

**THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLE ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT
WITHIN AN ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT OF CHANGE:
A CORRELATIONAL STUDY**

by

Angela R. Johnson

JOHN A. MACHNIC, PhD, Faculty Mentor and Chair

CHARLOTTE CHASE, PhD, Committee Member

MARGARET EGGLESTON, PhD, Committee Member

Barbara Butts Williams, PhD, Dean, School of Business and Technology

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Capella University

June 2015

ProQuest Number: 3718636

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 3718636

Published by ProQuest LLC (2015). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346

© Angela R Johnson, 2015

Abstract

Organizations realize employee engagement is essential to being successful during a period of organizational change. Supervisory leadership styles have an impact on employee engagement. The literature review provides various perspectives on organizational change models, leadership, leadership styles and employee engagement. The MLQ 5X Leadership and UWES-17 engagement instruments were used to test the correlation of the supervisor's leadership style and employee engagement. The results established that there is a significant correlation between leadership style and employee engagement. There is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transactional and/or transformational leadership style. Conversely, there is significant negative correlation in employee engagement with the laissez-faire leadership style. Supervisors must strike a balance with the various leadership styles to ensure employees are engaged to make the necessary changes required for organizations to succeed with change initiatives.

.

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to the ultimate example of an engaging leader – Jesus the Christ. This dissertation was a labor of love and testament of my faith in God to see me through. I pray my witness in the completion of this work will elevate God, edify and empower others to stretch beyond what they can see for themselves.

However, as it is written: “What no eye has seen, what no ear has heard, and what no human mind has conceived” – the things God has prepared for those who love him –

1 Corinthians 2: 9 (NIV)

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank God for giving me the vision to pursue and complete this doctoral journey. I thank my parents Joe and Clemmie Johnson, who instilled in me at a young age the importance of an education and hard work. Thank you for your prayers and encouragement. I thank my brother Rev. Keith Johnson for his prayers, encouragement and understanding when I could not serve in the music ministry on a regular basis. To my prayer partner Sister Johanna Evans – thank you for praying with and for me weekly and at a moment’s notice when I sent a text of despair. God bless you my sister for your faith in God and me. To Mr. Walter, my special friend and biggest supporter and encourager - thank you for your patience and understanding over the years as I diligently worked to complete this project. I will never be able to repay you for all you have done for me. To my extended family and church family thank you all for your prayers and encouragement. I love you all for supporting and believing in me.

I would like to thank my mentor Dr. John Machnic, for his guidance throughout the last two years of this process and seeing me through to the end. I would also like to thank Dr. Charlotte Chase and Dr. Margaret Eggleston for serving on my dissertation committee.

I thank my God every time I remember you.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments	iv
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	1
Introduction to the Problem	1
Background of the Study	4
Statement of the Problem	5
Purpose of the Study	6
Rationale	7
Research Questions	8
Significance of the Study	9
Definition of Terms	10
Assumptions and Limitations	11
Nature of the Study	13
Organization of the Remainder of the Study	13
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW	14
Title searches, Articles, Research Documents, and Journals	15
Organizational Change, Leadership, Employee Engagement & Change Initiatives	15
Organizational Change	16
Leadership	21
Employee Engagement	33

Change Initiatives and Continuous Improvement	35
Summary of Literature Review	36
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY	37
Research Design	38
Sample	39
Instrumentation/Measures	40
Data Collection	42
Treatment/Intervention	43
Data Analysis	43
Validity and Reliability	44
Ethical Considerations	45
CHAPTER 4. RESULTS	48
Description of the Population and Sample	49
Descriptive Statistics	49
Summary of Results	52
Hypotheses Test within Sample Respondents that Rated Their Bosses	53
Hypotheses Test within Sample Respondents that Rated Their Peers	55
Hypotheses Test within Sample Respondents that Rated Their Subordinates	58
CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS	61
Implications of the Study	66
Limitations	68
Recommendations for Further Study	68
Conclusions	69

REFERENCES	71
APPENDIX A. Statement of Original Work	79
APPENDIX B. Histogram Figures	81

List of Tables

Table 1. Summary of Literature Review	15
Table 2. Cronbach's Alpha for the Study Measures	45
Table 3. Frequencies and Percentage for Demographic Variables	51
Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations for the Study Variables	52
Table 5. Pearson Correlations between Transactional Leadership and Work Engagement for Boss	54
Table 6. Pearson Correlations between Transactional Leadership and Work Engagement for Peer	56
Table 7. Pearson Correlations between Transactional Leadership and Work Engagement for Subordinates	59

List of Figures

Figure B-1. Histogram for Work Engagement	81
Figure B-2. Histogram for Work Engagement - Vigor	82
Figure B-3. Histogram for Work Engagement – Dedication	82
Figure B-4. Histogram for Work Engagement – Absorption	83
Figure B-5. Histogram for Transformational Leadership	83
Figure B-6. Histogram for Transactional Leadership	84
Figure B-7. Histogram for Passive-Avoidant Leadership	84

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

The effect leadership style has on employee engagement and sustaining change within an organization is not clearly understood. During the economic downturn which began in 2008, organizational leaders were seeking to reduce costs through change initiatives. The basis of the primary research question is derived from Deming's observation that top management does not recognize their responsibility for change initiatives (Deming, 1994), as well as the recommendations of further studies from Cameron-Strother (2009), Marquard (2010) and Stroud (2009).

Cameron-Strother (2009) researched the relationship between employee engagement, leadership and team dynamics within a lean infrastructure and recommended further study on leader and worker roles in lean environments. Cameron-Strother states "leadership provides the impetus and direction for continuous improvement to become infused in organizational culture" (2009, p. 187). Marquard (2010) researched the impact of leadership behavior on employee engagement and recommended that additional research be conducted on the relationship between leadership competency ratings and employee engagement survey scores as well as employee engagement survey scores and quality performance measures.

Stroud (2009) suggested studying how employee engagement looks in an organization with various leadership styles such as visionary, coaching, , democratic,

pace-setting and commanding, as described by the 2002 writings of Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee. Leadership's ability to engage workers to provide their input and expertise in organizational change is crucial to sustainment. Combining the premises from both Deming's (1994) and Cameron-Strother's (2009) research concludes leadership style drives employee engagement and employee engagement facilitates change.

There are many research studies, theories, models and approaches on implementing organizational change. The common factor in these studies is leadership. Avolio and Bass (1993) indicated the best leaders exhibit transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. Transactional leadership specifies goals, and the rewards associated with obtaining those goals (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Whereas transformational leadership is described as being inspirational and motivating. Avolio and Bass' (1993) study also discusses the laissez faire leadership style. This leadership style is described as passive/avoidant and is the least potent of the three leadership styles. The conclusions derived from this study have provided a different perspective on the optimal leadership approach required by a supervisor to engage a worker in implementing and sustaining change within an organization.

Founders of quality management theories, such as Deming, state a leader plays an important role in the implementation of quality management programs (Laohavichien, Fredendall & Cantrell, 2009). The necessity for organizational change in the American workplace came after World War II. There was an increased demand for products from the United States because the rest of the world was in ruins (Deming, 1994). Organizations in the United States displayed difficulty in balancing producing large quantities in a quality manner. Deming (1994) attempted to answer the challenged, faced

by the United States, by showing them they needed to produce a better quality product to remain competitive in the market place. In addition to producing quality products Deming (1994) notes how management style also impacts the production of quality products.

Ford Motor Company started using the quality improvement process Six Sigma in the late 1990's and began realizing substantial savings in 2001 due to the elimination of waste ("Ford drives", 2005). Currently in the workplace, organizational leaders continue to utilize change management and change initiatives such as Six Sigma and Lean Six Sigma to reduce operational cost (Pulakanam, 2012). A continuous improvement initiative is a continual effort by all employees throughout the organization to improve a business process (Liker & Franz, 2011). Continuous improvement is a process that adheres to the Plan-Do-Check-Adjust (PDCA) cycle. The PDCA cycle was founded by Shewhart as a model for problem solving at Bell Laboratories in the United States (Liker & Franz, 2011). However, Deming made PDCA famous by teaching it to Toyota in Japan during the 1950's as a method to solve their quality issues with their vehicles (Liker & Franz, 2011). To start the PDCA cycle the leader needs to establish a vision or define excellence. The leader's definition of excellence is what starts the continuous improvement journey (Liker & Franz, 2011). In order for an organization to move in a different direction, the employees need to know what to improve toward. The vision is the *plan*. Everything the employee *does* should be moving the organization in the direction of the plan. Every so often, the organization must stop to *check* the activities the employees are working on to evaluate if the activities are moving the organization

toward the plan/vision. In the event the activities are not moving the organization toward the plan/vision, *adjustments* must be made to those activities.

Background of the Study

The change journey of XYZ Power (XYZP) is the inspiration for this study. Over the last eight years XYZP has been on a journey of change. The initial purpose of the journey was to respond to the declining economic conditions of the city and state the organization served. The organization's leader was committed to not laying off workers which would contribute to the existing dismal economic climate. The vision of the senior leader was to improve operational efficiency and provide the same or better level of service to the customers at the same cost. The plan the leader established was an excellent start in the change journey. Several continuous improvement initiatives were utilized to identify and implement cost saving measures for the organization. However, for continuous improvement efforts to be successful it was imperative for leadership to engage employees through obtaining input and buy-in from the people doing the work. After two years of training executive leaders, middle managers and supervisors in the deployment and utilization of continuous improvement tools and methodologies, the realization occurred to get the workers performing the work involved in the journey.

Leaders can provide the vision and direction as stated previously, but when it comes to implementing the vision, the workers performing the work must engage in the journey. The last eight years of XYZP's continuous improvement journey has been focused on training and involving the union workers and non-union employees who are not supervisors. This continuous improvement journey has been lengthy and arduous due

to the lack of understanding of how the supervisor's leadership style impacts the engagement of the workers performing the work.

The purpose of continuous improvement is to manage performance and change initiatives, such that products, services or processes are maintained and improved to match the leader's vision (Liker & Franz, 2001). Performance is managed through the PDCA cycle. Total quality management, on the other hand, is a process to monitor change initiatives using the PDCA cycle (Kemp, 2006). The relationship between leadership and effective quality management was recognized by quality guru Juran (Laohavichien, Fredendall & Cantrell, 2009). One of Juran's philosophies is that managers set the tone for employees to follow through their commitment of time and resources to quality, as well as serving on the organizations quality council (Wortman, 2001). Therefore, to facilitate change, leaders must establish the vision for employees to utilize and to motivate the employees to follow. The intention of this study is to provide an understanding of the relationship of a supervisor's leadership style to employee engagement in the workplace.

Statement of the Problem

It is not known how a supervisor's leadership style impacts an employee's engagement, specifically during organizational change. It is possible for a supervisor's leadership style to negatively impact an employee's willingness to participate in changes within an organization. The purpose of organizational change is to transform the organization to the leader's desired state (Ragsdell, 2000). In the event the leader's desired state does not match an employee's viewpoint, it is possible for the employee not

to engage in the organizational change. Employees tend to support actions which are consistent with their viewpoint (Pitsakis, Biniari, & Kuin, 2012). This makes implementing change challenging. Therefore, the supervisor's leadership style will need to resonate with the employee to positively engage them in the organizational change.

A study (Marquard, 2010) on leadership capability, employee engagement and business performance served as the motivation for this research. For the research in this study was consistent with the direction leaders were attempting within XYZP.

Marquard's (2010) study demonstrated the interconnected relationship leadership capability, employee engagement and business performance outcomes. Conversely, this study is focused on learning how a supervisor's leadership style impacts an employee's engagement.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the correlational study is to close the gap identified by Cameron-Strother (2009) and Marquard (2010) by studying the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style and employee engagement; as well as support Cameron-Strother's (2009) position that leaders provide direction for organizational cultural change. Cameron-Strother (2009) sampled 317 employees from two manufacturing organizations within two states. The sample included 19 line supervisors and 298 blue collar employees. Marquard's (2010) study only sampled engineering executives at one company. Unlike Cameron-Strother (2009) and Marquard's (2010) studies, this correlation study sampled multiple industries across the United States. This study also addressed the gap identified

by both Cameron-Strother (2009) and Marquard (2010) by including a diverse group of employees who have experienced change within the workplace. This study contributes to the body of knowledge by correlating a supervisor's leadership style and their possible effect on engaging their employees in change initiatives from a diverse sample. This study shows the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style and employee engagement.

Rationale

Researchers have identified characteristics, such as job autonomy; support from co-workers; and interaction with superiors in terms of performance feedback, coaching and training, which impact employee engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Xu (2011) conducted a study on how leaders achieved employee engagement. Xu recommended further study on the linkage between leadership, employee engagement and positive organizational performance. Stroud (2009), Marquard (2010) and Cameron-Strother (2009), who were mentioned previously, all indicated further study is needed on leadership behavior and employee engagement. Stroud (2009) recommended future study on leadership behaviors not presented in their study. Whereas, Marquard (2010) recommended a 360 assessment on leaders and employee engagement. Lastly, Cameron-Strother recommended for further study because "organizational leaders must devise methods to motivate and engage employees" so they are valuable to the organization (Cameron-Strother, 2009, p. 188). This study demonstrates the significance of the supervisor's leadership style on engaging employees. Utilizing a quantitative non-

experimental approach will provide flexibility and diversity in sampling to get various perspectives.

Research Question and Hypothesis Statements

The following research question and the corresponding hypothesis is the basis of this study on the correlation of a supervisor's leadership style and their employee's engagement.

Research Question: What is the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez faire), regardless of gender, and an employee's engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) in a changing work environment, when measured by MLQ 5X and the UWES instruments simultaneously (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003)?

Hypotheses

Ho: There is no correlation between leadership style and employee engagement.

Ha: There is a correlation between leadership style and employee engagement.

Ho1.1: There is no significant negative correlation in employee engagement with a transactional leadership style.

Ha1.1: There is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with transactional leadership style.

Ho1.2: There is no significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style.

Ha1.2: There is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style.

Ho1.3: There is no significant negative association in employee engagement with laissez faire leadership style.

Ho1.3: There is a significant negative association in employee engagement with laissez faire leadership style.

Significance of the Study

Through failed attempts to change an organization, prior studies revealed, leaders within the organizations realized employee engagement is essential to the success of organizational change. Research has shown less than 33% of change initiatives succeed (Gilley, Gilley & McMillan, 2009). Research has also shown, as stated previously, a leader's ability to set a vision and rally employees in execution of the vision is challenging. Several books such as *The Toyota Way to Continuous Improvement* (Liker & Franz, 2011); *The High Velocity Edge* (Spear, 2009) and articles such as Raising Engagement (Fox, 2010); Organizational change: Motivation, Communication, and Leadership Effectiveness (Gilley, Gilley & McMillan, 2009) have been written about change management, employee engagement, and leadership styles. However, there is little information regarding the correlation of a supervisor's leadership styles and their employee's engagement. This quantitative study will test the hypothesis that there is a correlation between employee engagement and leadership style. Determining the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style and an employee's engagement, during organizational change, would be beneficial in providing leaders with direction on potentially the best approach to engage employees.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided for the purpose of establishing contextual meaning for this research study:

Absorption – fully immersed in work such that time passes quickly (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Dedication – having a feeling of enthusiasm, inspiration, and pride while hard at work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Employee Engagement – empowering employees to make decisions (Furterer, 2011). This study will measure employee engagement with UWES-17 questionnaire.

Employee Engagement - a dependent variable and will be reviewed in terms of vigor, dedication and absorption as described by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003).

Independent variable - is described as having the capability to influence the behavior of another variable defined as the dependent variable (Creswell, 2009).

Laissez faire - is described as passive/avoidant and the least effective of the three leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Laissez-Faire leadership – a leader who behaves in a passive-avoidance manner and avoids responsibility and action (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Leadership style - is an independent variable and will be reviewed in terms of transformational, transactional and laissez faire (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Transformational leadership - focuses on the needs of the employee and changes an employee's attitude, values and beliefs so there is alignment with the organizational goals (Charbonneau, 2004).

Transactional leadership styles - manages by exception and promises subordinates rewards for good performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Vigor – willingness to invest hard work with high levels of energy and mental resilience (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions

A theoretical assumption is that the transformational leadership style is inspiring, challenging, and intellectually stimulating (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Also, Avolio and Bass (2004) define transactional leadership style as managing by exception; achieving work objectives through contingent rewards and focuses on identification of mistakes. In addition, the laissez faire leadership style is known as the least effective of leadership styles within the MLQ assessments (Avolio & Bass, 2004). An organization's changing environment begins with passion, energy and excitement about a leader's vision (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Hence, the importance of knowing the impact of a supervisor's leadership style on employee engagement. In terms of employee engagement Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) characterizes engagement by an employee's vigor, dedication and absorption toward their job and workplace.

The data is normally distributed and the Pearson Correlation analysis provided the necessary information to come to a statistical conclusion. It is also believed the surveys were completed without bias and used only for the purpose of describing the correlation between leadership styles and employee engagement. Credibility of research is dependent on transparent and unbiased reporting of specific analysis (Summerskill, Collingridge & Frankish, 2009). The participants for this study were individuals who

received work direction from a boss, peer or subordinate on a continuous improvement and/or process change project. The participants for this study accurately respond to the best of their ability and indicate their perceptions of their supervisor's leadership style. The participants had a clear understanding of all terminology. Lastly, participants accurately respond to the best of their ability to the Utrecht Worker Engagement Scale (UWES-17) questionnaire.

Limitations

Creswell (2009) states a research study's limitations are a result of potential design deficiencies that are potentially related to methodological approaches to data collection and analysis. The study was limited to surveying employees on their perception of their supervisor's leadership style. Also the study was limited to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x) instrument developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). The MLQ 5X survey instrument measured the participant's opinion on their direct supervisor's leadership style. The MLQ 5X survey instrument has been used in over 300 research programs, doctoral dissertations and master thesis around the world in the past 10 years. The MLQ 5X survey was validated through confirmatory factor analysis as well as discriminatory factor analysis (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This survey discerned the difference between transactional, transformational and laissez faire leadership styles. In addition, the study was limited to the Utrecht Worker Engagement Scale (UWES-17) developed by Dr. Wilmar Schaufeli and Arnold Bakker (2003). This scale is also called the Work and Well-being questionnaire. The UWES-17 measured worker engagement in terms of absorption, dedication and vigor. The UWES has been used in over 1000 research programs around the world since 1999.

Nature of the Study

The theoretical framework of this study will primarily be from the positivist research paradigm. The goal of the positivist researcher is to uncover truth and facts with quantitative data on specific relationships amongst variables (Gephart, 1999). This project will examine the following variables: leadership styles, employee engagement and implementation of continuous improvement projects to understand the relationship to organizational change. The conceptual framework of this study analyzed the relationship of a supervisor's leadership style as defined by Bass & Avolio (1990) and Charbonneau (2004) and employee engagement as described Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) to determine their level of significance to organizational change.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The next section of the study will include the literature review. Literature will be reviewed on leadership styles, continuous improvement, organizational change and employee engagement. The literature review is followed by the methodology, results of the quantitative study, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This dissertation focused on supervisory leadership styles and their effect on engaging employees in organizational change initiatives. To implement and sustain change, leaders need to have the ability to influence the engagement of the employees performing the work. According to Rui, Emerson and Luis (2010) and Gilley, Gilley and McMillan (2009) employees need leaders to provide strategy and vision. This quantitative study examines the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style and their effect on engaging employees in organizational change endeavors. The literature review explores definitions of leadership, management, management styles, leadership styles, continuous improvement and employee engagement in respect to organizational change. The literature review also discusses historical and current views on the impact leadership and their respective styles have on employee engagement in relation to organizational change and the methods used to facilitate the change.

The first section of the literature review summarizes the literature reviewed by category and literature type. The second section reviews the historical perspective of organizational change, leadership, leadership styles, and employee engagement. The third section reviews the impact leadership and their respective styles have on employee engagement in relation to organizational change and the methods used to facilitate the change. The final section reviews implications regarding the correlation between leadership styles and employee engagement in relation to organizational change.

Title searches, Articles, Research Documents, and Journals

The focus of the literature search was on leadership, leadership styles, employee engagement, change initiatives and organizational change. The review included books, peer reviewed journals, dissertations and professional articles. The search yielded a total of 92 sources as shown on Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of Literature Searched by Categories

Categories Searched	Books	Peer Reviewed Journals	Dissertations	Professional articles
Leadership	10	21	2	1
Employee Engagement	2	6	2	5
Organizational Change	2	10		2
Continuous Improvement/Quality	7	3		
Research Methods	6	8		5

Organizational Change, Leadership, Employee Engagement & Change Initiatives

This section contains a review of organizational change, leadership, leadership styles, employee engagement and change initiatives from a historical perspective, as well as the relationship between organizational change, leadership, employee engagement and change initiatives. Lastly, this section reviews the known interactions of the variables based upon past research.

Organizational Change

Change means to create something new (Kotter, 2011). However, before something new is created there is a recognition the change needs to occur (Brisson-Banks, 2010). The current state of the organization must be fully understood before the change can be defined. Organizational change takes on many forms and has been defined in various ways. Organizational change can be defined in terms of a change in product or service. It can also be defined in terms of a change in the leadership structure. Organizational change can also be categorized in terms of strategic, structural, or job-related (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004). Organizational change can be small or large (Beugelsdijk, Slangen, & Marco, 2002). The large or radical organizational change is usually followed by the smaller, incremental changes to maintain and sustain the large changes made previously. Organizational change has many forms.

Regardless of the category, context, type or definition of the organizational change, it typically occurs because of a response to internal or external factors. Organizational change can be a response to internal financial budget constraints. Latta (2009) indicates organizational change is a result of external or internal factors such as changes in the global economy, which forces an organization to re-think their product or services offered and/or how they produce and distribute those products or services offered. Despite the type of change the organization will endure, a methodology will be required.

Organizational Change Models

There are several change models an organization can follow. Latta (2009) describes the OC³ Model as organizational change in cultural context. This model consists of the leadership loop, change management loop and organizational behavior loop (Latta, 2009). The change management loop of the OC³ model consists of implementing the change strategy through reflecting on the current cultural norms and determines how those cultural norms will influence the change initiative. The implementation strategy also needs to include the implied intent to change the organizational culture. Organizational change also needs preparation for the unexpected. Mediation processes on how to handle the unexpected elements of cultural resistance should be considered.

Brisson-Banks (2010) compares four change models. The study shows the similarities of Lewin, Beckhard, Thurley, Bridges and Kotter's change model. Although the models are not totally aligned, change is handled in a like manner.

The Lewin model speaks of three phases in change – unfreezing, change, refreezing (Brisson-Banks, 2010). Armstrong (2006) describes unfreezing as modifying the current state of operations, which supports existing behaviors and attitudes, taking into account the natural threat change brings to people accustom to the current condition. This is the time period where people prepare for the upcoming change. Change is described by Armstrong (2006) as creating new patterns based upon new information. The third phase, refreezing is described as stabilizing the new patterns by interjecting them into the behaviors of the people impacted by the change (Armstrong, 2006). Lewin's philosophy of change is to interrupt the status quo by unfreezing; change to the vision of leadership; and refreeze to sustain the change.

Beckard's change model consists of four phases. The first phase is the leader establishing the goal of the organization for the future. The second phase understands the current condition of the organization in terms of where it stands to the future vision. The third phase looks to understand the obstacles in the way of reaching the vision. Lastly, the fourth phase is implement actions to transition from current condition to the vision (Brisson-Banks, 2010).

Thurley's change model consists of five strategies – directive; bargained; hearts and minds; analytical; and action based (Brisson-Banks, 2010). The directive strategy is the leadership taking actions to change the current state without buy-in from the workforce. The bargained strategy shares the decision making to implementing change with leadership and the workforce through negotiation, compromise and agreements (Armstrong, 2006). The hearts and minds strategy involves changing the attitudes, values and beliefs of everyone in the organization (Armstrong, 2006). The analytical strategy is systematic approaches that begins with setting a vision, designing the change, evaluating the results of the change and lastly determine the next steps to achieve the vision (Brisson-Banks, 2010). Thurley's action-based strategy involves everyone impacted by the pending change which increases the chances of the change being supported. Thurley's strategies can be used independently or combined to manage the changed needed to move the organization forward (Brisson-Banks, 2010).

Bridges change model is focused on the transitions required to make change happen (Brisson-Banks, 2010). The transition phases are ending phase; neutral zone; and new beginnings. The ending phase is removing the current conditions of an organization. Jobs may need changing. Locations may close or merge. Realignment may require

ending current associations and relationships the organization has developed over the years (Brisson-Banks, 2010). The neutral zone represents the new environment and responsibilities. People have to navigate through the emotions of being unsettled in different surroundings (Brisson-Banks, 2010). New beginnings phase is operating in the new organizational paradigm created by the change within the organization.

The Kotter change model is another model leaders can use to manage change within an organization. Furterer (2011) describes the Kotter change model as being useful to implement improvements and manage change. Smith (2011) describes Kotter's change model as a deliberate and methodical approach to change which is based on the following eight stages: 1) create a sense of urgency; 2) Develop a team to drive and guide the change; 3) develop a vision for the organization's future; 4) communicate the vision to all impacted parties often and consistently; 5) empower the employees at the point of activity to facilitate the vision; 6) recognize the short-term success of the empowered employees; 7) build and combine the improvements to leverage the change; and 8) standardize the changes into the work culture. Dopplet's "wheel of change" model is more cyclical than Kotter's model (Smith, 2011). Regardless of the change model an organization chooses to use, organizational change typically has three phases of change: 1) unfreeze, 2) change, and 3) refreeze (Latta, 2009). The Kotter model is heavily dependent on the involvement of people, which can be subjective.

The Total Quality Management (TQM) is also an approach to managing change in the workplace. Lal (2008) quotes the definition of TQM as follows:

Total Quality Management is the management approach of an organization, centered on quality, based on the participation of all its

members and aiming at long-term success through customer satisfaction, and with benefits to all members of the organization and to society. (Lal, 2008, p. 109)

The philosophy of TQM is to optimize resources in an effort to maximize the benefits of the stakeholders. Lal (2008) describes there are three major characteristics of TQM. The first characteristic is all groups and departments within an organization are involved in quality. The second characteristic is quality is organizational excellence in all aspects of an organization, not just the products they produce. Lastly, the third characteristic of TQM is that quality is a function for management and not just the technical.

There is the popular methodology known as the PDCA cycle, which Toyota Motor Company used to improve their people and their processes (Liker & Franz, 2011), Toyota learned the plan-do-check-adjust (PDCA) method from the infamous quality guru Dr. W. Edward Deming. The PDCA cycle was considered by Toyota as a way of thinking and learning (Liker & Franz, 2011). Although Deming made PDCA popular with Toyota's successful implementation, Walter Shewhart created PDCA (Kemp, 2006). The PDCA model according Kemp (2006) applies to everyone. Therefore it can be used by any industry or work discipline.

There is another model which seeks to facilitate change using an objective model. Dr. Fournier-Bonilla (1998) developed an "A Comprehensive Quality Planning Model" (CQPM). This model's focus is on the customer requirements. To achieve the customer requirements the organization must perform strategic, tactical and operational planning to ensure alignment with organization's mission. Within each planning phase a series of

feedback loops exist to allocate time for improving the process. Several case studies were conducted to test the models success. For change to occur, key stakeholders and their needs should be identified. The CQPM confirms that decision making is best when a cross-functional team participates. This ensures buy in at all levels. Regardless of the motivation for the change, for change to occur, it has to start with leadership (Colvin, 2008). In the CQPM this is the strategic level. Leadership sets the tone in any type of organizational endeavor, especially change.

There are many change models an organization can choose from. It takes more than a change model to change an organization. One of the common things to many of the change models discussed is a vision by leadership.

Leadership

What Is Leadership?

Leadership has been defined by several scholars and writers. Hunter (1998) defines leadership as the ability to influence people to work passionately toward goals identified as being for the common good. Kouzes and Posner (1995, p. 30) creatively defines leadership as “the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations”. Hannay (2009) and Laohavichien, Fredendall & Cantrell (2009) both define leadership as a process where leaders influence employees. Kavanaugh and Ashkanasy (2006) define leadership as a process of community inspiration in which people desire to feel included, supported, and reinforced, specifically during change. Liker and Convis (2012) define leadership as stepping up to challenges using innovation, building relationships, persuasion and resolving conflict. The common word leadership has been defined in various ways because there a several styles in which a leader can

lead. However, there must be an understanding of the differences and similarities of leadership versus management.

Leadership versus Management

Leadership must be distinguished from management (Beisch & Moran, 2014). A good manager does not necessarily make a good leader. According to Beisch and Moran (2014) a leader inspires people to complete a vision, and a manager instructs or tells people what to do and when to do it. The following will discuss management styles and leadership styles.

Management Styles

There are various management styles to consider. Blake and Mouton's managerial grid was created in the late 1960's. Koc, Kiliclar, & Yazicioglu (2013) used Blake and Mouton's managerial grid in their 2013 study to define the management styles of Turkish leaders. Blake and Mouton's managerial grid defines five types of managers. The first type is the impoverished manager. The Koc, Kiliclar and Yazicioglu (2013) studies indicates this manager has low concern for people and production. The second type of manager they described is the country club manager. This manager has low concern for production and high concern for people. The third type of manager they described is the middle of the road manager. This type of manager has a mediocre concern for people and production. The fourth type of manager they described is the produce or perish style manager. This manager has high concern for production and low concern for people. Lastly, they describe the team style manager. This manager has a high concern for production and people. The team style manager is similar to the participative management style which is known for facilitating organizational change

(Pardo-del-Val, Martínez-Fuentes, & Roig-Dobón, 2012). The participative management style shares decision making with team members who may not traditionally be empowered to make decisions (Pardo-del-Val et al., 2012). To facilitate change, a manager must exhibit an effective leadership style to inspire people to achieve the vision set before them. As there are various management styles, there are also various leadership styles.

Leadership Styles

Leadership styles vary and are defined by many scholars. A supervisor's leadership style will determine the response received by the people asked to achieve the vision required to make the change as discussed in the previous change models. It is imperative to clearly define and understand the various leadership styles. Command and control, relations-oriented, hands-on, coaching, democratic, transformational, transactional, passive-avoidant and servant leader are just a few leadership styles discussed in this research literature review.

Command and Control Leadership. The command and control leadership style is effective when the person being lead is unfamiliar with the task they are asked to perform (Boykins, Campbell, Moore & Nayyar, 2013). This is typically the case with new people into the workforce or a person changing careers and becoming familiar with new tasks. Boykins et al. (2013) research also indicates this style is typically used during a crisis. Research in the health care industry identified the command and control leadership style as an obstacle in deploying quality management (Johnston, 2008).

Relations-Oriented Leadership. The relations-oriented leadership style is more concerned with the relationship between the leader and the people they lead than the task

that needs to get done (Boykins, Campbell, Moore & Nayyar, 2013). This style is said to work best when a team needs to collaborate and agree. Boykins et al. (2013) research describes the relations-oriented leadership style as having highly engaged employees, but slow to get task completed due to the time taken to bond. In an organization that needs change to occur quickly, this may not be the optimal leadership style for a supervisor.

Hands-On Leadership. The hands-on leader provides the vision on what task needs to be done, but they can also perform the task and usually does so (Boykins, Campbell, Moore & Nayyar, 2013). This type of leader is sometimes thought of as a micro manager and not effective when working with an experienced, high performing employee (Boykins et al., 2013). A study conducted by Nguyen and Kleiner (2003) indicate the key to a successful merger of two organizations is the hands-on leadership style. This allows for hands on training during the transition of the merger. The leader can actually show the employees taking on the new responsibilities what to do.

Coaching Leadership. The coaching leadership style is known as an advisor to their team and helps with their long-term development (Boykins, Campbell, Moore & Nayyar, 2013). A study conducted by Stoker (2008) indicates self-managed team with short tenures benefit from the coaching leadership style. Due to the team working on a short-term project there is minimal benefit to having a 'full time leader'. Therefore the leader serving as a coach will suffice for a team working together for a short period. A self-managed team does not have or need a direct leader, but someone who can serve in advisory capacity.

Democratic Leadership. The democratic leadership style is a proponent of getting input from the entire team (Boykins, Campbell, Moore & Nayyar, 2013). The

democratic leadership style is said to facilitate creativity due to the trust and cooperation that is created amongst all members of the organization (Amiri, Haghgooyan, & Mohammadi, 2014). Although the entire team is encouraged to provide feedback, ultimately the final decision is made by the democratic leader (Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi, & Shaikh, 2012). The benefit to the organization is the all-inclusive nature of the leadership style.

Transformational Leadership. Transformational leadership was derived from Burns' research in political leadership (Barbuto, 2005). One of the major differences between transformational leadership and traditional leadership theories, such as contingency and path-goal theories, is the primary focus. The focus of transformational leadership is on the employee, whereas the focus of traditional leadership theories is on the organization. The transformational leadership style is analogous to the relationship-oriented leadership, where the focus is on the relationship between the leader and the employee. Transformational leaders are known for changing their employee's attitudes, values and beliefs such that they become aligned with the organizational goals (Charbonneau, 2004). Although transformational leadership is relatively new in terms of leadership theories, the study of its characteristics are still trying to be comprehended (Charbonneau, 2004). Several researchers such as Charbonneau (2004), Jabnoun and Al-Ghasyah (2005), Barbuto (2005), Freedman (2007), Aldoory and Toth (2004) and Rui, Emerson and Luis (2010) have studied transformational leadership in context to motivating employees; organizational change; and influence tactics. The common take away from all of their research is the transformational leadership style facilitates the willingness of an employee to do more work than they initially intended or expected.

The following will briefly review the key principles of the transformational leadership theory as noted by the above researchers.

There are several key principles of the transformational leadership style. One key principle is charisma. Transformational leadership is also known as charismatic leadership. Several researchers noted leaders operating under the transformational leadership style have a charismatic style. Jabnoun and Al-Ghasyah (2005) defines charisma as the ability to inspire employees while demonstrating ethical behavior and building an employee's identification with the organization's goal. Charbonneau (2004) states transformational leaders inspire employees by presenting an attractive vision. Charbonneau (2004) defines this as "inspirational motivation". Rui, Emerson and Luis (2010) also described transformational leaders as having an inspirational disposition. Freedman's (2007) study supported Charbonneau's definition. Freedman's (2007) study found favored suppliers rated higher in inspirational motivation. Transformational behavior was found to express the leader's vision in such a way that the workers at the point of activity internalize the vision which facilitated improved organizational results. Through the leader's inspirational temperament it provides meaning to the employee's work, which helps to facilitate a better view of the employee's future (Rui, Emerson & Luis, 2010).

The second key principle of transformational leadership, as noted by Jabnoun and Al-Ghasyah (2005), is individual consideration. Individual consideration is defined as gaining an understanding of the needs of the employees, and working with them to reach their full potential (Jabnoun & Al-Ghasyah, 2005). Individual consideration also serves as the role of mentor and teacher (Barbuto, 2005; Rui, Emerson & Luis, 2010). The

mentorship is focused on preparing the employee to adapt continually to change more efficiently (Rui, Emerson & Luis, 2010).

The last principle of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation. The intellectual stimulation principle is described as the leader encouraging employees to experiment with new ways to solve old problems (Barbuto, 2005; Jabnoun & Al-Ghasyah, 2005). The principles of transformational leadership are about the relationship between the leader and employee. However, all organizational situations cannot be handled solely by building relationships. Sometimes a leader has to provide more extrinsic motivation which can be facilitated through transactional leadership.

Transactional Leadership. Bass and Avolio (1990) defined transactional leadership as a leader who manages by exception and promises subordinates rewards for good performance. Deluga (1988) describes managing by exception as taking corrective action against an employee and proactively looks for deviations from rules and standards. Another way to view transactional leadership is “work for pay agreement” (Deluga, 1988). Some workers find this type of work relationship adversarial due to leaders only interacting with them when goals are not being met (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Disciplinary threats are typically used in this scenario. A leader operating under the transactional leadership style typically is more effective in stable environments (Heinitz, Liepmann & Felfe, 2005). If operations do not necessarily have to improve or change, transactional leadership may be effective because the status quo is acceptable. In this situation, a leader must focus on the higher end of the pyramid of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs such as personal growth and fulfillment. Servant leaders fulfill this by knowing and meeting the needs of their employees.

Passive-avoidant Leadership. Passive-avoidant leadership is known for not taking action until a problem presents itself and is serious enough for corrective action (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This leadership style is also known as laissez-faire. This leadership style takes a hands off approach to leadership (Frooman, Mendelson & Murphy, 2012). The “hands off” approach is exhibited by leadership unresponsiveness to employee’s problems and lack of monitoring work performance. A study completed for the IT industry indicated the Passive-avoidant leadership style has a negative correlation to employees exerting ‘extra effort’ (Bennett, 2009). The Passive-avoidant leadership style is said to be the least effective.

Servant Leadership. Servant leadership is based on the leader serving their employees. The construct of servant leadership is relatively new in the studies of leadership. Several researchers have conceptualized servant leadership. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) indicate the first writer of servant leadership was Greenleaf in the 1970’s. In 1995, Spears elaborated on Greenleaf’s work by adding 10 characteristics such as listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to growth of people, and community building. Farling, Stone and Winston (1999) presented servant leadership as a cyclical process with behavioral and relational components. Greenleaf’s works in 1970 and 1972, as well as Spears works in 1995 and 2002, are widely accepted in this field. All historical research on Servant Leadership should begin with Greenleaf and Spears works.

Similar to transformational leadership, servant leadership is focused on the needs of the employee. Washington, Sutton and Field (2006) recognized four concepts servant leaders used to facilitate the development of employees. The first concept Washington,

Sutton and Field (2006) noted was power sharing. Power sharing is another term for empowerment. Several researchers support the premise that empowerment is a key concept for servant leadership (Hannay, 2009). Empowerment is assessed by discerning if the leader is willing to share power (Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006). Community building was the next concept identified with servant leadership (Spears, 1996; Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006). Servant leaders believe the workers create the community (Spears, 1996). The community is observed as a group of people working toward a common goal and shared beliefs that have been developed and foster through the service of the leader. Walker (2003) indicates the servant leader is motivated by their principles, values and beliefs. Serving the employees allows the leader to build trust which facilitates improved performance and acceptance to change (Kolp & Rea, 2006). Therefore building trust is another key concept for the servant leader. The ultimate focus of the servant leader is to serve the employee, also known as follower, with the expected outcome of building the capacity of the employee to be more productive workers (Hannay, 2009). Although the servant leadership theory was presented by Greenleaf, the concept was first demonstrated by Jesus Christ in the bible (Hannay, 2009). Jesus demonstrated on many occasions how serving others yield abundant life.

Hunter (1998) equates servant leadership with love as defined in 1 Corinthians chapter 13. It is stated that love is patient, kind, humble, respectful, honest, committed and forgiving. As a servant leader, a person should exhibit these qualities to fully engage the employee. Jesus is the ultimate servant leader. He built relationships with fishermen, zealots, tax collectors and with other people who others thought unworthy (Youssef, 2013). Jesus looked for opportunities to encourage and mentor (Youssef, 2013). Hunter

(1998) explains leadership is built on authority. He defines authority as the skill of getting the employee to willingly do the will of the leader because of the influence the leader has over the employee. Authority is built on service and sacrifice. Jesus made the ultimate sacrifice by dying on the cross for our sins so those who believe in him will have everlasting life (John 3:16, New International Version). Service and sacrifice is built on love. “For God so loved the world that He gave His only begotten Son, that whosoever believes in Him should not perish but have everlasting life” (John 3:16, New King James Version). God’s love is exhibited through Jesus’ sacrifice. Love is built on will. Lastly, Hunter (1998) notes will is intentions in addition to actions. Servant leaders create the proper environment for their employees to grow. This act of love facilitates the relationship the leader needs to develop with the employee. Servant leaders are about serving their subordinates. A leader’s ability to serve selflessly and with positive intentions is how Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) describe a servant leader. Other leadership styles resemble the servant leadership style.

Servant and transformational leadership have many similarities. Hannay (2009) notes that both theories are people oriented leadership styles. Although they are both people oriented, they relate to people differently. The servant leader is focused on service to the employee to facilitate a better employee. The transformational leader is focused on engaging the employee to support an organizational goal (Hannay, 2009). The common denominator is the employee. Transformational and servant leadership both work to engage and empower employees. However, servant leadership also has elements of altruism, self-sacrifice, charismatic, transforming, authentic, and spiritual, as well as transformational (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006)

developed operational definitions for the 11 servant leadership dimensions. The 11 characteristics of Servant leadership identified by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) are as follows:

- 1) Calling: a leaders desire to serve and sacrifice for others.
- 2) Listening: the capability to hear and accept the ideas of others.
- 3) Empathy: appreciating situations others have to deal with.
- 4) Healing: recognizing when a person needs encouragement due to disappointment, broken spirits etc.
- 5) Awareness: ability to discern the climate of an environment.
- 6) Persuasion: influencing others.
- 7) Conceptualization: leaders who create an environment to facilitate thinking.
- 8) Foresight: leaders who predict the future situations and the respective consequences to those situations.
- 9) Stewardship: contributing to society is the purpose of the organization in which the leader leads.
- 10) Growth: leader is able to discern the needs of others and provide growth opportunities.
- 11) Community Building: facilitate a community spirit within an organization.

There are studies on servant leadership. However there is no true measurement scale to measure the effectiveness of a servant leader. The 11 characteristics identified by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) is a start for researchers to measure the effectiveness of servant leadership.

Regardless of a leader's leadership style, the key to leadership is achieving a specific goal while building a relationship with the employees charged with performing the task. Therefore, leaders need to establish a vision their employees can come together around as a team (Covey, 2007). In addition to creating a vision leaders should be able to communicate the vision and provide an environment for open and honest dialogue about the vision. Establishing and communicating a clear vision is essential for leaders specifically during challenging times. Part of the purpose of the communication is to prepare employees for the future state of the organization. The leader's vision is more compelling when it is delivered with passion (Robinson & Goudy, 2009). Figueroa-Gonzalez's (2011) dissertation measured a manager's influence on employee engagement. Research has proven a leader's style can engage or disengage a worker in doing more or less work.

What Is A Leader?

A leader desires to change status quo and use their influence, regardless of the leadership style exhibited, to achieve a goal (Brady & Woodward, 2012). They are driven and desire to change and improve processes. A leader needs to know the difference between needs and wants (Hunter, 1998). Therefore, a leader needs to have influence to change the status quo. Brady and Woodward (2012) define influence as "Effort x Scope (or Reach)". A leader's effort times the amount of people they can reach equals their level of influence they have on change. Leaders do not mind being uncomfortable when seeking excellence, for they are frustrated with the status quo. Leaders establish a vision, set goals, devise a game plan, work the plan and seek counsel

to check if the vision needs adjustment (Brady & Woodward, 2012). This is known as the cycle of achievement. Everyone is a leader, it is just a matter of time when a person will need to step up and influence and/or engage others in completion of task.

Employee Engagement

Employee Engagement Defined

Employee engagement is defined as “the passion and energy employees have to give of their best to the organization to serve the customer.” (Cook, 2008, p. 3) Cook (2008) discusses three key characteristics to employee engagement as 1) commitment to the organization; 2) belief in what the organization stands for; and 3) prepared to go the extra mile to deliver excellent customer service. These are also known as think, feel and do (Cook, 2008). The bottom line is employee engagement is about how willing and able are employees in creating a positive experience for customers.

Employee Engagement Measurement Scales

There are several scales which measure employee engagement. This literature review will focus on the Gallup employee engagement survey and the University of Utrecht’s Work Engagement Scale. Employee engagement is typically measured by the twelve questions developed by Gallup. Gallup research estimates that disengaged workers cost \$350B for US businesses (Fox, 2010). Gallup measures employee engagement with the following 12 questions:

1. Do I know what is expected of me at work?
2. Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right?

3. At work, do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?
4. In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?
5. Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?
6. Is there someone at work who encourages my development?
7. At work, do my opinions seem to count?
8. Does the mission/purpose of my company make me feel my job is important?
9. Are my co-workers committed to doing quality work?
10. Do I have a best friend at work?
11. In the last six months, has someone at work talked to me about my progress?
12. This last year, have I had opportunities at work to learn and grow?

(Buckingham & Coffman, 2009, p. 28)

The University of Utrecht also has an employee engagement tool called the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale – UWES-9 or UWES-17. It measures employee engagement in terms of vigor, dedication and vigor (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The UWES-9 scale and UWES-17 scale uses 9 and 17 questions, respectively. There are 6 questions associated with the vigor attribute. Secondly, there are 5 questions associated with the dedication attribute. Lastly, there are 6 questions associated with the dedication attribute. Engaged workers are found to be more creative and facilitate moving the organization forward. Employee engagement is not synonymous with employee satisfaction. This correlation study utilized the UWES-17 scale to measure employee engagement.

Drivers for Employee Engagement

Employee recognition for good work is one of the top drivers for employee engagement (Covey, 2007). Recognition has to be individualized. A day off for one person may be just as significant as feedback on how to reach the desired work level. Employee engagement is everyone's responsibility from the manager to the employee at the point of activity (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Employee engagement is dependent upon the trust a leader builds with their employees. The quicker a leader can get employees to trust them the faster they can engage them in change (Covey, 2007). As stated previously, engaging employees in change initiatives is important for organizational change.

Change Initiatives and Continuous Improvement

The CEO of Toyota automotive utilized continuous improvement to facilitate change and drive the organization toward excellence as defined by the leader (Liker & Franz, 2011). Continuous improvement is a process that is driven by several methods such as lean, six sigma, PDCA and total quality to achieve change. Furterer (2011) describes six sigma as a methodology which concentrates on removing variation and lean as removing waste. Spear (2009) defines an organization's ability to improve based upon four capabilities. The first capability is the ability to define the organization's processes. The second capability is the organization's ability to solve the problems getting in the way of achieving the leader's vision. The third capability is the organization's ability to share the learnings from the journey of the problem solving. Lastly, the fourth capability is the organization's leaders at all levels ability to teach the first three capabilities to their respective team members. The key to all change initiatives methodology is defining the root cause of the obstacle to the change required to reach the vision.

Summary of Literature Review

In summary, this study correlates a supervisor's leadership style with engaging employees in organizational change initiatives. Cameron-Strother (2009) recognized the need for additional study on leader and employee's role on changing the work environment. This literature review demonstrates there is significant research and writings on organizational change, leadership styles and employee engagement. Organizational change is a relatively new construct due to recent economic challenges companies have faced over the last 10 years. Leadership styles have been studied for over 40 years. Greenleaf's works from the 1970's on servant leadership as well as Deluga's (1988) writings on transactional leadership have been cited by many researchers. Employee engagement has evolved over the years with the help of the Gallup research. However, there are opportunities to expand the body of knowledge in terms of the impact leadership styles have on engaging employees in organizational change initiatives.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

The basis for this study evaluated the quantitative data derived from an online survey. The survey measured the perceptions employees had on their supervisor's leadership style and correlated with their level of employee engagement in the workplace overall. In the survey, a supervisor was defined as the person who provides 80% or more of the survey participants work direction. A supervisor can be a manager, also known as the boss, a peer or in some cases a subordinate. A manager is a person of a higher hierarchy in the workplace. A peer is a person who is the survey participant's equal in the workplace. Whereas, a subordinate is a person who is in a position with a lower hierarchy in the workplace. However the subordinate may provide work direction for a finite period. The primary purpose of the research question is to gain an understanding of what leadership styles facilitate employee engagement.

This study shows the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style and employee engagement. The correlation is shown through answering - What is the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez faire), regardless of gender, and an employee's engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) in a changing work environment? This correlation is measured by MLQ 5X and the UWES instruments (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

The research question leads the researcher to three hypotheses to test. The three hypotheses that were tested are as follows:

Ho1 – There is no significant negative correlation in employee engagement with the transactional leadership style.

Ha1 – There is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with transactional leadership style.

Ho2 – There is no significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style.

Ha2 – There is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style.

Ho3 – There is no significant negative correlation in employee engagement with laissez-faire leadership style.

Ha3 – There is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with laissez-faire leadership style.

Research Design

The research study used a quantitative non-experimental design to study the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez faire) and employee's engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) measured by MLQ 5X and the UWES instruments simultaneously (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The non-experimental design is appropriate because participants were not randomly grouped or placed in control groups as Trochim (2006) defines the quasi-experimental design. Assigning participants to random groups was not possible because their supervisor's leadership style and employee engagement were variables that could not be controlled by the researcher.

The original intent was to create a control group for a quasi-experiment. However, the researcher was unable to create the control group without introducing bias into the research. Therefore the Audience tool of Survey Monkey was chosen. The Survey Monkey Audience tool recruits survey participants on behalf of the researcher based upon a profile (www.surveymonkey.com/mp/audience, 2014), thus, not allowing the researcher to create a control group. A control group is challenged with bias and not representing the entire population (O'Connor, 2011). The basis for this research study evaluated the quantitative data derived from an online survey utilizing MLQ (Form 5X) and UWES-17 questionnaires. The objective of quantitative research was to measure behavior, knowledge, opinions or attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2008) toward work. This study quantified employees perceptions of their supervisor's leadership style and their engagement in the workplace. The research sample was randomly selected using the Audience tool of Survey Monkey.

Sample

The population for this study included individuals who are currently working full-time in an organizational environment of change and report to a mid-level or senior level leader. The population came from groups within Survey Monkey's audience of over 30 million diverse survey participants. Survey Monkey is a web-based survey tool capable of administering a survey to a targeted audience (www.surveymonkey.com, 2014).

The sample frame for the study was chosen by requesting participants who were impacted by or participated in a change initiative in their workplace. The Survey Monkey audience had the same probability of inclusion in the sample (Fuller, 2009). The tool

randomly selected participants from their population of over 30 million people, where 3,200 full-time working professionals were invited to participate in the survey.

The G*Power 3.0.10 statistical power analysis program was used to calculate the target sample size. Thus, the target sample size is calculated, with a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error, as 115 participants. The invitation was sent to 3200 individual and was accepted by 247 individuals. Research findings show web surveys with a return rate 11% less than other survey mediums (Manfreda et al., 2008). This web survey yielded a 7.7% return rate. All 247 responses were selected for analysis for the study.

Instrumentation/Measures

The survey instruments for the study was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) developed by Professor Wilmar Schaufeli of the University of Utrecht (2003). To obtain a comprehensive measure of work engagement the UWES-17 questionnaire was used instead of the UWES-9. The MLQ 5X survey instrument measured the participants' perception of their direct supervisor's leadership style. This survey distinguishes the difference between transactional, transformational and laissez faire leadership styles using 45 survey questions using a five point Likert scale. The leadership styles were determined by the nine leadership behaviors. The behaviors are: Idealized Influence (Attributed), Idealized Influence (Behavior), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception (Active), Management-by-Exception (Passive), and Laissez-faire. The transactional leadership construct is defined by contingent reward, management-by-

exception (Active) and management-by-exception (Passive). The transformational leadership construct is defined by idealized influence (Attributed), idealized influence (Behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Lastly, the passive-avoidant leadership construct is defined by the laissez-faire behavior. The work engagement scale measured the participant's absorption, vigor and dedication to their job, also using a Likert scale.

Avolio and Bass' (2004) MLQ, Form 5X survey instrument, a self-assessment leadership instrument, has been used to measure the style of the leadership in over 300 research programs, doctoral dissertations and master thesis around the world in the past 10 years. Face validity "describes how well a measurement instrument appears to measure what it was designed to measure (Borden & Abbott, 2008, p. 129). The MLQ 5X survey was validated through confirmatory factor analysis as well as discriminatory factor analysis (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Per the 1999 Confirmatory Factor Analysis the Goodness of Fit Index and Root Mean Squared Residual were 0.73 and 0.10, respectively. Chi-square with 2889 degrees of freedom was 13,378 with a p-value less than 0.0001 indicated a suboptimal fit.

The UWES-17 was introduced in 1999 by Dr. Wilmar Schaufeli (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The survey was designed to take 5 – 10 minutes to complete. The survey measures employee engagement based upon three attributes – vigor, dedication and absorption. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) define vigor as the willingness to invest hard work with high levels of energy and mental resilience. There are six questions associated with the vigor attribute. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) define dedication as having a feeling of enthusiasm, inspiration, and pride while hard at work. There are five

questions associated with the dedication attribute. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) define absorption as fully immersed in work such that time passes quickly. There are six questions associated with the absorption attribute. For the UWES-17 the various fit indices such as Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Normal Fit Index (NFI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) are approaching or meeting the 0.90 criteria (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). The UWES-17 instrument has been used in over 2000 studies worldwide per Schaufeli and Bakkers's 2003 report.

Data Collection

The participants were from the Survey Monkey audience of over 30 million people. The data collection targeted multiple industries such as automotive, financial services, healthcare, utility, and education, to name a few. The Survey was issued once and opened to participants from September 2 – 4, 2014. To begin, the researcher provided Survey Monkey with the desired criteria such as, basic demographics, employment status, employment industry, and job level. Survey Monkey audience tool offered the survey to individuals who met the criteria by sending them a web link. Of the 30 million, a random selection yielded a population of 3200 who met the desired criteria and was offered the opportunity complete the survey. The survey was sent to all 3200. Participation in the survey was voluntary. Out of the 3200 individuals, 247 accepted the invitation. The survey included the attached letter of intent and consent form. The 247 individuals were assigned a respondent ID by Survey Monkey to ensure anonymity. The participants were given the opportunity to opt out of taking the survey on the first page of the consent form.

The 247 survey participants were asked questions on how their supervisor's leadership style engages them as an employee in the workplace. The MLQ Form 5x was used to rate the survey participant's supervisor who provides them with 80% or more of their work direction. Engagement of the employees was measured by using the UWES. Permission to use the MLQ Form 5X was obtained by Mind Garden, Inc. (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Permission was granted by the UWES as long as the results are shared with the originator of the instrument. The survey responses were entered into SPSS PASW Statistic Release 18.0.0 for analysis.

Treatment/Intervention

The quantitative approach will be a quantitative non-experimental design. This approach will support the correlation of the responses to the UWES-17 questionnaire and the MLQ (Form 5x) survey on leadership styles. The non-experimental design is appropriate because participants were not placed in control group as described by Trochim (2006) definition of quasi-experimental as using multiple groups or waves. The research surveyed multiple individuals from different industries, but no control groups.

Data Analysis

The data for each variable was checked for normality. Mean composites were created. The histograms of the mean composites were examined to determine whether the variables were distributed normally. All histograms yielded bell-shaped distributions (see Appendix B). Therefore, the variables were all normally distributed. The study used Pearson Correlation to analyze the data in SPSS. The correlation coefficient allows a researcher to determine whether variables have a relationship (Mari & Kotz, 2001). This

statistical analysis was appropriate for the study to answer the research question to investigate the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style and their employee's engagement.

Validity and Reliability

Avolio and Bass' (2004) MLQ, Form 5X survey instrument was used to measure the supervisor's style of leadership and has been used in over 300 research programs, doctoral dissertations and master thesis around the world in the past 10 years. Face validity "describes how well a measurement instrument appears to measure what it was designed to measure" (Borden & Abbott, 2008, p. 129). The MLQ 5X survey was validated through confirmatory factor analysis as well as discriminatory factor analysis (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Per the 1999 Confirmatory Factor Analysis the Goodness of Fit Index and Root Mean Squared Residual were 0.73 and 0.10, respectively. Chi-square with 2889 degrees of freedom was 13,378 with a p-value less than 0.0001 indicated a suboptimal fit.

The UWES-17 survey has various fit indices such as GFI, NFI and CFI are approaching or meeting the 0.90 criteria (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Cronbach's alpha was used to determine whether the study measures were reliable. Per Vogt (2007), a measure is reliable if alpha is .70 or higher. As shown in Table 2, all the measures had alphas above .70; therefore, the measures were reliable.

Table 2

Cronbach's Alpha for the Study Measures (N = 247)

Variables	Alpha
Work engagement total	.96
Vigor	.89
Dedication	.91
Absorption	.86
Transformational leadership	.96
Transactional leadership	.78
Passive-avoidant leadership	.87

Ethical Considerations

Ethics in research involves the researcher being honest, transparent and taking duty of care to ensure the participants and sponsors of the research are protected (Summerskill, Collingridge & Frankish, 2009). It is imperative that participants are protected from being harm by the study and are clear on the purpose. To minimize and/or eliminate misunderstandings a letter stating the purpose of the study was provided to participants.

The data and privacy of the participants was protected according to Capella University's IRB requirements. After survey participants showed an interest in participating in the study, they received a link to the survey which contained the consent form. Participants were requested to acknowledge consent by selecting yes to continue

survey or selecting no to opt out of participating in the study. A favorable response to the consent statement implied permission to utilize the respondent's data in the study. The data was stored in a secured file. Pseudonyms were used to mask participants email addresses. However, a statement was added to the consent form to inform participants the researcher cannot guarantee confidentiality of data provided through the internet due to limited protections of internet access. Participants were advised to close their browsers after completing the questionnaire.

The survey correlated the survey participant's supervisor's leadership style with their employee engagement. The survey answered the research question - What is the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez faire), regardless of gender, and an employee's engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) in a changing work environment. The correlation was measured by the MLQ 5X and the UWES-17 instruments simultaneously (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The following hypothesis was used to analyze the data by leadership style.

Hypothesis

Ho: There is no correlation between leadership style and employee engagement.

Ha: There is a correlation between leadership style and employee engagement.

Ho1.1: There is no significant negative correlation in employee engagement with a transactional leadership style.

Ha1.1: There is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with transactional leadership style.

Ho1.2: There is no significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style.

Ha1.2: There is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style.

Ho1.3: There is no significant negative association in employee engagement with laissez faire leadership style.

Ho1.3: There is a significant negative association in employee engagement with laissez faire leadership style.

Conclusion

The MLQ 5X Leadership and UWES-17 engagement questionnaires are previously validated instruments which were used to collect data from individuals who received work direction from a boss, peer or subordinate during a change initiative project. Data were analyzed with Pearson's correlation using SPSS software to test the three hypotheses. The analysis answered the study's research question, what is the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez faire), regardless of gender, and an employee's engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) in a changing work environment, when measured by MLQ 5X and the UWES instruments simultaneously.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style and their employee's engagement, utilizing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale by Wilmar Schaufeli of the University of Utrecht (2003). This chapter will describe the demographics of the study. The results will also be summarized using descriptive statistics around the sample and hypotheses of the study. Lastly, the results of the analysis for the hypotheses testing will be described.

The research question and corresponding hypotheses is the basis of this study on the correlation of a supervisor's leadership style and their employee's engagement. It is not known the extent a supervisor's leadership style has on their employee's engagement. Results from this study can increase a supervisor's awareness of how their leadership style impacts their employee's willingness to engage in change.

The study used a survey instrument with three sections. The first section was the Work and Well-being questionnaire from the UWES-17, which consisted of 17 survey items. This questionnaire measured the employee's absorption, vigor and dedication to their work. The second section was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) developed by Avolio and Bass (2004), which consisted of 45 survey items. This questionnaire measured the employee's perception of their supervisor's leadership style – transformational, transactional and passive/avoidant. Lastly, the third section consisted of eight demographic questions. Both the MLQ 5X and UWES-17 have established validity and reliability in the literature.

As part of this study a reliability analysis was conducted to evaluate this survey instrument's consistency. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine whether the study measures were reliable. Per Vogt (2007), a measure is reliable if alpha is 0.70 or higher. The Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.78 to 0.96 and 0.86 to 0.91 for the MLQ leadership styles and work engagement, respectively. These values represent an acceptable level of consistency for the survey instrument, shown in Appendix C and E.

Description of the Population and Sample

The population consisted of individuals who have responsibility for supervising others and obtains work direction from another supervisor. A total of 3200 individuals were invited to participate in the survey and 247 (7.7%) completed the survey in its entirety which resulted in the study sample. The G*Power 3.0.10 statistical power analysis program calculated the target sample size, with a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error, as 115 participants. The survey participants were asked eight demographic questions which included 1) years employed at current employer, 2) leadership level, 3) years as a formal supervisor, 4) level of their supervisor, 5) age, 6) gender, 7) race/ethnicity, and 8) industry. Table 3 displays the demographic information of the survey participants.

Descriptive Statistics

Description of the Sample

The frequencies and percentages for the demographic variables within rating groups (i.e., ratings of boss, ratings of peers, and ratings of subordinates) are reported in Table 3. The majority of the respondents were White (76.2% for those who rated bosses, 82.2% for those who rated peers, and 84.1% for those who rated subordinates);

respondents worked in a variety of industries (see Appendix C). The largest group of respondents who rated their bosses was between 35 and 44 years old (26.2%); this group of respondents consisted of a slightly higher percentage of females (56.9%). The two largest groups of respondents who rated their peers were between 25 and 34 years old (28.8%) and between 45 and 54 years old (28.8%); this group of respondents consisted of a similar percentage of males (50.7%) and females (49.3%). The largest group of respondents who rated their subordinates was between 35 and 44 years old (29.5%); majority was male (65.9%).

The largest group of respondents who rated their bosses spent between one and five years working in their current organization (31.5%), were individual contributors (70%), and reported to their manager (40.8%). Similarly, the largest group of respondents who rated their peers spent between one and five years working in their current company (38.4%), were individual contributors (49.3%), and reported to their manager (35.6%). The two largest groups of respondents who rated their subordinates worked in their company for between one and five years (27.3%) or between six and 10 years (27.3%). The largest group consisted of managers (34.1%) and reported to the CEO/owner/president of their company (36.4%).

Table 3
Frequencies and Percentages for the Demographic Variables

Variables	Boss (N = 130) N (%)	Peer (N = 73) N (%)	Subordinate (N = 44) N (%)
Age group			
18 to 24	9 (6.9)	6 (8.2)	5 (11.4)
25 to 34	31 (23.8)	21 (28.8)	11 (25.0)
35 to 44	34 (26.2)	14 (19.2)	13 (29.5)
45 to 54	33 (24.5)	21 (28.8)	9 (20.5)
55 or older	23 (17.7)	11 (15.1)	6 (13.7)
Gender			
Female	74 (56.9)	36 (49.3)	15 (34.1)
Male	56 (43.1)	37 (50.7)	29 (65.9)
Race			
Asian and Pacific Islander	15 (11.5)	7 (9.6)	2 (4.5)
Black and African American	11 (8.5)	4 (5.5)	4 (9.1)
Hispanic American	5 (3.8)	2 (2.7)	1 (2.3)
White	99 (76.2)	60 (82.2)	37 (84.1)
Years in current organization			
Less than 1 year	12 (9.2)	2 (2.7)	2 (4.5)
1 to 5	41 (31.5)	28 (38.4)	12 (27.3)
6 to 10	27 (20.8)	19 (26.0)	12 (27.3)
11 to 15	19 (14.6)	12 (16.4)	11 (25.0)
15 or more	31 (23.8)	12 (16.4)	7 (15.9)
Organization level			
Vice president	2 (9.2)	6 (8.2)	5 (11.4)
Director	6 (31.5)	0 (.0)	9 (20.5)
Manager	17 (20.8)	21 (28.8)	15 (34.1)
Supervisor	14 (14.6)	10 (13.7)	5 (11.4)
Individual contributor	91 (23.8)	36 (49.3)	10 (22.7)
Level of boss			
CEO/owner/president	15 (11.5)	11 (15.1)	16 (36.4)
Vice president	7 (5.4)	3 (4.1)	6 (13.6)
Director	22 (16.9)	20 (27.4)	12 (27.3)
Manager	53 (40.8)	26 (35.6)	10 (22.7)
Supervisor	33 (25.4)	13 (17.8)	0 (.0)

Description of the Study Variables

As shown in Table 4, the mean total Work Engagement score was lowest for boss ratings ($M = 4.49$, $SD = .95$) and highest for subordinate ratings ($M = 4.49$, $SD = .95$). Likewise, the mean rating for transformational leadership was lowest for bosses ($M = 3.00$, $SD = .98$) and highest for subordinates ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .78$). Similarly, the mean rating for transactional and passive-avoidant leadership was lowest for bosses and highest for subordinates.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for the Study Variables

Variables	Boss	Peer	Subordinate
	($N = 130$) M (SD)	($N = 73$) M (SD)	($N = 44$) M (SD)
Work engagement total	4.49 (.95)	4.60 (.94)	5.03 (.79)
Vigor	4.56 (.95)	4.63 (.91)	4.97 (.83)
Dedication	4.65 (1.12)	4.69 (1.11)	5.13 (.90)
Absorption	4.26 (.97)	4.50 (.92)	4.99 (.82)
Transformational leadership	3.00 (.98)	3.26 (.67)	3.41 (.78)
Transactional leadership	2.97 (.75)	3.16 (.53)	3.35 (.83)
Passive-avoidant leadership	2.41 (.88)	2.83 (.80)	3.12 (.88)

Summary of Results

The following section will summarize the results and findings of the data analysis associated with the research question and hypotheses. The primary research question asked what is the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style (transactional, transformational, and laissez faire), and an employee's engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) in a changing work environment, when measured by MLQ 5X (Bass &

Avolio, 2004) and the UWES-17 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) instruments simultaneously. The primary hypothesis statement is there is a correlation between leadership style and employee engagement. Three secondary hypotheses statements were formulated.

Hypothesis H1.1: There is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with a transactional leadership style. Results indicate there is no significant negative correlation in employee engagement and a transactional leadership style.

Hypothesis H1.2: There is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style. Results indicated there is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style.

Hypothesis H1.3: There is a significant negative association in employee engagement with laissez faire leadership style. Results indicated there is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with passive-avoidant leadership.

Hypotheses Tests within the Sample of Respondents that Rated Their Bosses

First Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a negative association between transactional leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 5 reveal that transactional leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = .23$, $p = .004$. Although the correlation coefficient of $r = 0.23$ indicates a positive association between total work engagement and transactional leadership style, it is a weak relationship. The p value of 0.004

indicates the relationship is significant, although weak. As shown in Table 5, transactional leadership was also positively associated with the three subscales of work engagement. Although all correlations were statistically significant, they were positive and not negative, as anticipated. Therefore, the first hypothesis was not supported. There is not a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with transactional leadership style.

Table 5

Pearson Correlations between Transactional Leadership and Work Engagement for Boss Ratings (N = 130)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Work engagement total						
2 Vigor	.91 ***					
3 Dedication	.96 ***	.81 ***				
4 Absorption	.93 ***	.74 ***	.85 ***			
5 Transformational leadership	.49 ***	.46 ***	.50 ***	.41 ***		
6 Transactional leadership	.23 **	.24 **	.25 **	.15 *	.69 ***	
7 Passive avoidant leadership	-.43 ***	-.39 ***	-.43 ***	-.38 ***	-.55 ***	-.34 ***

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

Second Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between transformational leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 5 indicate that transformational leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = .49$, $p = .000$. Transformational

leadership was also positively correlated with the three subscales of work engagement. The correlation coefficient of $r = 0.49$ indicates a positive, but moderate relationship between total employee engagement and the transformational leadership style. The p value of 0.000 indicates a significant positive relationship. Thus, the second hypothesis was supported. There is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement and a transformational leadership style.

Third Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a negative association between passive-avoidant leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 5 show that passive-avoidant leadership was negatively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = -.43$, $p = .000$. The correlation coefficient of $r = -0.43$ indicates a moderate negative relationship between total employee engagement and Passive-avoidant leadership style. The p value of 0.000 indicates a significant negative relationship. Passive-avoidant leadership was also negatively correlated with the three subscales of work engagement. Accordingly, the third hypothesis was supported. There is a significant negative relationship with employee engagement and the Passive-avoidant leadership style.

Hypotheses Tests within the Sample of Respondents that Rated Their Peers

First Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a negative association between transactional leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was

used. The findings in Table 6 reveal that transactional leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = .52$, $p = .000$. As shown in Table 5, transactional leadership was also positively associated with the three subscales of work engagement. The correlation coefficient of $r = 0.52$ indicates a positive, but moderate relationship between total employee engagement and the transactional leadership style. The p value of 0.000 indicates a significant positive relationship. Although all correlations were statistically significant, they were positive and not negative, as hypothesized. Therefore, the first hypothesis, there is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with transactional leadership style, was not supported.

Table 6

Pearson Correlations between Transactional Leadership and Work Engagement for Peer Ratings (N = 73)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Work engagement total						
2 Vigor	.95 ***					
3 Dedication	.98 ***	.90 ***				
4 Absorption	.94 ***	.82 ***	.88 ***			
5 Transformational leadership	.57 ***	.57 ***	.56 ***	.51 ***		
6 Transactional leadership	.52 ***	.52 ***	.47 ***	.50 ***	.71 ***	
7 Passive avoidant leadership	-.08	-.08	-.14	.02	-.23 *	.15

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

Second Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between transformational leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 6 indicate that transformational leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = .57, p = .000$. The correlation coefficient of $r = 0.57$ indicates a positive, but moderate relationship between total employee engagement and the transformational leadership style. The p value of 0.000 indicates a significant positive relationship. Transformational leadership was also positively correlated with the three subscales of work engagement. Thus, the second hypothesis, there is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style, was supported.

Third Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a negative association between passive-avoidant leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 6 show that passive-avoidant leadership was not significantly associated with total work engagement scores, $r = -.08, p = .262$. The correlation coefficient of $r = -0.08$ indicates a weak negative relationship between total employee engagement and the passive-avoidant leadership style. The p value of 0.262 indicates it is not a significant negative relationship. Passive-avoidant leadership was also not significantly correlated with the three subscales of work engagement. Accordingly, the

third hypothesis, there is a significant negative relationship in employee engagement with passive-avoidant leadership style, was not supported.

Hypotheses Tests within the Sample of Respondents that Rated Their Subordinates

First Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a negative association between transactional leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 7 reveal that transactional leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = .59, p = .000$. The correlation coefficient of $r = 0.59$ indicates a positive, but moderate relationship between total employee engagement and the transactional leadership style. The p value of 0.000 indicates a significant positive relationship. As shown in Table 7, transactional leadership was also positively associated with the three subscales of work engagement. Although all correlations were statistically significant, they were positive and not negative, as anticipated. Therefore, the first hypothesis, there is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with transactional leadership style, was not supported.

Second Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between transformational leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 7 indicate that transformational leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = .49, p = .000$. The correlation coefficient of $r = 0.49$ indicates a positive, but moderate relationship between total

employee engagement and the transformational leadership style. The p value of 0.000 indicates a significant positive relationship. Transformational leadership was also positively correlated with the three subscales of work engagement. Thus, the second hypothesis, there is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style, was supported.

Table 7
Pearson Correlations between Transactional Leadership and Work Engagement for Subordinate Ratings (N = 44)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Work engagement total						
2 Vigor	.96 ***					
3 Dedication	.93 ***	.87 ***				
4 Absorption	.90 ***	.81 ***	.73 ***			
5 Transformational leadership	.49 ***	.38 **	.51 ***	.46 ***		
6 Transactional leadership	.59 ***	.51 ***	.62 ***	.53 ***	.88 ***	
7 Passive avoidant leadership	.40 **	.41 **	.29 *	.42 **	.46 **	.49 ***

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

Third Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that there would be a negative association between passive-avoidant leadership and work engagement. Pearson correlations were conducted to test this hypothesis. Since the hypothesis was directional, a one-tailed value of .05 was used. The findings in Table 7 show that passive-avoidant leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores, $r = .40$, $p = .004$. The correlation coefficient of $r = 0.40$ indicates a positive, but moderate relationship between total employee engagement

and the passive-avoidant leadership style. The p value of 0.004 indicates a significant positive relationship. Passive-avoidant leadership was also positively correlated with the three subscales of work engagement. Although all correlations were statistically significant, they were positive and not negative, as predicted. Accordingly, the third hypothesis, there is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with a passive-avoidant leadership style, was not supported.

The data analysis showed results of all three secondary hypotheses for this study. Hypothesis 1 indicated transactional leadership was positively associated with total work engagement scores. Hypothesis 2 indicated transformational leadership was also positively associated with total work engagement. Lastly, hypothesis 3 indicated the passive-avoidant leadership style was negatively associated with total work engagement scores. Chapter 5 will discuss and interpret the results obtained. Conclusions, general recommendations, and recommendations for further research will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter discusses the purpose of the research study, the methodology used to conduct the study and a summary of research findings. Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are also discussed. Lastly, conclusions of this research are presented.

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the correlation between a supervisor's leadership style and employee engagement. This study describes which leadership styles would best engage an employee in a change initiative. Previous studies by Cameron-Strother (2009) and Marquard (2010) identified gaps in understanding the relationship between employee engagement and leadership styles. Cameron-Strother (2009) researched the relationship between employee and leader within a lean manufacturing infrastructure, whereas, Marquard's (2010) study sampled engineering executives at only one company. This quantitative study was developed to study various industries and determine the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style and an employee's engagement in the workplace across various industries.

The research study used a quantitative non-experimental design to study the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style and an employee's engagement. The objective of the research was to measure behavior, knowledge, opinions or attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2008) toward work. This study quantified the perception of employees who received work direction from a superior, peer or subordinate. The research sample was randomly chosen to use the Audience tool of Survey Monkey. The invitation to participate in the survey was sent to 3200 individuals and was accepted by

247. The data collection targeted multiple industries such as automotive, financial services, healthcare, utility and education. The quantitative approach was quasi-experimental. Trochim (2006) describes quasi-experimental as using multiple groups or waves. The research surveyed multiple individuals from different groups.

The study used Pearson Correlation to analyze the data in SPSS. The correlation coefficient allows a researcher to determine whether variables have a relationship (Mari & Kotz, 2001). This statistical analysis was appropriate to answer the research question to investigate the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style and an employee's engagement.

The primary research question asked what is the relationship between a supervisor's leadership style (transactional, transformational and laissez faire) and an employee's engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) in a changing work environment, when measured by MLQ 5X (Bass & Avolio, 2004) and the UWES-17 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) instruments simultaneously. The primary hypothesis statement for this research question is: There is a correlation between leadership style and employee engagement. The research found there is a relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement. The primary null hypothesis was broken down into three secondary null hypothesis statements to assist with evaluating which leadership styles resulted in positive employee engagement. The secondary null hypotheses were as follows: 1) There is no significant negative correlation in employee engagement with a transactional leadership style; 2) There is no significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style; and 3) There is no significant negative association in employee engagement with laissez faire leadership style.

Summary of Findings

To gain a thorough understanding of the research question the respondents were divided into three subgroups: bosses, peers, and subordinates. The survey was completed by 247 supervisors. Of those supervisors, 130 were bosses, 73 were peers and 44 were subordinates. Individuals who supervise employees and also serve as a formal leader within an organization were categorized as bosses. Supervisors who are at the same level as employees they are providing work direction were categorized as peers. Lastly, supervisors who are at a lower level than the employees they are providing work direction were categorized as subordinates.

Transactional Leadership Style and Employee Engagement

Research results indicate the first secondary null hypothesis, there is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with a transactional leadership style, was rejected by all three subgroups. The opposite was found. The survey results showed a positive correlation in employee engagement with a supervisor demonstrating a transactional leadership style, regardless of their position level within the company. The researcher's hypothesis was developed due to the belief that employees do not like to be told what to do. Therefore, the transactional leadership style would not engage an employee in moving toward the vision of the leader.

The transactional leadership style is analogous to the command and control leadership style. Transactional leadership manages employees through taking corrective action when employees miss an objective (Deluga, 1988). Similarly, to the command and control leadership style which the supervisor provides specific and direct instructions to employees on what needs to be done to ensure the objective is achieved. Boykins et al.

(2013) indicates the transactional leadership style is effective with an employee who is unfamiliar with the task they are asked to perform. Unpredictably, the demographics showed 39.3% of the survey respondents had five years or less of work experience. This may suggest to a new supervisor more direction and oversight is required for employees with less work experience or unfamiliar with the tasks being asked to perform. Although the correlation coefficient of $r=0.23$, for bosses, indicates a positive association between total work engagement and transactional leadership style, it is a weak relationship.

In addition, there is a significant positive relationship with employee engagement and a supervisor with a transactional leadership style, when subordinates provide work instruction. The correlation coefficient for subordinates who provide work direction is $r=0.59$. Similarly with peers, employees prefer to receive direct and specific work direction from someone other than their boss. The transactional leadership style surprisingly is acceptable and depends on the relationship the employee has with the supervisor. Supervisors who are peers or subordinates can provide work direction using the transactional leadership style.

On the other hand, the correlation coefficient for peers who provide work instructions to employees is $r=0.57$. This demonstrates a positive association and moderate relationship. This indicates that employees prefer their peers to tell them what to do rather than their bosses. Research shows when the environment is stable the transactional leadership style is effective (Heinitz, Liepmann & Felfe, 2005). The word environment can be substituted for relationship. This researcher's hypothesis that there is a significant negative correlation in employee engagement with transactional leadership style was not supported. The research indicates peers are more likely to engage in a

leader's vision when presented by a peer. Fournier-Bonilla's (1998) Comprehensive Quality Planning Model which facilitates change demonstrates how a cross-functional team is needed to obtain buy-in at all levels. This may suggest to a new supervisor to engage influential employees to provide work direction to their peers to engage them in change.

Transformational Leadership Style and Employee Engagement

The results also indicate the second secondary null hypothesis, there is a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transformational leadership style, was accepted by all three subgroups. There was a significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a supervisor who demonstrates a transformational leadership style. Previous research demonstrated the transformational leadership style facilitates a willingness of an employee to do more work than they initially intended or expected (Rui, Emerson & Luis, 2010). This is possible due to the relationship a transformational leader develops with employees (Charbonneau, 2004). It was no surprise the transformational leadership style was positively correlated with employee engagement. The supervisor who exhibits the transformational leadership style, is focused on the needs of the employee. It is analogous to relations-oriented leadership as defined by Boykins, Campbell, Moore and Nayyar (2013). The leader is concerned with the relationship developed with the employee. Therefore, a leader with time to bond with employees would do well with the transformational leadership style, regardless of the supervisory hierarchy.

Laissez-Faire Leadership Style and Employee Engagement

Lastly, the results indicate the third secondary null hypothesis, there is a significant negative association in employee engagement with laissez-faire leadership style, was accepted by the subgroups who received work direction from a supervisor who was a superior, also known as the boss and their peer. There was a significant negative association in employee engagement with a superior who demonstrated a laissez-faire leadership style. The laissez-faire leadership style as measured as passive-avoidant with the survey instrument was negatively correlated as demonstrated with the correlation coefficient of $r = -0.43$ and -0.08 for superiors and peers, respectively. This leadership style takes a hand off approach (Frooman, Mendelson & Murphy, 2012). The hands off approach exhibited by a supervisor's unresponsiveness to an employee's problem and lack of monitoring work performance are not motivating to employees.

However, the third secondary null hypothesis was rejected by the subgroups who received work direction from a supervisor who is a subordinate. Employees find it moderately acceptable, as shown by a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.40$, for subordinates who provide work direction to have a hands off approach to supervising. Subordinates are not held to the same standards of supervision as superiors. The research results show a positive association in employee engagement with subordinates who provided work direction.

Implications of the Study

The results of this study added to the leadership body of knowledge by investigating the correlation of a supervisor's leadership style on an employee's engagement. Results of the study indicate a significant correlation between the

transactional, transformational and passive-avoidant (laissez-faire) leadership styles and the total work engagement scores. The variables, vigor, dedication and absorption, make up the total work engagement scores.

Organizations working to improve employee engagement could benefit from having supervisors and individuals desiring to become supervisors complete the MLQ-5X survey instrument to determine if they are a passive-avoidant leader. The study implies when supervisors who are superior or at a higher level than the person receiving the work direction utilizes the transactional and transformational leadership styles would prove beneficial in engaging employees in terms of vigor, dedication and absorption. The hypothesis, there is a significant correlation between leadership style and employee engagement, were supported for the transactional and transformation leadership style. These styles also showed a positive significant correlation, whereas the passive-avoidant leadership style resulted in a negative correlation with employee engagement. Therefore, an individual shifting from a subordinate supervisor category to a boss supervisor category will need to remove the laissez-faire leadership style from their behavior.

Research findings also show a parallel correlation with vigor, dedication and absorption and total work engagement. This means a supervisor, specifically a new supervisor, can predict with confidence how to adjust their leadership style to engage or disengage an employee. Results of the research show an employee's absorption in their work is not as significant with the transactional leadership style. The correlation coefficient $r = 0.15$, indicates a weak relationship between a workers absorption and a supervisor who displays a transactional leadership style. Whereas, there is a moderate relationship between a transactional leadership style and a worker's vigor and absorption,

as measured by the correlation coefficient of $r = 0.24$ and 0.25 , respectively for supervisors who are superiors to the employee receiving work instructions.

The study further implies supervisors, regardless of their supervisory level, who use the transactional or transformational leadership style, have a positive correlation with employee engagement. This implies employees respond favorably to supervisors who lead under the transactional or transformational leadership style. On the other hand, the passive-avoidant leadership style for bosses and peers who supervise resulted in a negative correlation in employee engagement. This may suggest employees prefer their peers and bosses to take a hands on approach when supervising.

Limitations

There are a few limitations to this study. The study measured the perception of a supervisor's leadership skills by individuals who take work direction from them, but the supervisor did not conduct the leadership self-assessment. The optimal study would be to utilize the MLQ-360 instrument in conjunction with the MLQ-5X Short survey tool. However, the expanded study was not conducted due to the difficulty in administering for the purpose of this research (Bass & Avolio, 2004). However, Avolio and Bass' (2004) MLQ 5X survey instrument was used to measure the supervisor's style of leadership in this study and in over 300 research programs, doctoral dissertations and master thesis around the world in the past 10 years. Therefore, the MLQ 5X survey instrument has good validity and reliability and satisfies the purpose of this study.

Recommendations for further study

Future research could include a regression analysis to determine the optimal level of employee engagement when a supervisor, who is at a higher level than the survey

respondent, exhibits a combination of transactional and transformational leadership styles. The study indicated the mean rating for transactional and transformational leadership was lowest for supervisors who were at a higher level than the survey respondent. Future studies could also focus on supervisors who are ranked higher than the respondent. The research shows all supervisory groups, bosses, peers and subordinates within the study had positive Pearson r for supervisor's who are perceived to have transactional leadership style with vigor, dedication and absorption. Mills, Culbertson and Fullagar (2012) associate employee engagement with negative and positive experiences. However, the Pearson r for supervisor's who were perceived to have a transformational leadership style were higher than those with the transactional leadership style. The remaining question for further study is what is the optimal transactional and transformational leadership style combination for a supervisor, at higher rank than the respondent, to exhibit to achieve significant employee engagement? Stratification of the respondents by industry would also be beneficial.

Conclusions

The research showed a significant correlation between leadership style and employee engagement as measured by MLQ 5X and UWES instruments simultaneously (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). If the supervisor's leadership style was transactional or transformational, the mean total Work Engagement score was lowest for supervisors who were identified as 'bosses'. This impact is further validated with the results of the study of the three secondary hypothesis statements. Firstly, there is a statistically significant positive correlation in employee engagement with a transactional leadership style. Secondly, there is a statistically significant positive correlation in

employee engagement with transformational leadership style. And lastly, there is a statistically significant negative correlation in employee engagement with the passive-avoidant leadership style.

The research has proven employees positively engage when a leader focuses on their needs and rewards them for good performance. In addition, the research proves employee's negatively engage when a leader avoids responsibility and action.

Employees respond positively when leaders understand the needs of the employees and reward them when they perform well. It can be concluded that leaders who exhibit passive-avoidant leadership style will not be effective in leading a change initiative.

REFERENCES

- Aldoory, L. & Toth, E. (2004). Leadership and gender in public relations: Perceived effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership styles. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 16(2), 157-183.
- Amiri, A., Haghgooyan, Z., & Mohammadi, F. (2014). Identifying and prioritizing affecting components on creative organizational culture. *International Journal of Academic Research in Economics and Management Sciences*, 3(5), 53-68.
- Armstrong, M. (2006). *A handbook of human resources management practice*, 10th ed., London, Great Britain: Kogan Page, Limited.
- Avolio, B. J. & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire manual and sampler set (3rd ed.). Retrieved from <http://www.mindgarden.com>
- Barbuto, J. E., Jr. (2005). Motivation and transactional, charismatic, and transformational leadership: A test of antecedents. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 11(4), 26-40.
- Barbuto, J. E. & Wheeler, D. W. (2006). Scale development and construct clarification of servant leadership. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(3), 300 – 326.
- Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1990). Transformational leadership development. *Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership: A response to critiques. In M. M. Chemmers & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions*, (pp. 49-88). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Beitsch, L. M. & Moran, J. W. (2014). Become a complete change leader by using your head, heart and hands: Motivating employees to embrace change and a culture of quality improvement by varying your leadership style. *The Quality Management Forum*, 40(1), 1-4.
- Bennett, T. M. (2009). A study of the management leadership style preferred by I T subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communication and Conflict*, 13(2).
- Beugelsdijk, S., Slangen, A., & Marco, v. H. (2002). Shapes of organizational change: The case of Heineken Inc. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 15(3), 311-326.

- Bhatti, N., Maitlo, G. M., Shaikh, N., Hashmi, M. A., & Shaikh, F. M. (2012). The impact of autocratic and democratic leadership style on job satisfaction. *International Business Research*, 5(2), 192-201.
- Bordia, P., Hobman, E., Jones, E., Gallois, C., & Callan, V. J. (2004). Uncertainty during organizational change: Types, consequences, and management strategies. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 18(4), 507-532.
- Boykins, C., Campbell, S., Moore, M., & Nayyar, S. (2013). An empirical study of leadership styles. *Journal of Economic Development, Management, I T, Finance, and Marketing*, 5(2), 1-31.
- Brady, C. & Woodward, O. (2012). *Launching a leadership revolution: Mastering the five levels of influence*. Flint, MI: Obstacles Press.
- Brisson-Banks, C. (2010). Managing change and transitions: A comparison of different models and their commonalities. *Library Management*, 31(4), 241-252.
- Brody, D., M.D., & Kipe, J. (2012). Social media: A key component to the psychiatrist's practice. *Psychiatric Times*, 29(10), 45.
- Buckingham, M. & Coffman, C. (1999). *First break all the rules: What the world's managers do differently*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Cameron-Strother, A. H. (2009). *The causal relationship inherent in the alliance of lean infrastructures, employee engagement, leadership impact, and team dynamics in modern manufacturing environments*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3350405)
- Charbonneau, D. (2004). Influence tactics and perceptions of transformational leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(7/8), 565-576.
- Colan, L. J., (2009). *Engaging the hearts and minds of all your employees: How to ignite passionate performance for better business results*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Colvin, G. (2008). *Talent is overrated*. New York, NY: Penguin Group (USA) Inc.
- Cook, S. (2008). *Essential guide to employee engagement: Better business performance through staff satisfaction*. London, Great Britain: Kogan Page, Limited.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2008). *Business research methods*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

- Covey, S. R. (2007). *Leadership: The 4 imperatives of great leaders*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster. Audiobook
- Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Deming, W.E. (1994). The need for change. *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, 17(7), 30-31.
- Dibb, S., Rushmer, A., & Stern, P. (2001). New survey medium: Collecting marketing data with e-mail and the World Wide Web. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 10(1), 17-25.
- Didelez, V., Pigeot, I., & Walter, P. (2006). Modifications of the Bonferroni-Holm procedure for a multi-way ANOVA. *Statistical Papers*, 47(2), 181-209.
- Farling, M. L., Stone, A. G., & Winston, B. E. (1999). Servant leadership: Setting the stage for empirical research. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 6, 49-72.
- Fawley, N. (2013). LinkedIn as an information source for human resources, competitive intelligence. *Online Searcher*, 37(2), 31-32, 49-50.
- Figuroa-Gonzalez, J. (2011). *Manager's leadership styles and employee engagement: Quantifying manager's influence*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3460632)
- Ford drives ahead with quality control: Morals and ethics of delivering reliability. (2005). *Strategic Direction*, 21(10), 18-21
- Fournier-Bonilla, S. D. (1998). *A comprehensive quality planning model*. (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI no. 9903114)
- Fox, A. (2010). Raising engagement. *HR Magazine*, May 2010, 35-40.
- Freedman, R. N. (2007). *Transformational leadership and customer satisfaction in the aerospace industry: An analysis based on the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI no. 3250060)
- Frooman, J, Mendelson, M. B. and Murphy, J. K. (2012). Transformational and passive avoidant leadership as determinants of absenteeism. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 33(5), 447-463.
- Fuller, W. A. (2009). *Sampling statistics*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley

- Furterer, S. (2011). Designing an enterprise lean six sigma program. *The Quality Management Forum*, 37(3), 4-7.
- Gephart, R. (1999, Summer). Paradigms and research methods. *Research Methods Forum*, 4.
- Gilley, A., Gilley, J. W., & McMillan, H. S. (2009). Organizational change: Motivation, communication, and leadership effectiveness. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 21(4), 75-94.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing.
- Hannay, M. (2009, February). The cross-cultural leader: The application of servant leadership theory in the international context. *Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies*, 1-12.
- Heinitz, K., Liepmann, D., & Felfe, J. (2005). Examining the factor structure of the MLQ: Recommendations for a reduced set of factors. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 21(3), 182-190.
- Hill, L. E. (1992). A comparative analysis of selected economic methodologies: Praxeology, positivism and institutionalism. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 19(10-12), 208-208.
- Hunter, J. C. (1998). *The servant: A simple story about the true essence of leadership*. Roseville, CA: Prima Publishing.
- Jabnoun, N. & Al-Ghasyah, H. (2005). Leadership styles supporting ISO 9000:2000. *The Quality Management Journal*, 12(1), 21-29.
- Johnson, A. R. (2011). Operational excellence: Impact of leadership style on employee engagement of continuous improvement initiatives. OM8027 Section 01, Spring 2011.
- Johnston, R. (2008). Internal service - barriers, flows and assessment. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 19(2), 210-231.
- Kavanaugh, M. H. & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2006). The impact of leadership and change management strategy on organizational culture and individual acceptance of change during a merger. *British Journal of Management*, 17, S81-S103
- Kemp, S. (2006). *Quality management demystified*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

- Koc, H., Kiliçlar, A., & Yazıcıoğlu, I. (2013). The analyzing leadership styles of Turkish managers in the scope of the Blake and Mouton's managerial grid. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 4(11).
- Kotter, J. P. (2011). *Leading change: Why transformation efforts fail. HBR's 10 Must Reads on Change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.
- Kouzes, J. M. & Posner, B. Z. (1995). *The leadership challenge: How to keep getting extraordinary things done in organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Lal, H. (2008). *Organizational excellence through total quality management*. Daryaganj, Delhi, India: New Age International.
- Laohavichien, T., Fredendall, L. D., & Cantrell, R. S. (2009). The effects of transformational and transactional leadership on quality improvement. *The Quality Management Journal*, 16(2), 7-24.
- Latta, G. F. (2009). A process model of organizational change in cultural context (OC3 model): The impact of organizational culture on leading change. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 16(1), 19-37.
- Liker, J. K. & Convis, G. L. (2012). *The Toyota way to lean leadership: Achieving and sustaining excellence through leadership development*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Liker, J. K. & Franz, J. K. (2011). *The Toyota way to continuous improvement: Linking strategy and operational excellence to achieve superior performance*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Lueneburger, C. & Goleman, D. (2010). The change leadership sustainability demands. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 51(4), 48- 56.
- Manfreda, K., Bosnjak, M., Berzelak, J., Haas, I., & Vehovar, V. (2008). Web surveys versus other survey modes. *International Journal of Market Research*, 50(1), 79-104.
- Maniatis, P. (2007). Non-parametric versus parametric methods for testing means equality. The case of stocks means. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge*, 11(1), 315-321.
- Mari, D. D. & Kotz, S. (2001). *Correlation and dependence*. London, Great Britain: Imperial College Press.

- Marquard, M. J. (2010). *Leadership behavior impact on employee engagement*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (UMI no. 3404307)
- McIntyre, S. H., Montgomery, D. B., Srinivasan, V. & Weitz, B. A. (1983). Evaluating the statistical significance of models developed by stepwise regression. *Journal of Marketing Research*, February 1983, 20(1), 1-11.
- Mills, M. J., Culbertson, S. S., & Fullagar, C. J. (2012). Conceptualizing and measuring engagement: An analysis of the Utrecht work engagement scale. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 13(3), 519-545.
- Nebecker, D. M. & Tatum, B. C. (2002). Understanding organizational processes and performance. In R. L. Lowman (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational consulting psychology* (pp. 668-691). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Nguyen, H., & Kleiner, B. H. (2003). The effective management of mergers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(7), 447-454.
- O'Connor, M. (2011). The challenge of recruiting control groups. an experiment of different recruitment models in the control group of a clinical psychological postal survey. *Quality and Quantity*, 45(4), 743-750.
- Pardo-del-Val, M., Martínez-Fuentes, C., & Roig-Dobón, S. (2012). Participative management and its influence on organizational change. *Management Decision*, 50(10), 1843-1860.
- Pitsakis, K., Biniari, M. G., & Kuin, T. (2012). Resisting change: Organizational decoupling through an identity construction perspective. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 25(6), 835-852.
- Prashar, A. (2014). Adoption of six sigma DMAIC to reduce cost of poor quality. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 63(1), 103-126.
- Pulakanam, V. (2012). Costs and savings of six sigma programs: An empirical study. *The Quality Management Journal*, 19(4), 39-54.
- Ragsdell, G. (2000). Engineering a paradigm shift? A holistic approach to organisational change management. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 13(2), 104-120.
- Rhoades, A. & Sherpherdson, N. (2011). *Built on values: Creating an enviable culture that outperforms the competition*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

- Robinson, C. & Goudy, K. (2009). Leadership in these challenging times. *Frontiers of Health Services Management*, 26(2), 21-26.
- Rother, M. (2010). *Toyota kata: Managing people for improvement, adaptiveness, and superior results*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
- Rui, C., Emerson, M. & Luis, L. (2010). Transformational leadership and TQM implementation. *Advances in Management*, 3(6), 7-18.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. (2003). UWES Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Preliminary Manual [Version 1, November 2003]. Utrecht University: Occupational Health Psychology Unit.
- Smith, I. (2011). Organisational quality and organisational change. *Library Management*, 32(1), 111-128. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01435121111102629>
- Soieb, A. Z. M., Othman, J., & D'Silva, J. L. (2013). The effects of perceived leadership styles and organizational citizenship behaviour on employee engagement: The mediating role of conflict management. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 8(8), 91-99.
- Spear, S. J. (2009). *The high-velocity edge: How market leaders leverage operational excellence to beat the competition*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
- Stoker, J. I. (2008). Effects of team tenure and leadership in self-managing teams. *Personnel Review*, 37(5), 564-582.
- Stroud, R. N. (2009). *The relationship between leadership competence and employee engagement*. (Doctoral dissertation) Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (UMI no. 3373354)
- Summerskill, W., Collingridge, D., & Frankish, H. (2009). Protocols, probity, and publication. *The Lancet*, 373(9668), 992.
- Survey Monkey, (2015). How audience works. Retrieved from <https://www.surveymonkey.com>
- Swanson, R. A. & Holton III, E. F. (2005). *Research in organizations: Foundations and methods of inquiry*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.
- Towers Watson. (2011). The power of three: Taking engagement to new heights. Retrieved from <http://www.towerswatson.com/research/3848>
- Trochim, William M. (2006). The research methods knowledge base (2nd). Retrieved from <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net>.

- Van Allen, S. (2013). Engagement at work: Its effect on performance continues in tough economic times. *Key Findings From Gallup's Q12 Meta-Analysis of 1.4 Million Employees*, Gallup Inc., 1-2.
- Vogt, W. P. (2007). *Quantitative research methods for professionals*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Williams, G. (1999). What size sample do I need? *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, 23(2), 215-217.
- Wortman, B., (2001). *Certified six sigma black belt primer*. Indiana: Quality Council of Indiana.
- Xu, J., & Helena, C. T. (2011). How can leaders achieve high employee engagement? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(4), 399-416.
- Youssef, M. (2013). *The leadership style of Jesus*. Oregon: Harvest House Publishers.

APPENDIX A. STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL WORK

Academic Honesty Policy

Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy ([3.01.01](#)) holds learners accountable for the integrity of work they submit, which includes but is not limited to discussion postings, assignments, comprehensive exams, and the dissertation or capstone project.

Established in the Policy are the expectations for original work, rationale for the policy, definition of terms that pertain to academic honesty and original work, and disciplinary consequences of academic dishonesty. Also stated in the Policy is the expectation that learners will follow APA rules for citing another person's ideas or works.

The following standards for original work and definition of *plagiarism* are discussed in the Policy:

Learners are expected to be the sole authors of their work and to acknowledge the authorship of others' work through proper citation and reference. Use of another person's ideas, including another learner's, without proper reference or citation constitutes plagiarism and academic dishonesty and is prohibited conduct. (p. 1)

Plagiarism is one example of academic dishonesty. Plagiarism is presenting someone else's ideas or work as your own. Plagiarism also includes copying verbatim or rephrasing ideas without properly acknowledging the source by author, date, and publication medium. (p. 2)

Capella University's Research Misconduct Policy ([3.03.06](#)) holds learners accountable for research integrity. What constitutes research misconduct is discussed in the Policy:

Research misconduct includes but is not limited to falsification, fabrication, plagiarism, misappropriation, or other practices that seriously deviate from those that are commonly accepted within the academic community for proposing, conducting, or reviewing research, or in reporting research results. (p. 1)

Learners failing to abide by these policies are subject to consequences, including but not limited to dismissal or revocation of the degree.

Statement of Original Work and Signature

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) and Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06), including the Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the *APA Publication Manual*.

Learner name and date Angela R. Johnson 5/8/2015
Mentor name and school ANGELA R. JOHNSON
John A. Machnic, PhD
School of Business and Technology

APPENDIX B. HISTOGRAMS FOR STUDY VARIABLES



Figure B-1. Histogram for work engagement.

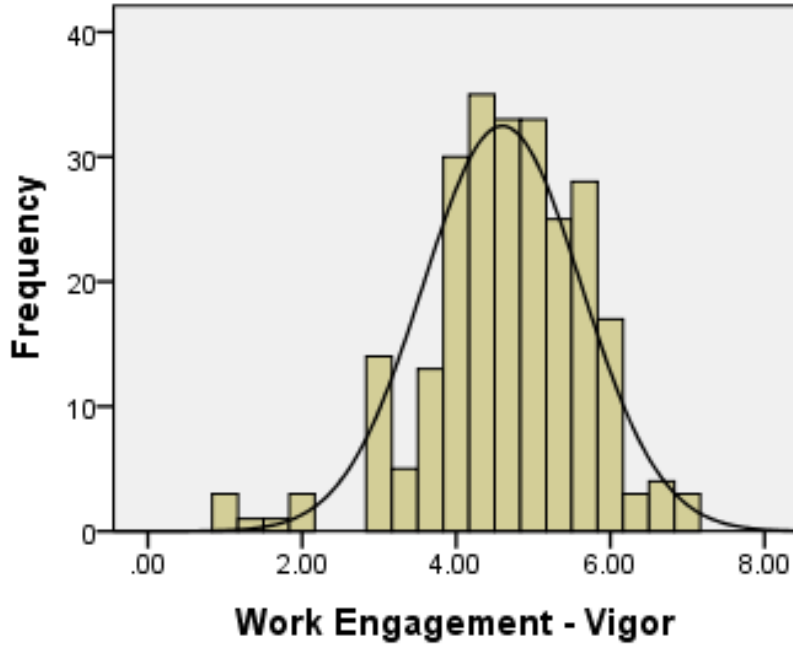


Figure B-2. Histogram for work engagement – vigor.

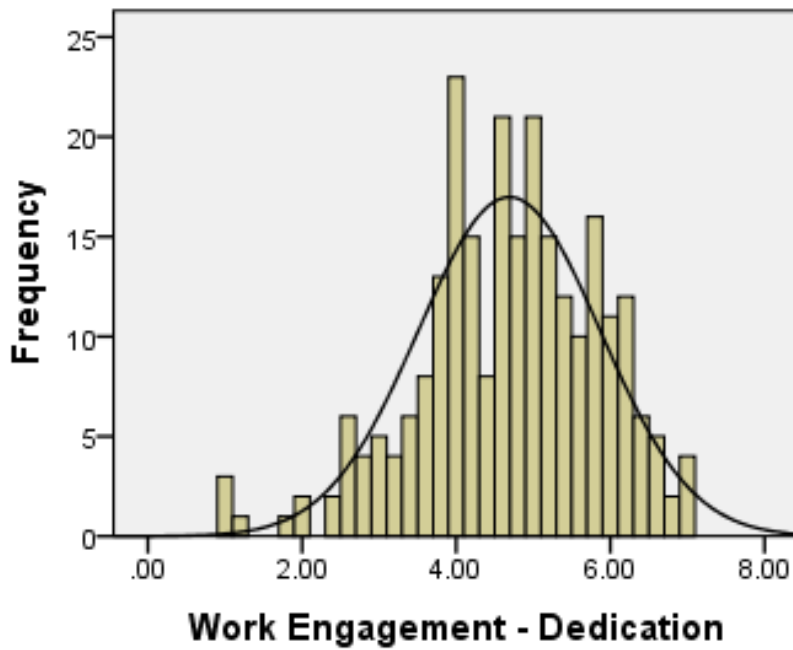


Figure B-3. Histogram for work engagement – dedication.

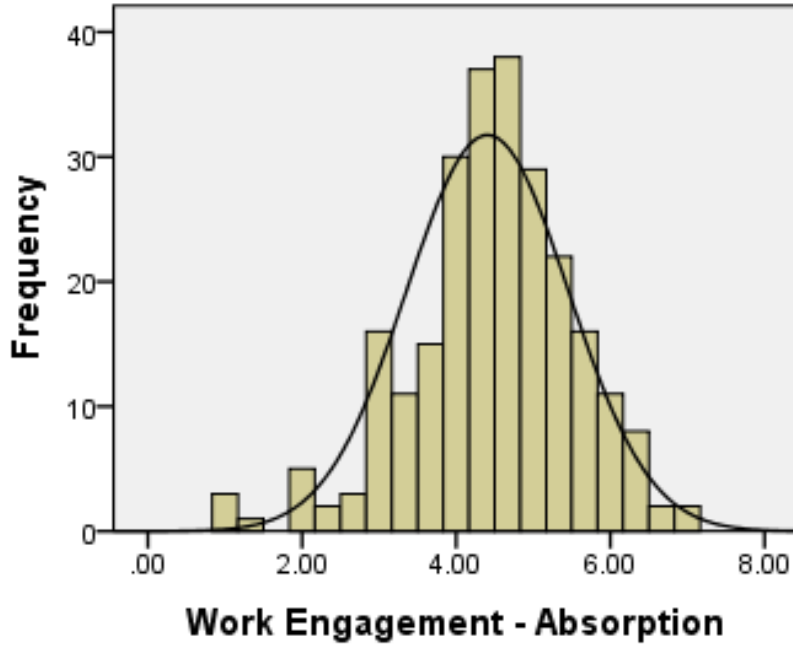


Figure B-4. Histogram for work engagement – absorption.

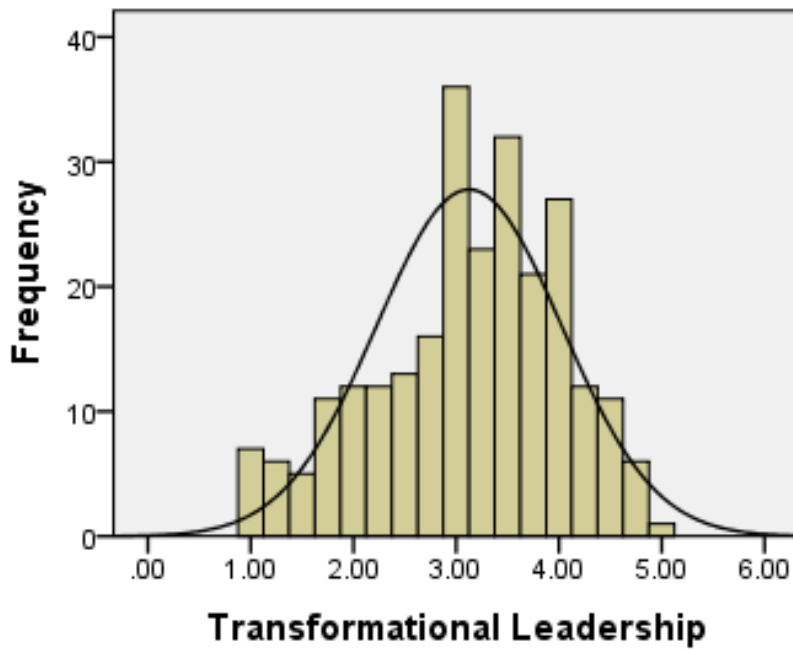


Figure B-5. Histogram for transformational leadership.

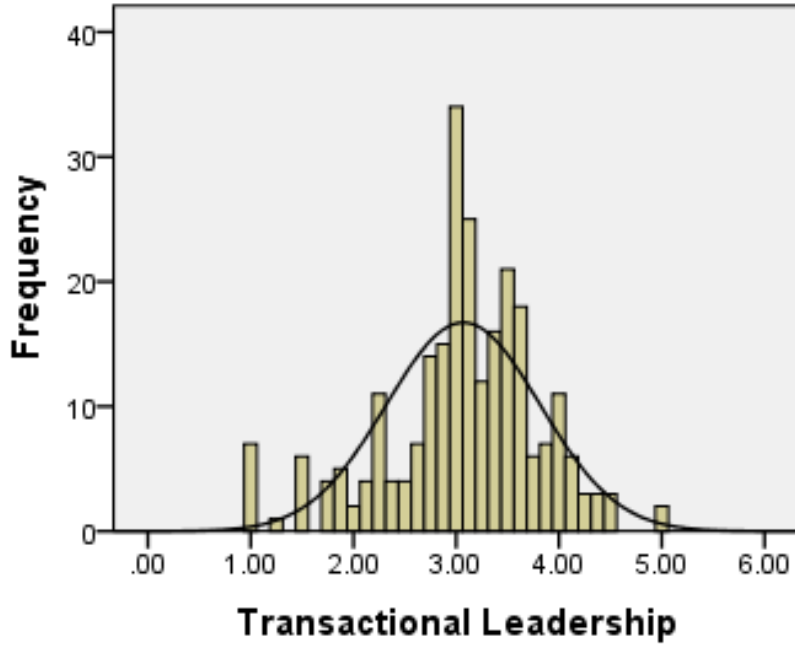


Figure B-6. Histogram for transactional leadership.

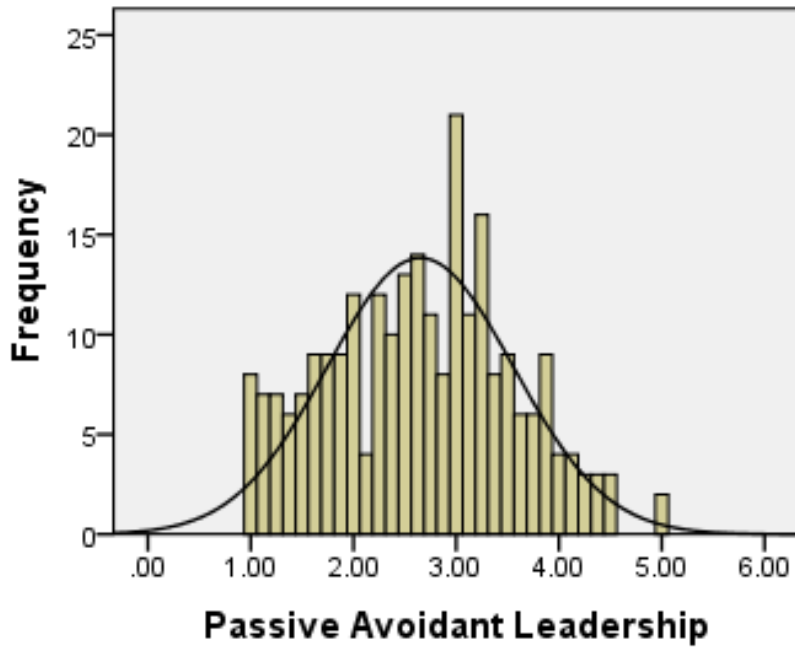


Figure B-7. Histogram for passive-avoidant leadership.