outcomes, including job satisfaction (Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Whitener, 2001), organizational commitment (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999), citizenship behavior (Mayer & Gavin, 2005), and task performance (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007).

K. T. Dirks (2000) added leaders form perceptions about how much their members trust them. This development of trust is in line with trust literature expressing that trust is an expectation or belief that one can depend on another's good intentions toward oneself (K. T. Dirks, 2000). Lester and Brower (2003) advanced that just as members make evaluations of a leader's trustworthiness to determine their trust in him or her, leaders make evaluations of members' trustworthiness to determine how much they can trust the member. Members pick up signals from the leader that create perceptions about the level of trust the leader has in the member. Both parties in a dyadic relationship form beliefs about the trustworthiness of the other, and they develop perceptions about how the other member of the dyad evaluates their trustworthiness.

Brower, Schoorman, and Tan (2000) asserted that leaders create a trusting environment or exhibit trustworthy behaviors, so members will trust in them and be inspired to do what they want. The authors also stressed the idea that members who experience trusting behaviors from the leader show better attitudes and are more productive in the workplace. Trustworthiness is said to be a perception or "belief about another's ability, benevolence and integrity, which leads to a willingness to risk, which leads to risk taking in the relationship, as manifested in a variety of behaviors" (K. Dirks & Ferrin, 2001, p. 452).

In their study of more than 7,500 managers over a 6-year period, Kouzes and Posner (1990) compiled a list of 20 leader characteristics that the managers admired in their direct leader. Honesty topped the list as the most important characteristic. The authors simply defined honesty from the follower perspective as leaders doing what they say that they are going to do. Kouzes and Posner noted that leader honesty produces follower trust.

Perry and Mankin (2004) identified a significant correlation between years worked for a supervisor and the employee's level of trust. This is consistent with the idea that the longer an employee works for a leader, the better he or she is able to assess the leader's trustworthiness. However, K. T. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found no correlation between length of relationship and trust in the leader. This contradiction provides an opportunity for additional research. It has also been argued that followers make decisions regarding the trustworthiness of the leader based on what the follower views as the leader's level of ability, integrity, dependability, and fairness. In terms of cognitive trust, people base decisions on what they have deemed trustworthy or untrustworthy behavior by an individual with whom they have interacted and the consistency of that behavior. Thus, reliability and dependability are usually seen to be fundamental components contributing to cognitive trust levels (McAllister, 1995).

After conducting an extensive meta-analysis of the trust literature, K. T. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) formulated a two-dimensional theoretical construct of follower trust in the direct leader, which is based in the quality of the follower's relationship with the leader referent and the leader's character. In addition, other researchers have identified follower trust that is based in leader competence (Bijlsma-Frankema & Van de Bunt, 2003).

Measuring Trust in the Leader

There has been a growth in researcher and practitioner interest in follower trust (Connell et al., 2003). Connell et al. (2003) explained this increased interest in trust theory has provided an improvement in the identification and understanding of multiple antecedents or bases of trust. It has been theorized that leader behaviors that encourage employees' involvement and participation in the decision-making process and promote sharing of information are also likely to enhance employees' trust (K. Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

Confidence in the Leader Scale. The Confidence in the Leader Scale created by Shamir, Brainin, Zakay, and Popper (2000) is a four-item scale designed to measure confidence in a military leader with items such as "I have complete trust in him." The scale is rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*); all items

are calculated into a single index of leader trust. Shamir, Brainin, et al. found this scale has shown acceptable reliability, alpha = .85, in four samples of soldiers (*n* = 1550), with varying ranks from the Israel Defense Forces. With regard to construct validity, Shamir, Brainin, et al. found that confidence in the leader was positively related to confidence among the unit that they were ready for combat.

Trust in Teams and Trust in Leaders Scales. The Trust in Teams and Trust in Leaders Scales (Adams & Sartori, 2005) were developed to investigate trust in Canadian Forces military teams and leaders. These scales were developed because previous measures of trust in teams have shown variable internal reliability and construct validity. Also, most questionnaires did not address trust from a military context. These scales are designed to primarily tap person-based trust that accrues as the direct result of personal experience and shared history

Cognitive Trust Scale. The Cognitive Trust Scale was created by McAllister (1995) and measures managers' trust in their peers. The nine-item scale uses a 7-point rating system ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) and includes items such as "I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work." When item stems were slightly changed and used to explore trust within teams (K. T. Dirks, 1999), this scale showed a reliability of .96, and confirmatory factor analysis showed that items loaded on a single factor. Cognitive trust was used to measure trust in the leader. For the purpose of the current study, all questions use "my leader." For example, "My leader approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication."

Trust in Leader Mediating Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors and Employee Work Engagement

Ilies et al. (2005) noted research has supported when leaders interact with employees with openness and truthfulness, which promotes unconditional trust from employees. Additionally, by setting personal high moral standards rooted in integrity and allowing involving employees in the decision-making process, authentic leaders have the ability to build a deep sense of trust in employees (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004). Schaufeli and Salanova (as cited in Bakker, Schaufeli, et al., 2008) explained there can be an increase in work engagement

among employees if there is a solid sense of trust in the competence and capability of their immediate supervisors. Authentic leaders are guided by deep personal values and convictions that generate credibility, as well as follower respect and trust (Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio, et al., 2008). Shamir and Eilam (2005) added this exchange would stimulate equally authentic engagement among them.

In particular, highly authentic leaders value realistic and truthful relationships with followers (Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005; Ilies et al., 2005). They solicit views about important work-related matters and openly share information fairly and transparently. Empirically, it has been found that the leader's level of transparency and psychological capital, which can be defined as a positive state of development characterized by self-efficacy, hope, resiliency, and optimism (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007), affects followers' perceived trust in the leader (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010). Authentic leaders also act in accordance with fundamental and deeply rooted values and beliefs, rather than responding to external pressures or narrow and transitory interests (Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005).

Luthans and Avolio (2003) described authentic leaders as individuals who are trustworthy, reliable, and genuine. Such behaviors make them more reliable and dependable in the eyes of their followers, which, according to McAllister (1995), are two very important components that contribute toward the formation of cognitive trust. The issues of reliability and dependability have been central themes to the *type* of trust that is relevant in transparent and authentic relationships because the authentic leader is based on values-driven behavior and beliefs, which are more stable and more easily adhered to on a consistent basis (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Prior research has suggested that when followers identify with their immediate supervisors' values, they become more trusting of the leader (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Thus, a follower's trust in the leader may mediate the relationship between authentic leadership behaviors and a follower's work engagement. The third hypothesis to be tested follows:

H_3: A follower's level of trust mediates the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

Chapter 3 – Method

To test the hypotheses posited in this study, empirical data were needed to measure the relationships between perceived authentic leadership, follower's hope, trust in the leader, and follower's work engagement. This study examined leadership behaviors based on a follower's perceived authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and its relationship to a follower's work engagement. The study also examined the possible mediating effects that trust in the leader and follower's hope may have on this relationship. The study used Qualtrics to capture data from a sample of workers within corporate America. After the data were collected, the statistical data analysis phase began. Since the research used empirical investigative techniques through statistical analysis, a survey instrument in combination with a quantitative approach of regression analysis was used. This chapter discusses the overall research methodology and design, sampling procedures, data collection techniques, instrumentation, and the data analysis procedures used to investigate the hypotheses.

Sample and Procedures

The variables in the current authentic leadership study were tested using data collected by Qualtrics, a privately held experience management company that focuses on collecting survey data. Over 2,000 colleges and universities have chosen to use Qualtrics (Qualitics, 2017). Using an online self-administered survey instrument, Qualtrics emailed a survey link to over 200 professionals throughout the United States who work within corporate America. It should be noted that the required minimum sample size depends on the desired power, alpha levels, and effect size (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) suggested 15-20 observations for each independent variable or category. The desired sample size for this study was 120 participants and was determined based on one independent variable (perceived authentic leadership), two mediating variables (follower's hope and trust in the leader), and four control variables describing the followers, which are the subjects of the study. These are age, gender, tenure, and job satisfaction.

A self-administered survey method was chosen because of its benefits that included "confidentiality, convenience, cost-effectiveness, ease of administration, statistical analysis, and remote access capability" (Creswell, 2014, p. 157). Qualtrics distributed the survey for 2 weeks, requesting that participants complete the survey by the end of the second week. A benefit of using Qualtrics is the company guarantees respondent anonymity. After 2 weeks, the survey was deactivated. The survey began with an instructional page and consent form. After the instructions, the first section of the questionnaire included demographic questions. In addition to the demographic items, the survey consisted of 59 Likert-type scale items, including 14 items to measure authentic leadership, nine items to measure employee work engagement, 24 items to measure hope, six items to measure trust, and six items to measure job satisfaction. After the survey was deactivated, 210 responses had been collected. After checking for outliers such as ranges that were out of scope (e.g., a respondent may have listed size of organization as 100-900, or on a preliminary question the respondent may have typed "prefer not to say"), 203 survey responses were used in this study.

Sample Characteristics

Of the 203 total responses in the study, 62.6% of the participants identified themselves as female (n = 127), and 37.4 % identified as male (n = 76). The average age of participants was 38, the youngest age of participants was 18, and the oldest age of participants was 68. All participants had a full-time job and a direct leader. The average years participants had been working on the job (tenure) was 8 years, and 65% of the participants had been working on the job for less than 10 years.

Measures and Instrumentation

The instrument consisted of four main parts: perceived authentic leadership, follower's work engagement, follower's hope, and trust in leader. The data were also collected to identify gender, tenure, age of the respondent, and his or her level of job satisfaction. These variables were used as control variables.

Independent Variables

The Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI) was used to measure subordinates' perceptions regarding the authenticity of their leaders (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011). The four dimensions of authentic leadership—self-awareness, balanced processing, relational transparency, and internalized moral perspective—have previously been measured as one factor to test the perceived perceptions of employees regarding their leader's authentic leadership behaviors (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The ALI measures the same dimensions as the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) developed by Walumbwa, Avolio, et al. (2008). The ALQ has been used as a single dimension measure in previous studies. The ALI has 14 items where response options are arranged on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Example items on the ALI include "My leader carefully listens to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion" and "My leader uses his and/or her core beliefs to make decisions." Previous studies have found acceptable reliability with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging between 0.74 and 0.90 (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011). For the current study, perceived authentic leadership behaviors was measured as a single factor. Reliability analysis was conducted for this scale, and the Cronbach's alpha was .95 within the study sample.

Dependent Variable

Employee work engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). UWES was developed by Schaufeli, Salonova, et al. (2002); for the current study, the short form, UWES-9, was used. The UWES-9 assesses three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Sample items include "At my work, I feel bursting with energy," "I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose," and "Time flies when I'm working." There are very high correlations between the factors of the UWES and, though the instrument is composed of three dimensions, for practical purposes the three factors can be collapsed into one factor (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The internal consistency of the original instrument is Cronbach's alpha .91 through .96. For the current study, work engagement was measured as a single factor. Reliability

analysis was conducted for this scale, and the Cronbach's alpha for the UWES-9 was .94 within the study sample.

Mediating Variables

Hope was measured using Juntunen and Wettersten's (2006) Work Hope Scale (WHS). The WHS consists of 24 items scored on a Likert-type scale. Sample items include "When I look into the future, I have a clear picture of what my work life will be like," "I am confident that things will work out for me in the future," and "There are many ways to succeed at work." The Pearson's bivariate correlation indicated adequate test–retest reliability for the WHS total score and subscales; the total WHS score reliability coefficient from scale development was .90. Reliability analysis was conducted for this study, and the Cronbach's alpha for the WHS was .87 within the study sample.

Trust in leaders was measured using McAllister's (1995) six-item measure of cognitive trust in a specific coworker. For the current study, all questions relating to *coworker* were changed to *leader*. This measure asks respondents to answer six cognition-based trust items on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Sample items include "This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication" and "Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider him/her to be trustworthy." Reliability analysis was conducted for this scale, and the Cronbach's alpha for the cognitive trust scale was .72 within the study sample.

Control Variables

Kraemer and Thiemann (1987) explained that some variables may be associated with the main variables within a study and may distort the results of the research since one could be the underlying agent that is actually causing a change in the response variable. Sweet and Martin (2012) posited one way to deal with the problem while seeking to establish causal relationships is to control for suspected variables. In this study, gender, tenure, age of the respondent, and job satisfaction were controlled because of their possible influence on the outcome variable included in the present research.

Research has suggested age, gender, and tenure relate to engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Abdulla and Shaw (1999) found organizational tenure was found to have a positive correlation with employee engagement. Job satisfaction was measured to see the effect it may have on work engagement since research has shown a correlation between the two variables (Berry & Morris, 2008). Job satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Index (Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980). Fields (2002) explained it uses six items to form an index that describes overall job satisfaction. Sample items include "How satisfied are with the nature of the work you perform?" and "How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you-your organizational superior?" Reliability analysis was conducted for the scale, and the Cronbach's alpha for the job satisfaction index was .89 in the study sample.

Although the original study model planned to control for job satisfaction, examination of the correlation matrix and regression analyses indicated a substantial level of multicollinearity of job satisfaction with authentic leadership; therefore, it was removed as a control variable. Specifically, the zero-order correlation of job satisfaction with authentic leadership was .67, indicating the two variables shared 45% of their variance.

Research Design and Analysis

After obtaining the survey results, the data were summarized and analyzed utilizing SPSS software. This study utilized descriptive analysis and multiple regression to conduct statistical test. Multiple regression is "not just one technique but a family of techniques that can be used to explore the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and a number of independent variables or predictors" (Pallant, 2010, p. 148). Survey results are discussed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4 – Results

The current study's hypotheses were tested using the following variables: the independent variable (perceived authentic leadership), dependent variable (follower's work engagement), mediating variables (follower's hope and trust in the leader), and control variables (gender, age, and tenure). As previously discussed, job satisfaction was removed as a control variable in this study. The descriptive statistics for these dimensions are reported in this chapter as well as the statistical analyses used to test for normal distribution of the dependent variable. Next, the results of the multiple regression analyses are examined to test the study hypotheses.

Descriptive Statistics

To test the study's hypotheses, new variables were computed to represent the mean. Mean values were calculated for perceived authentic leadership, follower's work engagement, follower's hope, trust in the leader, and job satisfaction. The mean scores and standard deviations of the independent, dependent, mediating, and control variables, as well as the correlations among the variables, are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Covariate, Independent, and Dependent Variables

Variable		*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Gender	1.63	0.49	–							
2	Age	37.86	10.83	-0.04	–						
3	Tenure	8.14	7.18	-0.17*	0.40**	–					
4	Work engagement	3.8	0.88	-0.18**	0.01	-0.12	–				
5	Authentic leadership	3.92	0.81	-0.20**	-0.08	-0.17*	0.71**	–			
6	Trust in leader	3.73	0.70	-0.23**	-0.08	0.13	0.64**	0.73**	–		
7	Follower's hope	3.67	0.55	0.16*	0.00	-0.01	0.39**	0.34**	0.11	–	
8	Job satisfaction	3.94	0.81	-0.16*	-0.03	0.18*	0.76**	0.67**	0.68	0.39**	–

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Numerous correlations between the variables exceeded .60; thus, collinearity diagnostics were examined for multicollinearity relationships among the variables (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Within this study, the original study model planned to control for job satisfaction, but examination of the correlation matrix and regression analyses indicated a substantial level of multicollinearity of job satisfaction with authentic leadership, thus it was removed as a control variable. Specifically, the zero-order correlation of job satisfaction with authentic leadership was .67, indicating the two variables shared 45% of their variance. Also, according to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006), the two most common measures for assessing multiple variable collinearity are tolerance (TOL) and its inverse, the variance inflation factor (VIF). A TOL of .2 or less, or a VIF of 5.0 or greater, can indicate a high degree of multicollinearity among the independent variables. After job satisfaction was removed, no other multicollinearity issues were present.

Multiple Regression Analyses

Multiple regression presumes that there is a normal distribution of scores for the dependent variable and is used when there is one continuous dependent variable and two or more continuous or categorical independent variables (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Often, a normality test includes examining the values of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk statistics ($p > .05$) and inspecting the normal Q-Q plot for a distribution of data points evenly and tightly along the Q-Q line (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). After running a normality test using Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk statistics and inspecting the normal Q-Q plot for a reasonably straight line, it was determined that the dependent variable was not normally distributed. The results of the two tests indicated that the dependent variable was negatively skewed. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) explained with large samples of 200+, skewness will not make a substantive difference in the analysis (p. 80).

The first step involved in Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure is to test the extent to which the independent variable (perceived authentic leadership behaviors) is related to the dependent variable (follower's work engagement). The second step in Baron and Kenny's procedure is that the researcher must show that the independent variable is related to the mediator. The second regression tested the extent to which the independent variable (perceived authentic leadership behaviors) is related to the mediating variable (follower's hope). The third step in Baron and Kenny's procedure examines the relationship of the independent variable with the dependent variable in the presence of the mediator. The third regression examined the relationship of the independent variable (perceived authentic leadership behaviors) with the dependent variable (follower's work engagement) after the mediating variable (follower's hope) was entered into the regression model. If in the final regression model, the mediator is significantly related with the dependent variables and the independent variable is no longer significantly related with the dependent variable, mediation is complete. These steps were repeated to test the second mediating variable—trust in the leader.

Hypothesis 1

Multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the hypothesized positive work engagement relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement after controlling for gender, age, and tenure. To test the hypothesis, work engagement was entered as the dependent variable, all control variables were entered as independent variables in Block 1, and perceived authentic leadership was entered as independent variable in Block 2.

In the first model, the control variables explained 4.3% of the variance in follower's work engagement. After perceived authentic leadership was added in the second model, the total variance explained by the model was 51.0% ($F[4,198] = 51.58$, $p < .001$). The change was statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.47$, $F[1,198] = 189.03$, $p < .001$). In the second model, only authentic leadership was statistically significant (beta = .71, $p < .001$). Finally, an examination of the collinearity diagnostics revealed no multicollinearity problems among the independent variables (TOL > .2 and VIF < 5 for all variables). See Table 2 for the

unstandardized coefficients (B and standard error) and standardized coefficients (beta). These results supported Hypothesis 1 because it showed that perceived authentic leadership was positively and significantly related to follower's work engagement.

Table 2: Coefficients (Dependent Variable = Work Engagement)

Variables	B	*SE* B	β
Step 1			
Tenure	.01	.01	.11
Age	-.00	.01	-.05
Gender	-.30	.13	-.17
R^2 = .043**			
Step 2			
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.04
Age	.01	.00	.08
Gender	-.08	.09	-.44
Authentic leadership	.77	.06	**.71****
ΔR^2 = .467**			
Total R^2 = .510**			

*p < .05. **p < .01.

The term complete mediation in mediational hypothesis means that the independent variable is not significantly related to the dependent variable after the mediator variable is controlled (Pallant, 2010). This study used Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach for testing for mediation. When there are multiple mediators, a simple approach is to evaluate one mediator at a time in four steps testing various mediational hypotheses.

Hypothesis 2

The next step in the multiple regression analysis examined the hypothesized mediating effects of follower's hope. In the first set of analyses to test the second condition for mediation, follower's hope was entered as the dependent variable, all

control variables were entered as independent variables in Block 1, and follower's perceived authentic leadership was entered as the independent variable in Block 2. In the first model, the control variables explained 2.4% of the variance in follower's hope. After follower's perceived authentic leadership was added in the second model, the total variance explained by the model was 17.1% (F[4,198] = 10.18, p < .001). The change was statistically significant (ΔR^2 = 0.15, F[1,198] = 34.88, p < .001). In the second model, only two variables were statistically significant: gender (beta = .23, p =.001), and authentic leadership (beta =.40, p < .001). Finally, collinearity diagnostics revealed no multicollinearity effects (TOL > .2 and VIF < 5 for all variables). See Table 3 for the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients.

Table 3: Coefficients (Dependent Variable = Follower's Hope)

Variables	B	*SE* B	β
Step 1			
Tenure	.00	.01	.01
Age	.00	.00	-.00
Gender	.18	.08	**-.16****
R^2 = .024**			
Step 2			
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.07
Age	.00	.00	.07
Gender	-.26	.08	**.23****
Authentic leadership	.27	.05	**.71****
ΔR^2 = .146**			
Total R^2 = .171**			

*p < .05. **p < .01.

To test for of mediation, follower's work engagement was entered as the dependent variable, all control variables were entered as independent variables in Block 1, perceived authentic leadership was entered as the independent variable in

Block 2, and follower's hope was entered in Block 3 as the mediating variable. The total variance explained by the third model was 54.1% (F[5,197] = 46.38, $p < .001$). The change in Step 3 was statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$, F[1,197] = 13.03, $p < .001$). Though follower's hope presented a significant change, perceived authentic leadership was also significant. In the second model, perceived authentic leadership was significant (beta = .71, $p < .001$) and even after hope was added in the third model (beta =.19, $p < .001$), the relationship of authentic leadership with work engagement remained significant (beta =.64, $p < .001$). Collinearity diagnostics performed in Step 3 revealed no evidence of multicollinearity (TOL > .2 and VIF < 5 for all variables). See Table 4 for the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients.

Table 4: Coefficients (Dependent Variable = Work Engagement)

Variables	B	*SE* B	β
Step 1			
Tenure	.01	.01	.11
Age	.00	.01	.05
Gender	-.30	.13	-.17
R^2 = .043			
Step 2			
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.04
Age	.01	.00	.08
Gender	-.08	.09	-.04
Authentic leadership	.77	.06	**.71****
ΔR^2 = .467**			
Total R^2 = .510**			
Step 3			
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.04
Age	.01	.00	.09
Gender	-.37	.09	-.02
Authentic leadership	.69	.06	**.64****
Follower's hope	.31	.09	**.19****
ΔR^2 = .030**			
Total R^2 = .541**			

*p < .05. **p < .01.

The analysis revealed that after the addition of the mediator, hope, there was a very little reduction in the beta for the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement. Also, there was a significant relationship between hope and work engagement. However, since the addition of hope failed to eliminate the significance of the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement, hope partially mediated the relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement.

Hypothesis 3

The next step in the multiple regression analysis examined the hypothesized mediating effects of follower's trust in his or her leader. In the first set of analyses to test the second condition for mediation, follower's trust in the leader was entered as the dependent variable, all control variables were entered as independent variables in Block 1, and perceived authentic leadership was entered as the independent variable in Block 2. In the first model, the control variables explained 8.1% of the variance in follower's trust. After the addition of perceived authentic leadership in the second model, the total variance explained by the model was 54.2% (F[4,198] = 58.64, $p < .001$). The change was statistically significant (ΔR^2 = 0.46, F[1,198] = 199.45, $p < .001$). In the second model, only authentic leadership was statistically significant (beta = .71, $p < .001$). Finally, collinearity diagnostics revealed no multicollinearity effects (TOL > .2 and VIF < 5 for all variables). See Table 5 for the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients.

Table 5: Coefficients (Dependent Variable = Trust in Leader)

Variables	B	*SE* B	β
Step 1			
Tenure	.01	.00	.16
Age	-.01	.01	.16
Gender	-.30	.10	-.21
R^2 = .024**			
Step 2			
Tenure	0	.01	.01
Age	0	.00	-.03
Gender	-.13	.07	-.08
Authentic leadership	.61	.04	**.71****
ΔR^2 = .461**			
Total R^2 = .542**			

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

To test for mediation, follower's work engagement was entered as the dependent variable, all control variables were entered as independent variables in Block 1, perceived authentic leadership was entered as the independent variable in Block 2, and trust in the leader was entered as mediating variable in Block 3. The total variance explained by the third model was 54.4% (F[5,197] = 47.00, $p < .001$). The change in Step 3 was statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$, F[1,197] = 14.55, $p < .001$). Though trust in the leader presented a significant change, perceived authentic leadership was also significant. In the second model, perceived authentic leadership was significant (beta = .71, $p < .001$), and even after trust was added in the third model (beta = .27, $p < .001$), the relationship of authentic leadership with work engagement remained significant (beta = .52, $p < .001$). The analysis revealed only partial mediation since both authentic leadership and trust in the leader remained significant. Collinearity diagnostics performed in Step 3 revealed no evidence of multicollinearity (TOL > .2 and VIF < 5 for all variables). See Table 6 for the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients.

Table 6: Coefficients (Dependent Variable = Work Engagement)

Variables	B	*SE* B	β
Step 1			
Tenure	.00	.01	.11
Age	.00	.01	.05
Gender	-.30	.13	-.17
R^2 = .043			
Step 2			
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.04
Age	.01	.00	.08
Gender	-.08	.09	-.04
Authentic leadership	.77	.06	**.71****
ΔR^2 = .467**			
Total R^2 = .510**			
Step 3			
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.04
Age	.01	.00	.09
Gender	-.37	.09	-.02
Authentic leadership	.56	.08	**.52****
Trust in leader	.34	.09	**.27****
ΔR^2 = .034**			
Total R^2 = .544**			

*p < .05. **p < .01.

The analysis revealed that after the addition of the mediator, trust in leader, there was a reduction in the beta for the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement. Also, there was a significant relationship between trust in leader and work engagement. However, since the addition of trust in leader failed to eliminate the significance of the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement, trust partially mediated the relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement.

Conclusion

Summarizing, the data analyses revealed full support for Hypothesis 1 and partial support for Hypotheses 2 and 3. Specifically, the results showed a positive and significant relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement in Hypothesis 1. However, Hypotheses 2 and 3 both revealed a partial mediator because, although trust and hope reduced the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement, it failed to eliminate the significance of the relationship. The implications of these findings are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

The purpose of this study was to build upon the theoretical work of Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004) examining the relationship between a follower's perceived authentic behaviors of his or her leader and the follower's level of work engagement, looking through the lens of corporate America. Chapter 5 provides a summary of this research study's findings and discusses the theoretical implications of those findings. This chapter also reports the limitations and delimitations of the study and offers suggestions for future research.

Summary of Findings

This study empirically tested the extent to which follower's hope and follower's trust in leader mediate the relationship between a follower's perceptions of the authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and the follower's level of employee work engagement. The specific research hypotheses for the present study follow:

H_1: Perceived authentic leadership behaviors are positively related to follower's work engagement.

H_2: A follower's level of hope mediates the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

H_3: A follower's levels of trust in his or her leader mediate the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

The data analyses revealed full support for Hypothesis 1 and partial support for Hypotheses 2 and 3. There was a positive and significant relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement in Hypothesis 1. Follower's hope and trust in the leader both partially mediated the relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement since the analysis revealed that after the addition of the mediator, there was very little reduction in the relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement; thus, the mediators failed to eliminate the significance of the

relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement in Hypotheses 2 and 3.

Perceived Authentic Leadership Behaviors and Employee Work Engagement

Rurkkhum and Bartlett (2012) explained as individuals become increasingly disenchanted with work, their fatigue increases, which may lead to disengagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) posited it is the leader's responsibility to actively restore the balance and recognize the emotional aspects of the follower. Schaufeli and Bakker clarified this recognition is critical in creating a more energized and engaged workforce. As previously discussed, authentic leadership is positively related to engagement because often authentic leaders strengthen the feelings of self-efficacy, competence, and confidence of their followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005) It has been researched and proven that authentic leadership can facilitate work engagement among employees (Bamford et al., 2013; Walumbwa, Wang, et al., 2010; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Previous research studies have also suggested a positive relationship between authentic leadership and work engagement (Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Gardner, Cogliser, et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2005).

The current study adds to the supportive body of research since a statistically significant relationship between the perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement was found. This finding may be due to the fact that "authentic leaders are deeply aware of their values and beliefs, they are self-confident, genuine, reliable and trustworthy, and they focus on building followers' strengths, broadening their thinking and creating a positive and engaging organizational context" (Ilies et al., 2005, p. 374). Luthans and Avolio (2003) proposed that a key challenge for authentic leaders is to identify followers' strengths while mentoring and directing them appropriately toward a common purpose or mission that is beneficial for all parties involved while aligning to organizational expectations. Exhibiting personal modeling traits such as confidence, optimism, hope, resilience, and a positive moral perspective among their followers, authentic leaders have shown to achieve higher levels of follower trust, engagement, and well-being (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio, Gardner, et al.,

2004). The personal modeling that authentic leaders exhibit has been argued to positively influence follower's self-awareness as well as the follower's levels of self-efficacy, self-control, self-regulation, and trust in the leader (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio, Gardner, et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

Mediating Effects

As previously stated, the study showed partial support for Hypothesis 2. This was a surprising result, since hope is affiliated with goal setting, which may lead to increased work engagement. The hope theory defines hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, et al., 1991, p. 287). Hopeful people have the desire or agency to achieve goals and the capability to develop various pathways or strategies toward goal accomplishment (Shahnawaz & Jafri, 2009). Othman and Nasurdin (2011) found that hope and resilience are positively related to work engagement.

As previously stated, the study showed partial support for Hypothesis 3. This was very surprising since there is research that supports trust in the leader being related to work engagement. Mayer and Davis (1999) even theorized that calculated efforts and positive actions displayed by the leader will lead to trust formation.

Schaufeli and Salanova (as cited in Bakker, Schaufeli, et al., 2008) explained there can be an increase in work engagement among employees if there is a solid sense of trust in the competence and capability of their immediate supervisors. Prior research has suggested that when followers identify with their immediate supervisors' values, they become more trusting to the leader (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Podsakoff et al. (1990) went so far to state that followers' trust in the leader is measured as one of the most important variables that mediate leadership effectiveness. The level of commitment in which a follower will connect to his or her leader's vision depends on the leader's capability to build trust with the follower (Yukl, 1998). Schaufeli and Salanova explained there can be an increase in

work engagement among employees if there is a solid sense of trust in the competence and capability of their immediate supervisors.

From the results presented in this study, the overall relationship between the leader and follower may prove to be more critical than first anticipated. Helland and Winston (2005) explained,

> Authentic leadership goes beyond existing charismatic and transformational leadership theories by focusing on a leadership approach that fosters high levels of trust which in turn encourages people to be more positive, to build on their strengths, to expand their horizon of thinking, to act ethically and morally and to be committed to continuous improvement in organization performance. (p. 49)

Authentic leaders are guided by deep personal values and convictions that generate credibility as well as follower respect and trust (Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio, et al., 2008). Luthans and Avolio (2003) explained since followers' perceptions of trust in the leader are largely based on the leader's behaviors, his or her actions must be aligned with the leader's values and the behavior must be consistent to be seen as genuine or authentic behaviors. Luthans and Avolio (2003) described authentic leaders as individuals who are trustworthy, reliable, and genuine. Such behaviors make them more reliable and dependable in the eyes of their followers, which, according to McAllister (1995), are two very important components that contribute toward the formation of cognitive trust. The results in this study may show that although a follower's trust in the leader is important, how a follower perceives his or her leader may prove to be more beneficial.

Additional important findings to discuss are both follower's hope and trust in the leader had independent significant relationships with work engagement even in the presence of perceived authentic leadership. Adding each to the regression caused significant improvements in model fit. This is evidence that both follower's hope and trust in the leader each may be caused partially by authentic leadership, but both also have substantial amounts of variance explained by other untested variables. So if an employee experiences and has hope and trust in his or her leader,

then he or she may have significantly higher levels of work engagement. This is important theoretically and practically.

Theoretical Importance

As authentic leadership is an evolving theory (Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2010), it needs further development. It is vital that further empirical research be conducted that examines the validity of authentic leadership as a theoretical construct. This study provided a better understanding looking at how a follower perceives authentic leadership behaviors and how this relationship influences a follower's work engagement. House et al. (as cited in Yukl, 2006) explained, "Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization" (p. 3). As previously discussed, authentic leadership is positively related to engagement because often authentic leaders strengthen the feelings of self-efficacy, competence, and confidence of their followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005). Additionally, Gardner, Avolio, et al. (2005) added, to address present and future leadership needs, a model of authentic leader and follower development is needed to strengthen its relationship to genuine, sustainable follower performance. Toor and Ofori (2008) explained,

> Authentic project leaders possess positive values, lead from the heart, set the highest levels of ethics and morality, and go beyond their personal interests for the well-being of their followers. They capitalize on the environment of trust and are able to motivate people and accomplish challenging tasks. (p. 620)

Therefore, the significance of this study is it empirically tested components of the theory proposed by Avolio, Gardner, et al. (2004). Specifically, this study empirically tested the extent to which follower's hope and follower's trust in leader mediate the relationship between a follower's perceptions of the authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and the follower's level of employee work engagement.

Practical Importance

The traditional organizational hierarchy between leaders and their followers has decreased over time due to expanding social networks and the growing empowerment of followers because they have more accessibility to information more easily (Brown, 2003; Cross & Parker, 2004). Brown (2003) explained leaders are "no longer the exclusive source of vital information about their companies or fields; therefore they can no longer expect to be followed blindly by their now well-informed, more skeptical ranks" (p. 68). Furthermore, the incidents at such companies as Enron and WorldCom have led followers to question and distrust top leadership (Gardner, Avolio, et al., 2005). Avery et al. (2007) added leaders often underestimate the challenge of engaging employees, but it is becoming increasingly important given the fact that disengaged employees represent a high cost to organizations. Lockwood (2007) stated, "The challenge today is not just retaining talented people, but fully engaging them, capturing their minds and hearts at each stage of their work lives" (p. 1).

Luthans and Avolio (2003) discussed the importance of authentic leaders' and followers' development and recognized that followers are a key component to the building of leadership models. This study's practical significance is it contributes to the leadership literature by adding to the limited authentic leadership studies that focus on the mediating effects of follower's hope and follower's trust in leader on follower's work engagement. First, the study showed a positive and significant relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement. Second, follower's hope and trust in the leader were both partial mediators providing evidence that these variables partially explained the relationship between perceived authentic leadership and follower's work engagement. Third, both follower's hope and trust in the leader had independent significant relationships with work engagement even in the presence of perceived authentic leadership. Fourth, the large correlation between authentic leadership and job satisfaction may have a halo effect. Followers may think "I have high levels of satisfaction; therefore, I think my leader is authentic." Results from this study

suggest that future studies focusing on authentic leadership, hope, trust, work engagement, and job satisfaction may prove beneficial.

Limitations and Delimitations

A major limitation of this study is the data were collected from a private research software company, so the researcher had limited involvement during the data collection process. Since the study utilized a survey method, this study was not able to prove causation. The correlations were positive and significant, but the causality cannot be inferred. The study also had potential threats in regard to external validity limitations due to limited generalizability. Creswell (2009) explained, "Because of the narrow characteristics of participants in the experiment, the researcher cannot generalize to individual who do not have the characteristics of participants" (p. 165).

Directions for Future Research

First, this study focused strictly on the follower's perception; in future studies, it may be beneficial to capture both leader and follower perceptions to understand how the variables affect both parties. Since perceived authentic leadership has been determined as a significant variable in this study, it may be beneficial to measure the four dimensions of authentic leadership (self-awareness, balanced processing, relational transparency, and internalized moral perspective) as individual factors. The inclusion of other potential mediators or moderators in future studies could also help researchers better understand the relationship between authentic leadership and employee work engagement. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) explained researchers can improve generalizability by replicating samples and studies. It may be beneficial to duplicate the study in different counties to gain a globe perspective. Also, it may be advantageous to have an equal male-to-female ratio to truly understand the impact gender may have on the relationship between authentic leadership and employee work engagement. Since job satisfaction was so highly correlated with work engagement and authentic leadership, it may be beneficial to duplicate this study but, instead of having follower's work engagement as the dependent variable, measure job satisfaction.

Conclusion

This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge by filling in some of the existing gaps in the literature pertaining to authentic leadership and employee engagement. Specifically, it adds to the sparse research of the effects of how follower's hope and trust in the leader mediates the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors experienced by followers and follower's level of work engagement.

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Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Appendix A

List of Measures and Items Used Within This Study

Age: _____

Gender: Male _____
Female _____

Time with leader: _____

Years with the organization: _____

Please respond by considering how well each statement applies to your leader (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Niether Agree Nor Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)

Adapted Authentic Leadership Inventory Questionnaire (AL1)

1. My leader clearly states what he/she means.
2. My leader shows consistency between his/her beliefs and actions.
3. My leader asks for ideas that challenge his/her core beliefs.
4. My leader describes accurately the way that others view his/her abilities.
5. My leader uses his/her core beliefs to make decisions.
6. My leader carefully listens to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion.
7. My leader shows that he/she understands his/her strengths and weaknesses.
8. My leader openly shares information with others.
9. My leader resists pressures on him/her to do things contrary to his/her beliefs.
10. My leader objectively analyzes relevant data before making a decision.
11. My leader is clearly aware of the impact he/she has on others.
12. My leader expresses his/her ideas and thoughts clearly to others.
13. My leader is guided in his/her actions by internal moral standards.
14. My leader encourages others to voice opposing points of view.

Adapted UWES-9 Questionnaire

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.
4. My job inspires me.
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
7. I am proud of the work that I do.
8. I am immersed in my work.

9. I get carried away when I'm working.

Adapted Work Hope Scale Questionnaire

1. I have a plan for getting or maintaining a good job or career.
2. I don't believe I will be able to find a job I enjoy.
3. There are many ways to succeed at work.
4. I expect to do what I really want to do at work.
5. I doubt my ability to succeed at the things that are most important to me.
6. I can identify many ways to find a job that I would enjoy.
7. When I look into the future, I have a clear picture of what my work life will be like.
8. I am confident that things will work out for me in the future.
9. It is difficult to figure out how to find a good job.
10. My desire to stay in the community in which I live (or ultimately hope to live) makes it difficult for me to find work that I would enjoy.
11. I have the skills and attitude needed to find and keep a meaningful job.
12. I do not have the ability to go about getting what I want out of working life.
13. I do not expect to find work that is personally satisfying.
14. I can do what it takes to get the specific work I choose.
15. My education did or will prepare me to get a good job.
16. I believe that I am capable of meeting the work-related goals I have set for myself.
17. I am capable of getting the training I need to do the job I want.
18. I doubt I will be successful at finding (or keeping) a meaningful job.
19. I know how to prepare for the kind of work I want to do.
20. I have goals related to work that are meaningful to me.
21. I am uncertain about my ability to reach my life goals.
22. I have a clear understanding of what it takes to be successful at work.
23. I have a difficult time identifying my own goals for the next five years.
24. I think I will end up doing what I really want to do at work.

Adapted McAllister Cognitive-based Trust Questionnaire

1. My leader approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication.
2. Given my leader track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job.
3. I can rely on my leader to make my job more difficult by careless work.
4. Most people, even those who aren't close friends of my leader, trust and respect him/her as a coworker.
5. Other work associates of mine who must interact with my leader consider him/her to be trustworthy.
6. If people knew more about my leader and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor his/her performance more closely.

Adapted Job Satisfaction Index

1. How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you – your organizational superior/leader?
2. How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?
3. How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work – your co-workers or peers?
4. How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?
5. How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement or promotion?
6. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation?

Appendix B

Human Subject Research Review Form

Please submit *one electronic* copy of this form and any supporting documents to your dissertation chair or to the SBL IRB representative, Dr. Emilyn Cabanda at ecabanda@regent.edu .

1. PROJECT REVIEW

✓ New Project (The HSRB will assign an ID#_____
☐ Revised Project (Enter ID#) _____
☐ Renewal (Enter ID#) _____

2. PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR __Lenora Mosby_____

Address_913 Josephine Baker Blvd__Saint Louis, MO 63106_____

Phone _____314-437-6595_____

E-Mail _____lenomos@mail.regent.edu_____ Date __2/12/2018_____

List of all project personnel (including faculty, staff, outside individuals or agencies)

_____

_____

If you are a **student**, please provide the following additional information:

This research is for **x** Dissertation ☐ Thesis ☐ Independent Study
☐ Other _____

Faculty Advisor's Name: ___Dr. Dail Fields_____

3. TRAINING: The National Institutes of Health Office of Extramural Research offers free self-paced online training at phrp.nihtraining.com.

x I have completed human subjects research training. Training Date: ____2/7/18

4. PROJECT TITLE:

AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PERCEIVED AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP, FOLLOWER'S HOPE, FOLLOWER'S TRUST IN THE LEADER, AND FOLLOWER'S WORK ENGAGEMENT

5. IS THIS RESEARCH BEING SUBMITTED AS PART OF A FUNDED RESEARCH PROPOSAL? ☐ Yes **x** No

If yes, please identify the funding source:

_____

6. **ANTICIPATED LENGTH OF HUMAN SUBJECTS CONTACT**:

Beginning Date ____2/12_____Ending Date _____3/12_____

7. **DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANTS**:

Number ___Min 140 – Max 200____ Age Range ____18-75_____

Briefly describe subject population: _____The participants work in corporate America and have a direct leader___

8. INDICATE THE REVIEW CATEGORY FOR WHICH YOU ARE APPLYING.

✓ I am applying for an **exempt review**, based on *one or more* of the following categories (check all that apply):

Note: Exempt review cannot be claimed for any research involving prisoners and most research involving children.

Research conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings and involving normal educational practices such as (i) research on regular and special education instructional strategies, or (ii) research on the effectiveness of or the comparison among instructional techniques, curricula, or classroom management methods.

✓ Research involving the use of survey procedures, educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), interview procedures or observation of public behavior, if information from these sources is recorded in such a manner that participants cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could not reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Note: This category cannot be used for research involving children.

Research involving the use of survey procedures, educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), interview procedures, or observation of public behavior, if (i) the human subjects are elected or appointed public officials or candidates for public office; or (ii) federal statute(s) require(s) without exception that the confidentiality of the personally identifiable information will be maintained throughout the research and thereafter.

Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Research and demonstration projects which are conducted by or subject to the approval of federal department or agency heads, and which are designed to study, evaluate, or otherwise examine (i) Public benefit or service programs; (ii) procedures for obtaining benefits or services under those programs; (iii) possible changes in or alternatives to those programs or procedures; or (iv) possible changes in methods or levels of payment for benefits or services under those programs.

- ☐ I am applying for an **expedited review**, based on meeting *all* of the following conditions (check all that apply):
  Note: Expedited review cannot be claimed for research involving prisoners.
  - ☐ Research poses no more than minimal risk to subjects (defined as "the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.")
  - ☐ Research limited to one or more of the following data collection procedures:
    - ☐ Collection of data through noninvasive procedures routinely employed in clinical practice
    - ☐ Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for nonresearch purposes
    - ☐ Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes
    - ☐ Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies
    - ☐ Note: Some research in this category may be classified as exempt; this listing refers only to research that is not exempt.
    - ☐ Continuing review of research previously approved by the convened HSRB as follows: (a) where (i) the research is permanently closed to the enrollment of new subjects; (ii) all subjects have completed all research-related interventions; and (iii) the research remains active only for long-term follow-up of subjects; or (b) where no subjects have been enrolled and no additional risks have been identified; or (c) where the remaining research activities are limited to data analysis.
  - ☐ I am applying for **full board review**.

9. PROJECT DESCRIPTION

Briefly describe (or attach) the methodology and objectives of your research (including hypotheses and/or research questions), the data collection procedures, and any features of the research design that involve procedures or special conditions for participants, including the frequency, duration, and location of their participation. The description should be no longer than 3 pages single space. Attach addendums for materials and detailed descriptions of the research if more space is needed. *Please note that complete chapters of thesis/dissertation proposals will not be accepted.*

Research Questions

This study intends to examine the following research questions:

1. To what extent are a follower's perceived authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader related to a follower's work engagement in current job?
2. To what extent is the relationship between a follower's perceived authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and a follower's work enagement mediated by a follower's level of hope?
3. To what extent is the relationship between a follower's perceived authentic leadership behaviors of his or her leader and a follower's work enagement mediated by his/her level of trust in the leader?

Research Hypotheses

H1: Perceived authentic leadership behaviors are positively related to follower's work engagement.
H2: Follower's level of hope mediates the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.
H3: Follower's levels of trust in his or her leader mediate the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement.

Research Method and Design

In order to test the hypotheses posited in this study, empirical data is needed to measure the relationships among perceived authentic leadership behaviors, follower's hope, trust in leader, and follower's work engagement. The study will employ a quantitative method of inquiry to examine the possible mediating effects that follower's hope and trust in leader may have on the relationship between perceived authentic leadership behaviors and follower's work engagement. The study will use Qualtrics, a private research software company, to capture data from a sample of workers within corporate America.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The target population for this study will be employees that work within corporate America throughout the United States utilizing a sample population from Qualtrics. A sample of at least 140 participants is desired for this study. The desired sample size was determined based on one independent variable: authentic leadership, two mediating variables: hope and trust, and four control variables: gender, age, tenure, and job satisfaction.

The researcher will use Qualtrics to electronically distribute the survey to at least 200 of their members that met the criteria to be participants in this study (works in corporate America and has and immediate leader). Once the initial email is sent to participants the data collection phase will begin and last for at least 15 business days to give respondents enough time to complete the survey and ensure the sample size is met. After the 15 days has passed the survey will be deactivated. The survey will begin with an instructional page and consent form. After the instructions, the first section of the questionnaire will contain demographic questions which will include organizational size, time working with leader, the

participants age, gender, and how much tenured they have with the organization. In addition to the demographic items, the survey will consists of 59 Likert-type scale items, including 14 items to measure authentic leadership, nine items to measure employee work engagement, 24 items to measure follower's hope, six items to measure trust in leader, and six items to measure job satisfaction (which as previously mentioned is a control variable).

HSRB Project Description Checklist

a) Is your data completely anonymous, where there are no possible identifications of the participants.	No ☐	Yes ☒
b) Will you be using existing data or records? If yes, describe in project description (#9 above)	No ☒	Yes ☐
c) Will you be using surveys, questionnaires, interviews or focus groups with subjects? If yes, describe in #9 and include copies of all in application.	No ☐	Yes ☒
d) Will you be using videotape, audiotape, film? If yes, describe in #9	No ☒	Yes ☐
e) Do you plan to use any of the following populations? Regent students, Regent employees, Non-English speaking, cognitively impaired, patients/clients, prisoners, pregnant women? If yes, describe which ones in #9	No ☒	Yes ☐
f) Do you plan to use minors (under 18)? If yes, describe in #9 and give age ranges	No ☒	Yes ☐
g) Are sites outside of Regent engaged in the research? If yes, describe in #9 and give consent letter or their IRB information	No ☒	Yes ☐
h) Are you collecting sensitive information such as sexual behavior, HIV status, recreational drug use, illegal behaviors, child/elder/physical abuse, immigrations status, etc? If yes, describe in #9.	No ☒	Yes ☐
i) Are you using machines, software, internet devices? If so describe in #9	No ☐	Yes ☒
j) Are you collecting any biological specimens? If yes, describe in #9	No ☒	Yes ☐
k) Will any of the following identifying information be collected: names, telephone numbers, social security number, fax numbers,	No ☒	Yes ☐

email addresses, medical records numbers, certificate/license numbers, Web universal resource locators (URLs), Internet protocol (IP) address numbers, fingerprint, voice recording, face photographic image, or any other unique identifying number, code or characteristic other than "dummy" identifiers? If yes, describe in #9		
l) Will there be data sharing with any entity outside your research team? If so, describe who in #9	No ☒	Yes ☐
m) Does any member of the research team or their family members have a personal financial interest in the project (for commercialization of product, process or technology, or stand to gain personal financial income from the project)? If yes, describe in #9.	No ☒	Yes ☐
n) As applicable, do you plan to provide a debriefing to your participants? If written, include in application as addendum	No ☒	Yes ☐
o) Will there be any inducement to participate, either monetary or nonmonetary? If there is inducement please describe how the amount is not coercive in #9.	No ☒	Yes ☐
p) Will there be any costs that subjects will bear (travel expenses, parking fees, professional fees, etc. If no costs other than their time to participate, please indicate)? If yes describe in #9	No ☒	Yes ☐
q) Will subjects be studied on Regent University campus? If yes, please describe where the study will be done in #9	No ☒	Yes ☐
r) Will subjects be obtained by internet only? If yes, please describe what internet forums or venues will be used to obtain participants in #9	No ☒	Yes ☐
s) Are you using the Regent University consent form template? Whether using the template or requesting an alternate form, you must include a copy in your submission.	No ☒	Yes ☐

10. PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT

Describe the sources of potential participants, how they will be selected and recruited, and how and where you will contact them. Describe all relevant characteristics of the participants with regard to age, ethnic background, sex, institutional status (e.g., patients or prisoners), and their general state of mental and physical health.

The target population for this study will be adult employees that work within corporate America throughout the United States utilizing a sample

population from Qualtrics. The adult employees ages will range from 18-75, consist of both males and females, have a direct leader. The study will not collect data regarding mental and/or physical health.

11. INFORMED CONSENT

Describe how you will inform participants of the nature of the study. Attach a copy of your cover letter, script, informed consent form and other information provided to potential participants.

I will use my own letter (which is part of the appendix) and participants will have to consent before they start the survey. I will also have an opt-out option.

**** EXEMPT APPLICATIONS SKIP TO QUESTION 17: ATTACHMENTS ****

12. WRITTEN CONSENT

- ☐ I am requesting permission to **waive written consent**, based on one or more of the following categories (check all that apply):
- ☐ The only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document, and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality.
- ☐ The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.
- ☐ I will be using a **written consent form**. Attach a copy of the written consent form with this application.

13. CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA

What procedures will be used to safeguard identifiable records of individuals and protect the confidentiality of participants?

_____

_____

**** EXPEDITED APPLICATIONS SKIP TO QUESTION 17: ATTACHMENTS ****

14. RISKS AND BENEFITS

Describe in detail the immediate or long-range risks, if any, to participants that may arise from the procedures used in this study. Indicate any precautions that will be taken to minimize these risks. Also describe the anticipated benefits to participants and to society from the knowledge that may be reasonably expected to result from this study.

_____

_____

_____

_____

15. DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

The two major goals of debriefing are dehoaxing and desensitizing. Participants should be debriefed about any deception that was used in the study. Participants also should be debriefed about their behavioral response(s) to the study. Please describe your debriefing plans and include any statements that you will be providing to the participants.

16. DISSEMINATION & STORAGE OF RESULTS

a) How and where do you plan on disseminating the results of your study?
b) For electronic data stored on a computer, how will it be stored and secured (password, encryption, other comparable safeguard)?
c) For hardcopy data, how will it be stored (locked office or suite, locked cabinet, data coded by team with master list secured separately, other)?
d) What are your plans for disposing of data once the study is ended (give method and time)?

17. ATTACHMENTS:

Attach copies of all relevant project materials and documents, including (check all that apply):

- ✓ A copy of your training certificate (required for principal investigator)
- ✓ Surveys, questionnaires, and/or interview instruments
- ✓ Informed consent forms or statements
  Letters of approval from cooperative agencies, schools, or education boards
  Debriefing statements or explanation sheet

18. AFFIRMATION OF COMPLIANCE:

By submitting this application, I attest that I am aware of the applicable principles, policies, regulations, and laws governing the protection of human subjects in research and that I will be guided by them in the conduct of this research. I agree to follow the university policy as outlined in the Faculty & Academic Policy Handbook (available online at http://www.regent.edu/academics/academic_affairs/handbook.cfm) to ensure that the rights and welfare of human participants in my project are properly protected. I understand that the study will not commence until I have received approval of these procedures from the Human Subjects Review Board. I further understand

that if data collection continues for more than one year from the approval date, a renewal application must be submitted.

I understand that failure to comply with Federal Regulations (45 CFR 46, available online at http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/45cfr46.htm) can result in confiscation and possible destruction of data, suspension of all current and future research involving human subjects, or other institutional sanctions, until compliance is assured.

Lenora Mosby 2/12/2018

Signature of Principal Investigator Date

Signature of Co-Investigator (if applicable) Date

Dail Fields, PhD Digitally signed by Dail Fields, PhD Date: 2018.02.16 08:54:05 -05'00' 2/16/2018

Signature of Faculty Advisor (if applicable) Date

To Be Completed By HSRB

Assigned ID # _____

☑ Approve

☐ Recommend Revisions

☐ Reject

Emilyn Cabanda, Ph.D. Digitally signed by Emilyn Cabanda, Ph.D. Date: 2018.02.16 08:54:26 -05'00' 2/16/2018

HSRB Member Date

HSRB Member (if applicable) Date

HSRB Member (if applicable) Date

APPENDIX

List of measures and items used within this study

Please respond by considering how well each statement applies to your leader (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Niether Agree Nor Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)

Adapted Authentic Leadership Inventory Questionnaire (AL1)

1. My leader clearly states what he/she means.
2. My leader shows consistency between his/her beliefs and actions.
3. My leader asks for ideas that challenge his/her core beliefs.
4. My leader describes accurately the way that others view his/her abilities.
5. My leader uses his/her core beliefs to make decisions.
6. My leader carefully listens to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion.
7. My leader shows that he/she understands his/her strengths and weaknesses.
8. My leader openly shares information with others.
9. My leader resists pressures on him/her to do things contrary to his/her beliefs.
10. My leader objectively analyzes relevant data before making a decision.
11. My leader is clearly aware of the impact he/she has on others.
12. My leader expresses his/her ideas and thoughts clearly to others.
13. My leader is guided in his/her actions by internal moral standards.
14. My leader encourages others to voice opposing points of view.

Neider, L. L., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2011). The Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI): Development and empirical tests. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(6), 1146-1164. doi:10.1016./j.leaqua.2011.09.008

Adapted UWES-9 Questionnaire -

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.
4. My job inspires me.
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
7. I am proud on the work that I do.
8. I am immersed in my work.
9. I get carried away when I'm working.

Schaufeli, W. B., Martínez, I., Marques-Pinto, A., Salanova, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). Burnout and engagement in university students: A cross national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33, 464-481.

Adapted Work Hope Scale Questionnaire

1. I have a plan for getting or maintaining a good job or career.
2. I don't believe I will be able to find a job I enjoy.
3. There are many ways to succeed at work.
4. I expect to do what I really want to do at work.
5. I doubt my ability to succeed at the things that are most important to me.
6. I can identify many ways to find a job that I would enjoy.
7. When I look into the future, I have a clear picture of what my work life will be like.
8. I am confident that things will work out for me in the future.
9. It is difficult to figure out how to find a good job.
10. My desire to stay in the community in which I live (or ultimately hope to live) makes it difficult for me to find work that I would enjoy.
11. I have the skills and attitude needed to find and keep a meaningful job.
12. I do not have the ability to go about getting what I want out of working life.
13. I do not expect to find work that is personally satisfying.
14. I can do what it takes to get the specific work I choose.
15. My education did or will prepare me to get a good job.
16. I believe that I am capable of meeting the work-related goals I have set for myself.
17. I am capable of getting the training I need to do the job I want.
18. I doubt I will be successful at finding (or keeping) a meaningful job.
19. I know how to prepare for the kind of work I want to do.
20. I have goals related to work that are meaningful to me.
21. I am uncertain about my ability to reach my life goals.
22. I have a clear understanding of what it takes to be successful at work.
23. I have a difficult time identifying my own goals for the next five years.
24. I think I will end up doing what I really want to do at work.

Juntunen, C. L., Wettersten, K. B. (2006). Work hope: Development and initial validation of a measure. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 53, 94–106.

Adapted McAllister Cognitive-based Trust Questionnaire

1. My leader approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication.
2. Given my leader track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job.
3. I can rely on my leader to make my job more difficult by careless work.
4. Most people, even those who aren't close friends of my leader, trust and respect him/her as a coworker.
5. Other work associates of mine who must interact with my leader consider him/her to be trustworthy.
6. If people knew more about my leader and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor his/her performance more closely.

McAllister, D. J. (1995). "Affect and Cognitive-based Trust as Foundations for Interpersonal Cooperation in Organizations." *Academy of Management Journal*, 38 (1): 24-59.

Adapted Job Satisfaction Index

1. How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?
2. How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you – your organizational superior?
3. How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work – your co-workers or peers?
4. How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?
5. How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement or promotion?
6. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation?

Schriesheim, C., & Tsui, A. S. (1980). Development and validation of a short satisfaction instrument for use in survey feedback interventions. Paper presented at the Western Academy of Management Meeting.

Image of Certificate:

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Lenora Mosby** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 02/07/2018.

Certification Number: 2641709.

INFORMED CONSENT: SURVEY RESEARCH

Lenora Mosby, a researcher (***graduate student***) at Regent University is conducting a study on "AN EMPIRCAL EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PERCIEVED AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP, FOLLOWER'S HOPE, FOLLOWER'S TRUST IN THE LEADER, AND FOLLOWER'S WORK ENGAGEMENT".

Qualtrics, has explained to me the purpose of this research and the intended outcome. I understand that I will be asked to take the following survey. My participation in this study should take a total of about 10 minutes.

I understand that my responses will be confidential or that anonymity will be preserved (include appropriate term; "confidential" indicates that subjects' identities and responses will be known to investigator but will not be divulged; "anonymity" indicates that subjects' identities will not be known or connected to responses) and that my name will not be associated with any results of this study. I know that I may refuse to answer any question asked and that I may discontinue participation at any time.

I also understand that any grade, payment, or credit for participation will not be affected by my responses or by my exercising any of my rights. I am aware that I seek further information about this study by contacting **Lenora Mosby** at **lenomos@mail.regent.edu**.

I am also aware that I must be at least 18 years of age to participate. My completion of the survey signifies my voluntary participation in this project.