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Antecedents and outcomes of workplace engagement

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In this study I set out to examine the relationship of transactional, transformational, and authentic leadership to employee job engagement, organizational citizenship behaviors, and work withdrawal behaviors. There has been extensive research examining the effects of transactional and transformational leadership on workplace outcomes. However, as authentic leadership is a newer construct that is still being refined, there have been fewer empirical studies on that construct and less that incorporate multiple forms of leadership. In addition, the literature on engagement has used many different definitions and measures. Some conceptualizations of engagement incorporate job resources and outcomes as part of the construct. This study specifically conceptualizes engagement as a distinct construct from job resources (e.g., leadership) and job outcomes (e.g., organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviors).

While transformational leadership has been found to relate to outcomes—such as employee commitment, satisfaction, and performance—authentic leadership may help explain additional leadership attributes that relate to workplace outcomes. The empirical studies conducted thus far have linked authentic leadership to organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational commitment, supervisor satisfaction, job satisfaction (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) and job engagement (Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010). Additional, empirical research is necessary to understand the role of this construct in the workplace. In this study transactional, transformational, and authentic leadership styles are examined as antecedents of workplace engagement.

The psychological presence and engagement of employees in the workplace are considered important for organizations, as organizations need employees who are creative and willing to involve more of their personal selves into the organization and their roles (Kahn,

1992). There has also been little research that examines engagement as a mediating construct between context variables and employee outcomes (see Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010 for an exception). This study is designed to address the gap in the literature by linking context factors, including leadership styles, to engagement and organizational outcomes. This paper will start by describing the predictor variables of interest in this study, which are the leadership styles of transactional, transformational, and authentic leadership. Next, research and theory on job engagement will be reviewed and the connection between leadership and job engagement will be discussed. Within this section several covariates previously identified, both theoretically and empirically, as predicting engagement will also be discussed. Third, the relationships between job engagement and the outcome variables of extra-role behaviors and withdrawal behaviors will be discussed.

The focus of the current study is at the individual level of analysis and on the self-report perceptions of employees in the workplace. Participants were asked to rate their leaders and these perceptions form the basis of this research investigation. The relationships between the leadership variables and other constructs in this study focus on the followers perceptions of their leader. Participants were also asked to provide their perceptions of perceived organizational support and these perceptions are examined in this study.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Transactional leadership is viewed as leader behaviors where the leader identifies follower needs and gives rewards in exchange for effort and performance of followers (Bass, 1985; 1999). Transformational leadership occurs when leaders influence and empower followers by activating higher order needs, and encouraging followers to act beyond their own self-interest (Bass, 1985; 1999). An early conceptualization of transactional and what was then called

"transforming" leadership viewed them as distinct forms of leadership (Burns, 1978). Burns (1978) viewed transactional leaders as exchanging something of value with followers (e.g., rewards, support etc.), while transforming leaders were viewed as raising the motivation and morale of followers. In continued development of the leadership constructs Bass (1985) viewed transactional and transformational leadership as complementary, rather than opposing, forms of leadership. Thus, similar to Burns (1978), Bass (1985) viewed transactional leadership as an exchange of something of value to the follower for compliance from the follower. However, transformational leadership was proposed to augment transactional leadership (Bass, 1985). From this perspective a leader can perform both transformational and transactional leader behaviors. The two forms of leadership thus address different behaviors, and the presence of one form of leadership does not mean the complete absence of the other form of leadership. Transformational leadership is thought to add to the impact transactional leadership has on workplace outcomes (Bass, 1997, 1999). Thus, based on this viewpoint leaders are not limited to one set of behaviors, and can be classified as transactional and/or transformational.

Through transformational leadership, leaders are able to raise the interest level and commitment of their followers to group or organizational goals (Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership has been defined as occurring "when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group" (Bass, 1990, p.21). One frequently discussed and early definition of transformational leadership, defines it as leadership that empowers followers through idealized influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass, 1999). Idealized influence (also referred to as Charisma) refers to a process in which the leader

promotes selfless ideals, has high expectations of followers, and has visions and that followers can endorse and work towards (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Inspirational motivation refers to a process where the leader provides not only a vision, but assigns meaning and purpose to the vision in order to motivate followers to act in accordance with the vision (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Intellectual stimulation is a process where the leader encourages the creativity and innovation of followers (Bass, 1999). Lastly, individualized consideration is a process where the leader attends to the developmental needs of followers and provides opportunities to help them grow (Bass, 1999). These four subdimensions are considered to constitute an overall or global view of the transformational leadership construct.

While these four dimensions have been theorized to constitute transformational leadership and are frequently perceived as subdimensions of transformational leadership, other researchers have also broken down the subdimensions of transformational leadership into different categorical groupings. Another model of transformational leadership, taking a global view of the leadership style, identifies transformational leadership as consisting of seven different types of behaviors (Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000). Carless and colleagues proposed that transformational leadership is composed of behaviors in which the leader (1) communicates a vision, (2) develops employees, (3) empowers employees, (4) provides support to employees, (5) leads by example, and is (6) innovative and (7) charismatic.

Visionary Leadership. Visionary leadership is an important feature of transformational leadership that focuses on leaders creating a vision or goal for followers by conveying a set of values to guide followers' behavior (Carless et al., 2000). These values are thought to help guide and motivate employees (Carless et al., 2000). Visionary leadership is an important aspect of transformational leadership and is present in many definitions of leadership (Bass, 1985;

Bryman, 1992; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Being forward-looking and having a vision of the future can set apart exceptional leaders from ordinary leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). A transformational leader will not only have a vision of the future, but will develop a vision that is shared among followers for the common good.

Developing Employees. In this dimension of transformational leadership effective leaders have been proposed to develop their employees by recognizing the needs of each employee (Bass, 1985; Carless et al., 2000). Developing followers is a method leaders can use to help empower followers (Bass, 1999). By paying attention to the specific needs of each follower the leader can assign tasks and responsibilities than can help the follower grow and develop new skills (Bass, 1999, Carless et al., 2000). By assigning new tasks to employees that encourage the development of new skills, leaders are demonstrating a desire to help the employee grow and that they are an important part of the team.

Empowerment. Effective leaders empower employees by creating procedures that involve their followers in problem-solving and decision making (Carless et al., 2000). Trusting employees to complete their work and creating an environment where employees are comfortable asking questions, enables employees to take responsibility for their work and the outcomes (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). This is an important part of effective leadership as enabling employees helps them meet challenges (Nadler & Tushman, 1990). An effective leader gives followers the power to create policies and supports the decisions of employees that are part of their team (Carless et al., 2000).

Employee Support. Leaders support followers by recognizing accomplishments and expressing confidence in their followers (Carless et al., 2000). By providing support leaders

indicate that they value the employee and the work they are performing. A component of transformational leadership is giving personal attention to employees and coaching them based on their needs (Bass, 1990). Supporting employees also goes beyond just providing individual support. Supporting team efforts and successes is also an important part of providing supportive leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). This helps increase employee commitment to the leader's vision (Carless et al., 2000).

Leading by Example. When leaders have consistency between their views and behavior, they are considered to be leading by example (Carless et al., 2000). Leading by example is also referred to as role modeling (Podsakoff et al., 1990). The behaviors that leaders portray to followers, is congruent with the leaders' beliefs and values that they have articulated to followers. Leaders should be clear to followers about their beliefs and values and then act in-line with them.

Innovation and Creativity. Leaders are innovative and creative when they use unconventional methods to achieve their goals (Bass, 1985; Carless et al., 2000). This suggests transformational leaders will use new methods to achieve goals and will encourage followers to think about novel solutions to problems and approach problem solving in new ways (Carless et al., 2000). Leaders will not always rely on problem solving methods used in the past.

Charisma. Leaders are viewed as charismatic when they have high expectations about follower performance and bring the follower to increased levels of motivation and performance (Carless et al., 2000). Charisma influences follower performance and motivation by causing followers to identify with the leader (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Charismatic leadership is considered to have a central role in transformational leadership theory (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Charisma is an important concept as it can help inspire followers, instills a higher degree of trust in the leader, and is overall central to the success of a transformational leader (Bass, 1990).

As the theory discussing the relationship of transformational leadership to the outcome variables of interest focuses on transformational leadership as a global construct, the specific division of the subdimensions of transformational leadership within different models is of less importance, than the construct of transformational leadership as a whole. Thus, while there are various models of transformational leadership, overall, many focus on similar constructs and have been found to relate to positive outcomes. While specific models of transformational leadership may have different subdimensions, as a global construct transformational leadership provides a vision of the future, inspires followers at higher levels and beyond their own self-interest, and works to influence followers values, attitudes, and behaviors (Bass, 1985; Conger, Kanungo, Menon, & Mathur, 1997; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

One of the biggest differences between models is how they view and treat charisma (labeled idealized influence in the full range leadership theory). In a review by Bass (1999) he discusses how charisma has been treated differently within different models of transformational leadership. Within the full range leadership theory (measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire [MLQ]) there is a scale that measures idealized influence and inspirational motivation that tap into how a leader influences, inspires, and motivates followers (Bass, 1985). In a reexamination of the components of transformational leadership, as measured by the MLQ, idealized influence and inspirational motivation were combined into one subdimension of transformational leadership; thus the three factors of individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational-idealized influence (charisma) provided a better model fit than

when idealized influence and inspirational motivation were separate (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995).

In another model Podsakoff et al. (1990) six factors were identified. Similar to the MLQ individualized support (i.e., consideration) and intellectual stimulation were two subdimensions; however, the inspirational and idealized influence (i.e., charisma) factors were split into four other factors consisting of identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model (leader modeling), fostering acceptance of group goals, and high performance expectations (Bass, 1999). According to the Podsakoff et al. (1990) model identifying and articulating a vision refers to leader behavior where the leader develops his or her vision of the future and inspires followers. Providing an appropriate model focuses on leader behavior where the leader sets an example for followers and models desired behavior. Fostering the acceptance of group goals is the leader behavior focused on encouraging cooperation of employees working towards a common goal. High performance expectations focus on leader behavior where the leader indicates he or she expects the follower to have high quality performance.

In yet a third model of transformational leadership, five subdimensions were included: modeling the way, inspiring a vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart were identified (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Within these five subdimensions the transformational leader is still thought to set an example (modeling the way), focus followers on a common vision by presenting new and exciting possibilities (inspire a shared vision), encourage followers to look for creative and innovative solutions (challenging the process), develop confidence in others and encourage teamwork (enabling others to act), and the leader should recognize the efforts and contributions of others (encouraging the heart; Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Despite the different subdimensions among the different models, as a global construct they represent many of the same characteristics and behaviors. While the subdimensions of transformational leadership have been categorized differently, by various scholars and researchers, the main tenets of transformational leadership—leader behaviors that inspire, motivate, and encourage followers to perform at higher standards and beyond their own self-interest—are visible in multiple models. While models may be named differently (e.g., transformational, visionary, or charismatic leadership), and contain different subdimensions, previous research has identified a "convergence of the findings" between these similar models of leadership (House & Shamir, 1993, p. 84). The Carless et al. (2000) global transformational leadership model was created considering these main tenets. The focus of this study will be on transformational leadership as a global or whole construct, rather than on specific subdimensions.

While transformational leadership has been examined through various subdimensions, contingent reward leadership has been consistently seen as a form of transactional leadership behaviors where an exchange occurs between follower and leader where the follower receives a reward in exchange for performing a desired behavior (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Since contingent reward leadership is not theorized as consisting of various subdimensions there is not the same debate about the theoretical construct, as there is with transformational leadership. When discussing the contribution of both forms of leadership to explaining the variance in various outcomes they are both discussed as global constructs (i.e.., the variance explained from contingent reward and transformational leadership, as opposed to the subdimensions of transformational leadership).

Transformational leadership has also been found to augment transactional leadership with performance and satisfaction, intent to quit, and affective commitment (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995). Transformational leadership was a positive predictor beyond the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership (Bycio et al., 1995). In a meta-analysis consisting of 626 correlations from 87 sources the contingent reward dimensions of transactional leadership and transformational leadership were found to be most strongly and consistently related to positive workplace outcomes (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). For inclusion in the meta-analysis a study needed to include quantitative data that either provided a correlation or sufficient statistical information that a correlation could be computed from the information in the article. Articles that only included quantitative data where it was not possible to create correlations between the variables of interest were excluded from the study. Both published articles and dissertations were examined for inclusion in the meta-analysis. In the meta-analysis validities were corrected for unreliability in both the predictor and criterion variables. Transformational leadership had the highest overall corrected validity of .44 (uncorrected .38) followed by contingent reward transactional leadership with a corrected validity of .39 (uncorrected .32) with positive workplace outcomes. The meta-analysis examined transformational leadership as an overall general construct. Three groups of transactional leadership were examined (contingent reward, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive) along with laissez-faire leadership.

When a moderator analysis was conducted within the Judge and Piccolo (2004) meta-analysis on different types of outcome variables both transformational leadership and contingent reward leadership were positively related to follower satisfaction with the leader, leader effectiveness, follower job satisfaction, leader performance, follower motivation, and group

organization performance. Transformational leadership was more highly correlated with the first two outcomes and contingent reward leadership was more highly correlated with the middle two outcomes. These results suggest that both transformational and contingent reward transactional leadership are influential leadership behaviors that relate to positive workplace outcomes. Additional moderator analyses examined research design, study setting, and supervisory level. While transformational and contingent reward leadership remained positively related to outcomes when moderator analyses examining study design were conducted, the validities differed based on study differences. The corrected validities for transformational and contingent reward leadership remained between .40 and .54 for cross-sectional designs, studies with data from the same sources, studies conducted in a business setting, and studies that examined leadership at the supervisory level (as opposed to mid or upper level). The above mentioned study designs are most relevant for the present study.

Since research suggests that contingent reward leadership is the leadership dimension of transactional leadership most consistently associated with positive workplace outcomes, it will be the dimension of transactional leadership examined in this study. Since contingent reward and transformational leadership have been related to workplace outcomes, they are of interest in their relationship to engagement, withdrawal behaviors, and organizational citizenship behaviors being examined in this study. While, past research has indicated that transactional and transformational leadership have been related to positive workplace outcomes in the past, I am interested in their relationship to workplace outcomes while simultaneously examining an additional, newer, model of leadership, context variables, and subordinate's self-perceptions. Building off of the discussion of transformational and contingent reward leadership the next section discusses the more recently developed model of authentic leadership.

Authenticity and Authentic leadership

Building on the leadership literature focusing on ethical, charismatic (Howell & Avolio, 1992), and transformational (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) leadership, the concept of authentic leadership was developed within the positive psychology framework (Luthans 2002; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Luthans & Avolio, 2009). The development of authentic leadership goes beyond the ethical and moral discussions of leadership by incorporating work that specifically focuses on the authentic expression of individuals in the workplace (Kernis, 2003). Before reviewing the concept of authentic leadership, it is relevant to review the general concept of authenticity.

Authenticity. Work on authenticity has stemmed from work within positive organizational scholarship (e.g., Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Snyder & López, 2002). The concept of authenticity can be defined as "reflecting the unobstructed operation of one's true, or core, self in one's daily enterprise" (Kernis, 2003, p. 13). Building off of this definition Kernis (2003) provided a multicomponent conceptualization of authenticity that consists of four main components: awareness, unbiased processing, behavior, and relational orientation. These four subdimensions are theoretically proposed to be distinct, but related components of authenticity (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). As discussed later these subdimensions are important in the theoretical development of authentic leadership. As described in Kernis and Goldman (2003) the dimension of *awareness* involves an individual being aware of an individual's own feelings, desires, and values (including strengths and weaknesses). This includes being aware of one's own cognitions and emotions. Having an awareness of the self involves a person having knowledge about needs, values, and emotions. As Kernis (2003) described, aspects of the self, such as the personality dimension of introversion/extroversion, may be discussed as dualities.

Within a person one dimension may be more dominant over the other; however, aspects of both components often exist. People have awareness when they realize that they "possess these multifaceted self-aspects, and they utilize this awareness in their interchanges with others and with their environments" (Kernis, 2003, p. 13). The awareness dimension of authenticity involves an individual being aware that one's self contains multiple complex components, and uses this information when interacting with others.

The next dimension, *unbiased processing*, involves objectively evaluating the self and acknowledging, rather than distorting, personal information, experiences, and self-evaluations (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Thus, when examining self-relevant information an individual objectively considers both the positive and negative aspects of one's self (Kernis, 2003). For example, someone who engages in unbiased processing is able to acknowledge that there are certain tasks they are not good at performing (Kernis, 2003). When an individual acknowledges a negative aspect of one's self, such as poor performance, an individual does not engage in defensive processes such as demeaning its importance (Kernis, 2003).

The dimension of *behavior* involves acting based on one's own values and beliefs, rather than falsely acting in order to please other people or to obtain a reward or avoid a punishment (Kernis, 2003). This component of authenticity refers to the actions of an individual. According to Kernis and Goldman (2006) it reflects the "behavioral output of the awareness and unbiased processing components of authenticity" (p. 298). This component of authenticity reflects upon an individual's motives for acting compared with actual behavior. This dimension needs to be considered within the context of social expression. There may be instances where the actual uncensored expression of one's true-self would result in social sanctions and repercussions (Kernis, 2003; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). In these situations authenticity is theorized to result in

sensitivity to the differences between what may be socially acceptable in the environment and how a person desires to act, and the potential ramifications for acting in a certain manner (Kernis, 2003; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). This suggests that authenticity may not always result in a person acting in accordance with their true desires and values; however, this discordance will result in at least a short term conflict within the self (Kernis, 2003). In circumstances where individuals (a) are not *behaving* in accordance with their true values, (b) but are *aware* of their true values, (c) are able to maintain objectivity in assessing their true values, compared to the social dictates of the environment (suggesting *unbiased processing)*; authenticity is present in the *awareness* and *unbiased processing* dimensions, but not the *behavior* component (Kernis, 2003). Thus, theoretically this suggests that the behavior component is related to, but distinct from the other components (Kernis, 2003).

The fourth dimension of authenticity is *relational orientation*. This component involves being open and truthful in close relationships with others (Kernis, 2003). This suggests that it is important for other people that have close relationships to you to be able to see the "real you" (Kernis, 2003). This includes aspects of the self that are both positive and negative. This dimension is "characterized by honesty in one's actions and motives" as they relate to others a person is close to (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). This suggests that a person is *aware* of their values and beliefs, can *objectively process* both the positive and negative aspects of the self, and believes it is important for close-others to know the "real" and not "fake" you (Kernis & Goldman, 2006).

Taken together these four components are proposed to comprise the concept of authenticity. They are considered to be separate, but related components. Thus, taken from an individual differences perspective authenticity involves both "owning" personal experiences

such as personal thoughts, experiences, beliefs, values etc. and acting in accordance with these personal experiences (Harter, 2002). Lacking authenticity involves hiding your personal thoughts, experiences, beliefs and values, in favor of acting in ways that are consistent with what you believe others desire. Authenticity has been found to positively relate to concepts such as optimal self-esteem (Kernis, 2003), social-role functioning, general well-being, and negatively relate to defensiveness (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). This suggests that authenticity has an important relationship to individual functioning. The value of authenticity to outcomes is important as it is extended to the concept of leadership. As authenticity is linked to positive outcomes, authentic leadership is also linked to positive outcomes and proposed as an advantageous style of leadership.

Authenticity and Leadership. The concept of authentic leadership has evolved substantially in the last decade. Interest in examining authenticity within a leadership framework stemmed from work looking at ethical and moral concepts within transformational leadership and the potential dark side of leadership (e.g., Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) differentiate between what they define as authentic transformational leaders versus pseudo-transformational leaders. They focus on the morality and ethics of what defines leaders as authentic versus inauthentic. While they indicate that at times authentic leaders may be manipulative in order to serve the common good, pseudo-transformational leadership is characterized by consistent manipulation and deception. They argued that authentic transformational leaders are grounded in moral and ethical objectives, while pseudo-transformational leaders are interested only in their own self goals. While pseudo-transformational leaders may exhibit the same behaviors as authentic leaders, they will only do so when they see the behaviors directly benefiting themselves. I think this idea is where you can

start seeing the concept of authenticity as an individual difference variable (as presented by Kernis, 2003) differ from the concept of authentic-transformational leadership. Based on their role within society and organizations transformational leaders should be acting in ways that benefit society or the organization as a whole. The behavior component of the authenticity model refers to acting in ways congruent with one's own internal values. Within authentic leadership behaving morally involves not only acting in ways that are congruent with one's own internal values, it also means being aware of what will benefit other people and not only one's self. As a leader, an individual is in charge of more than just his or her own well-being. Being an authentic transformational leader involves consistently behaving in ways that benefits others, not only when that behavior is also self-serving.

When considering individualized consideration as a component of transformational leadership Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) indicated that pseudo-transformational leaders seek to retain the dependence of their followers, while authentic transformational leaders seek to develop their followers into leaders. This idea also focuses on how authentic transformational leadership differs from pseudo-transformational leadership based on what leaders want from followers. From this standpoint pseudo-transformational leaders would actually welcome the dependence of followers, even if they state they value the development of followers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). While pseudo-transformational leaders may appear as if they are helping others, they are actually behaving in their own best interest. When they deceive others they rationalize and justify the deception, and may even truly feel superior to their followers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

In their discussion of leadership and ethics Howell and Avolio (1992) specifically focus on ethical charismatic leadership (one component of transformational leadership). They discuss that ethical charismatic leaders use power to help others, have open two-way communication that

allows them to attune to followers needs as well as accept criticism, and rely on their own internal moral standards. In contrast unethical charismatic leaders use power for personal gain, have one-way communication prohibiting leaders from being aware of follower needs or acknowledging ideas other than their own, and use external values for the purpose of satisfying their own needs (Howell & Avolio, 1992). When considering the ethical component of charismatic leadership it includes considering others and their needs as an important component. Thus, when considering authentic transformational leadership the need for power is channeled into socially constructive behaviors (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

The research discussed so far has focused on authenticity in charismatic/transformational leadership. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), while mainly focusing on authentic transformational leadership, also theorized about ethical and unethical transactional leadership. They viewed moral transactional leadership as dependent on the leader granting others the same freedom and opportunities they claim for themselves, telling the truth about their intentions, keeping promises, making sure everyone accurately receives their rewards, and having reasonable reward systems. Transactional leadership would be immoral when leaders do not provide others with the same chance for opportunities as afforded to the leaders, lying, when leaders break promises they make, prevent employees from receiving rewards they have earned, and having invalid reward systems.

Within transactional leadership, since contingent reward leadership focuses on giving rewards and sanctions, ethical contingent reward leadership occurs when rewards and sanctions are fair and valid. Based on this view, rewards and sanctions should not impair free choice. Thus, morality, ethics, and authenticity are not only limited to the concept of transformational leadership. While a focus on morality and ethics in relation to transformational leadership were

important to the development of an authentic leadership model (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), authentic leadership does not solely exist within transformational leadership. The development of an authentic leadership model moved beyond discussing authenticity in relation to transformational leadership.

Development of an Authentic Leadership Model. Authentic leadership was originally defined by Luthans and Avolio (2003) "as 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). In a special issue of *The Leadership Quarterly* looking at authentic leadership several papers presented definitions that were narrower in breadth than the initial definition by Luthans and Avolio (2003). Continued work on the concept of authentic leadership drew heavily from the work by Kernis (2003) on authenticity (see Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). Much of the empirical work on authentic leadership has used the following more recent and narrower definition authentic leadership, authentic leadership is "a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development" (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008, p. 94). This definition retains the earlier focus on positive behaviors; however, it focuses on a smaller number of attitudes and behaviors that the researchers consider to be central to the definition of authentic leadership. This model of leadership encourages leaders to have close relationships with followers and lead in a way that followers would perceive and describe as

authentic (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Authentic leadership has been proposed as a root construct that can incorporate other types of leadership (Avolio et al., 2004). It is not the behavioral style of the leader that differentiates an authentic from an inauthentic leader (Avolio et al., 2004). This is a key difference between the development of authentic-transformational leadership and the authentic leadership model. While a transformational leader may be authentic, an authentic leader does not necessarily have to be transformational. Authentic leadership has been proposed to have a moral component (Avolio et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008); however, this moral component can occur through different behavioral styles (Avolio et al., 2004).

The four dimensions of authentic leadership (*self-awareness*, *relational transparency*, *balanced information processing*, and an *internalized moral perspective*) are further defined by Walumbwa et al. (2008). *Self-awareness* refers to how one "makes meaning" of the world and how the leader views himself or herself over time (Walumbwa et al. 2008). It also refers to a leader being aware of his or her own strengths and weaknesses, and how they impact others (Kernis, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Self-awareness includes both internal and external referents as leaders are expected to know their own self and mental states (internal referents) as well as how others perceive the leader (external referents; Walumbwa et al., 2010).

Relational transparency refers to a leader presenting an honest self to others, as opposed to presenting a fake self (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This includes displaying honest thoughts, feelings, opinions, and values, while at the same time displaying them in an appropriate manner (Walumbwa et al., 2008). When leaders engage in balanced information processing they objectively analyze data and information before making a decision (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Specifically, related to the theory of authentic leadership, this dimension also incorporates a

leader specifically seeking viewpoints that challenge his or her positions (Gardner et al., 2005). Finally, an internalized moral perspective refers to internalized self-regulation (see Ryan & Deci, 2003) that is guided by values deemed to be important by the individual (internal values); rather than allowing self-regulation to be guided by values identified as important to other people (external values), even if the individual does not deem these values important.

This model of authentic leadership draws a lot from the definition of authenticity developed by Kernis (2003). While the four dimensions are related there are some differences between them. In the model of authentic leadership the term "balanced processing" is used in place of unbiased processing (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). As Avolio and Gardner (2005) describe this name change was done to reflect the flaws in human information processing and to acknowledge that people are biased processors. While people may inherently be biased information processors, they are still capable of considering multiple perspectives and process information more objectively before making decisions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Relational transparency was used in the authentic leadership model in place of the term relational authenticity from Kernis's (2003) model of authenticity. The name was changed to better reflect the transparent manner that leaders and followers use to share information (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). In addition, the behavior component from the authenticity model (Kernis, 2003) was changed to be called internalized moral perspective in the authentic leadership model (Gardner et al., 2011). This name change was done to reflect the strong role that morals and ethics play in the authentic leadership model and the leader's commitment to them (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011).

From a theoretical perspective, the processes of developing followers through authentic leadership may diverge from the processes theorized in transactional and transformational

leadership. Transactional leaders expect followers to achieve certain objectives, but the leader does not encourage future responsibilities to help the follower grow (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders are theorized to develop followers by helping them reach their full potential and generating the highest levels of performance (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders develop followers through identifying their abilities and potential and identifying future responsibilities the follower can be given (Bass, 1985). An authentic leader will be able to recognize and value individual differences and will have the ability and motivation to identify followers' talents and build those talents into strengths (Avolio et al., 2004). The lack of individualized consideration was a major criticism from Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) of inauthentic transformational leaders.

Through their honest presentation of their whole selves authentic leaders will also work to transform followers through their own positive behavior and actions. Thus, as transformational leadership was proposed by Bass (1985) to augment transactional leadership, rather than be on opposite ends of the same spectrum, authentic leadership is not in opposition to either form of leadership and can work in conjunction with different types of leader behaviors (Avolio et al, 2004). This theoretical conceptualization suggests that an authentic leader can, but does not necessarily have to, be transformational (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The focus of authentic leadership on transparent, moral, and genuine behaviors thus may serve to enhance other forms of leadership (e.g., transformational and transactional), rather than being a substitute for other leadership behaviors (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

While there have been a number of theoretical articles on authentic leadership, there has been less empirical work. However, in a developmental paper on the construct of authentic leadership, an authentic leadership measure consisting of the four subdimensions of self-

awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency was created (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The first study in the Walumbwa and colleagues (2008) article focused on the creation of the authentic leadership questionnaire. In study two of the article authentic leadership was examined as a predictor of organizational outcomes beyond transformational and ethical leadership. Authentic leadership was found to predict organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational commitment, and satisfaction with the supervisor beyond ethical and transformational leadership. In study three, authentic leadership was found to predict job satisfaction and job performance beyond a benevolent organizational climate. The findings in the Walumbwa and colleagues (2008) article provided some initial empirical support for the influence of authentic leadership on organizational outcomes beyond other forms of leadership.

While there is some initial support that authentic leadership predicts organizational outcomes beyond other forms of leadership, there are still only a few empirical studies that have examined authentic leadership. The present study will examine authentic leadership as a predictor of several workplace outcomes. One of the outcomes of interest is job engagement. This variable is of particular interest as engagement has been defined as a motivational concept that may link organizational context variables with other employee behavioral outcomes (Rich et al., 2010).

Job Engagement

In this study job engagement is examined as a construct that mediates the relationship between the leadership dimensions (transformational, contingent reward, and authentic) discussed previously and the outcome variables—work withdrawal and extra-role behaviors—examined in this study. Before discussing the theoretical framework portraying engagement as a

mediator, I will first discuss engagement as a construct and the definition being used in this study. Engagement has been defined differently within the literature and I will clarify the definition used in this study.

Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) identified three approaches to engagement: engagement as a motivating resource (e.g., support from colleagues and supervisors), engagement as an outcome in the forms of commitment and extra-role behavior, and engagement as an affective-motivational state independent from job resources and outcomes. Other researchers have also created similar classifications for engagement, as it has been classified as a psychological trait (e.g., positive perceptions of life and work), state (e.g., feelings of energy), or behavior (e.g., extra-role behavior; Macey & Schneider, 2008). The multiple definitions correspond to the multiple ways in which engagement has been examined, defined, and measured in empirical research.

Although there is no standard agreed-upon definition, in this study job engagement is viewed as an affective-motivational state. When engagement is viewed as an affective-motivational state the focus of the construct is on the energy organizational members put into their work roles. This definition of engagement, as the energy input into a work role, was selected because it defines engagement as conceptually distinct from job resources and outcomes. Keeping job resources and outcomes as separate constructs from engagement provides a more parsimonious theoretical framework, for understanding the role that individual motivation has on work performance, compared to the role context variables play.

One affective-motivational definition of engagement that has been influential in the literature is engagement defined as 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" (Kahn, 1990, p.700). Kahn (1992) described engaged individuals as being psychologically present and connected to the organization, and that engagement can be observed through the exertion of physical, cognitive, and emotional energy into a work role. To be fully engaged at work, one needs to exhibit all dimensions of engagement: be alert and aware (physical engagement), be involved in the work role (cognitive engagement), and exhibit positive emotions towards the work role (emotional engagement). The physical component of engagement refers to the physical energy (e.g., effort and intensity) exerted towards goals and exhibited in a work role (Rich et al., 2010). Cognitive energy includes the amount and intensity of focus and concentration (Rich et al., 2010). Emotional energy refers to emotions that reflect pleasantness and active states (e.g., enthusiasm and excitement) targeted at an individual's work role (Rich et al., 2010).

Kahn (1990, 1992) provided the theoretical framework for the conceptualization and measure of job engagement being used in this study. In order to more fully explore how job engagement is defined and conceptualized a review of their theoretical framework will be discussed. Kahn (1990) discusses how previous research portrays a partial picture of how people interact with their work role, but previous research does not portray the whole picture. He examined the psychological conditions in which people engage and disengage from work, and the general conditions that encourage work engagement. Kahn (1990) describes his ethnographic research and lays the theoretical framework for job engagement and job disengagement.

Kahn views people as having dimensions of themselves that they apply to the workplace. He indicates that to employ the self-dimensions that people prefer to use in their work roles "is to drive personal energies into physical, cognitive, and emotional labors" (Kahn, 1990, p. 700). Kahn discusses how previous literature has referred to this idea of self-employment through

various labels such as job involvement, mindfulness, intrinsic motivation, and effort. However, previous literature has not examined the whole picture. For example, he discusses how job involvement has been examined *attitudinally*, which examines how much people's self-definition incorporates their work, or *behaviorally* through measures such as absenteeism. However, he indicates that both types of measurement are general and do not account for context variables. He argues to more fully understand the role of the person in work, it is important to take into account discrete moments and people's emotional reactions to phenomena and context. He argued these phenomena should be examined with work context variables and that this will offer a more complete picture of how people interact with their work role. Kahn uses the terms personal engagement and personal disengagement to discuss if a person's preferred self is incorporated into their work role performance.

As an example from his ethnography Kahn (1990) describes how a scuba-diving instructor was engaged in his work role. The instructor was physically engaged as he checked the scuba gear, cognitively engaged as he was aware of other divers, the weather, etc., and emotionally engaged as he empathized with the fear and excitement of new divers. When people are disengaged they are less involved in their work role and have less physical, cognitive, and emotional energy. Extrapolating from Kahn's example of an engaged scuba instructor, an example of a personally disengaged scuba instructor would be one where he did not have a connection to his role performance. An unengaged scuba instructor would be physically disengaged by not carefully checking all the equipment, cognitively disengaged by lacking awareness of the other divers around him, the weather, or other conditions relevant for scuba-diving, and emotionally disengaged by failing to empathize with the feelings of new divers.

Kahn proposed there are certain psychological conditions that determine if people express their preferred selves in their role. He proposed that if certain conditions are met then people can express their preferred selves at work and engage in their work role. He proposed three psychological states (meaningfulness, safety, and availability) as antecedents of engagement.

Antecedents of Job Engagement

In his conceptualization of engagement Kahn (1990) suggested that personal and organizational factors affect individuals' psychological conditions and presence in the workplace. He proposed psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability as psychological conditions that lead to psychological presence in the workplace and ultimately job engagement. Psychological meaningfulness is influenced by work and organizational factors (e.g., tasks, roles, workplace interactions etc.), psychological availability is influenced by individual difference factors (e.g., cognitive, emotional, and physical energy, ambivalence, and outside constraints etc.), and psychological safety is influenced by social systems (e.g., perceptions of social support and relationships at work; Kahn, 1992). As part of his theory, the extent to which people experience the three conditions determines their psychological presence and engagement at work.

Incorporating the concepts of psychological conditions and presence as antecedents of engagement assumes that 1) psychological experience affects attitudes and behaviors, 2) experiences are influenced by individual, organizational, and interpersonal factors, and 3) there are conscious and unconscious factors involved in psychological presence (Kahn, 1990). These factors are also reflected in job engagement, as the physical and cognitive subdimensions tap into conscious motivational factors, while the emotional subdimension taps into unconscious

motivational factors. Thus, the presence of both conscious and unconscious psychological conditions influence work motivation.

Rich et al. (2010) focused on value congruence, core self-evaluations, and perceived organizational support as three antecedents of job engagement. These three antecedents represent important aspects of psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability respectively. Rich et al. (2010) found all three constructs to be positively related antecedents of job engagement. Thus, the three constructs of value congruence, core self-evaluations, and perceived organizational support are included in the model as antecedents of job engagement. The leadership variables are expected to predict job engagement beyond these three antecedents.

Psychological Meaningfulness/Value Congruence. Psychological meaningfulness is the perception that people feel worthwhile, useful, and valuable (Kahn, 1990). Thus, meaningfulness is viewed as a return on investments of the self in terms of physical, cognitive, and emotional energy in one's work role performance (Khan, 1990). Influences of psychological meaningfulness are elements of work that entice individuals to invest the self (Kahn, 1990). This includes the influences of tasks, formal roles, and interactions with others at work that promote a fit between what someone values and what they are able to obtain on the job. Kahn discussed three factors that influence psychological meaningfulness: task characteristics, role characteristics, and work interactions. Task characteristics involve the challenge of the job and the clarity of work goals and procedures. Role characteristics refer to the attractiveness of the position involved. A position with more status, influence, and that reflects someone's preferred self-image will encourage higher work engagement. Work interactions are an influence that looks at interpersonal interactions. When interactions at work encourage a person feeling valued

and giving them a sense of dignity will add to the psychological meaningfulness of the work role and ultimately physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement.

Rich et al. (2010) used organizational value congruence to represent psychological meaningfulness because organizational values are reflected in the tasks and work roles required by a job. As these values are communicated through work roles and tasks, when employees see a match (i.e., when there is congruence between an individual's values and organizational values) they then perceive that their job expectations are congruent with their preferred self-image (Chatman, 1989; Kahn, 1990; 1992; Rich et al., 2010). If employees perceive more value congruence with the organization they are more likely to be engaged in their work role.

Psychological Availability/Core Self-Evaluations. Psychological availability is the sense of having the physical, emotional, and psychological resources to personally engage in the work role (Kahn, 1990). This involves having limited distractions that would otherwise pull a person's preferred self and energy away from their work role. This can include having the physical stamina to engage in a work role, the emotional resources available, having enough self-confidence in one's own abilities, and not having outside work roles or commitments competing for someone's attention at work.

Confidence is a key aspect that influences psychological availability and how prepared employees are to engage in their work roles (Rich et al., 2010). Core self-evaluations can be used to assess overall confidence as the construct reflects peoples' perceptions of their own worth and value (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). High core self-evaluations have been associated with positive views of the self, self-confidence, and belief in their own ability (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). Individuals with higher core self-evaluations also have a more positive view of demands which helps them invest more in their work roles (Judge, & Hurst, 2007). People with

higher core self-evaluations should have even more confidence in their ability and thus perceive themselves as more psychologically available (Rich et al., 2010).

Psychological Safety/Perceived Organizational Support. Psychological safety is the ability to be one's self without the fear of negative consequences to one's self-image, status, career, or job (Kahn, 1990). This means that situations are clear (including rewards or consequences for certain types of performance and behavior). People feel safe when they perceive situations to be trustworthy and they are clear about how their behavior will be perceived. Interpersonal relationships including group dynamics, relationships with the manager, and organizational norms—that provide support, trust, openness, and room for the investment of the self— about behavior, will contribute to an environment in which employees feel safe and will lead to more psychological presence in the workplace (Kahn, 1990). When individuals feel trust in the organization they have less fear of negative consequences associated with their behavior and are more willing to reveal their true selves and behaviors (Kahn, 1990). Perceived organizational support (POS) is the extent that employees believe the organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). When organizational support is low employees are unclear about what to expect from the organization and withdraw from work roles (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Perceived organizational support has been used to represent an employees' trust in their organization (Rich et al., 2010). When organizational support is low employees may have a higher fear of negative consequences since they are unclear what to expect from the organization.

Summary of Job Engagement

As described by Kahn (1990) an underlying assumption of engagement is the concept of "psychological presence"— that people alter their psychological presence throughout the day by

changing the amount of physical, cognitive, and emotional energy they express during their work frole performance. Psychological presence is the accessibility of "one's thoughts, feelings, and beliefs within the context of role performance" (Kahn, 1992, p. 322). Constructs that can affect ones psychological presence are one's psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability experienced in the workplace (Kahn, 1990, 1992; Rich et al., 2010). In developing a quantitative measure of job engagement, a critique of previous constructs such as job involvement, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation is that they are narrower in scope and do not account for the underlying psychological presence (Rich et al., 2010). The engagement construct takes a more holistic approach and views cognitive, emotional, and physical presence as facets of the self that are all connected (Rich et al., 2010). This theory has been empirically supported as engagement was found to be significantly related to organizational citizenship behaviors and task performance, while related, but more specific constructs (intrinsic motivation, job involvement, and job satisfaction) were not found to predict organizational outcomes beyond job engagement (Rich et al., 2010). Psychological meaningfulness (measured as value congruence), availability (measured as core-self evaluations), and safety (measured as perceived organizational support) were also found to predict job engagement (Rich et al., 2010). Thus, to help assess psychological conditions necessary for engagement value congruence, core self-evaluations, and perceived organizational support were included as covariates when examining antecedents of engagement.

While these three constructs have previously been linked to employee engagement as representations of the psychological conditions for engagement, there are likely other work context variables that contribute to employee job engagement. Leadership variables may also be particularly important to employee engagement as leaders play an important role in creating organizational climates and can be a source of support for employees. Based on Kahn's (1990)

discussion of antecedent conditions to engagement and psychological presence in the workplace leaders may play an important role in the psychological safety of employees.

Psychological Presence

Kahn (1992) discussed the idea of psychological presence. Psychological presence means "that one's thoughts, feelings, and beliefs are accessible within the context of role performances" (Kahn, 1992, p. 322). He indicates that organizations need more than just effort; they also need the competitive edge that comes from members not just completing their assigned tasks, but to be able to make suggestions and changes when necessary. In order to do this organization members need to be empowered and involve more of their selves into their work roles. Psychological presence refers to keeping a whole sense of self and maintaining focus on the whole (overall) situation, rather than smaller fragments. It is not possible to obtain the creativity and innovation desired from employees when they are not engaging their selves into their work roles. If members are holding back, and other things are taking away energy they could be putting into their work role, it will affect their motivation as well as performance potential.

Psychological presence is described as consisting of four dimensions: attentiveness, connection, integration, and focus. In an article about psychological presence Kahn (1992) provides an example of how a project manager was psychologically present in the workplace and how her behavior encompasses all four dimensions. He described her as attentive because she was aware of the behaviors of the employee (when he was struggling with a project) as well as how the experience of the employee (his frustration with the project). She was also aware of her own feelings of frustration with the project. However, although she was frustrated by the lack of progress the employee had made on the project she realized it was not all his fault, was careful not to blame him in their interactions, and helped him use information that was available to move

forward in the project. She was not defensive in her behavior and thus remained attentive to the situation. She was also connected to the employee because she was able to empathize with the employees frustrations. She identified with him and was able to put herself in his place. She was physically present when she was helping the employee with the project as well as emotionally present. She was both serious when discussing the employee's frustration with the project, and she was able to use humor to portray her own frustration, with aspects of the project that were outside of the employees control and her control. Thus, she was able to be both serious and humorous in the situation, as was needed by her role. Focus, the fourth dimensions of psychological presence, was expressed as she was able to use her seriousness and humor as applicable to the present situation. She did not just make a random joke; she used humor to directly address some difficult aspects of the work situation and the project. She used humor to try and relax the employee and at the same time maintained focused on her current role as a manager.

The situation that Kahn (1992) described does not only address the psychological presence of the manager, but reflects on how her psychological presence affected the employee working on the project. In his theoretical framing Kahn (1992) described how the psychological presence of the manager also affected the ability of the employee to work on the project. As part of her attentiveness to the situation she needed to be aware of what the employee was experiencing. She was physically present in the situation, she offered her cognitive availability, and as Kahn defined she was also authentic in her response to the employee. He defines authenticity as "working with one's real emotions within the context of one's role and task situation" (p. 330). He described how the manager was frustrated and experienced anger by the delay in the project the employee was working on. Yet, she was able to remain authentic and

respond to the employee with her real emotions, but she did so in an appropriate manner. She used self-awareness to realize that she was frustrated, but she did not take it out on the employee. However, she also did not approach the employee and indicate that everything was fine and that she was happy with the situation, so she did not deny her feelings either. She was able to express some of her frustration through humor, but in a way that would enable the employee, rather than hinder his performance. She expressed her emotions in a way that was appropriate in her role as a manager. If we examine the scenario from the perspective of looking at the motivation and performance of the employee, her behaviors would help the employee complete his job. Her behaviors as a leader and her authenticity in the situation influence his motivation and productivity. This next section of the paper discusses the link between leadership and employee job engagement.

Connection between Leadership and Job Engagement

Kahn (1992) suggested the long term implications of psychological presence is that "people who are present and authentic in their roles help to create shared understandings of their systems that are equally authentic and responsive to change and growth" (p. 331). Transactional and transformational leadership variables have been linked to satisfaction, performance, commitment, and intent to quit (but with commitment found to be a stronger predictor of intent to quit; Bycio et al., 1995). As engagement is theoretically defined as a related, but broader, construct to commitment, these leadership variables are also predicted to relate to workplace engagement.

Authentic leadership is specifically theorized to relate to job engagement as it promotes the investment of the personal self in the workplace. Kahn (1990) proposed psychological safety as an antecedent of engagement. Components of creating psychological safety in the workplace

are supportive and trusting interpersonal relationships (Kahn, 1990). When leaders act authentically they model the expression of open and honest communication and expressing their personal selves in the workplace. However, when people are disconnected from others, they feel unsafe and are likely to disengage in the workplace (Kahn, 1990). Kahn also found that differences in position and power affect interpersonal relationships in the workplace. The behaviors of an individual in a higher position and with more power are more threatening than the behavior of peers or subordinates. Being in a leadership position has a larger influence on the behavior of employees. Thus, the open and honest communication expressed by an authentic leader is expected to contribute to employees feeling comfortable engaging their personal selves in the workplace. People in positions of authority and power are in positions to create situations where people feel psychologically safe and comfortable and personally engage in the workplace, or psychologically unsafe and personally disengage in the workplace. Authentic leaders can reinforce the personal engagement of employees by creating an environment where employees feel supported.

To date I am only aware of one empirical study that has examined the relationship between authentic leadership and engagement. That study found a positive relationship between authentic leadership and engagement, and found that the relationship was mediated by identification with the supervisor and employee feelings of empowerment (Walumbwa et al. 2010). While the mediating variables in this research are beyond the scope of this study, this provides initial support that authentic leadership and engagement are related. In addition, with the strong emphasis on the positive moral character of authentic leaders, authentic leadership should moderate the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership with engagement.

      Hypothesis 1. a) Transactional, b) Transformational, and c) Authentic leadership are positively related to job engagement.

      Hypothesis 2. Authentic leadership moderates the relationship between (a) transactional leadership and engagement and (b) transformational leadership and engagement such that there is a stronger positive relationship for leaders also rated high in authentic leadership.

Job Performance and Job Engagement

      As a concept that involves being fully present in work roles, employees who are engaged are connected to the job, which likely relates to higher performance in the workplace. When employees are engaged they are more likely to exert physical energy towards completing their goals, be more cognitively present, and emotionally connected to the organization (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). More specifically cognitive energy can be theoretically linked to work performance as it encourages being alert and aware of what is going on in the workplace (Kahn, 1990). A decrease in performance may occur from lack of cognitive energy due to a decrease in awareness of what is going on in the workplace, or an inability to focus on one's work role. Physical energy can be linked to work performance as it is essential to completing the tasks and activities associated with one's work roles. When individuals are physically depleted they are incapable of completing tasks that are required of them (Kahn, 1990). Physical energy is needed to maintain involvement in ones work role performance over time.

      Emotional energy can also be connected to increase work role performance as it helps employees meet the demands of their work role (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Physical and cognitive energy address logical and rational sources of motivation and work role performance. Emotional energy is the component that addresses aspects of motivation that are not entirely rational. It

encourages valuable social connections in the workplace, which can help employees meet emotional demands of the job (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). When work becomes too emotionally demanding for individuals they feel drained and incapable of performing their work roles to the best of their ability (Kahn, 1990). Thus, a lack of emotional energy will relate to lower job performance.

In this study one way performance is defined is as extra-role behavior and more specifically as a construct termed *organizational spontaneity*. Organizational spontaneity is a performance construct defined as extra-role behaviors that extend beyond employees assigned responsibilities (Eisenberger, Amreli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, and Rhoades, 2001). While extra-role behaviors are not part of employees' primary responsibilities they create an environment that is conducive to completing organizational goals and work that is part of employees' primary responsibilities (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Generally speaking as employees are engaged in the workplace they exert their full selves into their work role and they are more likely to be willing to exhibit behaviors that are outside of their formally defined roles. Additionally, employees who are more engaged are likely to feel more mentally connected to their jobs, view a larger range of behaviors as benefiting the organization, and being connected to the successful completion of their work role (Kahn, 1990, 1992; Rich et al., 2010). Research has found that engagement is related to increased extra-role behaviors of employees (Rich et al. 2010).

Hypothesis 3. Job engagement is positively related to organizational spontaneity.

Another dimension of work role performance is work withdrawal behaviors. Work withdrawal behaviors are defined as behaviors that employees enact in order to avoid work situations they are dissatisfied with (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). These behaviors can consist of being late, absent, leaving the organization, failing to return to work on time from breaks and

other behaviors used to avoid undesirable work situations. Withdrawal behaviors have been positively linked to factors such as boredom (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006), contract breaches relating to how employees spend their time (e.g., meaningfulness of work; Jensen, Oplan, & Ryan, 2010), and negatively linked to a construct such as job satisfaction (Pajo, Coetzer, & Guenole, 2010). Meta-analytic findings have also found job satisfaction to be negatively related to what can be considered the ultimate withdrawal behavior of leaving the organization, as it has been found to be negatively related to behaviors such as intent to quit (Hellman, 1997) and turnover (Griffith, Hom & Gaertner, 2000). Thus, withdrawal behaviors are expected to be negatively related to job engagement (or positively linked with work disengagement), as engagement (or disengagement) is a more holistic concept than job satisfaction.

Job engagement and disengagement are part of the same spectrum of behaviors (Kahn, 1990). Job engagement is predicted to relate to positive workplace outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviors. Job disengagement is expected to relate to negative behaviors such as withdrawal. Unlike engaged employees, disengaged employees are not likely to invest themselves in their work role. Disengaged employees are more likely to seek ways to actively detach from the organization.

Hypothesis 4. Job engagement is negatively related to work withdrawal behaviors.

Job Engagement as a Mediator

As proposed earlier in the study, leadership variables are argued to be related to the cognitive, physical, and emotional engagement of employees in the workplace. Additionally, previous research has found that contingent reward and transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004) and authentic leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008) are related to work

performance. The model presented in this study includes job engagement as a mediating variable between the antecedent variables and the workplace outcomes of organizational spontaneity and withdrawal behaviors. As the definition of job engagement used in this study suggests that engagement consists of the investment of cognitive, emotional, and physical energy in ones work role, engagement is expected to be a mediating variable between the leadership dimensions and outcomes. The presence of contingent reward, transformational, and authentic leadership are theorized to relate to the investment of the self in ones work role, which is in turn expected to lead to more effective work performance. Thus, leadership variables are proposed as more distal predictors of work performance than engagement.

Hypothesis 5. Job engagement mediates the relationship between the leadership behaviors (contingent reward, transformational, and authentic) and the workplace outcomes of (a) organizational spontaneity and (b) withdrawal behaviors.

Length of supervision

An additional variable that was included in the study was the length of time employees had their current supervisor. As positive outcomes such as engagement have been theorized to arise from authentic leadership (Gardner et al., 2005), length of supervision may be an important factor in the influence the leader has on the follower. In order for leadership factors to influence followers employees must have sufficient knowledge of their leader. Leadership variables are unlikely to influence followers with insufficient exposure to the leader. Thus, length of supervision has been included as a covariate in this study.

Summary

Both leadership factors and engagement have been related to various workplace outcomes. The overall model predicted in this study suggests leadership variables are related to

employee engagement, which is a more proximal predictor of workplace outcomes (see Figure 1). As a newer addition to the leadership literature, authentic leadership is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between transactional and contingent reward leadership and workplace engagement.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Sample

The sample in this study consisted of 327 unionized retail employees in the Midwestern United States. Since this is a union sponsored survey, independent of the organizations that employ the workers, organizational records (including performance records and demographic data from the employing organization) were not available. Thus, any information regarding employee attitudes and behaviors must be included on the self-report survey or be available in union records. The sample had an average age of 45.5 (SD = 15.0) years, an average organizational tenure of 6.5 (SD = 8.2) years, and was 43% male. The overall organizational demographic data had an average age of 38.5 years, an average organizational tenure of 5.2 years, and was 42% male. Thus, comparing the sample to the organizational demographic data, on average the sample was older, and had longer organizational tenure. The union sent out surveys to approximately 5,000 union members who work for small to medium organizations in the Midwest and had a response rate of 6%.

Although the response rate for the sample was 6%, the sample demographic data was similar to a sample collected in 2007 from the same union (the following 2007 response rate and demographic data are from Sinclair, Martin, & Sears, 2009). In 2007 the response rate was 14.4%. In 2007 the sample had an average age of 43.0 (SD = 14.6) years, an average organizational tenure of 6.3 (SD = 7.2) years, and was 42% male. The overall organizational demographic data in 2007 had an average age of 37.2 years, an average organizational tenure of 5.0 years, and was 42% male. Thus, comparing the 2007 sample to the 2007 organizational demographic data, on average the sample was older, and had longer organizational tenure. The sample and population gender did not differ in 2007 or 2010. Thus, the sample demographic data

obtained in 2010 is similar to the sample demographic characteristics in 2007. The population demographics in 2010 were also similar to the population demographics in 2007.

Measures

Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). AL was measured with a total of 16-items to assess the four sub-dimensions of transparency (5-items), moral/ethical (4-items), balanced processing (3-items), and self-awareness (4- items; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Sample items for each of the dimensions are as follows:

Transparency: "Says exactly what he or she means."

Moral/Ethical: "Demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions."

Balanced Processing: "Solicits views that challenge his or her deeply held positions."

Self-Awareness: "Seeks feedback to improve interactions with others."

Participants were asked to rate their leader's style as they perceived it and to use the following scale to judge the frequency with which each state fits the leader's style. They were instructed to rate their immediate supervisor as their leader. If they had more than one immediate supervisor they were instructed to rate the supervisor with whom they interacted most frequently. The rating scale had the following 5-point Likert type anchors 0 "Not at all", 1 "Once in a while", 2 "Sometimes", 3 "Fairly often", 4 "Frequently, if not always".

Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTL). Transformational leadership was measured with a 7-item Global Transformational Leadership Scale (Carless et al. 2000). Carless and colleagues (2000) provided support that the GTL is correlated from .83 to .88 with the transformational leadership dimensions of Individual Consideration, Charisma, and Intellectual Stimulation of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995) and from .78 to .88 with the transformational leadership dimensions of Challenging the process,

Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Other to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI; Kouzes & Posner, 1990). A sample item is "Communicates a clear and positive vision of the future." Items 2, 3, and 4 of the GTL published in Carless and colleagues (2000) included the word "staff". After discussion with union staff members and after conducting an initial pilot test the word "staff" was changed to "workers", as the word "staff" was determined to be inappropriate to use in this context. Thus, for example the item "Gives encouragement and recognition to staff" was changed to "Gives encouragement and recognition to workers."

By copyright and permission to use the ALQ the questionnaire instructions and scale anchors could not be altered. Thus, the anchors and instructions for the Global Transformational Leadership scale and the Contingent Reward Leadership scale were modified to be consistent with the instructions and anchors of the ALQ.

Contingent Reward Behavior Scale (CRBS). Contingent reward leadership was measured using 5-items from Podsakoff and colleagues contingent reward behavior scale (Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, & Huber, 1984). These are the same 5 items used in his 1990 article (Podsakoff et al. 1990). Contingent reward behaviors indicate the extent a leader provides informal rewards such as positive feedback, approval, and recognition in exchange for effort and good performance of a follower. A sample item is "Always gives me positive feedback when I perform well." The instructions and anchors were again slightly modified to be consistent with the ALQ.

Job Engagement. Engagement was measured with 18-items created to reflect and map onto Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). Participants were instructed to indicate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with each

statement. Participants used a 5-point Likert scale with the following anchors 1 "Strongly Disagree", 2 "Disagree", 3 "Neutral", 4 "Agree", and 5 "Strongly Agree". The scale had 3 three dimensions of physical, emotional, and cognitive engagement which were expected to load onto a higher order factor of job engagement as in previous research (Rich et al., 2010). Sample items for each of the dimensions are:

Physical: "I work with intensity on my job."

Cognitive: "At work, my mind is focused on my job."

Emotional: "I am enthusiastic in my job."

Withdrawal Behavior. Withdrawal behaviors were measured with 4 items adapted from Eisenberger et al. (2001). Items were altered in order to be self-report as ratings from supervisors were unavailable. Participants used a 5-point Likert scale with the following anchors 1 "Strongly Disagree", 2 "Disagree", 3 "Neutral", 4 "Agree", and 5 "Strongly Agree". Items used in this scale are presented in Appendix A.

Organizational Spontaneity (Spontaneity). Organizational spontaneity was measured with a 3-item measure from Eisenberger et al. (2001). Items were altered in order to be self-report as ratings from supervisors were unavailable. Participants rated the items using a 5-point Likert scale with the following anchors 1 "Strongly Disagree", 2 "Disagree", 3 "Neutral", 4 "Agree", and 5 "Strongly Agree". Items are presented in Appendix A.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS). POS was measured with 6 items used in Eisenberger and colleagues (2001). These 6 items were selected by Eisenberger et al. (2001) because they had high factor loadings on the original 24 item scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Participants rated the items using a 5-point Likert scale with the following anchors 1 "Strongly Disagree", 2 "Disagree", 3 "Neutral", 4 "Agree", and 5 "Strongly Agree". A sample item is "My

employer takes pride in my accomplishments." In all the items "The organization" was changed to "My employer" in order to clarify that the questions were about the employer and not the union.

Value Congruence (VC). Value congruence was measured with 3 items that address the similarity between the values of the organization and the values of employees (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990). Participants rated the items using a 5-point Likert scale with the following anchors 1 "Strongly Disagree", 2 "Disagree", 3 "Neutral", 4 "Agree", and 5 "Strongly Agree". A sample item is "What my employer stands for is important to me."

Core Self-Evaluations (CSE). Core self-evaluations were measured with 12 items that focused on employees' confidence in their abilities (Judge et al., 2003). Participants rated the items using a 5-point Likert scale with the following anchors 1 "Strongly Disagree", 2 "Disagree", 3 "Neutral", 4 "Agree", and 5 "Strongly Agree". A sample item is "I am confident I get the success I deserve in life."

Length of Supervision. Participants were asked to report how long they had their present supervisor. The response options were one month or less, two to three months, four to five months, and more than six months. The item is presented in Appendix A. Descriptive statistics indicated that 2 participants reported having their supervisor for one month or less, 10 participants reported having their supervisor for two to three months, 21 participants reported having their supervisor for four to five months and 273 participants reported having their supervisor for 6 or more months. Based on the small cell sizes for participants who had their current supervisor for less than 6 months no exploratory analyses are reported examining differences in perceptions of leadership based on length of supervision.

Analyses

     Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Using confirmatory factor analysis the factor structures of the engagement and authentic leadership scales were tested. Previous research has found that the three subdimensions of physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement load onto a higher order factor (Rich et al., 2010). Previous research has also found that four subdimensions of transparency, moral/ethical, balanced processing, and self awareness of authentic leadership load onto a higher order factor (e.g., Walumbwa et al., 2008; Hannah, Walumbwa, & Fry, 2011; Walumbwa et al. 2010). For both authentic leadership and engagement three models were tested. The first model was a one factor model where all the items (18 for engagement and 16 for authentic leadership) were loaded onto 1 larger factor. The second model was a first-order model where items were loaded onto their respective factors (3 factors for engagement and 4 factors for authentic leadership). The third model was a higher order or (second-order) model where items were loaded onto their respective factors and the factors were loaded onto a second-order latent construct. The first order and second order factor models are mathematically equivalent (Bollen, 1989); however, if the higher order model has sufficient fit it is preferable, because it accounts for corrected errors often present in first-order models (Gerbing & Anderson, 1984). Further, to test whether contingent reward, transformational, and authentic leadership are empirically distinct constructs, a set of confirmatory factor analyses were conducted containing the three leadership constructs. Using these three measures of leadership a one-factor model, first-order factor model, and higher order factor model were examined for the leadership variables.

     Hierarchical Multiple Regression. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to examine the proposed mediation and moderation hypotheses. Moderation and mediation can be combined within regression analyses. To test the hypotheses the individual outcome variables of

organizational spontaneity and withdrawal behaviors were independently regressed on the predictor variables (three covariates: perceived organizational support, core self-evaluations, value congruence, and the three variables of interest: contingent reward, transformational, and authentic leadership). Next, the mediator variable engagement was regressed on the predictor variables.

In order to incorporate the moderating effects of authentic leadership on the relationship between transformational leadership and engagement, and contingent reward leadership and engagement, the interaction terms between those variables were added into the regression analyses. Bootstrapping procedures described in Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) and Preacher and Hayes (2008) were used to test for indirect effects.

In behavioral research mediation proposes that independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through a proposed mediating variable (M) (Preacher et al., 2007). As described in Preacher and Hayes (2008) in a mediation model path *a* represents the effect of the independent variable on the mediator. Path *b* is the effect of the mediator on the dependent variable, partialling out the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Path *c'* represents the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable when the effect of the mediator on the dependent variable is also being estimated. The indirect effect of the mediator on the dependent variable is the product of paths *a* and *b* (*ab*). The total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable (*c*) is the sum of the direct and indirect effect (*c = c' + ab*). The direct effect is the difference between the total effect of the predictor on the criterion and the indirect effect (*c' = c – ab*). See Figure 2 for a diagram.

As hypothesized in this study, when testing for the mediated moderation effects the a_1 path is moderated by an additional variable (See Figure 2C). As moderation is theoretically

incorporated into this model authentic leadership is proposed to act as a moderator between transformational leadership and engagement and contingent reward leadership and engagement, where engagement is the mediator. Thus, the a_1 path of a simple mediation model is moderated by another predictor variable (now identified as a moderator). Thus, to test the conditional indirect effects, when authentic leadership is acting as a moderator, an interaction coefficient is added to the hierarchical regression analyses (Predictor x Moderator).

The INDIRECT SPSS Macro described in Preacher and Hayes (2008) was used to test the simple mediation models and the MODMED SPSS Macros described in Preacher and colleagues (2007) was used to test the moderated mediation hypotheses. Both these macros use bootstrapping to test the presence of indirect effects. Bootstrap confidence intervals that do not contain zero are considered indicative of the presence of indirect effects. When using bootstrapping samples it is generally agreed upon that a larger number of samples is better (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). While there is no generally agreed upon number of bootstrap samples that should be used, Preacher and Hayes (2008) recommend using at least 5,000 resamples. Therefore, in this study 5,000 resamples were used to test the presence of indirect effects through bootstrapping.

Bootstrapping. The percentile bootstrap is based on the percentiles of the bootstrap distribution for the estimate of interest. It is usually based on the 95%, or sometimes 99%, confidence interval. Thus, the percentiles used create the confidence intervals are 2.5% and 97.5% (or .5% and 99.5% if a 99% confidence interval is used). Percentile bootstraps can be used in situations where the distribution is not normal because it does not assume normality of the bootstrap sampling distribution (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). In situations when the bootstrap sample is non-normal the percentile bootstrap is more accurate

than a standard bootstrap sample with forced symmetry. When the percentile method is used it is not necessary to have a normal distribution or know the exact distribution of the sample, since the confidence intervals do not have to be symmetrical around the estimate of interest. Since indirect effects may have a non-normal distribution the bootstrapping method based on percentile intervals is better than the Sobel test or bootstrap intervals based on a t-distribution, as both methods assume a multivariate normal distribution.

While the percentile interval has more accurate values than standard normal confidence intervals, there is still a lack of sufficient coverage in the percentile interval (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). This results in a more conservative hypothesis test. The percentile interval may underestimate the tails of the distribution (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). The bias confidence interval (BC) improves on the percentile interval by assuming there is some bias in the confidence interval and accounting for that in the calculation of the confidence interval (Efron, 1987). While the BC interval is often more accurate than the percentile interval there is another correction that can be added to the calculation referred to as the "acceleration constant" (Efron, 1987). The addition of the acceleration constant results in the calculation of a bias corrected and accelerated (BCa) interval. The BCa interval calculates both the median bias (discrepancy between the median of the sample and median of the bootstrap sample) of the estimate of interest and the acceleration, which is the rate of change of the standard error of the estimate of interest compared to the true estimate value (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). The acceleration constant corrects for the inaccurate assumption that all standard errors of the estimate of interest are the same (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). Thus, in accounting for both bias and differences in standard errors the BCa bootstrap interval is superior to the percentile interval and bias corrected interval. It provides a larger range of coverage and there is less chance of making a type I error.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Confirmatory Factor Analyses of Leadership and Job Engagement

Table 1 provides model fit indices for all the confirmatory factor analyses conducted. Several fit indices were used to examine the fit of the constructs: chi-square, chi-square difference, comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). There are no cut off values for CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR goodness of fit indices. A number of researchers rely on RMSEA values less than .05 as indicative of "good" fit and RMSEA values less than .08 as indicating "acceptable" fit, and CFI values acceptable if they are greater than .9 with values at 1 indicating perfect fit (McDonald & Ho, 2002). SRMR values less than .05 were considered indicative of good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Transformational Leadership. The CFA for the transformational leadership measure provided adequate model fit to the data (χ^2= 63.20, $p < .001$; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .02).

Contingent Reward Leadership. In the initial CFA examining contingent reward leadership one item had an r-square value of .09 indicating that a low amount of the variance in the observed variable was explained by the latent construct, thus the item was removed from further analyses. The item that was removed was the only reverse scored item in the scale. The CFAs examining the measurement models of authentic leadership, transformational leadership, and contingent reward leadership used the remaining 4 items on the scale. When contingent reward leadership was examined in hypotheses one, two, and five the 4-item measure of contingent reward leadership was used. The 4-item measure of contingent reward leadership had adequate fit (χ^2= 4.63, p = ns; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .00).

Authentic Leadership. The CFA of the four first order factors represented the best model fit for the authentic leadership questionnaire (χ^2= 331.52, *p* < .001; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04). While the RMSEA was above .08, as indicated above there are no technical cutoff scores for fit indices and both the CFI and SRMR suggested adequate model fit. For the higher order model the latent variable covariance matrix (PSI) matrix was not positive definite. The standardized coefficient between balanced information processing and the higher order factor was 1.00. A standardized coefficient above 1 could suggest the presence of multicollinearity (Jöreskog, 1999) and that the higher order factor was indistinguishable from the balanced information processing first order factor. The standardized coefficients between the other subdimensions of authentic leadership and the higher order factor were all above .90. The correlations between the leadership dimensions the correlations ranged between .75 and .86 (see Table 2). The correlations between the subdimensions of authentic leadership and transformational leadership were between .75 and .90, suggesting a very high relationship between these constructs. However, when a one factor CFA (χ^2= 476.22, *p* < .001; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .05) and higher order CFA (χ^2= 360.34, *p* < .001; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04) were examined they did not fit the data as well as the four factor CFA solution.

Leadership Constructs (Authentic Leadership, Transformational Leadership, and Contingent Reward Leadership). The CFA of the six first order factors represented the best model fit (χ^2= 875.08, *p* = .001; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .04). The fit indices for this model suggested adequate model fit. See Table 2 for correlations between the overall authentic leadership questionnaire and the other leadership dimensions.

Job Engagement. The CFA of the three first order factors represented adequate model fit (χ^2 = 467.426, p = .001; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04) and better model fit than the one factor model (χ^2 = 1599.390, p = .001; CFI = .73; RMSEA = .19; SRMR = .10). Since the degrees of freedom are the same between the first order 3 factor model and higher order factor model the fit indices remain the same between the two models. The standardized factor loadings of the first order factors onto the second order factors (physical = .82, emotional = .72, and cognitive = .99) were all strong and statistically significant. These results supported engagement as a higher order construct. See Table 2 for the zero-order correlations between the subdimensions.

Regression Analyses (Hypotheses Testing)

Covariates (CSE, VC, and POS). Descriptive statistics, correlations, and Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are presented in Table 2. Based on previous research and theory core self-evaluations, value congruence, and perceived organizational support were included as covariates in the analyses testing the hypotheses. While not included in the hypotheses, the relationships between core self-evaluations, value congruence, perceived organizational support, job engagement, organizational spontaneity, and work withdrawal are discussed below. As not all the covariates related to job engagement or the dependent variables as expected presenting these results is helpful in understanding the post-hoc regression analyses discussed later in the results section. Out of these three variables core self-evaluations (β = .40, p < .001) and value congruence (β = .19, p < .01) significantly predicted job engagement (see Table 3 for full results). Both core self-evaluations (β = .26, p < .001) and value congruence (β = .23, p < .001) were direct predictors of organizational spontaneity (see Table 4). Based on bootstrapping results only core self-evaluations (point estimate =.25) was an indirect predictor of spontaneity through job engagement (see Table 5). Only core self-evaluations was a direct predictor of work

withdrawal (β = -.26, *p* < .05) (see Table 6). Based on bootstrapping results using a 95% confidence interval and 5,000 bootstrapped samples only core self-evaluations (point estimate = -.24) was an indirect predictor of withdrawal through engagement (see Table 7), as the confidence intervals did not contain zero.

Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c. Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c, predicted transactional, transformational, and authentic leadership, respectively, were positively related to job engagement. The hypotheses were not supported as the regression analyses indicated that none of the leadership variables predicted job engagement beyond the three covariates (CSE, VC, and POS).

Hypotheses 2a and 2b. Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted that authentic leadership moderated the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership respectively and engagement. Hypotheses 2a and 2b were tested in two sets of analyses. In the first step engagement was included as the predictor variable and the interactions were included in step two of a hierarchical linear regression. The interaction terms for authentic leadership and transactional (contingent reward) and authentic leadership and transformational leadership were included in two separate regressions; however, a main effect for all leadership styles (authentic, transformational, and contingent reward) were included in all analyses. Results indicated there were no significant effects of the interaction terms on engagement (regression coefficients were β = .21, *p* = ns and β = .23, *p* = ns for the interactions of authentic leadership with contingent reward and transformational leadership respectively). Table 3 provides regression coefficients for all the variables in the model.

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 predicted that engagement was related to the extra-role organizational spontaneity behaviors. Results supported that engagement ($\beta = .45$, $p < .001$) was a significant predictor of spontaneity (see Table 4).

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 predicted that engagement was related to the work withdrawal behaviors. Results supported that engagement ($\beta = -.66$, $p < .001$) was a significant predictor of work withdrawal (see Table 6).

Hypotheses 5a and 5b. Hypothesis 5a predicted engagement mediated the relationship between the leadership styles (contingent reward, transformational, and authentic) and organizational spontaneity. Hypothesis 5b predicted engagement mediated the relationship between the leadership styles (contingent reward, transformational, and authentic) and work withdrawal behaviors. The INDIRECT SPSS macro described in Preacher and Hayes (2008) was used to test the indirect effects of the leadership variables to the outcomes through engagement. The bootstrap confidence intervals for the three leadership variables on organizational spontaneity all contained zero indicating they did not have an indirect effect through engagement (see Table 5). The bootstrap confidence intervals for the three leadership variables on work withdrawal also all contained zero indicating they did not have an indirect effect through engagement (see Table 7).

The interaction term between contingent reward leadership and authentic leadership and the interaction term between transformational reward leadership and authentic leadership were also included as predictors in the mediator models. The results from these analyses indicated that the interactions of contingent reward and transformational leadership with authentic leadership did not have indirect effects on spontaneity (see Table 8) or withdrawal (see Table 9) as all of the bootstrapped confidence intervals contained zero.

Post-Hoc Regression Analyses

Based on the lack of significant results from the leadership variables predicting work engagement, some additional post-hoc analyses were tested based on theory. Kahn (1992) also discussed relationships, group dynamics, and norms as situations that affect the psychological condition of safety. From this theoretical perspective the leadership variables would be more distal predictors of employee engagement than psychological safety and psychological safety would mediate the relationship of the leadership variables and job engagement. While this is another potential theoretical explanation, the results also fail to support this theory. Results indicated the leadership styles correlated more strongly with perceived organizational support (r's = .66, .55, .57 for transformational, contingent reward, and authentic leadership respectively) than with core self-evaluations (r's = .24, .17, .22 for transformational, contingent reward, and authentic leadership respectively) or value congruence (r's = .35, .29, .35 for transformational, contingent reward, and authentic leadership respectively). Regression results also indicated that combined the leadership variables explained 38% of the variance for perceived organizational support, 7% of the variance for core self-evaluations, and 14% of the variance for value congruence (see Table 10; with authentic leadership failing to be a significant predictor in any model). Taken together these results suggested that the leadership dimensions had a stronger relationship with perceived organizational support than the other proposed psychological antecedents of engagement.

Although the leadership variables were more strongly related to perceived organizational support, results do not support perceived organizational support as a significant predictor of engagement. Based on the proposed theory and previous empirical research (Rich et al., 2010) perceived organizational support was entered as a covariate in the model. When results indicated

it did not predict overall job engagement (consisting of the subdimensions of physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement) post-hoc regression analyses were conducted to examine if the relationships of the covariates and leadership variables to job engagement differed based on the subdimension of engagement. Core self-evaluations and value congruence were significantly related to overall engagement and the three subdimensions of engagement (see Table 11 for the subdimensions of engagement). Perceived organizational support was not significantly related to cognitive or physical job engagement. Perceived organizational support did significantly predict emotional job engagement ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$); however, it only explained an additional 3% of the variance in emotional engagement beyond core self-evaluations and value congruence. Overall, these results do not support perceived organizational support as a predictor of engagement or as more distal antecedents of engagement, but future analyses might further examine the subdimensions of engagement.

Additional, analyses were also conducted to examine if the subdimensions of authentic leadership (transparency, moral/ethical, balanced processing, and self-awareness) and job engagement (physical, cognitive, and emotional) differed in their relationships to work withdrawal and organizational spontaneity. The results from these analyses are presented in Table 12. Results indicated that both physical ($\beta = -.46$, $p < .001$) and cognitive ($\beta = -.30$, $p < .001$) engagement were negative predictors of work withdrawal. Emotional engagement did not significantly predict work withdrawal. None of the subdimensions of authentic leadership predicted work withdrawal.

When only the engagement subdimensions were entered as predictors of organizational spontaneity, all three were significant predictors. However, when the three covariates (core self-evaluations, value congruence, and perceived organizational support) and the subdimensions of

authentic leadership were also included as predictors of organizational spontaneity, only physical engagement (β = .27, p < .001) was a significant predictor. The moral/ethical subdimension of authentic leadership (β = .02, p < .001) and value congruence (β = .17, p < .001) were also significant predictors of organizational spontaneity in the full model. Thus, physical engagement was the only subdimension of engagement that predicted both withdrawal and spontaneity.

Post-Hoc Common Method Variance Analyses

There was a zero-order correlation of .91 between authentic and transformational leadership. Based on theory and previous empirical studies I expected the two constructs to correlate; however, a correlation of .91 was higher than expected. I examined the data to provide some information about the potential for common method variance (CMV) to have had an influence on the size of the correlation. With the use of self-report data there has been a discussion regarding the presence of common method variance within data (e.g., Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Lee, 2003; Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman, 2009; Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010; Spector, 2006). Researchers have reached different conclusions about the frequency with which common method variance occurs and how it affects the data (Richardson et al., 2009). Common method variance has been suggested to potentially influence correlations either upwards or downwards (e.g., Antonakis, et al., 2010; Podsakoff, et al., 2003; Siemsen et al., 2010).

In an examination of post-hoc statistical techniques to address CMV Richardson and colleagues (2009) discussed three different assumptions researchers have made about common method variance and three potential techniques for dealing with common method variance based on the assumptions. They describe how researchers have made the assumption that CMV does

not exist, that CMV exists and equally affects all constructs (referred to as noncongeneric CMV), and that CMV exists, but, does not equally affect all constructs (referred to a congeneric CMV). Researchers have taken different approaches on how to address common method variance as a threat to validity. The assumptions researchers make determines how they deal with CMV. If the researcher assumes common method variance does not have an effect, or it will not greatly influence the results no corrective action is needed. When CMV is assumed to be noncongeneric the correlational marker technique has been proposed as a method of dealing with CMV. When CMV is assumed to be congeneric the CFA marker technique or the unmeasured latent method construct (ULMC) technique may be used. The three techniques and some of their limitations presented by Richardson et al. (2009) are briefly described below.

The correlational marker variable technique requires including a measure (identified as the marker variable) that is considered to be theoretically unrelated to the criterion (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Any zero-order correlation between the criterion and the theoretically unrelated marker variable should be zero if CMV is not present (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). A zero-order correlation between the criterion and marker variable that is different from zero is considered evidence of the presence of CMV (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). The amount of variance attributed to CMV is then statistically partialled out from the remaining correlations between the predictors and criterion (see Lindell & Whitney, 2001 for a review of this approach). Richardson et al. (2009) found this approach correctly identified the presence or absence of CMV 69% of the time. This approach has limitations in that it assumes CMV increases zero-order correlations. It does not take into account that CMV could cause a correlation to be either inflated or deflated or that CMV may also affect some variables, while not affecting other variables (Antonakis et al., 2010, Specter et al., 2006; Richardson et al., 2009). Despite these potential differences this approach

uses a uniform correction to partial out the effects of CMV from the zero-order correlations between the criterion and substantive constructs.

The CFA marker technique is a proposed method of CMV that can be used to address noncongeneric or congeneric CMV (Richardson et al., 2009). In this approach a marker variable that is expected to be theoretically unrelated to the criterion (as described in the correlational marker approach) is included in the analyses (Richardson et al., 2009). This variable is included in a CFA of the theoretically related constructs. To account for CMV the unique indicators of the marker variables, as well as the indicators of other substantive constructs believed to be affected by CMV are all loaded onto the marker variable. The variance that is shared between the marker variable and other constructs is attributed to CMV (Richardson et al., 2009). Unlike the correlational marker approach this approach does not assume all items are affected the same way by CMV (Richardson et al., 2009). This approach was also found to accurately detect the presence or absence of CMV 75% of the time (Richardson et al., 2009). The theoretically unrelated marker variable, researchers choose to include in the analyses, can also influence the magnitude of the relationship between the marker variable and the other substantive constructs in the model. Since items expected to have CMV are loaded onto the marker variable they can share different amounts of variance with the marker variable. This can affect the interpretation of the results and the amount of variance attributed to CMV.

The ULMC approach has been a popular method of dealing with CMV in research (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Richardson et al., 2009). In this approach a latent construct is created that does not have any unique indicators. In a CFA items from measured constructs that are thought to be affected by CMV are then loaded onto the created latent construct. Shared variance attributed to CMV is detected by examining nested models. An advantage of this approach is that

both random error and measurement error from the items can be modeled, and that it is, at least in part, due to the marker latent construct. Variance in the criterion explained from predictors beyond this common latent factor is attributed to the constructs being examined, instead of CMV. However, limitations with this approach have been acknowledged (Podsakoff et al., 2003), and other researchers have suggested this approach should not be used at all (Antonakis et al., 2010). A disadvantage is that this approach can remove all of the shared variance between the unmeasured latent construct and the substantive constructs, but it is unknown if this shared variance is all biased or some may be substantive. In an examination of this technique Richardson et al. (2009) found CMV was only correctly identified 41% of the time and do not recommend using this approach.

While there have been multiple statistical approaches proposed to address CMV they all have limitations. The largest limitation being that in any real data set the exact presence, amount, and influence of CMV is unknown. Even if the techniques discussed do correctly identify the presence or absence of CMV, there is still imprecision in making corrections for CMV. Thus, in this study none of these techniques have been adopted to examine the potential influence of CMV on the high correlation between authentic leadership and transformational leadership. If the correlational marker technique were used, it would assume all variables were affected by CMV to the same extent. If one marker variable were to be selected to be used in the CFA marker or ULMC approaches the results could be influenced by the specific variables selected. Instead, the correlations between variables were examined, based on both theory and measurement styles. Variables were selected that had both similarities and differences from the leadership construct. Empirical results are discussed below and a discussion about the theoretical implications is included in the discussion section.

Leadership Variables. An initial correlation to discuss is the correlation between contingent reward leadership and transformational leadership (r = .80) and authentic leadership (r = .77). While these correlations are high, they are not as high as the correlation between transformational and authentic leadership (r = .91). The correlation between transformational leadership and contingent reward leadership is also similar to correlations that have been found in previous studies. In the meta-analysis discussed earlier conducted by Judge and Piccolo (2004) an average correlation of .80 was found between transformational and contingent reward leadership, providing support that this effect size has been found in previous research, and the results have been replicated. This information is helpful in the consideration of CMV because the same 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the leadership variables. Based on the theoretical relationship between the constructs, and that the results are likely to correlate, there is a higher likelihood that common method variance would affect the three leadership variables (authentic, transformational, and contingent reward leadership) in the same way (i.e., noncongeneric CMV). Thus, since the correlation between transformational and contingent reward leadership have been supported by previous research, I think this provides some support that the high correlation between authentic and transformational leadership is not only due to CMV.

Perceived Organizational Support and Perceived Organizational Loyalty. Another set of constructs examined in the survey to identify potential method effects were perceived organizational support[1] and perceived organizational loyalty (loyalty was measured with a scale developed by Martin & Peterson, 1987). The decision to examine these constructs was made based on the measurement of the constructs and how the constructs should theoretically relate to each other. There were a total of two measures of perceived organizational support (employer

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[1] Only perceived employer support was included as a theoretical construct in this study. Any previous reference to perceived organizational support was in reference to the employer. A differentiation is made for the purposes of examining the measurement of the constructs and to discuss the potential presence of CMV.

support and union support) and two measures of organizational loyalty (employer loyalty and union loyalty).

I will first start with a theoretical explanation for a strong positive relationship between union loyalty and union support, and employer loyalty and employer support. Organizational support is expected to theoretically relate to organizational loyalty. If organizations want loyalty from their members they should indicate their commitment to their members by providing a supportive environment (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, employer support is expected to positively relate to employer loyalty and union support is expected to positively relate to union loyalty. The correlation between perceived employer support and employer loyalty was .75 and the correlation between perceived union support and union loyalty was .66. While common method variance as an explanation cannot be entirely eliminated, these results do suggest that not all variables in the study have as a high a correlation as between transformational and authentic leadership. I think this provides additional support that the relationship between authentic and transformational leadership should be further examined.

The presence of a positive correlation between employer support and union support and between employer loyalty and union loyalty is also supported by past empirical literature; where positive correlations have been found between employer loyalty and union loyalty[2] (e.g., Cohen, 2005; Magenau & Martin, 1999; Martin & Sinclair, 2001). From a theoretical perspective a positive relationship can exist between the two constructs from multiple rationales. Union-management relations can influence both employer and union loyalty (Gordon & Ladd, 1990) which would manifest as a positive correlation. Conflict between the union and managemecould

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[2] Researchers have used the terms loyalty and commitment interchangeably in past research (Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Magenau & Martin, 1999) and continue to use both terms.

push workers to be committed to the union or the organization (Cohen, 2005; Magenau, Martin, & Peterson, 1988; Martin, 1981).

Union-management relations and job satisfaction can lead to higher commitment to the employer and the union if positive perceptions can be attributed to both the employer and the union (Cohen, 2005; Magenau et al., 1988). Thus, there are plausible theoretical explanations for the positive relationship between employer and union loyalty. These arguments can be extended to the perceptions of perceived support. If perceived support stems from union-management relations, it can also contribute to higher forms of both types of support.

From a measurement perspective each construct consisted of a scale measuring perceptions of the employer and a scale measuring perceptions of the union. The same scales (with the same items) were used to measure employer loyalty and union loyalty, except the referent groups were different (e.g., union loyalty sample item "I talk up local [UNION NAME] to my friends as a great organization to be a member of"; employer loyalty sample item "I talk up my employer to my friends as a great organization to be a member of"). The same scales were also used for employer and union support, with different referent groups.

The theoretical explanations above support the correlations found between employer loyalty, union loyalty, employer support, and union support. The correlation between employer loyalty and union loyalty was .43. The correlation between perceived employer support and perceived union support was .37. These positive correlations are supported by previous theory, and are unlikely to be entirely due to common method bias. Additionally, in a 2007 data collection union loyalty and employer loyalty were assessed using the same scales as in the present (2010) data. The 2007 data was collected from the same local union and has similar

sample demographics (see the sample section above for a discussion of the demographics of the two samples). The correlation between the two loyalty constructs in 2007 was .35.

While these results cannot entirely eliminate common method variance as an explanation, these relationships are theoretically supported, yet are not as high as .91. As discussed, the same scales were used to measure the constructs. If common method variance was causing all relationships to be highly inflated to the same extent as between authentic and transformational leadership, due to item similarity and using the same Likert scale, I would expect organizational support and loyalty to have stronger relationships.

Overall, these additional post-hoc analyses suggest that there are other potential explanations for the correlation of .91 between authentic and transformational leadership. As expected the correlations between perceptions of different constructs (between loyalty and support) within the same organization (.75 and .66 for the employer and union respectively) were stronger than the correlations between the same constructs within different organizations (.43 for employer and union loyalty and .37 for employer and union support). Potential theoretical explanations are further discussed in the discussion section.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

This study sought to fill a gap in the literature by incorporating additional work context variables as predictors of employee engagement. Specifically, the leadership styles of contingent reward, transformational, and authentic leadership were examined. Additionally, there has been little research that has examined authentic leadership in conjunction with other forms of leadership.

One unexpected finding in this study was the high correlation between transformational and authentic leadership. While previous literature found correlations between .5 and .6 for transformational and authentic leadership see (Walumbwa et al. 2008) a correlation of .91 was not expected. There are a few potential explanations for these results. One explanation is that the correlation of .91 suggests that authentic leadership and transformational leadership are virtually identical leadership constructs. However, before reaching that conclusion I think there are a few other factors that should be considered.

Another potential explanation is that a global measure of transformational leadership was used in this study (see Carless et al. 2000), potentially relating to different results. In addition, both forms of leadership were rated by the follower, which could raise the question of whether common method variance artificially inflated the relationship between authentic and transformational leadership. Yet, while this may have increased the relationship between authentic and transformational leadership examination of additional measures in the data suggest bias or measurement error does not entirely account for the high correlation.

Previous research has suggested transformational leaders should be authentic (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999); however, there may be another explanation for the relationship between authentic and transformational leadership. Since Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) talked about

authentic transformational leadership, the concept of authentic leadership has developed and evolved. Authentic leadership has been proposed as a "root" construct that underlies other forms of leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio et al., 2004; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Authentic leadership is considered more general than transformational leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Building on the viewpoint that authentic leadership is a root construct, it may function as an antecedent of transformational leadership. Perhaps in order for a leader to be viewed as transformational, followers must first perceive the leader as authentic. Followers may not identify a leader as transformational unless they first perceive a leader as someone that is honest, willing to process multiple pieces of information, and interested in the development of the followers. This explanation still views authentic and transformational leadership as two different constructs, as leaders can still be authentic without being transformational, but sets authentic leadership as a necessary condition of transformational leadership. Future research should further examine the relationship between authentic and transformational leadership.

Another potential theoretical explanation for the relationship between authentic and transformational leadership lies in the sample used in this study, compared to other research that has examined both authentic and transformational leadership. At present I am only aware of four other studies that have examined both authentic and transformational leadership (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011; Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke, 2011).

In the developmental paper on the authentic leadership questionnaire Walumbwa et al. (2008) conducted a study examining if authentic leadership predicted organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational commitment, and satisfaction with the supervisor beyond

transformational leadership. The sample in the study consisted of 236 adult and evening students with full time jobs at a large university in the Southwestern United States. In this study they found correlations ranging from .42 to .59 (average .52) between the four dimensions of the authentic leadership questionnaire and transformational leadership as measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire. They found that the higher order authentic leadership latent variable predicted the three organizational outcomes beyond the higher order transformational leadership latent variable. To support the incremental validity of authentic leadership to the outcomes beyond transformational leadership Walumbwa et al. (2008) found that when the path from transformational leadership to the three outcomes was fixed to zero the model fit was not significantly reduced. However, when the path from authentic leadership to the three outcomes was fixed to zero, the model fit was reduced.

In another study examining the effects of authentic leadership on group outcomes Walumbwa et al. (2011) looked at 146 work groups of a large bank located in the Southwestern United States. There were 526 employees and 146 supervisors in the sample. The employees were engaged in administrative and clerical duties. The correlation reported between the authentic leadership questionnaire and the transformational leadership measure in the multifactor leadership questionnaire was .49. The results suggested that even when transformational leadership was controlled for the relationship between authentic leadership and group level outcomes (group level performance and citizenship behaviors) was mediated by collective psychological capital and trust. Thus, authentic leadership was found to predict outcomes beyond transformational leadership.

In a third empirical study (Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010) a slightly different approach to examining authenticity and transformational leadership was taken. The researchers in this study

focused on leader authenticity as opposed to authentic leadership specifically. Subordinates rated their leaders on the leader's authenticity and transformational leadership for 91 middle-managers (enrolled at a large Midwestern University in the United States). Aggregate subordinate ratings for each leader were used in the analyses examining the hypotheses. The results suggested that a composite score of leader authenticity predicted the three dimensions of transformational leadership examined in the study ($r = .21$, $.29$, and $.22$ for individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence respectively). They did not examine the intellectual stimulation dimension of transformational leadership as they suggest, unlike the other three dimensions of transformational leadership, it does not "reflect transformational leaders' capacity to establish enduring and empowering relationships with their followers" (p. 314). They also specifically examined the relational orientation dimension of authenticity, because it focuses on the relationships between people, while the other three dimensions (unbiased processing, self-awareness, and authentic behavior) are self-directed (Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010). Thus, they were interested in a subdimension of authenticity, rather than just a composite measure of authenticity.

Spitzmuller and Ilies (2010) also provided a theoretical argument that the relational authenticity of the leader would have the strongest correlation with individualized consideration as it is the "authentic character of leaders which results into warm, socially charismatic leaders" (p. 318). The results suggest relational authenticity had significant relationships with the three transformational leadership dimensions examined ($r = .31$, $.26$, and $.30$ for individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence respectively); however, the strength of the three correlations were not significantly different. The authors concluded that although their study suggests a causal link between leader authenticity and transformational leadership, additional empirical research should be conducted to further examine the presence of

a causal link. The theoretical approach and the empirical results of this study suggest authenticity may be an antecedent to authentic leadership, but more research needs to be conducted.

In the most recent empirical study I am aware of incorporating both authentic and transformational leadership the researchers examined authentic leadership with a newly developed measure of authentic leadership (the Authentic Leadership Inventory; Neider & Schriesheim, 2011) and the Podsakoff et al. (1990) measure of transformational leadership. They used a sample of freshman, juniors, and seniors taking management courses. In their developmental paper they did not support treating authentic or transformational leadership as global constructs with the measures they used. In their confirmatory factor analyses they found the strongest support for model fit for separate factors for the subdimensions of authentic and transformational leadership than the models where the first order factors were loaded onto a higher order factor for authentic and transformational leadership respectively. The results also suggested that the relationships among the first order leadership constructs may differ depending on the leader that is described. They concluded that future research should examine the subdimensions of authentic leadership and transformational leadership beyond just a composite measure.

The limited empirical research that has examined both transformational and authentic leadership suggests future research should further examine the relationships between the two constructs. Overall the roles that authenticity and authentic leadership have in relation to transformational leadership are still unclear. Thus far, different measurement of the authentic and transformational leadership constructs have yielded different results on the usefulness of the constructs as global measures, or if the subdimensions should be considered.

The results provide additional support that as Kahn (1990) suggested both psychological meaningfulness (represented by value congruence) and psychological availability (as represented by core self-evaluations) are important antecedents of engagement. However, an unexpected finding was that psychological safety (as represented by perceived organizational support) and the leadership variables were unrelated to job engagement. One potential explanation why psychological safety may not have been as important in this setting is that the jobs examined in this study did not require complex thinking or problem solving skills. Thus, psychological safety may not have been as relevant, since employees did not need to take risks or present novel ideas and solutions to complex problems.

Another potential explanation for the lack of significant relationship between perceived organizational support and job engagement has to do with the definition of perceived organizational support in the survey. The questions were worded in a way that participants were asked to indicate how much support they felt they received from the organization; however, no further specific definition was provided. Participants may have used different reference points when thinking about "perceived organizational support". Some participants may have thought about their immediate supervisor while others may have thought about other areas of support such as the general store manager or organizational policies as described in their contract. Different assumptions about the definition of perceived organizational support by the participants may have related to the non-significant relationship between POS and job engagement.

While at first this may seem to suggest that leadership variables are unrelated to employee engagement, I think this should be considered within the context of the sample and type of organization included in this study. An alternative explanation for the lack of a

relationship between leadership variables and employee engagement could exist within the context of the unionized sample used in the study. Unions exist to protect worker rights within an organization. Some researchers have argued that seniority can be seen as a fair system for allocating rewards and for employees to receive preferences (Rusbult, Insko, & Yuan-Huei, 1995; van Dijke, de Dremer, & Schefferlie, 2009), and is often a system used in unionized work settings. Although not hypothesized as a predictor variable (and analyses found no significant correlation between employees' level of seniority and any of the variables examined in this study) this could potentially affect the relationship between the leadership variables and employees' engagement in the workplace. Formal grievance procedures exist within a unionized workplace that may not exist in other work settings. This could provide unionized employees with an additional method of responding to aspects of the work environment they dislike. From a job resources perspective they may have an additional resource not available in other workplaces. They may view their relationship with the organization (e.g., as measured with value congruence with the organization in this study) as more important than their specific supervisors, as they know they are protected by the union and have a grievance procedure for specific problems that may occur, including problems with the supervisor. Negotiations between the union and the organization also occur at the organizational level, rather than the individual supervisory level, this may also explain why employees view value congruence with the organization as more important than the behaviors of their individual supervisor. The exchange between employer and employee may hold more relevance in a unionized setting. This could help explain the lack of relationship of leadership at the supervisory level to employee engagement. Future research should examine leadership at different levels of analysis.

The work context variables discussed above could have influenced the relationship between the leadership variables either eliminating or decreasing their relationship with job engagement. Examination of the correlations between the leadership constructs and job engagement at the bivariate level provides some support that there is a relationship between these leadership constructs and engagement, even though the regression coefficients were not significant in multiple regression analyses. Thus, the data suggest that the leadership variables do account for explained variance at the bivariate level, but not above and beyond value congruence and core self-evaluations in a multiple regression model.

Employee engagement was positively related to extra role behaviors and negatively related to work withdrawal behaviors. This suggests that as employees are more motivated and engaged in the workplace they are more willing to help out coworkers and go above and beyond their assigned duties. Thus engagement may be an important variable when having people work together and creating a better overall environment. In retail settings this also suggests employees may be more willing to go out of their way to help customers, who are an important part of the industry. Future research should examine employee engagement in relation to employee willingness to help customers. These results also suggest that employees are less likely to withdraw from work which can help save companies large amounts of money from lost work time.

Future research should also further explore the relationships between the job engagement subdimensions and outcomes. When the subdimensions of job engagement were examined physical engagement was the only form of job engagement that predicted both work withdrawal and organizational spontaneity. As physical engagement is addressing the physical energy input into a work role, physical engagement could potentially be an antecedent for emotional and

cognitive engagement (Kahn, 1990). If there is a lack of physical energy an individual may lack the energy required for cognitive and emotional engagement that they may otherwise possess; if they were not tired or drained of energy. Further research should consider how the subdimensions of job engagement relate to each other and if they differentially impact outcomes.

One of the limitations of this study is that only self-report data was available from the union. Future research studies would benefit from incorporating performance measures from supervisors, peers, or other external sources. Additionally, while employee perceptions of leadership styles is one method of collecting leadership data, collecting data from both the leader and follower would provide an additional source of data collection.

An additional limitation is that the sample is from unionized employers. There are potentially differences between unionized and non-unionized organizations. For example unionized organizations frequently determine employee schedules based on seniority. Working during a time that an employee would prefer to not be working could potentially affect the motivation of the employee. Employees with increased seniority could thus potentially have higher job engagement levels due to receiving their preferred schedule.

Common method variance is an issue that has been discussed by many different researchers. One major limitation of trying to address common method variance from any of the proposed methods is that when using real data it is never possible to know the exact presence of CMV in the data. In addition, none of the proposed methods have been able to consistently accurately deal with the presence of CMV. Thus, the extent that CMV could bias the results in this study is not known.

Based on theory and previous empirical literature on transformational and authentic leadership a global measure of transformational leadership was used in this study, thus it is not

possible to examine how the subdimensions of transformational leadership and authentic leadership are related. Future research should consider how the subdimensions of transformational and authentic leadership might relate, how they may impact job engagement, and if there are certain subdimensions of job engagement that more likely to be related to leadership variables.

Summary

Employee engagement is related to employees' willingness to engage in both work withdrawal and extra-role behaviors. Employees with high levels of engagement are more likely to help others and go above and beyond their assigned roles. Employees withvrr lower levels of engagement are more likely to engage in behaviors such as work withdrawal that can hurt the company and may relate to a loss in revenue. Employee engagement appears to be an important construct related to higher quality performance from employees and a decrease in withdrawing from work roles. Future research should continue to examine engagement as beneficially predicting positive workplace outcomes, and negatively predicting detrimental workplace outcomes.

Antecedents of engagement and factors that cause employees to have high energy levels and investment in their work roles need to be further examined. Job type and work context may be important context variables that influence the constructs that relate to job engagement. Future research should consider the role these factors play in creating engaged employees. Additionally, a better understanding of the relationships between the engagement subdimensions could help identify how organizations can improve employee engagement. Overall, engagement is an important construct in positive work performance and should be further examined in future research.

Table 1

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	χ^2	DF	$\Delta \chi^{2a}$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Global Transformational Leadership (GTL)						
GTL	63.204 [***]	14		.980	.107	.017
Contingent Reward Behavior Scale (CRBS)						
CRBS (5 items)	17.243 [**]	5		.993	.067	.016
CRBS (4 items)	4.629	2		.999	.065	.004
Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)						
ALQ 1 Factor	476.122 [***]	104		.904	.110	.047
AL 4 Factor	331.508 [***]	98	285.386 [***]	.939	.090	.038
AL Higher Order	360.343 [***]	100	115.779 [***]	.932	.094	.042
Leadership Constructs						
ALQ, GTL, & CRBS (4 items) 1 factor	1856.379 [***]	324		.825	.128	.054
ALQ, GTL, & CRBS (4 items) 6 factor	875.077 [***]	309	981.302 [***]	.935	.080	.039
ALQ, GTL, & CRBS (4 items) Higher Order	1010.656 [***]	318	845.723 [***]	.928	.083	.043
Job Engagement (ENG)						
ENG 1 Factor	1599.390 [***]	135		.734	.186	.098
ENG 3 Factor	467.426 [***]	132	466.426 [***]	.939	.090	.043
ENG Higher Order	467.426 [***]	132	466.426 [***]	.939	.090	.043

Note. DF = degrees of freedom, CFI = comparative fit index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, and SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

[a] $\Delta \chi^2$ values are relative to the 1 factor model in each applicable set.

[*] $p < .05$ [**] $p < .01$ [***] $p < .001$

Table 2

Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Core Self-Evaluations	3.76	.57	.83															
2. Value Congruence	3.36	.83	.28	.74														
3. Perceived Organizational Support	3.02	.98	.26	.57	.91													
4. Transformational Leadership	2.06	1.31	.24	.35	.60	.97												
5. Contingent Reward Leadership	1.95	1.40	.17	.29	.55	.80	.97											
6. Authentic Leadership (Overall)	2.13	1.05	.22	.32	.57	.91	.77	.96										
7. Authentic Leadership (Relational Transparency)	2.22	1.07	.22	.29	.53	.81	.72	.92	.87									
8. Authentic Leadership (Moral/Ethical)	2.26	1.12	.19	.32	.52	.82	.69	.93	.82	.88								
9. Authentic Leadership (Balanced Processing)	2.04	1.11	.20	.29	.51	.83	.67	.91	.75	.82	.79							
10. Authentic Leadership (Self-Awareness)	1.95	1.27	.21	.31	.55	.90	.75	.94	.79	.82	.86	.92						
11. Engagement (Overall)	4.20	.63	.48	.33	.27	.24	.15	.21	.19	.20	.19	.22	.96					
12. Engagement (Cognitive)	4.25	.67	.44	.27	.17	.16	.10	.15	.14	.14	.13	.15	.91	.96				
13. Engagement (Emotional)	3.90	.82	.47	.38	.39	.34	.22	.31	.27	.27	.26	.32	.87	.67	.93			
14. Engagement (Physical)	4.44	.64	.33	.21	.12	.09	.04	.08	.08	.08	.08	.06	.86	.76	.56	.94		
15. Withdrawal	1.44	.52	-.28	-.11	-.11[a]	-.08	-.04	-.08	-.07	-.10	-.07	-.05	-.62	-.62	-.40	-.66	.79	
16. Organizational Spontaneity	3.96	.80	.31	.29	.18	.14	.12	.15	.14	.16	.14	.14	.52	.49	.41	.49	-.39	.80

Note. Correlations |.11| and above are significant at $p < .05$

Correlations |.14| and above are significant at $p < .01$

Coefficient alphas are represented on the diagonal.

[a] This correlation was rounded from .108 up to .11, but was not statistically significant.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 3

Coefficients of Predictors to Job Engagement

Variables	DV: Engagement *a* paths								
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Constant	1.91	.22		2.03	.24		2.04	.24	
CSE	.44	.06	.40***	.43	.06	.39***	.43	.06	.39***
VC	.14	.04	.19**	.14	.05	.18**	.14	.05	.18**
POS	.03	.04	.05	.03	.05	.06	.04	.05	.06
CRL	-.05	.04	-.11	-.11	.06	-.25	-.05	.04	-.12
TL	.05	.06	.10	.05	.06	.11	-.01	.08	-.03
AL	.02	.07	.04	-.03	.08	-.05	-.03	.08	-.05
CRLxAL	-	-	-	.03	.02	.21	-	-	-
TLxAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	.03	.02	.23
ΔF	20.45***			1.52			1.42		
R^2	.29			.29			.29		
Adj. R^2	.27			.27			.27		

Note. CSE = Core Self-Evaluations, VC = Value Congruence, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, CRL = Contingent Reward Leadership, TL = Transformational Leadership, AL = Authentic Leadership.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 4

Coefficients of Predictors and Job Engagement to Spontaneity

| | DV: Organizational Spontaneity | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Predictors to Spontaneity
c paths | | | | | | | | | Predictors and Engagement to Spontaneity
b paths (engagement to spontaneity controlling for covariates)
c' paths (predictor of interest to spontaneity controlling for covariates) | | | | | | | | |
Variables	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Constant	1.78	.30		1.81	.33		1.80	.34		.70	.31		.66	.34		.64	.34	
CSE	.36	.07	.26***	.36	.08	.26***	.06	.08	.26***	.11	.08	.08	.11	.08	.08	.11	.08	.08
VC	.23	.06	.23***	.22	.06	.23***	.22	.06	.23	.14	.06	.15*	.15	.06	.15*	.15	.06	.15*
POS	-.01	.06	-.02	-.01	.06	-.01	-.01	.06	-.02	-.03	.06	-.04	-.03	.06	-.04	-.03	.06	-.04
CRL	.01	.05	.03	.00	.08	.00	.01	.05	.03	.04	.05	.08	.06	.08	.11	.04	.05	.08
TL	-.14	.09	-.24	-.14	.09	-.24	-.15	.11	-.25	-.17	.08	-.28*	-.17	.08	-.28*	-.15	.10	-.24
AL	.18	.10	.24	.17	.11	.23	.18	.12	.23	.17	.09	.23	.19	.10	.25	.19	.11	.26
Eng.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.57	.07	.45***	.57	.07	.45***	.57	.07	.45***
CRLxAL	-	-	-	.01	.03	.05	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.01	.03	-.05	-	-	-
TLxAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	.00	.03	.03	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.01	.03	-.08
ΔF	9.75***			.06			.02			18.93***			.09			.16		
R^2	.16			.16			.16			.30			.30			.30		
Adj. R^2	.14			.14			.14			.29			.28			.28		

Note. CSE = Core Self Evaluations, VC = Value Congruence, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, CRL = Contingent Reward Leadership, TL = Transformational Leadership, AL = Authentic Leadership.

$^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ $^{***}p < .001$

Table 5

Indirect Main Effects of Predictor on Spontaneity through Job Engagement (ab paths)

Predictor	Point Estimate for Engagement as a Mediator	Percentile 95% CI		BC 95% CI		BCa 95% CI	
CSE	.25	.16	.37	.16	.36	.15	.36
VC	.08	.00	.18	-.01	.17	-.02	.16
POS	.02	-.05	.07	-.04	.08	-.04	.08
AL	.01	-.07	.09	-.07	.09	-.07	.09
TL	.03	-.04	.10	-.04	.10	-.04	.10
CRL	-.03	-.07	.00	-.07	.01	-.07	.01

Note. CSE = Core Self Evaluations, VC = Value Congruence, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, CRL = Contingent Reward Leadership, TL = Transformational Leadership, AL = Authentic Leadership, BC=bias corrected, BCa=bias corrected and accelerated. Normal theory (Sobel tests) and a formal *p*-value is not available for models containing covariates. Confidence intervals that do not include zero support the presence of an indirect effect. *S*eparate analyses were conducted for each indirect effect. It was not possible to obtain combined indirect effects, thus each indirect effect was tested separately. However, the other predictor variables were included as covariates in each model.
$^* p < .05$ $^{**} p < .01$ $^{***} p < .001$

Table 6

Coefficients of Predictors and Job Engagement to Withdrawal

Variables	Predictors to Withdrawal c paths									Predictors and Engagement to Withdrawal b paths (engagement to withdrawal controlling for covariates) c' paths (predictor of interest to withdrawal controlling for covariates)								
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Constant	2.45	.21		2.41	.23		2.41	.03		3.49	.19		3.52	.21		3.52	.21	
CSE	-.24	.05	-.26*	-.23	.05	-.26***	-.23	.05	-.26***	.01	.05	.01	.00	.05	.00	.00	.05	.00
VC	-.02	.04	-.03	-.02	.04	-.03	-.02	.04	-.03	.06	.04	.10	.06	.04	.09	.06	.04	.09
POS	-.03	.04	-.05	-.03	.04	-.05	-.03	.04	-.05	.00	.03	-.01	.00	.04	-.01	.00	.04	-.01
CRL	.02	.04	.06	.04	.06	.12	.02	.04	.06	-.01	.03	-.02	-.02	.05	-.06	-.01	.03	-.02
TL	.01	.06	.02	.01	.06	.01	.03	.08	.07	.03	.05	.07	.03	.05	.08	.02	.06	.04
AL	-.03	.07	-.05	-.01	.08	-.02	-.01	.08	-.01	-.01	.05	-.02	-.02	.06	-.04	-.02	.06	-.04
Eng.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.55	.04	-.66***	-.55	.04	-.66***	-.55	.04	-.66***
CRLxAL	-	-	-	-.01	.02	-.09	-	-	-	-	-	-	.01	.02	.06	-	-	-
TLxAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.01	.02	-.10	-	-	-	-	-	-	.01	.02	.06
ΔF	4.50***			.21			.21			27.72***			.12			.11		
R²	.08			.08			.08			.39			.39			.38		
Adj. R²	.06			.06			.06			.38			.37			.37		

Note. CSE = Core Self Evaluations, VC = Value Congruence, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, CRL = Contingent Reward Leadership, TL = Transformational Leadership, AL = Authentic Leadership.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 7

Indirect Main Effects of Predictor on Withdrawal through Job Engagement (ab paths)

Predictor	Point Estimate for Engagement as a Mediator	Percentile 95% CI		BC 95% CI		BCa 95% CI	
CSE	-.24	-.33	-.16	-.34	-.17	-.36	-.17
VC*	-.08	-.13	.00	-.13	.00	-.13	.00
POS	-.02	-.09	.03	-.10	.03	-.11	.02
AL	-.02	-.10	.05	-.10	.05	-.10	.05
TL	-.02	-.10	.04	-.10	.04	-.10	.04
CRL	.03	.00	.07	.00	.07	.00	.07

Note. CSE = Core Self Evaluations, VC = Value Congruence, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, CRL = Contingent Reward Leadership, TL = Transformational Leadership, AL = Authentic Leadership, BC=bias corrected, BCa=bias corrected and accelerated, CI = Confidence Interval. Normal theory (Sobel tests) and a formal *p*-value is not available for models containing covariates. Confidence intervals that do not include zero support the presence of an indirect effect. *S*eparate analyses were conducted for each indirect effect. It was not possible to obtain combined indirect effects, thus each indirect effect was tested separately. However, the other predictor variables were included as covariates in each model.

*With a 99% CI for the bootstrap procedure the value congruence CIs for Percentile, BC, and BCa all include zero. With a 90% CI for the bootstrap procedure (a one tailed test) none of the confidence intervals include zero.

Table 8

Conditional Indirect Effects at Authentic leadership = mean and $\pm$ 1 SD on Spontaneity through Job Engagement

Predictor	Value of AL	Indirect Effect	SE	P	Percentile 95% CI		BC 95% CI		BCa 95% CI	
Authentic Leadership x Transformational Leadership										
1 SD below mean	1.07	.01	.04	.780	-.07	.09	-.06	.09	-.06	.09
At mean	2.12	.03	.04	.428	-.03	.10	-.03	.10	-.03	.10
1 SD above mean	3.17	.05	.04	.240	-.02	.14	-.02	.13	-.03	.13
Authentic Leadership x Contingent Reward Leadership										
1 SD below mean	1.07	-.05	.03	.077	-.11	.00	-.11	.00	-.10	.00
At mean	2.12	-.03	.02	.149	-.07	.01	-.07	.01	-.07	.01
1 SD above mean	3.17	-.02	.02	.533	-.06	.03	-.06	.03	-.06	.03

Note. AL = Authentic Leadership, SE = Standard Error, P = Significance, CI = Confidence Interval, BC=Bias Corrected, BCa=Bias Corrected and Accelerated.

Table 9

Conditional Indirect Effects at Authentic leadership = mean and $\pm$ 1 SD on Withdrawal through Job Engagement

Predictor	Value of AL	Indirect Effect	SE	P	Percentile 95% CI		BC 95% CI		BCa 95% CI	
Authentic Leadership x Transformational Leadership										
1 SD below mean	1.07	-.01	.04	.889	-.07	.06	-.08	.06	-.08	.06
At mean	2.12	-.03	.03	.500	-.08	.03	-.09	.03	-.09	.03
1 SD above mean	3.17	-.04	.04	.271	-.70	.03	-.11	.03	-.11	.03
Authentic Leadership x Contingent Reward Leadership										
1 SD below mean	1.07	.05	.03	.057	.00	.09	.00	.10	.01	.10
At mean	2.12	.03	.02	.117	.00	.07	.00	.07	.00	.07
1 SD above mean	3.17	.02	.02	.489	-.02	.06	-.02	.06	-.02	.06

Note. AL = Authentic Leadership, BC=bias corrected, BCa=bias corrected and accelerated. 5,000 bootstrap samples.

Table 10

Coefficients of Leadership Variables to Covariates

Variables	Core Self Evaluations			Value Congruence			Perceived Organizational Support		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Constant	3.51	.08		2.85	.11		1.96	.11	
Contingent Reward Leadership	-.03	.04	-.08	.00	.05	.00	.13	.05	.19[*]
Transformational Leadership	.13	.07	.29[t]	.21	.09	.34[*]	.25	.09	.33[**]
Authentic Leadership (Transparency)	.06	.06	.12	.00	.08	.00	.08	.08	.09
Authentic Leadership (Moral/Ethical)	-.02	.06	-.04	.09	.09	.13	.05	.08	.05
Authentic Leadership (Balanced Processing)	.01	.06	.01	-.07	.09	-.09	-.01	.09	-.01
Authentic Leadership (Self-Awareness)	-.03	.07	-.06	.00	.09	.00	.01	.09	.01
F	3.51[**]			8.04[***]			31.20[***]		
R^2	.07			.14			.38		
Adj. R^2	.05			.12			.37		

Note. [*] $p < .05$ [**] $p < .01$ [***] $p < .001$

Table 11

Coefficients of Predictors to Job Engagement Subdimensions

	Engagement:											
	Overall			Emotional			Physical			Cognitive		
Variables	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Constant	1.94	.22		.91	.28		2.88	.25		2.02	.25	
Core Self Evaluations	.45	.06	.41***	.53	.07	.37***	.33	.06	.30***	.48	.06	.41***
Value Congruence	.14	.05	.18**	.16	.06	.16**	.11	.05	.14*	.14	.05	.17**
Perceived Organizational Support	.03	.05	.05	.14	.06	.17*	-.02	.05	-.03	-.03	.05	-.04
Contingent Reward Leadership	-.06	.04	-.13	-.10	.05	-.18*	-.04	.04	-.07	-.03	.04	-.07
Transformational Leadership	.05	.07	.10	.11	.08	.18	.02	.08	.04	.01	.07	.02
Authentic Leadership (Transparency)	.00	.06	-.01	-.03	.07	-.04	.04	.06	.06	.00	.06	.00
Authentic Leadership (Moral/Ethical)	-.04	.06	-.07	-.02	.07	-.02	-.01	.07	-.02	.02	.07	.02
Authentic Leadership (Balanced Processing)	-.04	.06	-.07	-.08	.07	-.11	.01	.07	.01	-.04	.07	-.07
Authentic Leadership (Self-Awareness)	.07	.06	.14	.14	.08	.23^t	-.02	.07	-.03	.07	.07	.12
F	13.63***			17.95***			4.73***			10.25***		
R^2	.29			.35			.12			.24		
Adj. R^2	.27			.33			.09			.21		

Note. CSE = Core Self-Evaluations, VC = Value Congruence, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, CRL = Contingent Reward Leadership, TL = Transformational Leadership, AL = Authentic Leadership,
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 12

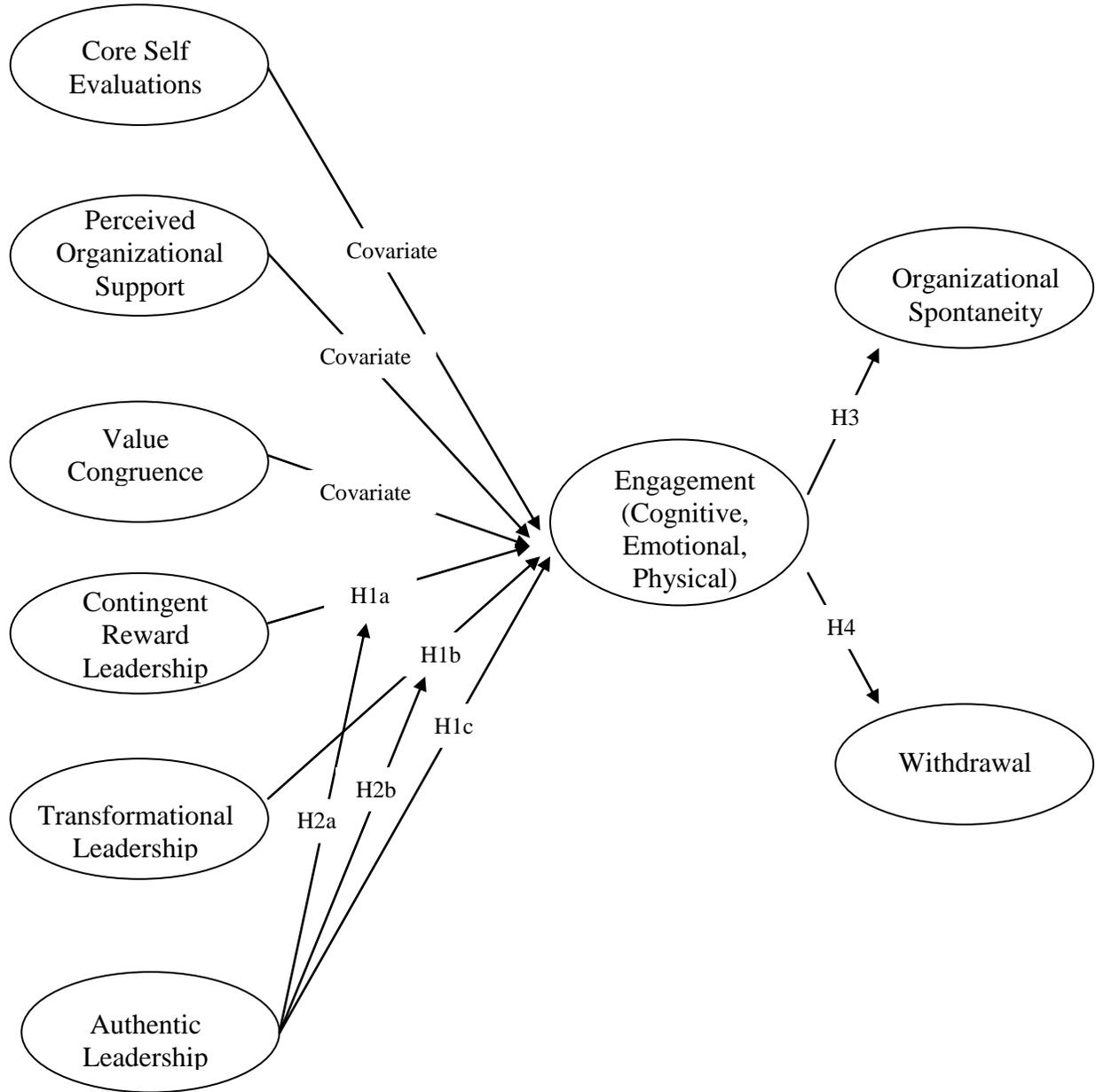Coefficients of Predictors and Job Engagement to Withdrawal and Spontaneity

Variables	Withdrawal									Spontaneity								
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Constant	2.48	.21		3.92	.15		3.94	.19		1.75	.31		.99	.27		.37	.34	
CSE	-.24	.05	-.27***	-	-	-	-.03	.05	-.04	.37	.08	.27***	-	-	-	.15	.08	.10^t
VC	-.01	.04	-.02	-	-	-	.06	.03	.08^t	.23	.06	.24***	-	-	-	.16	.06	.17**
POS	-.02	.04	-.04	-	-	-	-.04	.03	-.07	-.02	.06	-.02	-	-	-	-.01	.06	-.01
CRL	.02	.04	.04	-	-	-	.00	.03	.00	.02	.05	.03	-	-	-	.04	.05	.07
TL	-.03	.06	-.07	-	-	-	-.03	.05	-.07	-.15	.09	-.24	-	-	-	-.16	.08	-.27^t
AL Trans.	.02	.05	.03	-	-	-	.03	.04	.06	.05	.08	.07	-	-	-	.04	.07	.05
AL M/E	-.08	.06	-.17	-	-	-	-.08	.04	-.16^t	.01	.08	.01	-	-	-	.01	.07	.02***
AL BP	.00	.06	-.01	-	-	-	-.01	.04	-.02	.04	.08	.06	-	-	-	.05	.07	.07
AL SA	.07	.06	.18	-	-	-	.08	.05	.19^t	.07	.09	.12	-	-	-	.06	.08	.09
Eng. Phy.	-	-	-	-.37	.05	-.45***	-.37	.05	-.46***	-	-	-	.34	.09	.27***	.34	.09	.27***
Eng. Cog.	-	-	-	-.24	.06	-.31***	-.23	.06	-.30***	-	-	-	.22	.10	.19*	.18	.10	.15^t
Eng. Em.	-	-	-	.04	.04	.06	.05	.04	.07	-	-	-	.13	.06	.13*	.06	.07	.06
F	3.40**			90.81***			22.35***			6.60***			40.98***			11.54		
R^2	.09			.46			.48			.17			.28			.32		
Adj. R^2	.07			.46			.45			.14			.27			.29		

Note. CSE = Core Self Evaluations, VC = Value Congruence, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, CRL = Contingent Reward Leadership, TL = Transformational Leadership, AL = Authentic Leadership, Trans. = Transparency component, M/E = Moral/Ethical component, BP = Balanced Processing, SA = Self-Awareness. Eng. = Engagement, Phy. = Physical, Cog. = Cognitive, EM. = Emotional.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

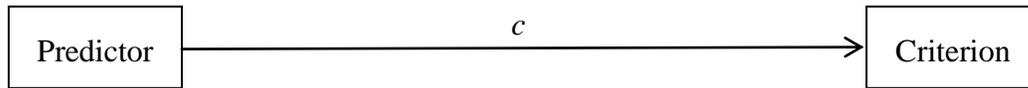Figure 1

Hypothesized Relationships

Note. The word "covariate" is used to identify a link that was included based on previous research, but is not a hypothesis in this study.
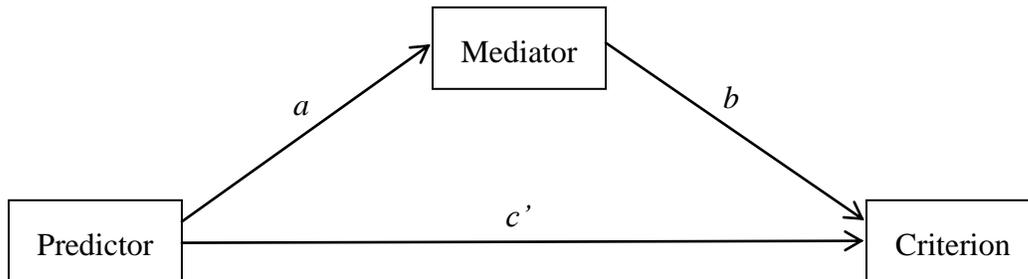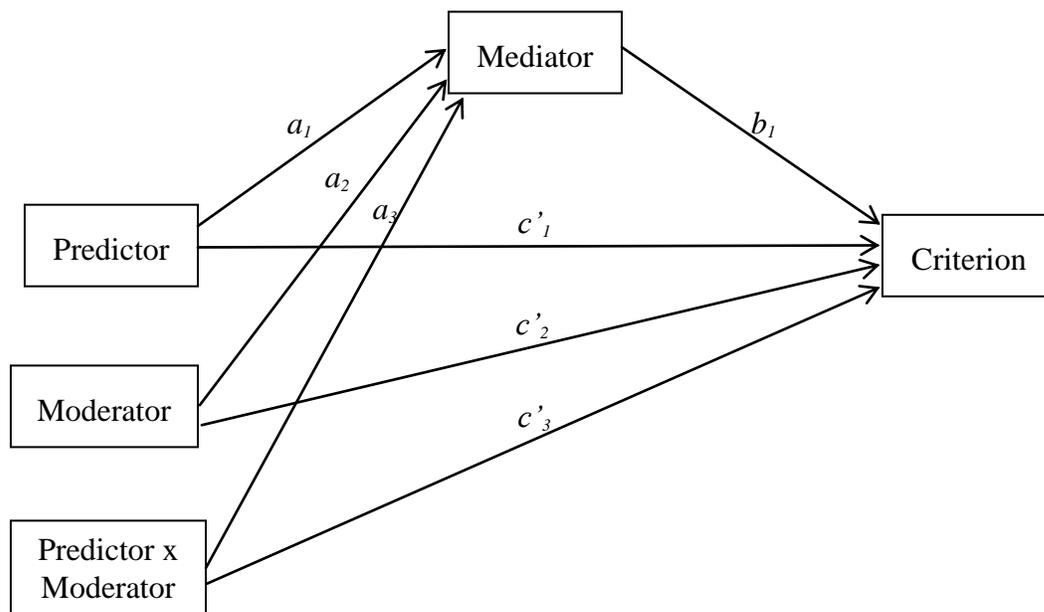
Figure 2

Mediation and Moderation

A.

B.

C.

The first diagram (A) portrays the direct effect of the predictor variable on the criterion. The second diagram (B) portrays the indirect effect of the predictor on the Criterion through the mediator. The third diagram (C) portrays indirect effects through multiple mediators. Diagrams (A) and (B) were adapted from Preacher and Hayes (2008). Diagram (C) was adapted from Preacher et al. (2007).

APPENDIX A: SCALES AND ITEMS

Organizational Spontaneity

Organizational Spontaneity	1. I make helpful suggestions to improve the overall performance of my department.
Organizational Spontaneity	2. I continually look for new ways to improve the effectiveness of my work.
Organizational Spontaneity	3. I help coworkers who have been absent after they return.

Note. I previously discussed this scale with the union leaders and the following item "Assist supervisor with his or her work" was excluded from the survey scale. Based on their contract this item does not make sense. They are not allowed to do jobs that are not their own. The above three items were adapted from a scale in Eisenberger et al. (2001). Eisenberger et al. (2001) originally obtained the items in their scale from Williams and Anderson (1991, p. 606; item 1), Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994, p. 781; item 2), and McNeely and Meglino (1994, p. 840; item 3).

Withdrawal Behaviors

Dimension	Items
Withdrawal	1. I return to my workstation promptly after I take breaks. (r)
Withdrawal	2. I begin work on time.* (r)
Withdrawal	3. My attendance at work is above the norm. (r)
Withdrawal	4. I give advance notice when I can't come to work. (r)[a]

Note. The above four items were adapted from a scale in Eisenberger et al. (2001). Eisenberger et al. (2001) originally obtained the items in their scale from Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994, p. 781; items 1 and 4); Williams and Anderson (1991, p. 606; item 2), and Smith, Organ, and Near (1983, p. 657; item 3).
[a] Item 4 was modified from "I give advance notice when unable to come to work". This shortened the item and allowed all the items to fit in the survey.

Length of Supervisor

1. How long have you had your immediate supervisor?
O 1 month or less   O 2 to 3 months   O 4 to 5 months   O More than 6 months

APPENDIX B: PERMISSION TO USE THE AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

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To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

Authors: Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa

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The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

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ABSTRACT

ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF WORKPLACE ENGAGEMENT

by

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Major: Psychology (Industrial/Organizational)

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There has been a recent interest in positive organizational scholarship. Leadership stemming from a positive framework and employee engagement in the workplace have become of increasing interest to researchers and practitioners. Antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement were examined using a sample of 327 employees from retail organizations in the Midwest United States. The leadership styles of authentic, transformational, and transactional leadership were examined as antecedents of employee job engagement, beyond employees' psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Engagement was examined as a mediator between the leadership constructs and employees' extra-role behaviors and work withdrawal behaviors. The results suggest employee job engagement is positively related to employee extra-role behaviors and negatively related to employees work withdrawal behaviors. Contrary to hypotheses the leadership variables were not significant predictors of employee engagement.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Ariel Lelchook is originally from Acton, Massachusetts. She attended The George Washington University and graduated from there with a bachelor's degree, majoring in Psychology. After graduation she lived and worked for a year in Washington D.C. before starting her graduate studies in Industrial/Organizational Psychology at Wayne State University.

Ariel's research interests include leadership behaviors and styles and factors that contribute to effective leadership. She is also interested in work that focuses on employees' engagement and commitment to the workplace. As a second research are she has looked at employee work attendance and participation in organizations where shift work and nonstandard work hours are required.