12-5-2023

Relationship Between Transformation Leadership and Employee Engagement Among Customer Experience Employees

April L. Throgmorton
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations

Walden University

College of Management and Human Potential

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

April Throgmorton

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Irene Williams, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Annie Brown, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2023

Abstract

Relationship Between Transformation Leadership and Employee Engagement Among

Customer Experience Employees

by

April Throgmorton

MBA, Webster University, 2016

MA, Webster University, 2015

BS, University of Phoenix, 2012

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

November 2023

Abstract

Disengaged employees cost organizations billions of dollars annually. Business leaders must identify and align leadership styles to avoid losses and improve employee engagement. Grounded in transformational leadership theory, the purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and employee engagement. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used to measure transformational leadership, and the nine-question Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was used to measure employee engagement. Data were collected from 92 usable surveys from employees working in the customer experience field in a large organization in northwest Arkansas. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis indicated that the model, as a whole, was statistically significant $F(4, 87) = 22.873$, $p = .001$, $R^2 = .513$. In the final model, inspirational motivation ($B = .54$, $t = 3.77$, $p = .001$) and individualized consideration ($B = -.36$, $t = -2.11$, $p = .038$) were statistically significant. Idealized influence and intellectual stimulation did not have statistical significance. A key recommendation is for business leaders to implement engagement strategies focusing on motivational behaviors and individualized consideration. Implications for positive social change that could arise from these findings include creating a work environment conducive to stabilizing the labor market and promoting personal financial security.

Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Employee Engagement Among

Customer Experience Employees

by

April Throgmorton

MBA, Webster University, 2016

MA, Webster University, 2015

BS, University of Phoenix, 2012

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

November 2023

Dedication

I want to dedicate this study to my husband and my daughters. My husband has been my continuous support and encouragement throughout the doctoral program and life. We have taken every step together, and I am incredibly grateful that he believed in me enough to take this journey together. The legacy I would like to leave for my daughters is that they can accomplish anything they put their minds to. They have inspired me to be the best part of myself and motivated me to earn this accomplishment.

Acknowledgments

I want to acknowledge my grandparents, who raised me to be the strong, independent individual I am today and for believing that I could conquer the world. They were firm believers in education and admired my tenacity in my studies. Although they have both left this world, I know they would be proud.

I would also like to sincerely thank my chair and committee for their guidance and advice during my journey. I am grateful my committee chair allowed me to work on my own time but also held me accountable for my progress.

Table of Contents

i

iii

List of Tables

List of Figures

Section 1: Foundation of the Study

The phrase *employee engagement* has been a buzzword since the early 1990s (Albrecht et al., 2018). Leadership helps drive employee engagement with motivation and inspiration (Ahmad & Saad, 2020). Rapp et al. (2020) suggested that organizations seek distinguished leaders to drive culture, morale, and performance. Maintaining talented and influential leaders will enable a stable work environment where individuals actively engage and achieve sustainable competitive advantages. I have examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement and produced statistical evidence that transformational leaders engage employees while improving productivity and reducing costs from employee turnover.

Background of the Problem

Organizations face internal and external pressures every day. Strains can include financial difficulties, threat of competition, poor quality and performance outputs, high employee turnover, and failure because of these pressures. However, decision makers within an organization may have less control over external forces than internal ones. Internal pressures may include poor leadership, inadequate performance, and disengaged employees. Effective leadership and an engaged workforce will minimize these internal pressures. Turner (2020) implied that disengaged employees result in less favorable outcomes like poor productivity, less commitment to organizational goals, and higher employee turnover. Williams et al. (2019) suggested that organizations that foster employee engagement activities will help drive positive employee engagement and a more robust organizational commitment to the firm. Leaders set a precedent and can be

the driving force in securing an environment that encourages teamwork, motivation, and cultural acceptance (Turner, 2020). As a result of effective leadership and employee engagement, organizations may thrive financially and professionally, generating a sustainable future.

Problem and Purpose

The specific business problem is that some prominent business leaders in large organizations do not know the relationship between the components of transformational leadership. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between the four dimensions of transformational leadership—
(a) inspirational motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, and
(d) individualized consideration, and employee engagement—among customer experience representatives employed in a large business in northwest Arkansas. Disengaged employees cost businesses substantial money yearly and cause economic concern (Rastogi et al., 2018). Approximately 69% of the United States. workforce needs to be more engaged, thus potentially limiting organizational effectiveness and revenue (Office of Personnel Management, 2019). Poor employee engagement hinders profitability.

Population and Sampling

The targeted population for this study was customer experience representatives. Knechel and Wolf (2019) described a population as the whole collection of individuals within a set parameter. The sample used in this study consisted of customer experience representatives working in a large organization in northwest Arkansas. A sample entails a

subgroup of a population (Knechel & Wolf, 2019). Additional parameters set forth for the sample included a minimum of 6 months working in the customer experience field and being at least age 18.

Nature of the Study

I chose a quantitative research method for this study. Researchers use quantitative research methods to test statistical or numeric data (Saunders et al., 2015). A quantitative research method was appropriate for this study because I used statistical tests to test hypotheses and quantify relationships. Qualitative researchers use exploratory research to interpret participants' perspectives and experiences about a phenomenon (Ingham-Broomfield, 2016; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Because the goal of this study was to test relationships among variables, the qualitative method was unsuitable. Statistical analysis using qualitative research will not answer the research question. Researchers use a mixed-method research methodology to combine quantitative and qualitative research methods (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015). A mixed-method approach did not meet the criteria for this study.

In quantitative studies, researchers may choose the experimental, quasi-experimental, or correlational research design (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018). The designs make inferences about causal relationships between variables (Maciejewski, 2018). A correlation design is a nonexperimental design used to investigate the relationship between two or more quantifiable variables (Yardley & Bishop, 2015). A correlation design was best for this because I aimed to examine the relationships between inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized

consideration, and employee engagement. However, I did not include cause and effect in this study by controlling one or more variables.

Research Question

What is the relationship between the four components of transformational leadership—(a) inspirational motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, (d) individualized consideration—and employee engagement?

Hypotheses

H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between the four components of transformational leadership—(a) inspirational motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, (d) individualized consideration—and employee engagement.

H_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between the four components of transformational leadership—(a) inspirational motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, (d) individualized consideration—and employee engagement.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this quantitative study was transformational leadership theory. Burns (1978) developed transformational leadership theory to examine the relationship between leaders and followers so that leaders and subordinates could understand how to advance their contributions to organizational excellence. Burns first introduced transformational leadership in 1978 and identified four elements: (a) inspirational motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, and

(d) individualized consideration. Bass (1985) later elaborated on transformational leadership theory and emphasized that motivation and the value of positive influence prove an essential link in the leader–follower relationship. Transformational leadership uses four foundational components of the theory to influence followers (Bass, 1985; Northouse, 2019). Thus, by examining the problem through this framework, I have assessed the relationship between inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration and employee engagement.

Operational Definitions

Employee burnout: The state of exhaustion and absolute depletion of physical, cognitive, and emotional resources (Auh et al., 2016).

Employee disengagement: Relates to when an employee detaches from the physical, cognitive, and emotional states of their job role (Scanlan & Still, 2019).

Employee engagement: The commitment and applied effort employees extend toward their jobs (Anitha, 2014; Gupta & Sharma, 2016; Kahn, 1990).

Employee turnover: The rate of an employee's intention to leave or stay at an organization, whether voluntary or involuntary (Aburumman et al., 2020).

Transformational leadership: A leadership style that uses a charismatic approach to motivate and inspire followers (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Mahmood et al., 2019; Northouse, 2019).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

In the following three sections, I highlight this study's assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. Identifying these boundaries is essential when devising the scope of a

study. Additional assumptions, limitations, and delimitations may arise in future research that may alter the content of the study.

Assumptions

Researchers must make a few assumptions when determining what will influence their work. Assumptions are considered the unverified expectations or truths a researcher encounters during the research process that could impact the study (Almeida et al., 2017; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The first assumption was that the organization selected for the study would participate in the survey. Another assumption made was that a relationship existed between the independent and dependent variables to validate this analysis. The third assumption related to all participants completing the questionnaire in its entirety honestly and without bias. A fourth assumption entailed that the findings from this study would be meaningful. The sample size was critical in accurately completing the project; therefore, I assumed would have enough respondents to conduct a regression analysis. I also assumed the data collected would fit a regression model.

In addition, regression analysis requires a researcher to make assumptions to ensure the data fit in the regression model. The first two regression analysis assumptions included measuring the dependent variable at a scale level and that there were two or more continuous-level independent variables. The other six regression assumptions consisted of the independence of observations, linearity between the independent and dependent variables, homoscedasticity, no multicollinearity, no significant outliers, and that the data would appear normally distributed.

Limitations

A researcher may encounter a few consequences or limitations while conducting a study. Limitations are weaknesses that may hinder a study's validity and are out of the researcher's control (McGregor, 2018). The first restriction pertains to whether participants answer survey questions honestly. Another limitation included the geographical condition of northwest Arkansas, which was limiting because I used a narrowed geographical location to pull the sample from, creating difficulty in generalizing the results across the population. A third limitation involved the absence of causal outcomes. Using a quantitative approach presented a limitation because probing questions were not an option for making observations based on interactions.

Delimitations

Contrary to limitations, the research sets the delimitations. Delimitations are the parameters or constraints applied by a researcher to restrict the scope of a study (Theofanidis & Fountouki, 2018; Yin, 2018). The parameters set in this study included surveying participants who worked in the customer experience department of a transportation solutions company in northwest Arkansas. I targeted this department because it is the largest department in the company. Targeting a large department helped ensure a response rate to meet the sample size needed. A second delimitation involved confirming that those participating in the survey had been in their role for at least 6 months. This delimitation could have had a positive and negative effect on the data. A positive outcome consisted of participants being less likely to respond with biased new

employee responses. On the contrary, an opposing viewpoint was that by reducing the sample pool, I also decreased the potential for response fulfillment.

Significance of the Study

Businesses encounter decreased revenue when employees are not fully engaged (Nienaber & Martins, 2020). Working professionals may benefit from this study because I examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement so the findings may help leaders understand their role in leading their employees. Lastly, this study could be significant to business practice and contribute to positive social change by promoting awareness relevant to employee engagement, which often leads to profitability and increases employment opportunities, thus stabilizing the economic value of the communities a business serves.

Contribution to Business Practice

Leadership approaches directly impact a business's success and financial stability (Jena et al., 2018). A leader's ability to motivate and influence their followers may affect how well each follower performs (Vroom, 1964). This study may contribute to business practice by offering comprehensive awareness of the relationships between inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration so that organizations can improve employee engagement. Additionally, the findings of this study could assist leaders in establishing more robust business practices by suggesting effective performance and engagement strategies to increase employees' intent to remain, thus improving a business's competitive positioning in the market.

Implications for Social Change

The findings of this study may provide valuable information to business leaders and professionals who want to build relationships within their organizations and contribute to positive social change in their local communities. Charismatic leaders actively engage employees and lead high-performance work teams. Matthews et al. (2018) posited that high-performance work teams help promote employee retention and stabilize the labor market. Stabilizing the labor market will generate many positive outcomes and social change. One result is reduced unemployment benefits, human services benefits, and other monetary benefits stemming from state and local funding. Higher employment rates also help stimulate consumer buying, which improves community financial health. Communities use tax revenue to improve living standards and provide families with well-being and financial security.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

In this quantitative correlational study, I aimed to examine the relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership and employee engagement. Burns' transformational leadership theory represents the foundation of the study. The goal was to understand how specific leadership styles impact employee engagement, improving productivity and organizational commitment.

This section consists of literature relevant to the transformational leadership theory as the framework of this study. The four components of transformational leadership include inspirational leadership, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Burns, 1978). The section will also contain literature

about three supporting theories: social exchange theory, path–goal theory, and personal engagement theory. Rival theories include job demands–resources, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. Furthermore, this literature review will work as a guide to linking transformational leadership to employee engagement. Research has proven a direct link and employee engagement is critical to the success of an organization (Alzyoud et al., 2019; Jena et al., 2018; Men & Yue, 2019). Positive employee engagement helps increase performance, improve employee commitment to the organization, and minimizes employee turnover, which saves on costs and capitalizes on talent (Alzyoud et al., 2019; Jena et al., 2018; Men & Yue, 2019; Milhem et al., 2019; Northouse, 2019).

I used multiple databases and search engines to obtain peer-reviewed articles and books. I also used government websites. The sources came from EBSCOHost, ProQuest, ABI/INFORM Complete, Business Source Complete, Sage Journals, Emerald Insight, and Google Scholar. Walden University extends access to all databases used in this review, except for Google Scholar. I used the following keywords in the search criteria: *transformational leadership, employee engagement, turnover, job burnout, employee performance,* and *job satisfaction*. Other leadership theories I searched included *transactional leadership, job demands–resources, social exchange, path–goal, personal engagement, and laissez-faire leadership.*

Ulrich's Global Series Directory, accessed through Walden University Online Library, was used as a tool for this study to verify whether resources were peer-reviewed. The literature review consisted of 153 references. Of these resources, 144 were peer-

reviewed articles. Other sources included six books and three websites. All sources were

relevant to the business topic and the foundation of the study. A breakdown of the

sources accessed and used for the literature review is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Literature Search Details

Resources	Within five years	Older than five years	Total
Books	1	5	6
Peer-reviewed articles	65	79	144
Websites	2	1	3
Total	68	85	153

Transformational Leadership

I chose transformational leadership as the framework for this study because of its

historical recognition as an effective leadership style for leaders to build positive

relationships with their followers. Lee et al. (2020) stated that transformational leadership

is the most used leadership style. Burns introduced transformational leadership in 1978 to

explain the relationship between leader and follower (Barbinta et al., 2017; Northouse,

2019). Through transformational leadership, leaders gain trust and loyalty by extending

shared visions and motivations to achieve a common goal (Vargas, 2015). Louw et al.

(2017) examined the concept that a trusted bond between leader and follower results in

the desired outcome. Based on these statements, leaders who want to instill trust among

their employees should follow transformational characteristics.

Additionally, researchers have continually examined the link between

transformational leadership and employee productivity. Ohunakin et al. (2019) conducted

a quantitative study showing a direct correlation between transformational leadership and increased employee performance. Moreover, the findings supported transformational leadership's positive influence on employee engagement and morale (Ohunakin et al., 2019). Ranjbar et al. (2019) conducted a quantitative study to confirm how transformational leadership behaviors affect employee creativity. The researchers concluded that statistical significance existed and that leadership behaviors drive creative problem-solving skills (Ranjbar et al., 2019). Leaders should welcome new ideas and inspire individuals to engage openly in the creative process.

Transformational leaders act as role models and should lead by example. These leaders possess many characteristics that encourage, influence, and motivate essential behaviors that help organizations establish and achieve goals and objectives (Northouse, 2019). Buil et al. (2019) conducted quantitative research proving that transformational leadership predicts job performance and builds job competencies. Some researchers may categorize transformational leaders as strategic leaders because they often yield substantial results.

Components of Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership encompasses subcategories that researchers can use to examine the framework further. Burns (1978) categorized the transformational leadership framework into four components: inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transformational leaders who incorporate these components encourage creativity, performance, and commitment (Mahmood et al., 2019; Northouse, 2019). Using the constructs of transformational

leadership will help leaders form a bond with followers through motivation, charisma, positive influence, and consideration.

Inspirational Motivation. One component of transformational leadership is inspirational motivation. Leaders may use inspirational motivation to influence their followers by focusing on individual needs. Jiang et al. (2018) described inspirational motivation as the encouraging focus and inspiration a leader extends to individuals to foster collaboration, self-confidence, and the desire to fulfill organizational goals. Motivation instills energy and encourages a forward-thinking approach that aligns with the corporate directive (Abdullah & Varatharajoo, 2017). Northouse (2019) claimed that inspiring and motivating leaders often generate enthusiasm and foster higher expectations. Leaders use inspirational motivation to develop a shared vision and secure the emotional connection that encourages performance (Iangat et al., 2019). Iangat et al. also claimed that inspirational motivation directly impacted employee performance, driving vulnerability and connectivity with assurance and confidence. Turning vulnerability into confidence may encourage employees to assert themselves and embrace inner creativity.

Some individuals may view inspirational motivation as self-serving. Salas-Vallina and Fernandez (2017) argued that inspirational motivation only exists so leaders can predict the future and develop high-performance teams to continue achieving organizational goals. Leaders who incorporate inspirational motivation are said to persuade their followers with affirmation and acceptance of desired work ethic and contribution (Hemsworth et al., 2013). Shen et al. (2017) claimed that this

transformational leadership attribute could help unite shared visions with challenging new ideas to meet organizational goals. An essential aspect of inspirational motivation entails convincing individuals to put the organization's good above self-interests and to infuse positive egotisms to feel confident in their decision-making skills (Ariyabuddhiphongs & Kahn, 2017; Pradhan et al., 2017). Transformational leaders empower followers by creating a cohesive work environment that aligns with individual values and needs while encouraging ambitious actions toward organizational objectives.

Idealized Influence. Another dimension of transformational leadership is idealized influence. Many researchers refer to idealized influence as charisma (Besieux et al., 2015). The concept encompasses the thought that followers admire their leaders (Northouse, 2019). Idealized influence consists of two components: idealized attributes and idealized behaviors. Bass and Riggio (2014) expressed that idealized characteristics affect followers' perceptions. Harper (2012) explained that this attribute pertains to how leaders behave and how their behavior affects others. Bass and Bass (2008) made a conceptual claim that an idealized attribute entails a leader's ability to gain an emotional connection and, through that connection, influence the desired outcome through mentorship. Abdullah and Varatharajoo (2017) proposed that leaders portrayed as role models initiate confidence and increase performance. Koveshnikov and Ehrnrooth (2018) corroborated Abdullah and Varatharajoo's findings and discovered they also experienced greater job satisfaction. Iangat et al. (2019) conducted a quantitative correlational study that showed this behavior significantly predicts job performance, particularly with lower-ranking managers. The assurance from leaders often reduces workplace stress and helps

increase employee satisfaction (Syaifuddin, 2016). Transformational leaders who extend idealized influence demonstrate authoritative confidence that inspires individuals to apply logical reasoning and overcome challenges (Change et al., 2019; Verissimo & Lacerda, 2015). Louw et al. (2017) claimed that providing a vision based on shared values could produce purposeful contributions that align with organizational goals.

From a behavioral perspective, transformational leaders who demonstrate idealized characteristics often gain follower approval and respect for identifying and openly accepting group interests (Bai et al., 2016). Exhibiting charismatic behaviors attracts individuals to follow suit and encourages a protégé-like scenario (Downe et al., 2016). Moreover, idealized influence plays a significant role in employee engagement because the leader uses a "leads by example" mentality and places the good of the follower and organization above self (Change et al., 2019; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Leaders who act as role models may have an easier time shaping positive employee behaviors that comply with organizational directives.

Intellectual Stimulation. Innovation, creativity, and decision making often stem from intellectual stimulation. Leaders who foster the open exchange of new approaches and creativity stimulate the intellectual and cognitive responses needed to identify and commit to organizational needs (Northouse, 2019). Liborius (2017) proposed that leaders and followers use intellectual stimulation to develop individual brainpower, unique perspectives, and logical reasoning. Creative learning and organizational support help stimulate the intellect and create cohesive bargaining, so individuals embrace new ideas and develop realistic solutions (Abdelhafiz et al., 2016). Transformational leaders create

unique curiosities and avoid criticizing, thus improving willingness to engage (Azzuhri, 2018). Abdullah and Varatharajoo (2017) implied that leaders adopting transformational leadership style make better decisions and easily overcome challenges.

Many leaders use intellectual stimulation to build relationships and trust between leaders and followers (Yaslioglu & Erden, 2018). Pohler and Schmidt (2015) suggested that through intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders influence others to participate, encourage collaboration actively, and instill a sense of empowerment. Leaders who promote a sense of empowerment entice individuals to challenge the status quo, question assumptions, and take a positive problem-solving approach (Mokhber et al., 2015). This enticing approach may stimulate creativity and opportunity for further review. Furthermore, transformational leaders who openly accept and support individual contributions will promote employee engagement and yield sustainable commitments in leader and follower relationships (Afsar et al., 2017). Leaders who connect with their followers through shared knowledge will arouse their followers to use their imagination and develop creative solutions.

Individualized Consideration. Leaders use individualized consideration to identify individual needs and concerns. The approach entails how a leader empathizes and recognizes a follower's needs and concerns (Bass, 1985). These individualized considerations strengthen the relationship between leader and follower, helping them embrace emotional sensitivities and self-worth (Holten & Brenner, 2015). Leaders act as mentors or advisers to support and develop individuals professionally while improving self-esteem and accomplishments (Northouse, 2019). Individualized considerations

promote healthy achievements by extending emotional considerations and fostering diversified thinking (Hetland et al., 2011). Leaders also maintain an open dialogue to help build relationships and personalize an organization's investment in everyone (Yaslioglu & Erden, 2018). Transformational leadership integrates special considerations as a behavioral attribute to develop unique teaching approaches contributing to individual determination and self-promotion (Northouse, 2019). Leaders who consider individual needs and concerns encourage camaraderie.

Additionally, bridging the gap between leader and follower with individualized considerations will help promote a culturally diverse work environment. Leaders who identify diverse aspirations, recognize advancing capabilities, and encourage regular feedback will entice individuals to exceed expectations (Yaslioglu & Erden, 2018). Individualized consideration focuses on using a personal approach to addressing employee needs and capitalizing on abilities (Northouse, 2019; Yaslioglu & Erden, 2018). Leaders who use this approach to support their followers will build trust, which may help promote healthy development.

Effects of Transformational Leadership

Charismatic leaders may have many positive effects on employee behaviors. Transformational leaders inspire, motivate, and influence employees to achieve desired goals (Burns, 1978). Areas that positive transformational leadership may affect include increasing employee performance and boosting innovation. Transformational leaders can also reduce employee turnover. Minimizing employee turnover also decreases company costs of replacing and retaining employees who leave.

Increase Individual Performance. Many researchers may conclude that transformational leaders are vital in increasing employee performance. Chen et al. (2018) and Sheehan et al. (2020) asserted that transformational leaders extend positive motivation and inspiration in their employees and often yield productive, high-performance outcomes. Dialoke and Ogbu (2018) implied that transformational behaviors encourage positive behaviors, instilling a sense of camaraderie and boosting morale. Chen et al. (2018) stated that transformational leaders openly expressed values and desired expectations, often leading to higher productivity. A motivated and inspired work environment drives efficiencies and performance standards (Chen et al., 2018). Confident employees who feel their contribution is meaningful to the organization may exceed performance expectations and embrace their creativity to be innovative.

Innovation. Transformational leaders often recognizes and encourages creativity. Sheehan et al. (2020) advised that transformational leaders encourage innovation by inspiring employees through vision and motivation. Sheehan et al. also stated that transformational leaders use personal knowledge and experience as a predictive pathway to stimulate exploration, innovation, and positive change. Jian-Xun et al. (2019) posited that inspired employees often think outside the box, challenge the status quo, and render new ideas. Employees who feel leaders embrace and value their opinions tend to act confidently and unafraid to take risks (Hughes et al., 2018). Charismatic leaders who foster new ideas, shared experiences, and open dialogue can spark continued innovative behaviors and employee commitment and reduce employee turnover.

Reduce Turnover. Employees leave organizations for various reasons. Many employees intend to leave because of poor pay, lack of promotion opportunities, or low job satisfaction. According to Dube et al. (2019), less than 10% of employees result from pay or advancement opportunities. Moreover, Gardner et al. (2018) argued that many employees desire growth opportunities but only when organizational and personal values are aligned. Investments in employees to further their development and skills generate employee satisfaction and prolonged commitment to the organization (Al-sharafi et al., 2018; Eliyana et al., 2019; Sarhan et al., 2020). Although these points are all valid, leadership remains the most vital element in an employee's decision to stay with an organization (Juhary et al., 2019; Kossek et al., 2018; Northouse, 2019). Ezam et al. (2018) claimed that poor leadership is why employees leave. Ensuring good leadership will minimize an employee's intent to leave.

A plethora of literature links transformational leadership with positive outcomes concerning employee turnover. Al-sharafi et al. (2018) implied that transformational leaders empower their employees and consider future development a vital element in employee retention. Burns (1978) stated that transformational leaders inspires and motivates employees while recognizing individual needs and fostering an environment of creativity and assurance. These characteristics help promote healthy and happy behaviors, thus contributing to an employee's intent to stay with an organization.

Criticisms of Transformational Leadership

Although many researchers find that the four components of transformational leadership promote enthusiastic and charismatic approaches to influencing a leader–

follower relationship, others feel that the leadership style overly emphasizes specific

criteria. Some researchers concluded that redundancy exists among the four components

(Northouse, 2019; Pleau & Shauman, 2013). Mackie (2014) called the transformational

leadership style antiquated and suggested a more up-to-date leadership style. Northouse

(2019) argued that transformational leadership is subjective and lacks clarity, causing

difficulty in devising measurable parameters. Bass (1999) criticized that transformational

leadership might mirror more of a personality trait than a behavioral trait, thus making it

difficult to teach or learn. Moreover, many controversial opinions condemn

transformational leadership, but supporting theories help enable the theory's constructs.

Supporting Theories of Transformational Leadership

Over the years, many researchers have developed theories supporting the

transformational leadership theory's characteristics. Three similar approaches focus on

leader–follower relationships: the social exchange, path-goal, and personal engagement

theories. Commonalities include motivational triggers, emotional factors, and the

commitment to positive leader–follower connections.

Social Exchange Theory. Like the transformational leadership theory, leaders

use the social exchange model to inspire employees' perceptions and positively shape

their attitudes toward company initiatives. Homans (1958) developed the social exchange

theory (SET) as a framework for combining behaviors with economics (Soieb et al.,

2013). The economic aspect encompassed the written, contractual part of the exchange,

like an offer letter. In contrast, social exchange is the implied contract leaders use to link

shared values. Cropanzano et al. (2017) declared that the SET entails the observable

activities or behaviors that render benefit or reward between at least two individuals. Employees who perceive their relationship with the organization are beneficial to continue to produce favorable outcomes (Almaaitah et al., 2017). Conversely, employees who perceive relationships that cost more than what they are gaining may choose to terminate the relationship. Based on this assumption, attraction and reciprocity are two essential components of the SET framework.

Individuals often react to things they consider attractive. Presbitero (2016) explained that the framework requires a sense of attraction between individuals that entices further interaction and relations. The appeal remains a vital element of social exchanges (Tanskanen, 2015). Attraction ignites appreciation, sensitivity, and obligation (Rather, 2019). Haley (2018) asserted that the interest in social exchanges helps solidify team dynamics, thus stimulating higher work performances and employee retention. Moreover, leaders could use this SET aspect to motivate individuals and gain more substantial commitments.

Some researchers describe reciprocity as the interchangeable recognition, action, or mutual dependence from one person to another. Reciprocity remains another major SET component (Bailey et al., 2017). Carter et al. (2018) professed that employees who experienced agreeable organizational commitment are obligated to appropriate reciprocity through contribution. Rana (2015) posited that employees often return appreciative encounters through engagement. The researchers described the concept as the humanistic approach to responding to an action "in kind."

Path—goal Theory. The path-goal model is like transformational leadership since it uses motivation to influence followers. House (1971) first introduced the path-goal approach to help explain how leaders use behavioral triggers to motivate their followers. The principles of the theory are like transformational leadership in that they focus on the leader—follower relationship. Vieira et al. (2018) defined path-goal as the influence leaders use to guide their followers down the best possible path to reach common objectives. These attainments often instill confidence and encourage individuals to follow similar directions (Vieira et al., 2018). Olowoselu et al. (2019) stated that leaders who "eliminate deficiencies" are viewed as role models and often instill reassurance in followers (p. 449). Olowoselu et al. (2019) outlined four leadership behaviors and two characteristics that are the foundation of the path—goal theory. The four leader behaviors are directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented (Boone, 2019). The characteristics consist of subordinate and task characteristics (Boone, 2019). Leaders who follow the path—goal theory want their followers to succeed genuinely. They offer guidance and foster creativity while extending sensitivity to individual needs and values.

The first leadership behavior is directive leadership. Leaders who use directive leadership are often structured, detail-oriented, and contextual (Northouse, 2019; Olowoselu et al., 2019). The advantages of directive leadership include setting clear expectations, removing obstacles to goal achievement, clarifying job roles and duties, and providing structure to potentially unstructured situations. Directive leadership could prove most effective when developing a new or under—skilled employee when a leader

must make quick decisions and set a firm standard within the work environment (Olowoselu et al., 2019). Directive leadership can initiate action, demand cooperation, evaluate timelines and criteria, and facilitate change.

Another leadership behavior in the path-goal theory framework is supportive leadership. Supportive leadership is like transformational leadership's individualized consideration and often appeals to the emotional approach of the leadership style (Northouse, 2019; Olowoselu et al., 2019). Supportive leaders use empathy and concern for one's well-being (Olowoselu et al., 2019). Supportive leadership encourages a sense of loyalty and reliability between leader and follower (Saleem et al., 2021). The advantages of supportive leadership include boosting morale, fostering an environment of consideration and comfortability, and creating positivity, acceptance, and inclusion (Saleem et al., 2021). Supportive leaders should provide adequate resources and training, encourage succession planning, and be transparent with the necessary information to advance skills and opportunities.

The third leadership behavior is participative leadership. Participative leaders often solicit followers' opinions and ideas and allow followers to participate in decision-making (Northouse, 2019). A few advantages to participative leadership include increased participation from followers, promoting team involvement and collaboration, encouraging creativity and out—of—the—box thinking, and reducing employee turnover by giving every individual a voice. The participative leadership style may be effective during routine decision-making, devising organizational strategies, aligning department cooperation, and enticing team contributions.

Achievement-oriented is the last leadership behavior in the path—goal theory framework. Achievement-oriented leaders often challenge their followers to perform above expectations (Northouse, 2019). Although achievement-oriented leaders set higher standards and expect continuous improvement, they are also confident in how their followers will deliver (Northouse, 2019; Olowoselu et al., 2019). This style aims to set attractive goals so that individuals are inspired to participate and achieve the goals (Saleem et al., 2021). This form of leadership works well when personal rewards are at stake, when individuals do not manage time well, and when individuals face moderate to complex decision-making (Olowoselu et al., 2019). The achievement-oriented leaders will motivate followers by setting attainable but high standards, sharing responsibility, and removing barriers to achievement (Olowoselu et al., 2019). Research has proven that individuals work at a higher standard when they feel a sense of accomplishment and purpose (Bass, 1985; Northouse, 2019; Olowoselu et al., 2019). Individuals naturally want to work towards a goal when they feel it is achievable.

The characteristics of subordinates encompass two elements: their perceived ability and locus of control. Perceived ability refers to how the individual views their ability to address the task. Employees with high perceived knowledge may need less supervision, whereas employees with insufficient knowledge may need more direction. Locus of control refers to how employees rationalize what happens to them based on their behavior, internal control, or, based on another's doing, an external cause.

The other characteristic of the path—goal theory is task characteristics. Characteristics of tasks consist of the design of the follower's mission, the formal

organizational structure, and the workgroup of the followers (Northouse, 2019; Olowoselu et al., 2019). These characteristics outline a path with a clear understanding of the steps required to perform the task effectively. The task characteristics help the leader determine the appropriate leadership style to obtain the desired outcome.

Employee Engagement Theory. Like the transformational leadership theory, the constructs of the employee engagement theory include inspiring and supporting employees so they are confident in their role in the workplace. Kahn (1990) introduced the employee engagement theory to investigate employee engagement. The general approach encompasses various aspects of attention, including personal, work, and employee engagement (Anitha, 2014). Kahn targeted three specific dimensions of engagement: physical, cognitive, and emotional (Chen & Huang, 2016). They claimed that interaction included the endless diversities of employee expression within each dimension. Anitha (2014) suggested that employees often delivered higher performance levels when they exhibited attributes from all three dimensions. The more individuals engage, the more confident they become, and the higher the chance of increased performance.

Physical engagement pertains to the positive attachment to tasks and behaviors required to complete an organizational directive (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015). According to Shuck and Reio (2014), this dimension requires a certain emotional and cognitive engagement level to address challenging circumstances. Rothmann and Baumann (2014) claimed that physically engaged employees often exceeded performance expectations because they were willing to exert more effort.

Cognitive engagement entails the presence or willingness of individuals openly investing in the organization. Shuck and Reio (2011) implied that cognitive engagement assesses an individual's perceived work environment. This dimension involves a personal appraisal of how a contribution is made (Purcell, 2014). Recognizing the psychological state of mind could enhance the ability to align personal attributes with company objectives.

Emotional engagement represents the connection or attachment individuals feel that leads to engagement. Emotional engagement is the bond among employees of shared values, intellectual assets, and mutual commitment that promotes comradery and commitment (Shuck & Reio, 2011). Although many emotional triggers exist, a few factors that drive emotional engagement include happiness, anxiety, and intrigue.

Rival Theories

Rival theories exist that do not coincide with the constructs of the transformational leadership theory. Three approaches representing alternative or differing constructs to the transformational leadership theory include job demands-resources theory, transactional leadership theory, and laissez-faire leadership. Each idea represents an opposing view of how to influence organizational outcomes based on either a checks-and-balances perspective or a more abdicating approach.

Job Demands—Resources Theory. Many job roles require high demands; in many cases, low resources are available to assist with the increased needs. Demerouti et al. (2001) developed the job demands-resources model to outline how job demands and resources impact engagement, motivation, and workplace stress. Researchers use the

model to emphasize how high work demands and low job resources hinder job

performance and often lead to disengagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Bakker and

Demerouti (2017) suggested that the JD-R model could help firms determine the

motivational processes and mechanisms needed to address triggers of work engagement.

Some researchers split the model into stress and motivational techniques (Bakker &

Demerouti, 2017; Borst et al., 2019; Katou et al., 2021). Beraldin et al. (2019) conducted

a study to examine how excessive job demands and limited job resources lead to work

overload and exhaustion. Leaders should incorporate a healthy balance of work demands

and resources to avoid workplace stress and burnout.

Job demands refer to the effort required to sustain or complete a task. The action

could entail voluntary and involuntary steps that may lead to psychological, physical, or

social challenges. Beraldin et al. (2019) described emotional and physical exhaustion,

unreasonable work expectations and pressures, and work-related stress encompassing a

few job demands and challenges. However, job demands do not always present adverse

reactions. Some individuals find it exhilarating to face challenging job demands (Rai,

2018). In many cases, employees view job demands to grow and further develop their

skillsets and competencies (Crawford et al., 2010). Managing high work demands could

aid in employee retention and job satisfaction.

Ensuring adequate resources are available to the employees to meet the job's

demands may improve workplace stress, job performance, and engagement. Job

resources are tangible and intangible assets the employer provides to ensure job/task

accomplishment (Sakuraya et al., 2017). Job resources encompass any psychological,

physical, and social characteristics used to drive self-motivation, accomplish

organizational goals, and reduce workplace hindrances that would cause any emotional or

psychological burden (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Rai, 2018). Increasing job resources

minimizes job demands (Cao et al., 2020). Leaders who positively influence, extend

supervisor support and promote healthy balances often counteract the stress of high

demands and encourage productive and logical reasoning (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018;

Kwan, 2016). However, this leadership model may not necessarily motivate or inspire

employees to exceed expectations or trust in the leader–follower relationship.

  Transactional Leadership. The transactional leadership style relies heavily on

self-motivated employees who work well in a somewhat micromanaged environment.

Weber introduced transactional leadership in 1947 and grouped the theory into two

categories: rewarding success and punishing failures (Darawong, 2020). The leader

assumes power over the desired outcome, whether using contingent reward or managing

by exception. Transactional leaders use the constructs of this theory to establish a sense

of fairness and accountability (Darawong, 2020). Junquera and Brío (2017) stated that

many firms view efficiencies based on individual performance versus group performance,

thus making the accountability piece of transactional leadership easier to follow.

Transactional leadership is like transformational leadership because both styles motivate

or influence the employee to achieve the desired goal (Darawong, 2020). The opposition

is in how the leaders impose their influence.

  Contingent reward is a characteristic of transactional leadership. Xu and Wang

(2019) described contingent reward as an extension of rewarding employees based on

subordinates' accomplishments or desired outcomes. Leaders may refer to rewards as tangible and intangible accommodations. The tangible rewards may include paid time off, bonus incentives, or other monetary offerings. Graham et al. (2015) stated that leaders who focus on intangible rewards stimulate a sense of legitimacy and reliability in the workplace. Instances of intangible rewards may consist of time off, verbal recognition, or any convenient accommodation like special parking or longer lunch breaks.

Transactional leaders also use the management by exception concept. Leaders use this characteristic to control motivation by instilling a fear of corrective action (Hetland et al., 2011). In active management by exception, the leader monitors progress and takes disciplinary action to maintain the course for task completion. Meanwhile, passive management by exception may entail the leader controlling any deviation and later penalizing the follower (Antonakis et al., 2003; Raziq et al., 2018). This style allows the leader to express the difference between the expected outcome and the reality of the outcome.

Laissez—Faire Leadership. The laissez-faire (L-F) leadership style is an abdicating approach to leadership and essentially contradicts the constructs of transformational leadership. According to Alloubani et al. (2019), Kurt Lewin introduced laissez-faire leadership during his leadership experiments to empower employees to make necessary decisions without consulting the leader. Khaira (2018) claimed that followers under the L-F leadership style perform tasks and activities unsupervised and without guidance. Boamah et al. (2018) suggested that L-F leaders allow their followers to explore their paths, use their collective reasoning to make decisions, and make their own

mistakes. Wong and Giessner (2018) said leaders delegate authority, responsibility, and decision-making to their followers. They further argued that L-F leaders avoid building relationships with their subordinates, nor do they interfere with the decision-making process or workplace practices. Characteristics of the L-F model are absent from any leadership presence or influence, thus contradicting any constructs of transformational leadership.

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement remains a hot topic within organizations today. Researchers relate employee engagement to the commitment, applied effort, and contribution employees extend within a work environment (Anitha, 2014; Kahn, 1990). An organization's success heavily relies on positive employee engagement (Kumar & Pansari, 2015). Engagement also represents participating in organizations' goals and objectives to maintain competitive advantages (Sultana, 2015). Employees who are said to portray psychological dedication and zeal toward organizational directives are fully engaged (Bailey et al., 2017; Cahill et al., 2015; Zhong et al., 2016). Employee engagement may include all considerations of individual emotional, physical, and cognitive resources required to anticipate and actively contribute to the desired outcome.

Levels of Engagement

Leaders who recognize the levels of engagement may generate more consistent productivity. Ali (2019) claimed engaged employees remain critical to an organization's overall business performance. Engaged employees also generate higher revenues (Jha & Kumar, 2016). Eldor and Vigoda-Gadot (2017) suggested that organizations view

individual confidence, eagerness to learn, and commitment to their role as conventional employee engagement measures. Contrarily, some researchers recommended using key performance indicators like productivity, turnover ratio, and profitability to measure employee engagement (Vermooten et al., 2019). Kahn (1990) declared that the three levels to consider when determining employee engagement are cognitive, emotional, and physical. Identifying these levels may help improve leaders' connectivity with their subordinates.

Cognitive Engagement. Leaders may view cognitive engagement as aligning organizational strategy and individual effort. Cognitive engagement refers to an individual's steps to invest in their role (Joo et al., 2017). During cognitive engagement, the employee determines whether their work has a purpose, is fulfilling, and has all available resources to accomplish it (Kahn, 1990). Yalabik et al. (2017) inferred that engagement directly results from the cognitive evaluation of their role and organizational commitment. Employees are cognitively engaged when they weigh their job efforts against the organization's goals.

Furthermore, employees must know their company's vision to contribute actively. Cognitive engagement stimulates increased employee commitment to the organization (Yalabik et al., 2017). Logically, when employees are cognitively engaged in the workplace, they feel that their work is meaningful and satisfying. Lastly, employees who encounter a deep, cognitive connection will remain invested in their role, often leading to an emotional engagement.

Emotional Engagement. Some researchers describe emotional engagement as an enthusiastic response to feelings. Emotional engagement involves investing personal assets like trust, shared knowledge, and passionate commitment to the organization (Jena et al., 2018). Jena et al. also described emotional engagement as the personal connection between employees and organizations based on their relationship. In a study conducted by Reina et al. (2018), they proposed that emotional engagement mediates the relationship between supervisor influence and employee turnover. Furthermore, Reina et al. found that leaders use inspirational motivation, a component of transformational leadership, to influence emotional engagement. Employees who experience a positive push toward their organization's goals may be more willing to invest passionate commitment and effort.

Physical Engagement. Physical engagement relates to the exertion employees exert in their job roles. Kahn (1990) described physical engagement as the combination of cognitive and emotional connection to an individual function. Researchers have also described physical engagement as an employee's observable behavior while in the workplace (Kahn, 1990). Although physical engagement seems self-explanatory and includes a physical presence in and toward the workplace, it also pertains to the psychological drive of cognitive and emotional stance.

Factors That Drive Employee Engagement

Specific drivers exist that encourage employee engagement in the workplace. Identifying what factors stimulate positive engagement may increase performance and job satisfaction and produce desired outcomes. Leadership influence plays a vital role in

driving engagement. Organizational culture can also influence employee engagement.

Establishing an employee reward system may also drive positive employee engagement.

Reward systems entail tangible and intangible benefits.

Leadership. Positive leadership could drive employee engagement by

establishing a rapport between leaders and followers and connecting meaningful goals

and objectives with daily activities and experiences. Kahn (1990) heavily argued that

leadership is the number one contributing factor in employee engagement. Followers trust

and commit easily to leaders who relate through shared knowledge and experiences. Lam

et al. (2015) suggested that leaders use rational persuasion, collaboration, conflict

resolution, and attraction to influence employees to engage confidently. Kahn (1990)

argued that leader–follower relationships grow based on mutual interest. Gustomo et al.

(2019) corroborated Kahn's theory and explained that sharing social and cultural

traditions in the sense of storytelling rendered individuals more comfortable with actively

participating.

Conversely, leaders who display abusive behaviors ignite unfavorable outcomes.

Leaders play a vital role in minimizing workplace triggers that may cause harm to

employees. A few triggers include job stress, burnout, and mental exhaustion. Harms et

al. (2017) stated that leaders who experience stress in the workplace hinder the leader–

follower relationship and often project negative behaviors onto their workers. As a result,

subordinates absorb the job stress, causing burnout (Harms et al., 2017). Talukder et al.

(2018) claimed that job stress often inhibits the subordinate's ability to maintain a

positive work-life balance. Leaders must recognize abusive behaviors and refrain from extending those behaviors.

Culture. Organizational culture remains a buzz word in corporate society. The organizational climate drives employee engagement (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2017). Establishing a corporate culture conducive to the company mission and vision will engage employees through understanding expectations and valued commitment to the organization and each other as valued members of the work environment. Communication remains crucial in setting a collaborative and engaging work environment (Parke & Myeong-Gu, 2017). Eldor and Vigoda-Gadot (2017) expanded on their engagement theory to confirm that communication between leaders and followers improves confidence, increases contribution, and harmonizes interactions in the work environment. Communication is mutually beneficial and can be a powerful influence on a leader–follower relationship.

Tangible and Intangible Benefits. Leaders could use tangible and intangible resources to reward employees. Employee rewards are compelling drivers for engagement (Antony, 2018). According to Ojwang (2019), organizations must integrate a comprehensive balance of tangible and intangible benefits objectives to ensure employees see the value in contributing. Tangible benefits may include compensation and other monetary rewards to entice and motivate employees to engage actively. Intangible benefits may consist of the psychological arousal individuals experience. For instance, recognition, achievements, and morale are examples of intangible benefits that help drive employee engagement. Ojwang also claimed that organizations implementing a holistic

reward strategy increased employee engagement and improved organizational effectiveness. Whether tangible or intangible, leaders could use some reward strategy to move the needle in positive employee engagement.

Outcomes of Employee Engagement

Employee engagement could generate many positive outcomes. For instance, organizations view revenue as the leading benefit of employee contribution; thus, increased profitability remains at the top of the list for positive results. Another advantage involves employees exceeding expectations and maximizing performance standards while producing high-quality output. Employees who share knowledge and experiences gain alliances, grow as individuals, and help develop their peers.

Profitability. Profitability is essential for organizational survival. Schneider et al. (2018) recognized that positive employee engagement drives revenue. S. Albrecht et al. (2018) corroborated Schneider et al. findings and examined the correlation between engagement and competitive advantages. A positive correlation does exist between engagement and competitive advantage, thus improving an organization's profitability. Employee engagement drives productivity, positive customer experience, sustainable benefits, and increased revenue (Gupta & Sharma, 2016). Engaged employees are less likely to leave the organization, thus reducing turnover costs and improving the organization's bottom line.

Increased Performance. Logically, engaged employees would willingly commit to exceeding performance expectations. Albrecht et al. (2015) claimed that actively engaged employees generate higher productivity, thus improving performance

expectations and outcomes. As a result of engaged employees, many organizations witness increased productivity, open support for company initiatives, and a heavy commitment to organizational goals and objectives (Alzyoud et al., 2019; Jurek & Besta, 2019; Men & Yue, 2019). Engagement is a motivational tool to unite individuals who share common goals (Kahn, 1990). Succession and developmental goal planning increase individual participation, engagement, and performance opportunities (Shuck & Herd, 2012). Shuck et al. (2016) argued that work conditions impact employee engagement significantly. Employees who experience a positive work environment are committed to organizational performance objectives and want to exceed their productivity expectations. Enhancing an employee's experience will, in turn, improve job performance, productivity, and organizational buy-in (Popli & Rizvi, 2016).

Shared Knowledge. The freedom of sharing tribal expertise and experiences will continue to play a vital role in employee engagement. Kahn (1990) argued that leaders and individuals share knowledge and personal experiences to form relationships. Dong et al. (2016) claimed that sharing knowledge within the workplace stimulates the creative process and helps foster continued dialogue. Sharing expertise and actively engaging in communication helps build trust and support among team members (Gawke et al., 2017). Gawke et al. declared that behaviors generated from a supportive work environment often encourage employees to take risks and explore their innovative creativity. Leaders and followers who share their experiences gain a sense of accomplishment, cohesion, and acceptance, aiding engagement.

Employee Disengagement

Consequently, many organizations experience employee disengagement. Employee disengagement refers to the physical, cognitive, or emotional withdrawal or detachment from an activity or group of participants (Moeller et al., 2018). Vermooten et al. (2019) stated that disengaged employees are unhappy with their job roles or performance and often detach themselves from the work environment emotionally and cognitively, often leading to low productivity. Disengagement costs organizations approximately billions of dollars annually (Hollis, 2015). Fox et al. (2017) claimed that only 20% of individuals are engaged in the workplace. Kahn (1990) defined disengagement as the separation between an individual and their role(s) in the workplace. Anitha (2014) claimed disengaged employees negatively influence coworkers, which may jeopardize participation. Failing to connect emotionally and cognitively with coworkers often diminishes the motivation and commitment to the organization and its vision (Kahn, 1990). Allam (2017) agreed with Kahn and claimed that the influence of disengaged employees often results in workplace bullying. Disengaged employees negatively impact organizational vision and culture.

Drivers of Employee Disengagement

Like drivers for employee engagement, drivers for disengagement also occur. Glavas (2016) suggested disengaged individuals may detach themselves because of a poor work environment or a lack of organizational support. Rashidin et al. (2019) researched that approximately 50% of the American workforce is disengaged, leading to

about $400 billion in lost productivity yearly. A few drivers of disengagement include job stress and poor leadership.

Job Stress. A significant driver of employee disengagement is work stress. According to Demerouti et al. (2001), job demands could alter individual engagement based on the pressure that causes the need. Fox et al. (2017) shared that many employees experience job stress because of high work demands. Fox et al. also suggested that job stress often promotes negative behaviors that result in employee disengagement. Anitha (2014) implied that increased pressure in the workplace produces inefficiencies and low productivity. Although many causes can provoke job stress, a primary reason is a poor leader.

Poor Leadership. A leader's behavior may drive individuals to withdraw themselves and become disengaged. Poor leadership in the work environment often leads to employee disengagement (Shuck & Herd, 2012; Vermooten et al., 2019). Jena et al. (2018) argued that leaders play the most critical role in engagement practices. This argument shows leaders with good leadership techniques will foster a more engaged work environment. G. Huang et al. (2017) stated that input quality will determine the output quality. This concept means leaders who invest time and effort into their subordinates encounter higher performance and engagement.

In contrast, leaders who do not encourage and motivate subordinates often generate less favorable outcomes. Employees who feel their leaders do not support them often detach themselves (Kahn, 1990). Leaders who lack positive leadership strategies set

the organization up for higher turnover, low productivity, and employee burnout (Anitha, 2014).

Outcomes of Employee Disengagement

Organizations could face unfavorable outcomes because of disengaged employees. Mackay et al. (2017) suggested that disengaged employees often show signs of employee burnout, have low productivity based on poor performance and absenteeism, and have high turnover intentions. Their implications will prove valuable when measuring employee engagement or disengagement.

Employee Burnout. Disengaged employees often become disengaged because of burnout. Employee or job burnout leads to disengagement (Anthony-McMann et al., 2017). Auh et al. (2016) described burnout as the mental and physical exhaustion and utter depletion of emotional resources. Prolonged or chronic stress that negatively affects employees eventually results in burnout (Anthony-McMann et al., 2017). Burnout induces personal feelings of inadequacy, incompetence, and cynicism (Scanlan & Still, 2019). Moeller et al. (2018) conducted quantitative research to measure how the level of engagement impacts employee burnout. They analyzed how high engagement resulted in low burnout, whereas high burnout led to minimal involvement. Disengaged employees often predict burnout, cynicism, and harmful job functions (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Employees often disengage when they do not feel their contribution is meaningful, which leads to workplace stress, decreased performance, absenteeism, and, ultimately, burnout. Leaders could use signs of employee burnout to identify the level of engagement and use it as an opportunity to correct negative behaviors.

Poor Performance. Organizations often see a decline in performance because of disengagement. Saxena and Srivastava (2015) claimed that disengaged employees often underperform, possibly causing financial liabilities. Martinez (2015) declared that disengaged employees often lack the emotional connection to perform adequately. Bakker et al. (2014) linked disengagement with the inability to actively identify with job duties, thus leading to poor productivity. Anitha (2014) said that employees who do not engage in organizational directives experience short-term vision and focus only on the task. Alternatively, employees who view their work tasks as meaningless often withdraw their attention from the duties and fail to complete them as expected (Ford et al., 2015). Disengagement hinders teammates' cohesion and may impede improved performance's natural progression. Leaders could use performance to measure employee engagement and as a possible indicator of needed change.

Employee Turnover. Much is lost when an employee leaves a company. Organizations incur substantial costs yearly because of employee turnover (Wang, 2018). Kiernan (2018) claimed that recruiting and training just one new candidate could amount to as much as a single employee's yearly salary. Losing knowledge and productivity increases the organization's overall expenses (Wang, 2018). Although the costs are high, employers must identify what drives an employee to leave.

Many drivers cause employees to separate from an organization. One driver of employee turnover is disengagement (Vermooten et al., 2019). Employees often need to be more engaged when satisfied with their job role or discouraged by their supervisor's leadership capabilities, thus increasing the employee's will to leave (Kavya &

Padmavathy, 2017). Inadequate work-life balance could also trigger disengagement.

Employees unable to separate work from life tend to have higher turnover intentions

(Vermooten et al., 2019). A healthy balance between work and life helps employees

separate professional and personal choices, not blurring the line between the two.

Employees often want to satisfy their supervisor or work group, which creates

additional pressure and stress. Leadership plays a vital role in an employee's intent to

leave. Leaders could use turnover as a measurement standard to monitor job satisfaction,

employee engagement, and organizational commitment. These measurements and

monitoring could help prevent workplace stress, leading to a separation from the

company.

Strategies to Drive or Improve Employee Engagement

Leaders must recognize what drives engaged employees. Developing strategies

that encourage employees to engage positively could benefit the organization on many

levels. Although many techniques exist, a few to improve employee engagement include

communication, employee advancement opportunities, exchanging knowledge, and

providing adequate resources.

Communication. Communication can improve employee engagement by

stimulating participation between two or more parties. Communication remains vital in

maintaining positive dialogue between leaders and followers (Kahn, 1990). Lemon and

Palenchar (2018) implied that effective communication helps drive employee

engagement, instills trust, and fosters creativity. Many modes of communication exist and

can be used to initiate an active dialogue within the workplace. Team meetings, one-on-

one touch base meetings, flash announcements via email or information boards, and all other avenues used to transmit information from a sender to a receiver are ideas for communicating. Mohamad Nor et al. (2018) claimed that technological advancements have made communication more accessible. They stated that many organizations use a company intranet to relay vital information to reach mass employees simultaneously. Communication helps keep individuals in the know and part of the bigger picture by securing a connection and open flow of information (Ljajic & Pirsl, 2021). Keeping an open dialogue among work teams helps reduce disengagement, minimizes confusion, and increases employees' intent to stay.

Employee Development. Companies have advanced their efforts with employee development. Urbancová and Vnoučková (2018) examined the action of developing employees and how the growth directly correlated to employee commitment to the organization and job performance. They also provided evidence that employee development reduces employee turnover intention. Developing employees could produce high value to an organization's overall performance. Mwiandi and Juma (2018) suggested that organizations invest in their employees to gain organizational commitment and drive a high-performing workplace environment. As a result, employees often stay with an organization to advance their skills and promote and exceed productivity expectations (Budie et al., 2019). Essentially, employee development represents the investment organizations make in their employees to express their appreciation for a job well done.

Knowledge Exchange. Shared knowledge often creates a feeling of empowerment. Leaders may use sharing their knowledge and experiences to drive

employee engagement. For instance, leaders who communicate their processes, procedures, and training material share knowledge (Ouedraogo & Rinfret, 2019). Yadav et al. (2018) inferred that leaders who share knowledge with their employees often gain attention and participation, leading to higher engagement activities. Gawke et al. (2017) expressed that those leaders who share knowledge and experience shape an environment of desired job behaviors, innovation, and buy—in. Creating that genuine bond between leader and follower through lived experiences and tribal knowledge could secure long-term relationships.

Adequate Resources. It is essential to provide sufficient resources that fulfill job roles' physical, cognitive, and emotional requirements for employees to achieve organizational goals and objectives. Byrne et al. (2017) stated that employees who encounter adequate job resources feel secure and actively engage in company initiatives. According to Culibrk et al. (2018), organizations that provide sufficient job resources increase employee engagement, foster creativity, and create learning and succession opportunities. Also, adequate resources minimize workplace stress, job burnout, and employee disengagement (Anthony-McMann et al., 2017; Menon & Priyadarshini, 2018; Scanlan & Still, 2019). Employees who experience adequate job and personal resources maintain a healthier work-life balance (Gawke et al., 2017; Vermooten et al., 2019). Reducing workplace stress will result in less burnout and reduce employee turnover.

Transition

This quantitative correlational study aims to examine the relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership and employee engagement. This study will

take place in a transportation solutions company in Arkansas, a southern state in the United States. I plan to measure each component of transformational leadership as it relates to employee engagement.

Section 1 consisted of the background of the business problem, the problem and purpose statements, and a brief nature of the study. Additionally, Section 1 included the research question, the null and alternative hypotheses, and the study's theoretical framework. Moreover, Section 1 encompassed operational definitions and assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. After sharing the significance of this study, I provided a thorough review of professional and academic literature.

In Section 2, I will reintroduce the purpose statement, define my role as the researcher, and reveal the targeted sample participants. I will explain the method and design choice, discuss the constructs of ethical research, the data collection instruments I will use in this study, and the data analysis. Lastly, this section will address the study's internal or external validity threats.

Section 2: The Project

In this study, I sought to reveal the relationship between the independent

variables, which are the four components of transformational leadership, inspirational

motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration,

and the dependent variable employee engagement. I used a survey instrument to collect

data and analyzed the data to measure the variables. The targeted sample included hourly

participants in a large transportation solutions company's customer experience

department in northwest Arkansas. Section 2 of this study encompasses the actual project

and work to elaborate on the chosen research method and design to render the study valid

and reliable.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the

relationship between the four dimensions of transformational leadership: (a) inspirational

motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized

consideration, and employee engagement among customer experience representatives

employed in a large business in northwest Arkansas.

Role of the Researcher

My role as the researcher in this quantitative correlational study was to analyze

the data collected and present empirical research as credible and verified evidence. Many

researchers use quantitative research as an objective way to obtain and analyze data.

Using quantitative research helps eliminate personal bias from a researcher and

participants. Understanding how personal influence or bias could affect the research is

imperative (Karagiozis, 2018). Using an already established and approved questionnaire to obtain data on transformational leadership and employee engagement helped reduce time and steps. A vetted questionnaire ensured no personal bias was absent from the collection process. Additionally, no direct or indirect contact occurred with the participants to avoid personal influence. Saunders et al. (2015) argued the necessity of following a code of ethics to ensure the proper treatment of the participants involved and the application of information obtained during the analysis process. The goal was to follow the Belmont Report to aid in the ethical treatment of participants. The Belmont Report identifies three basic ethical principles, including (a) respect for others and their right to participate or not; (b) beneficence, using caution not to cause any harm to others; and (c) justice, extending equal and fair treatment for all parties (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2018). I followed these three ethical principles while conducting my research.

Participants

The targeted sample for this analysis consisted of associates working in the customer experience department at a large transportation solutions company in Arkansas. Half the participants were entry-level, hourly paid employees, while the other half were salaried. The objective was to measure employee engagement and how the four components of transformational leadership affect employee engagement. The organization chosen for this study was a large transportation and supply chain solutions business. The criteria for the participants had minimal restrictions. The participants must have worked in the customer experience field for at least 6 months.

Research Method and Design

Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed are three research methods (Ma & Zhang, 2019). Each method generates outcomes from different perspectives. I examined the relationship between two or more variables; thus, the quantitative approach was appropriate.

Research Method

Researchers use quantitative research to examine numerical data (Ma & Zhang, 2019). According to Zyphur and Pierides (2019), surveys are the most favored instrument for collecting numerical data in quantitative research. Brown et al. (2017) argued that researchers use the quantitative method more than others. Researchers use quantitative methods to test relationships between two or more variables (Boeren, 2018). Yin (2018) stated that researchers seek to quantify and group data using statistical techniques. In this study, I examined numerical data and tested the relationships between the four components of transformational leadership and employee engagement.

Another method of research is the qualitative method. Individuals use the qualitative method to conduct exploratory research (Busetto et al., 2020). Yin (2018) explained that qualitative researchers most often use interviews with open-ended questions to obtain data. The researcher is the main instrument who collects data and uses the data and observations to create themes (Ospina et al., 2018). Themes help determine behavior patterns and meaning (Busetto et al., 2020). This approach was not viable for this study because qualitative research focuses on perspective and does not test hypotheses.

Lastly, researchers sometimes apply a mixed method to investigate a business problem. A combination of quantitative and qualitative research suggests a mixed method (Yin, 2018). Frais and Popovich (2020) posited that researchers collect data through statistical means and use structured and semi—structured questioning to obtain their data. Because my goal was to examine relationships between two or more variables through numerical data, the qualitative portion of a mixed-method was unnecessary; thus, a mixed-method was not appropriate for this study.

Research Design

Researchers may choose from three research designs when conducting a quantitative study: experimental, quasi-experimental, and correlational (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018). Experiments and quasi-experimental techniques help researchers develop models to help explain changes and make inferences about causal relationships between variables (Maciejewski, 2018). Participants in an experimental study are randomly assigned to the treatment and the control, whereas in a quasi-experimental study, the participants are not randomly assigned. Woehr and Newman (2020) described a correlational design using statistical methods to test the relationships between independent and dependent variables. Because the aim of my study was to test the relationship between the components of transformational leadership and employee engagement, and based on Woehr and Newman's description, a correlational design was appropriate.

Population and Sampling

The targeted population and sample for this study included customer experience representatives. Knechel and Wolf (2019) explained that a population is the complete collection a researcher wants to conclude, whereas a sample refers to a subgroup within that collection. The sample consisted of customer experience representatives employed in a large transportation solutions company in Arkansas. The criteria I set for participation were that participants must work as a customer experience representative and must have held their current position for at least 6 months.

The chosen sampling is nonprobability convenience sampling because the participants were conveniently available. Knechel and Wolf (2019) claimed two sampling types occur: probability and nonprobability sampling. Although probability sampling occurs during a random participant selection, all participants have an equal chance of being selected (Knechel & Wolf). Conversely, with nonprobability sampling, not all population members can participate equally (Knechel & Wolf). Because the chosen sample arose from one large business of the entire population, nonprobability sampling was appropriate.

Determining the correct sample size for the research is vital to the accuracy of the results. Faul et al. (2009) recommended using the G*Power 3.1 to obtain a sufficient sample size range. Considering the recommendation, I used G*Power 3.1.9.7 to determine the minimum and maximum participants needed to fulfill the analysis. The analysis consisted of an effect size of .15, an alpha value of $\alpha = .05$, and at least two

predictor variables. Using two different power values, .80 and .99, the minimum and maximum participants required for the analysis fell in the range of 43 to 107 participants.

Ethical Research

Researchers should adhere to ethical principles, integrity, and beneficence to protect participants' values, anonymity, and privacy. Powell (2019) posited that for researchers to conduct quantitative ethical research, they must first have a moral purpose for the examination. Based on this statement, researchers should know what they want to come from conducting the investigation. Additionally, establishing specific parameters will help maintain appropriate and ethical conduct. Ross et al. (2018) explained that a researcher's respect for others or their participants, in this case, recognizes that individuals are autonomous and have an inherent prerogative to self-determination. Individuals have a right to make decisions based on facts.

In some cases, individuals are less capable of making self-determining decisions due to circumstances out of their control. Thus, establishing parameters protects those individuals from risks or bias (Msimang, 2020). Furthermore, researchers must recognize the moral purpose of the research and determine safety parameters that will protect their subjects to ensure adherence to ethical research practices.

Researchers are responsible to their subjects to ensure they follow an ethical code of conduct while conducting their research. The Belmont Report outlines three ethical research principles: respect for persons, beneficence, and justice (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2018). Respect for persons pertains to accepting others' opinions as independent and self-governing while extending special considerations to

those less capable of acting autonomously (Ross et al., 2018; U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2018). Beneficence refers to the moral obligation to place the welfare of the subjects above the benefit of the research (Adashi et al., 2018; U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2018). Justice means equally distributing any benefit and burden and choosing participants fairly, not based on compromised positioning (Ross et al., 2018; U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2018). Following the three principles of the Belmont Report, I intended to respect participants' opinions in this study, to ensure their welfare superseded the purpose of the study, and to extend fair and equal treatment, omitting bias, manipulative, or coercive statements and actions.

Data Collection Instruments

Many data collection instruments help researchers determine relationships between independent and dependent variables. The chosen instruments for this study included two surveys to collect data on the independent and dependent variables. The multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) consists of questions to gather data about transformational leadership. Like the MLQ, the Utrecht work engagement scale (UWES) also encompasses a list of questions, but to collect data and measure employee engagement.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The MLQ is an instrument I chose to use to collect data from participants regarding leadership styles and traits—specifically, transformational leadership. Stedman and Adams-Pope (2019) claimed that the MLQ is a tool that leaders can use to pinpoint areas of needed improvement in leadership attributes. Bass and Avolio developed this

web-based instrument to collect and analyze data about transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles (Stedman & Adams-Pope, 2019). Thus, the purpose of this instrument was to obtain data by administering a survey to entry-level individuals working in the customer experience field. The survey contained 45 questions, of which 20 focused on transformational leadership and its constructs (*Mind Garden*, 2019). The constructs included inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, and idealized influence was divided into two sections: attributes and behaviors.

Using an ordinal scale of measurement through a 5-point Likert scale, participants had the following response options: 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Completing the survey should not have taken more than 15 minutes of the participant's time (Donmez & Toker, 2017). Once completed, I screened the data and looked for inconsistencies to ensure the construct's validity. According to Hansen and Pihl-Thingvad (2018), a researcher calculates the average score for each leadership style to determine the most effective manner. The survey seemed appropriate for this study because it contains measurable components that aided in the determination of whether transformational leadership predicts employee engagement.

Research professionals have widely used the MLQ and, thus, the instrument has a history of proven reliability and validity. Factor analysis secures the construct validity. However, I used Cronbach's alpha to determine internal consistency or reliability. Using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), I opened my data set, hovered over the

analyze tab in the toolbar, scrolled down to *scale*, and then ran the *reliability analysis*. Two valuable statistics rendered by this analysis included the valid number of cases and Cronbach's alpha statistic. A coefficient closest to 1 indicates high reliability (Dimitrov & Darova, 2016). Although a range from .70 (acceptable), .80 (good), and .90 (excellent) are all acceptable, the closer to 1.0, the more reliable the data.

Furthermore, I obtained specific permissions before entering the data collection process. The first approval came from the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB approval number for this study is 06-05-23-0984803 and serves as permission to begin the data collection process. The second permission involved obtaining written authorization from the author of the MLQ. I emailed *Mind Garden* and requested consent to obtain this authorization, and they obliged.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Researchers use the UWES to gather data and measure employee engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker developed the UWES to collect data to measure employee engagement (W. B. Schaufeli et al., 2006). The intended population for using this instrument consisted of customer experience personnel. The purpose of targeting this department was because it is one of the largest departments in the firm. Because it is one of the largest departments, turnover is also higher. Employee engagement plays a significant role in turnover; thus, it was essential to identify and bring attention to the current engagement opportunities.

According to Roof (2015) and Sinval et al. (2018), the UWES is the most widely used instrument to measure work—related engagement across many countries and

languages. The UWES is measured ordinal data with a 7-point Likert scale that includes a selection option of 0 = *never*, 1 = *almost never*, 2 = *rarely*, 3 = *sometimes*, 4 = *often*, 5 = *very often*, and 6 = *always* for each question asked (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Currently, three options of questionnaires are available that entail either a nine-question, 15-question, or 17-question survey. Milhem et al. (2019) claimed that each version of the survey instrument measures all three dimensions. Based on this claim and to minimize distraction in the workplace, the nine-question tool sufficed.

The instrument measures three dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Vigor is associated with an individual's willingness to advance efforts toward their work expectation. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) stated that scores on the vigor subscale revealed the level of energy employees feel and put forth. High scores meant higher energy levels, whereas low scores meant low. Dedication is measured by how well the individual feels inspired or challenged by their work. Employees who find their work gratifying should score high on the dedication subscale, contrary to those who feel unfulfilled. Absorption relates to the employee's concentration or how well they immerse themselves in their work. Often, employees find themselves engrossed in their work, thus scoring high on the absorption subscale, while easily distracted employees may score low on the subscale.

I also used Cronbach's alpha to determine whether the results were reliable, as with the MLQ. Many researchers claim that Cronbach's measures close to .80 are reliable and valid results (Torabinia et al., 2017; Ziedelis, 2019). Most researchers have used this survey because of its proven validity and internal consistency when measuring work and

employee engagement (W. Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Because I chose the nine-question survey, there was minimal time to complete it. The UWES survey is free and available to use by anyone in the noncommercial field; therefore, I did not seek preauthorization to use this survey as part of my research project. Further research could require using the 15-question or 17-question surveys to gather additional data concerning employee engagement. However, the nine-question survey was appropriate for this study because my focus was measuring leadership style and its impact on employee engagement.

Data Collection Technique

The planned data collection technique consisted of online surveys and began after IRB approval. Liu and Wronski (2018) implied that some participants do not fully engage in online surveys. However, they did agree that web-based surveys will generate the most reliable responses. Online surveys are generally simple to design and cost minimally.

The first part of the survey solicited demographic information. This section included gender, age, and the current time in the customer experience role with this company. Omitting personal questions that may breach confidentiality helped protect the subjects' privacy. Following the section for demographic information, the first part of the 45-question MLQ began. This tool aided in gathering the data needed to measure transformational leadership and other leadership characteristics (Appendix A). The last part of the survey included the questions outlined in the UWES-9. The responses to nine questions in the UWES-9 helped gather data needed to measure employee engagement. I used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) as my statistical software to conduct

my regression analysis and tested the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement.

Data Analysis

I used regression analysis to determine whether a statistical significance existed between the independent and dependent variables and whether the independent variables caused the dependent variable to occur. Examining the relationships between the independent variables, components of transformational leadership, and the dependent variable, employee engagement, may help leaders understand how their subordinates view their leadership style. Many researchers tested the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement. This quantitative correlational study aimed to examine the relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership and employee engagement. A thorough analysis occurred after the data collection portion concluded. Abulela and Harwell (2020) expressed that the researcher must handle the data collected carefully to avoid errors. Ensuring the data was screened and cleaned aided in preventing errors.

Research Question

What is the relationship between the four components of transformational leadership: inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and employee engagement?

Hypotheses

H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between the four components of transformational leadership: inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and employee engagement.

H_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between the four components of transformational leadership: inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and employee engagement.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics encompass a quantitative summary of collected data. I have used the results to disclose the demographic information collected from the participants. The descriptive statistics in this study served as a reference for the number of subjects participating in the research. It showed the central tendency (mean, median, and mode) and the standard deviation for each variable. The basic information retrieved from these statistics described the ratio of between genders that took the survey or grouped them in a range by their time in the customer experience role. Researchers use descriptive statistics to describe the collected data and not test hypotheses.

Multiple Regression

I used regression analysis to determine whether a statistical significance exists between the independent and dependent variables and whether the independent variables cause the dependent variable to occur. Multiple regression is a statistical test to predict a continuous dependent variable based on two or more independent variables (Laerd Statistics, 2015; X. Liu & Markine, 2019). Researchers use the *p*-value to describe

whether a statistical significance exists between the independent and dependent variables. A *p*-value greater than .05 (<.05) means a statistical significance exists between the variables. Contrary, a *p*-value less than .05 (>.05) indicates no importance. I used an interval scale to show each component of transformational leadership's contribution to employee engagement. The coefficient of determination (R-squared or R^2), found in a regression model, is the measure in the regression model that represents how well the data fits (Schroeder et al., 2018). Schroeder et al. (2018) stated that multiple regression encapsulates relationships between two or more independent variables and a dependent variable. Thus, a univariant approach was the best option since there were two or more independent variables, whereas a bivariant method only contains one predictor variable.

Regression model steps. To set up the regression model, I used SPSS, chose *regression* from under the *analyze* tab at the top of the screen, and selected *linear* in the following display box. Once the linear regression box popped up, step two consisted of moving the dependent variable (employee engagement) over to the dependent box and the independent variables (idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) over to the corresponding independent(s) box. In step three, I selected the statistics button to generate a dialogue box where estimates and model fit are preselected.

Additional options occurred in step four. Selecting a 95% confidence interval means there was only a 5% chance my estimate was wrong. Descriptive statistics encompassed a summarization of the basic features of the dataset. I used descriptive statistics to summarize my data's demographics, mean, and standard deviation. Part and

partial correlations relate to the linear relationship between the variables. Collinearity diagnostics revealed whether an issue had occurred with multicollinearity (an assumption of regression discussed below). Durbin-Watson is used to help determine if an autocorrelation exists (Turner, 2019). As explained later in this section, the range is between 0-4, with a result of two indicating no autocorrelation (Turner, 2019). Lastly, the casewise diagnostics showed whether outliers were present.

Clicking *continue* brought me back to the *linear regression* page, where I selected the *plots* tab to generate another dialogue box; this was the sixth step. Step seven required me to check the *histogram* and *normal probability plot* from the *standardized residual plots* section and *produce all partial plots* boxes. Researchers use plots as visual tools to examine data. Again, clicking *continue* brought the linear regression dialogue box back, step eight. Step nine involved clicking the *save* button to populate another dialogue box. For step ten, I selected multiple boxes: *unstandardized* from the predicted values section, *studentized* and *studentized deleted* under residuals, *Cook's* and *leverage values* from the distances section, and included the covariance matrix, down at the bottom, right above *continue*. I reviewed the Cook's and leverage values to look for outliers. Step eleven was to click on the *continue* button, followed by step twelve to click the *ok* button to populate the output.

Advantages of Multiple Regression. A few benefits transpire when using multiple linear regression. The most crucial advantage is measuring the strength of numerous predictor variables simultaneously (Schroeder et al., 2018). Researchers use regression analysis because of the reliability in identifying how the independent variables

impact the dependent variable statistically (Schroeder et al., 2018). The research represents a confident determination of which variables matter, to what degree, and which variables to omit because of minimal or no relevance.

Alternative Tests. Other statistical tests did not fit the criteria of how I chose to measure the data. Researchers use the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test to find the common mean among different groups. ANOVA was inappropriate because it looked for commonality between variables, whereas regression helps determine whether a relationship exists. Similarly, researchers use *t*-tests to compare the means of two groups. Neither the AVOVA nor the t-test measure relationships; therefore, they were inappropriate for this study. Regression analysis was appropriate since it tested relationships between two or more variables.

Data Screening. Before running statistical analysis, researchers must screen their data to ensure the accuracy of the data going into the model. According to Spiegelhalter (2019), data screening involves examining data for inconsistencies and errors. Incomplete or nonresponses are examples that will deliver inaccurate results (Mutz et al., 2018). Mutz et al. further expressed that using the wrong statistical test could confuse data and produce inaccuracies. I reviewed any incomplete or missing data to screen my data and removed those surveys before running the analysis. Entering clean data ensured reliable and valid results.

Tests of Assumptions. A researcher makes eight assumptions when conducting multiple regression. Clearing the assumption will allow the ability to test whether regression fits the data, provide insight into how accurate the predictions are, and test the

hypotheses (Laerd Statistics, 2015; Turner, 2019). Violating any of these assumptions would require the researcher to adjust and re-test to see if they can clear the assumptions.

The first assumption was that the dependent variable measures at a scale level like interval or ratio (Laerd Statistics, 2015; Turner, 2019). In addition to meeting the first assumption, this study also met the second assumption because the measurement of two or more continuous-level independent variables existed. Assumption three means that all variables are independent and do not correlate, suggesting a correlation between the residuals did not occur (Turner, 2019). Researchers use the Durbin-Watson test to determine if an autocorrelation occurs or if the errors between the values of the independent variable correlate; thus, I used the Durbin-Watson test to clear this assumption. According to Turner (2019), the Durbin-Watson ranges from 0-4, but the closest to an approximate value of two would indicate no correlation. Less than two would show a positive correlation, whereas test results more significant than two would suggest a negative correlation (Turner, 2019). My desired score on the scale to clear this assumption was comparable to two, meaning no correlation existed.

The fourth assumption was that the independent and dependent variables were linear. According to Al Ma'mari et al. (2020), a linear relationship must occur between the predictor and the outcome variables. If the series of data points in a scatterplot did not follow a straight line, the assumption of linearity has failed. Researchers use scatterplots to identify points violating linearity and homoscedasticity (Knapp, 2019). Moreover, the scatterplot portrayed no violation and cleared this assumption.

Homoscedasticity, the fifth assumption, represented plotting the residuals and comparing the findings against the predicted variables (Djalic & Terzic, 2021). The researcher assumes that the error variation in the model is similar across the points in the plot. I compared the studentized errors against the unstandardized predicted values to see if I had reached homoscedasticity, step ten of setting up the regression model. I have not violated this assumption since my data points were spread evenly across the predicted values. However, I would have violated the assumption if the data points formed a funnel or varied height. If this had occurred, I could have run another method to test homoscedasticity, like weighted least squares.

Contrary to autocorrelation, the sixth assumption of no multicollinearity means that two or more independent variables highly correlate (Knapp, 2019; Laerd Statistics, 2015). I tested for this using my independent variables' variance inflation factor (VIF). Knapp (2019) claimed that a VIF of less than five clears the multicollinearity assumption. The VIF begins at one and does not have a maximum number; however, the higher the statistic, the higher the chance multicollinearity exists between independent variables. The seventh assumption entailed not having significant outliers that influenced the output. Outliers could impede the structure of multicollinearity and corrupt normality because those observations live outside a normal distribution, meaning they do not follow a typical pattern. If abnormal points occurred, I needed to determine whether to remove them and retest for better accuracy or proceed with the current data. I examined scatterplots to assess whether substantial outliers affected the data.

Lastly, the eighth assumption was whether the data points appeared normally distributed. Histograms and P-P plots can show whether the data appears normally distributed. Knief and Forstmeier (2021) stated that data not distributed normally could misrepresent the relationship between the variables. Selecting a histogram was part of step seven in setting up the regression model; thus, I reviewed the histogram and looked for the bell-shaped curve to clarify the normal distribution assumption. Additionally, Uttley (2019) declared that the researcher could visually assess a scatterplot to determine normal distribution. I also visually inspected the points on a scatterplot to ensure normality occurred. The closer the data points appeared on the plot to a straight line, the easier it was to confirm normality.

Study Validity

Researchers must prove the validity of their research. The validity of a study reveals how well the results of this sample analysis represent accurate findings for others outside of this study. The two data collection instruments used in this study, the MLQ and the UWES-9, have had high validity and reliability ratings. According to Torabinia et al., (2017) and Ziedelis (2019),.80 is an acceptable coefficient for the UWES-9 and a range of .70-.90 Chronbach's alpha statistic, although the higher the coefficient, the more reliable the results. Baldwin (2018) posited that it is vital for the instrument(s) to measure their intended measurement so that errors are less likely to occur. Choosing the correct instruments to measure what you want aids in reaching internal consistency and external and construct validity.

Researchers should plan to reach internal, external, and construct validity. Internal validity, also known as causality, relates to the observations or conclusions a researcher makes to support the claim of a causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Chaplin et al., 2018). Internal validity helps confirm a connection between the independent and dependent variables. Flannelly et al. (2018) claimed that threats to internal validity include maturation, history, morality, selection, and statistical regression. Maturation refers to the natural processes that occur over time, like age, experience, and other changes that result as a natural occurrence. History relates to an event that may have happened to alter an individual's current perspective. For instance, an event that happened with the weather, in the news, or anything impacting one's personal life could threaten their validity, contributing to the results of this study. Morality dignifies an individual's response based on their bias beliefs. Selection could threaten internal validity by implying false assumptions that relationships exist or do not exist. Lastly, statistical regression, or regression towards the mean, could threaten internal validity because of predetermined outcomes or measurement errors (Flannelly et al., 2018). Regression towards the mean implies that if one outcome is extreme, the subsequent outcome will be close to the mean. This bias produces incorrect results, thus leading to inaccurate decision-making opportunities.

External validity remains essential to generalize the results. Westreich et al. (2019) described generalizability as a measurement that the study's results could inflict on the entire population. Chaplin et al. (2018) plainly explained external validity as the ability to generalize across the whole population. The targeted population of the study is

customer experience representatives (CER), and my sample will consist of CERs in a

large business in Arkansas. The sample size could threaten external validity (McGregor,

2018). If the sample size is too small, it would be difficult to generalize the findings and

say all CERs would have the same response. To avoid this threat, I have selected a

department that exceeds the number of responses required to fulfill my sample.

Following this process it allows for a certain margin of error.

Construct validity is the third type of validity. Construct validity helps the

researcher determine whether the test or assessment measures the intended constructs,

like traits, behaviors, or other constructs the researcher wants to measure. I used

Cronbach's alpha statistic to test each independent variable's reliability and construct

validity. This study aimed to test whether there is a relationship between the components

of transformational leadership and employee engagement; thus, the parameters remained

consistent to measure transformational behaviors and levels of engagement as the

constructs.

Transition and Summary

This quantitative study aimed to examine whether a relationship existed between

the independent and dependent variables. This study will take place in a large company in

Arkansas. The goal was to measure the statistical significance of each transformational

leadership component and its relationship to employee engagement. Section 1

encompassed the background of the business problem, identified the problem and

purpose statements, and provided the nature of the study. Additionally, the section

included the research question, null and alternative hypotheses, and the study's

theoretical framework. Operational definitions, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations followed. After sharing the significance of this study, a thorough review of professional and academic literature completed the section.

Section 2 contained a reintroduction of the purpose statement, a description of the role of the researcher, and provided the targeted sample participants. Moreover, this section explained the research method, design choice, and population and sampling. This section also included the constructs of ethical research, the data collection instruments used in this study, and the data analysis. Lastly, an explanation of the three types of validity helped address potential threats to the study's validity.

Section 3 includes identifying the purpose of this study and a summary of the findings. This section also contains the study's findings, shares the statistical tests used during the analysis, a rationale for choosing those specific tests, and how the tests relate to the hypotheses. Other key points included descriptive statistics, an evaluation of statistical assumptions, and inferential statistical analyses. The inferential statistics analysis contained the alpha level, test value, significance level, effect size, degrees of freedom, and confidence interval. Comparing other peer-reviewed studies helped determine whether the findings confirmed the research question. Then, I provided a detailed explanation of the applicability of my research and its implications for social change. Furthermore, I delivered recommendations for action and further research. In closing, I shared a reflection on my experience during this doctoral journey and left with a well-thought-out and impactful remark.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

In this quantitative correlational study, I aimed to examine the relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership and employee engagement. The independent variables were the four components of transformational leadership: (a) inspirational motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration. The dependent variable was employee engagement. I collected survey data from 107 participants who worked in the customer experience department of a large transportation solutions company based in Arkansas. After screening the data for missing information, I eliminated 15 surveys, and the final sample consisted of 92 participants.

Presentation of the Findings

In this section, I discuss assessing the assumptions required for running a regression analysis to determine whether the data fit the regression model. These assumptions include multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. Following the process of clearing the assumptions, I will present the descriptive statistics and the inferential statistics results. I used SPSS as the statistical tool to test and analyze my data. Then, I provide an analysis summary and the applications to the theoretical framework. Additionally, I discuss the applications to professional practice and the implications for social change, followed by recommendations for action and further research. Lastly, I summarize this study with reflections on my doctoral journey and a brief conclusion.

Test of Assumptions

Testing assumptions is a requirement of regression analysis. I have evaluated the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals.

Multicollinearity

After reviewing the correlation coefficients and the collinearity statistics, I determined that I had not violated the assumption of multicollinearity. According to Knapp (2019), multicollinearity occurs when two or more independent variables highly correlate. Table 2 displays the correlation coefficients for the independent variables, of which evidence of multicollinearity was not evident. Another indication that multicollinearity did not occur is the VIF under the collinearity statistics in Table 7. Knapp (2019) recommended that anything below five clears the multicollinearity assumption. All VIF statistics for the independent were less than five, thus eliminating the violation of multicollinearity.

Table 2

Correlation Coefficients of the Study Variables

		EE	IM	II	IS	IC
Pearson	EE	1.000	.676	.646	.561	.431
correlation	IM	.676	1.000	.802	.703	.669
	II	.646	.802	1.000	.819	.729
	IS	.561	.703	.819	1.000	.835
	IC	.431	.669	.729	.835	1.000

Note. $N = 92$. EE = Employee engagement (constant), IM = inspirational motivation, II = idealized influence, IS = intellectual stimulation, IC = individualized consideration.

Outliers, Normality, Linearity, Homoscedasticity, and Independence of Residuals

To ensure the data collected would fit in the regression model, I evaluated the assumptions of outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and the independence of residuals. After examining the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 1) and the normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual (Figure 2), I determined that no outliers were evident and the data are normally distributed and linear and clear of homoscedastic variances. The P-P plot displayed normally distributed data points. The scatterplot shows evenly distributed data points and there was no visible evidence of homoscedasticity violation.

Figure 1

Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals
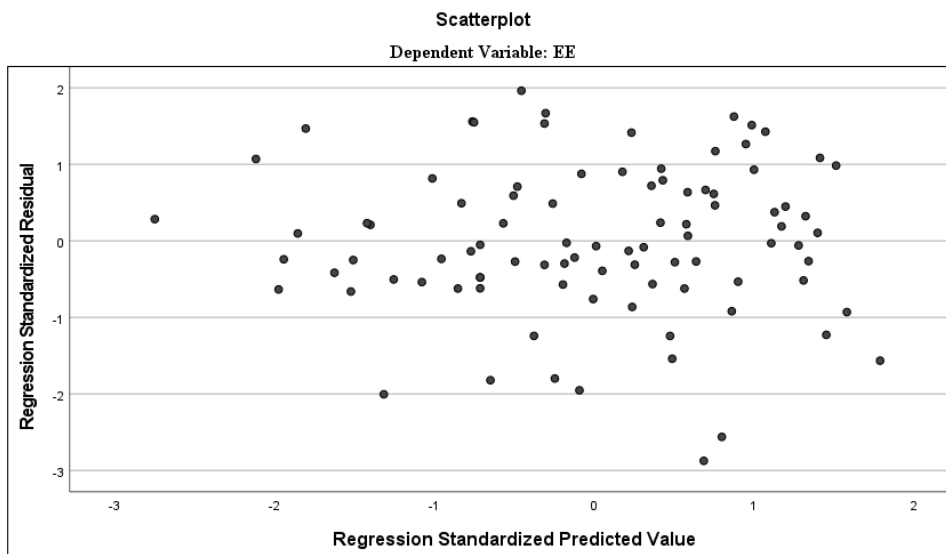
Figure 2

Normal Probability P-P Plot of the Regression Standardized Residuals

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: EE
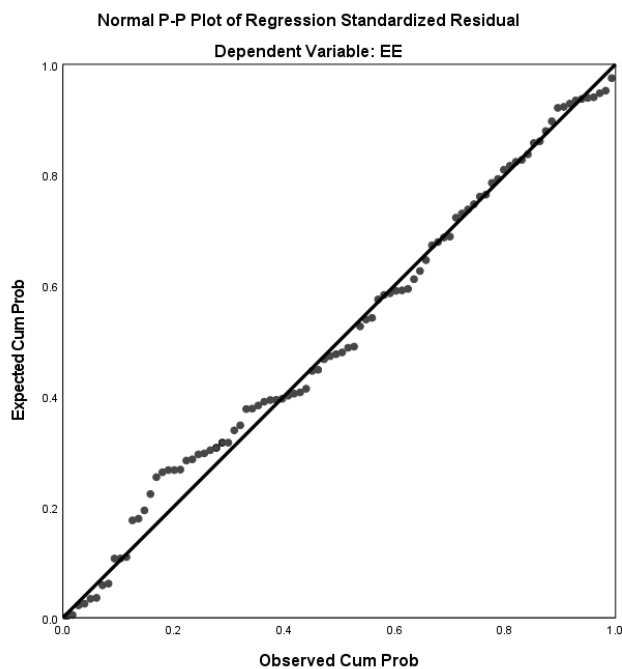
The independence of residuals means that autocorrelation does not exist and that each independent variable is insignificant to another. Turner (2019) claimed that many researchers run the Durbin-Watson statistical test to clear this assumption. The Durbin-Watson test statistic ranges from 0–4, with the mid-range of two as the perfect result. The statistic outlined in the model summary in Table 3 is 1.906, confirming I cleared this assumption, and my variables are independent.

Table 3

Model Summary with Durbin-Watson

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adj. R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.716[a]	.513	.490	.782188775888593	1.906

Note. a. = predictors: (constant), IC, IM, II, IS; b. = dependent variable: EE

Descriptive Statistics

I received 92 of 107 surveys completed in their entirety; therefore, the number used for this study was 92. Of the usable survey data, approximately 52% were female participants, whereas ~41% were male, and ~6% did not want to disclose this information; see Table 4 for exact results. Table 5 depicts the descriptive statistics for this study's variables. In addition, Figure 2 illustrates a positive linear relationship between the four components of transformational leadership and employee engagement.

Table 4

Result of Participants' Gender

	N	%
Female	48	52.2%
Male	38	41.3%
Prefer not to disclose	6	6.5%

Note. N = 92

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Quantitative Study Variables

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	Bootstrapped 95% CI	
			M	*SD*
Employee engagement	3.93	1.10	[3.705, 4.165]	[.962, 1.207]
Inspirational motivation	2.58	0.98	[2.378, 2.780]	[.870, 1.084]
Idealized influence	2.33	0.93	[2.135, 2.523]	[.811, 1.021]
Intellectual stimulation	1.95	0.84	[1.783, 2.139]	[.711, .945]
Individualized consideration	1.57	0.89	[1.375, 1.747]	[.762, .991]

Note. $N = 92$

Inferential Results

Standard multiple linear regression, where $a = .05$, was used to examine the efficacy of the four components of transformational leadership (inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) in predicting employee engagement. The independent or predictor variables were inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The dependent variable was employee engagement. The null hypothesis was that there was no significant relationship between inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration and employee engagement. The alternative hypothesis was that a significant relationship exists between inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized

consideration and employee engagement. I conducted a preliminary analysis to assess whether the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals and no violation existed. The assumptions were clear of any severe violations outlined under the test of assumptions.

Overall, the model did show a statistically significant relationship, $F(4, 87) = 22.873$, $p = .001$, $R^2 = .513$. Statistics in Table 6 display the analysis of variance. Table 7 depicts the regression summary. Based on the R^2 of .513, approximately half (51%) of the variations in employee engagement are accounted for by the linear combination of the independent variables. Inspirational motivation ($p = .001$) and individualized consideration ($p = .038$) were statistically significant in the final model. In contrast, idealized influence ($p = .085$) and intellectual stimulation ($p = .144$) did not provide statistical significance in the final model.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	55.978	4	13.994	22.873	<.001[b]
	Residual	53.228	87	.612		
	Total	109.206	91			

Note. a = dependent variable: employee engagement; b = predictors: (constant)

individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual

stimulation

Table 7

Regression Analysis Summary

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity statistics	
		B	*SE*	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.743	.244		7.151	<.001		
	IM	.538	.143	.484	3.771	<.001	.341	2.934
	II	.323	.186	.273	1.740	.085	.227	4.404
	IS	.316	.215	.242	1.473	.144	.208	4.812
	IC	−.362	.172	−.294	−2.108	.038	.289	3.460

Analysis Summary

This quantitative study aimed to examine whether there was a relationship

between the four components of transformational leadership (a. inspirational motivation,

b. idealized influence, c. intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) and

employee engagement. I used the MLQ and UWES-9 as survey instruments to collect my

data and multiple linear regression to examine my data. I assessed and cleared the

assumptions associated with linear regression analysis, and no serious violations were evident. The model as a whole was statistically significant with a *p*-value of .001, meaning I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis.

Although the whole model was statistically significant, only two independent variables displayed significance. Inspirational motivation carried the highest significance with *p* = .001. Individualized consideration was also significant, with a *p* = .038. Idealized influence and intellectual stimulation displayed no significance to the model. Based on this analysis, the model depicts a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement, with inspirational motivation and individualized consideration as predicting variables.

Theoretical Conversation on Findings

The theoretical framework used as the foundation for this study is grounded in Burns' (1978) transformational leadership theory. Burns developed the approach to examine the relationship between leader and follower. Bass (1985) further elaborated on this theoretical framework and posited that leaders and followers extend the best versions of themselves when a positive relationship exists between them. Based on the findings of this quantitative study, transformational leadership behaviors predict employee engagement. The evidence aligns with the leader–follower relationship outlined in the transformational leadership theory.

Researchers have contributed to this application and examined a variation of leadership styles. The purpose of this study only targeted transformational leadership. The findings of this study confirmed that a relationship exists between transformational

leadership and employee engagement. The model showed significance, but inspirational motivation and individualized consideration were the only predicting variables in this analysis. Furthermore, the findings were indicative that leaders must identify what behaviors establish positive engagement and promote a healthy and productive work environment.

Applications to Professional Practice

This quantitative correlational study aimed to examine the relationship between the four components of transformational leadership and employee engagement. Leaders in large organizations can apply the findings of this study as sustainable, professional practices to retain talented employees and build internal relationships. Employee longevity reduces the costs associated with turnover and increases the opportunity for a sustainable future. Turner (2020) conducted several studies that showed leadership styles directly impact employee engagement. Choosing a leadership style that fosters positive employee engagement will strengthen relationships within the workplace. The results from this study could serve as an understanding of the current engagement status within the customer experience department. The findings could benefit leaders in developing and implementing new employee engagement strategies.

Disengaged employees cost businesses a substantial amount of money each year. The Office of Personnel Management (2019) revealed that 69% of the United States workforce is disengaged. To improve employee engagement, business leaders must implement engagement strategies. Influential business leaders must also determine the best leadership styles to engage subordinates. The outcome of this study could help

leaders identify key leadership attributes currently missing from their work environment that could shape effective leadership and engagement strategies and promote a healthier, more productive work environment.

Implications for Social Change

The findings from this study include quantitative evidence valuable to business leaders that may implicate positive social change. The basis of transformational leadership pertains to building relationships. Based on the evidence, transformational leadership is statistically significant to employee engagement. Two of the four components of transformational leadership, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration, directly impacted employee engagement. Leaders can use this information to help build relationships. Building relationships between leaders and followers will create a sustainable, engaged work environment, thus reducing employee turnover.

Leaders who portray transformational behaviors and maximize employee retention help stabilize the labor market. Improving the labor market helps sustain local financial stability by reducing unemployment benefits and other financial services needed for economic survival. Additionally, steady employment practices help increase consumer spending and produce higher tax revenues. Moreover, a financially sound community contributes to individual financial security and improves the standard of living.

Recommendations for Action

The results of this study indicate that the four components of the transformational leadership style predict employee engagement. A recommendation for action includes

leaders identifying which transformational leadership characteristics directly impact employee engagement. Once leaders identify the characteristics, they should develop engagement strategies targeting these behaviors. Based on this study, leaders must incorporate inspirational motivation and individualized consideration in future engagement strategies. Leaders who embrace these behaviors will improve performance. Iangat et al. (2019) posited that inspirational motivation is a vital leadership behavior promoting employee performance. Northouse (2019) also expressed the importance of inspirational and motivational behaviors and the necessity of considering individual needs to drive employee engagement and improve performance. Integrating the components of transformational leadership will strategically align the leader–follower relationship and strengthen engagement opportunities.

Publication of this study to ProQuest will add to the profound body of existing knowledge and aid other researchers in the complexities of how leadership styles predict employee engagement. I plan to present the findings of this study at professional conferences and academic seminars as my contribution to the research field. Furthermore, I intend to publish in academic and business journals to present my findings on a broader scale and communicate the necessity of leadership styles on employee engagement.

Recommendations for Further Research

I recommend further research into the relationship between leadership styles, specifically transformational leadership and employee engagement. Soliciting a larger sample size could enhance the accuracy of the findings. Incorporating more than one partner organization within the same industry for data collection could also prove

beneficial in generalizing the results. Researchers may also want to elaborate on the variables they are testing by combining multiple leadership styles, like transformational and transactional leadership. Another option could entail adding another independent variable or changing the dependent variable. An example may include examining the relationship between transformational leadership, employee engagement, and organizational goals. I used UWES-9 to measure employee engagement, but I recommend using the 15 or 17 questionnaires for richer results. Lastly, I would recommend further qualitative or mixed-method research to explore leadership strategies and the impact those strategies would have on employee engagement.

A few limitations occurred during the process of conducting this study. One limitation was only targeting one large business, making it difficult to generalize the results across the population. Another limitation was the partner organization's strong firewalls and strict guidelines with external emails and hyperlinks. The first time I emailed the survey, it was identified as phishing. The second time I emailed the survey was during the partner organization's annual employee engagement survey. A third limitation entailed confining my sample to customer experience associates only. Opening the target population to encompass all entry-level positions in large businesses in Northwest Arkansas could have produced a much larger response rate. A recommendation for further research would include expanding the targeted population across multiple or all departments. Expanding the population would help generate a larger sample and possibly reduce the potential for biased results.

Reflections

My doctoral journey has been enlightening, with many frustrations but many rewards. Working in a sales role for most of my life, I encountered some "bumps in the road" similar to this DBA journey. Based on my experiences throughout my professional career, I believe that the whole purpose of conducting this study was to create more awareness concerning relationships. Leadership plays a vital role in how employees behave, interact with others, and how productive they are in meeting organizational goals. I have learned an incredible amount of applicable knowledge throughout this journey. I intend to pay that knowledge forward to create a successful, sustainable, and fulfilling future for many paths I cross. This journey has humbled me in ways that fuel an eagerness to set a precedence for my peers and future doctors that perseverance pays off and tenacity helps overcome the most stringent obstacles. I feel incredibly blessed with a supportive family and peers. I am highly grateful to my committee and the confidence each part of my support system has unselfishly bestowed upon me.

Conclusion

I examined the relationships between the four components of transformational leadership and employee engagement in a large organization. I collected usable survey data from 92 participants who worked in the customer experience field in a large organization in Northwest Arkansas. The results from the study indicated that the transformational leadership full model had a statistically significant relationship with employee engagement. The findings will help large organizations improve employee engagement by implementing strategies that focus on inspirational motivation and

individualized consideration. Implications for positive social change include reducing

employee turnover, which impacts personal financial security, helping stabilize the labor

market, and providing a sustainable and improved quality of life.

References

Abdelhafiz, I. M., Alloubani, A. M. D., & Almatari, M. (2016). Impact of leadership

styles adopted by head nurses on job satisfaction: A comparative study between

governmental and private hospitals in Jordan. *Journal of Nursing Management,*

24(3), 384–392. https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12333

Abdullah, Q. D. L., & Varatharajoo, K. D. R. (2017). Transformational leadership and its

functionality in arts organization. *International Journal of Business and Society*,

18(4), 710–717. http://www.ijbs.unimas.my/images/repository/pdf/Vol18-s4-

paper8.pdf

Abulela, M. A. A., & Harwell, M. (2020). Data analysis: Strengthening inferences in

quantitative education studies conducted by novice researchers. *Educational*

Sciences: Theory & Practice, 20(1), 59–78.

https://doi.org/10.12738/jestp.2020.1.005

Aburumman, O., Salleh, A., Omar, K., & Abadi, M. (2020). The impact of human

resource management practices and career satisfaction on employee's turnover

intention. *Management Science Letters*, *10*, 641–652.

https://doi.org/10.5267/j.msl.2019.9.015

Abutabenjeh, S., & Jaradat, R. (2018). Clarification of research design, research methods,

and research methodology: A guide for public administration researchers and

practitioners. *Teaching Public Administration, 36*(3), 237–258.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0144739418775787

Adashi, E. Y., Walters, L. B., & Menikoff, J. A. (2018). The Belmont Report at 40:

Reckoning with time. *American Journal of Public Health, 108*(10), 1345–1348.

https://doi.org/10.2105/ajph.2018.304580

Afsar, B., Badir, Y. F., Saeed, B. B., & Hafeez, S. (2017). Transformational and

transactional leadership and employee's entrepreneurial behavior in knowledge–

intensive industries. *International Journal of Human Resource Management,*

28(2), 307–332. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1244893

Ahmad, R., & Saad, M. (2020). The impact of Malaysian public sector in the relationship

between transformational leadership styles and career development. *International*

Journal of Public Administration, 43(3), 203–212.

https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2019.1627555

Alagaraja, M., & Shuck, B. (2015). Exploring organizational alignment-employee

engagement linkages and impact on individual performance: A conceptual model.

Human Resource Development Review, 14(1), 17–37.

https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484314549455

Albrecht, S., Breidahl, E., & Marty, A. (2018). Organizational resources, organizational

engagement climate, and employee engagement. *Career Development*

International, 23(1), 67–85. https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-04-2017-0064

Albrecht, S. L., Bakker, A. B., Gruman, J. A., Macey, W. H., & Saks, A. M. (2015).

Employee engagement, human resource management practices and competitive

advantage. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance,*

4(2), 7–35. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOEPP-08-2014-0042

Ali, S. R. (2019). View of the effect of motivation in organizations. *International Journal*

of Social Science and Humanities Research, 2(5), 8–17.

http://ijojournals.com/index.php/ssh/article/view/139

Allam, Z. (2017). Employee disengagement: A fatal consequence to organization and its ameliorative measures. *International Review of Management and Marketing, 7*(2), 9–52. https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/imm/issue/321004/355792

Alloubani, A., Akhu-Zaheya, L., Abdelhafiz, I. M., & Almatari, M. (2019). Leadership styles and theories. *International Journal of Health care Quality Assurance, 32*(6), 1022–1033. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJHCQA-06-2018-0138

Almaaitah, M. F., Harada, Y., Sakdan, M. F., & Almaaitah, A. M. (2017). Integrating Herzberg and social exchange theories to underpinned human resource practices, leadership style and employee retention in health sector. *World Journal of Business and Management, 3*(1*)*, 16–34. https://doi.org/10.5296/wjbm.v3i1.10880

Al Ma'mari, Q., Sharour, L. A., & Al Omari, O. (2020). Fatigue, burnout, work environment, workload and perceived patient safety culture among critical care nurses. *British Journal of Nursing, 29*(1), 28–34. https://doi.org/10.12968/bjon.2020.29.1.28

Almeida, F., Faria, D., & Queiros, A. (2017). Strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative research methods. *European Journal of Education Studies, 3*(9), 369–387. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.887089

Al-sharafi, H., Mat, E., & Shah, S. (2018). The effect of training and career development on employee retention-A study on the telecommunication organizations in Yemen. *Journal of Social Sciences Research, (SPI 2),* 420–430.

https://doi.org/10.32861/jssr.spi2.420.430

Alzyoud, A. A. Y., Ahmed, U., Alzgool, M. R. H., & Pahi, M. H. (2019). Leaders'
emotional intelligence and employee retention: Mediation of job satisfaction in
the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Financial Research, 10*(3), 1–10.
https://doi.org/10.5430/ijfr.v10n3p1

Anitha, J. (2014). Determinants of employee engagement and their impact on employee
performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance
Management, 63*(3), 308–323. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-01-2013-0008

Anthony-McMann, P. E., Ellinger, A. D., Astakhova, M., & Halbesleben, J. R. (2017).
Exploring different operationalizations of employee engagement and their
relationships with workplace stress and burnout. *Human Resource Development
Quarterly, 28*(2), 163–195. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21276

Antonakis, J., Avolio, B. J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An
examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the multifactor
leadership questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly, 14*(3), 261–295.
https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(03)00030-4

Antony, M. R. (2018). Paradigm shift in employee engagement: A critical analysis on the
drivers of employee engagement. *International Journal of Information, Business
and Management, 10*(2), 32–46.

Ariyabuddhiphongs, V., & Kahn, S. I. (2017). Transformational leadership and turnover
intention: The mediating effects of trust and job performance on café employees
in Thailand. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 16*(2), 215–

233. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2016.1202730

Auh, S., Mengue, B., Spyropoulou, S., & Wang, F. (2016). Service employee burnout

and engagement: the moderating role of power distance orientation. *Journal of the*

Academy Marketing Science, 44(6), 726-745. https://doi.org/101007/s11747-015-

0463-4

Azzuhri, M. (2018). Analysis of transformational leadership effect towards organizational

citizenship behavior mediated by organizational commitment in the heritage hotel.

International Journal of Monetary Economics and Finance, 11(3), 1.

https://doi.org/10.1504/ijmef.2018.10006625

Bai, Y., Lin, L., & Li, P. P. (2016). How to enable employee creativity in a team context:

A cross-level mediating process of transformational leadership. *Journal of*

Business Research, 69(9), 3240-3250.

https://doi.org10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.02.025

Bailey, C., Madden, A., Alfes, K., & Fletcher, L. (2017). The meaning, antecedents, and

outcomes of employee engagement: A narrative synthesis. *International Journal*

of Management Reviews, 19(1), 31-53. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijmr.12077

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2017). Job demands-resources theory: Taking stock and

looking forward. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 22*(3), 273–285.

https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000056

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2018). Multiple levels in job demands-resources theory:

Implications for employee well-being and performance. In E. Diener, S. Oishi, &

L. Tay (Eds.), *Handbook of well-being*. DEF Publishers.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Sanz-Vergel, A. I. (2014). Burnout and work engagement: The JD–R approach. *Annual Review of Organizational 105 Psychological and Organizational Behavior, 1(*1), 389-411. http://doi.org/10.1146/annurevorgpsych-031314-091235

Baldwin, L. (2018). *Internal and external validity and threats to validity. In Research concepts for the practitioner of educational leadership* (pp. 31–36). Brill Sense.

Barbinta, A., Dan, I. S., & Mursean, C. (2017). Bernard Bass – Founder of the transformational leadership theory. *Review of Management & Economic Engineering, 16*(4), 758-762.

Bass, B., & Riggio, R. E. (2014). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and beyond expectations*. Collier Macmillan.

Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 8*(1), 9-32. https://doi.org/10.1080/135943299398410

Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4th ed.). New York, USA: Free Press

Beraldin, A. R., Danese, P., & Romano, P. (2019). An investigation of the relationship between lean and well-being based on the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 39*(12), 1295–1322. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijopm-05-2019-0377

Besieux, T., Baillien, E., Verbeke, A. L., & Euwema, M. C. (2015). What goes around

comes around the mediation of corporate social responsibility in the relationship

between transformational leadership and employee engagement. *Economic and*

Industrial Democracy, *39*(2), 249-271.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831X15614914

Boamah, S. A., Laschinger, H. K. S., Wong, C., & Clarke, S. (2018). Effect of

transformational leadership on job satisfaction and patient safety outcomes.

Nursing Outlook, 66(2), 180-189.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.OUTLOOK.2017.10.004

Boeren, E. (2018). The methodological underdog: A review of quantitative research in

the key adult education journals. *Adult Education Quarterly, 68*(1), 63-79.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0741713617739347

Boone, L. (2019). *Path–goal theory. Salem Press Encyclopedia*. Salem Press, EBSCO

Publishing.

Borst, R. T., Kruyen, P. M., & Lako, C. J. (2019). Exploring the job demands-resources

model of work engagement in government: Bringing in a psychological

perspective. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 39*(3), 372-397.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371x17729870

Brown, G., Strickland–Munro, J., Kobryn, H., & Moore, S. (2017). Mixed methods

participatory GIS: An evaluation of the validity of qualitative and quantitative

mapping methods. *Applied Geography, 79*, 153–166.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2016.12.015

Budie, B., Appel – Meulenbroek, H. A. J. A., Kemperman, A. D. A. M., & Weijs –

Perrée, M. (2019). Employee satisfaction with the physical work environment: The importance of a need-based approach. *International Journal of Strategic Property Management, 23*(1), 36. https://doi.org/10.3846/ijspm.2019.6372

Buil, I., Martinez, E., & Matute, J. (2019). Transformational leadership and employee performance: The role of identification, engagement and proactive personality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 77*, 64-75. https://doi.org/10.1016//j.ijhm.2018.06.014

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. Harper & Row.

Busetto, L., Wick, W., & Gumbinger, C. (2020). How to use and assess qualitative research methods. *Neurological Research and Practice, 2*(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s42466-020-00059-z

Byrne, Z. S., Albert, L., Manning, S., & Desire, R. (2017). Relational models and engagement. An attachment theory perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 32*(1), 30-44. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-01-2016-0006

Cahill, K. E., McNamara, T. K., Pitt-Catsouphes, M., & Valcour, M. (2015). Linking shifts in the national economy with changes in job satisfaction, employee engagement and work-life balance. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics, 56*, 40-54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socec.2015.03.002

Cao, C., Shang, L., & Meng, Q. (2020). Applying the job demands-resources model to exploring predictors of innovative teaching among university teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 89*, 103009. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2019.103009

Carter, W. R., Nesbit, P. L., Badham, R. J., Parker, S. K., & Sung, L. K. (2018). The

effects of employee engagement and self-efficacy on job performance: a
longitudinal field study. *The International Journal of Human Resource
Management, 29*(17), 2483-2502.
https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1244096

Change, D., Linge, T. K., & Sikalieh, D. (2019). Influence of idealized influence on
employee engagement in parastatals in the energy sector in Kenya. *International
Journal of Research in Business and Social Science, 8*(5), 2147-4478.
https://doi.org/10.20525/ijrbs.v8i5.476

Chaplin, D. D., Cook, T. D., Zurovac, J., Coopersmith, J. S., Finucane, M. M., Vollmer,
L. N., & Morris, R. E. (2018). The internal and external validity of the regression
discontinuity design: A meta-analysis of 15 within-study comparisons. *Journal of
Policy Analysis and Management, 37*(2), 403–429.
https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.22051

Chen, Y., Ning, R., Yang, T., Feng, S., & Yang, C. (2018). Is transformational leadership
92 always good for employee task performance? Examining curvilinear and
moderated relationships. *Frontiers in Business Research, 12*(22), 1–28.
https://doi.org/10.1186/s11782-018-0044-8

Chen, Y.-S., & Huang, S. Y. J. (2016). A conservation of resources view of personal
engagement in the development of innovative behavior and work-family conflict.
Journal of Organizational Change Management, 29(6), 1030–1040.
https://doi.org/10.1108/jocm-11-2015-0213

Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources

to employee engagement and burnout: a theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(5), 834-848. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019364

Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2017). Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. *Academy of Management Annals, 11*(1), 479-516. https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2015.0099

Culibrk, J., Delic, M., Mitrovic, S., & Culibrk, D. (2018). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement: The mediating role of job involvement. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9*(132), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00132

Darawong, C. (2020). The influence of leadership styles on new product development performance: the moderating effect of product innovativeness. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 33*(5), 1105-1122. https://doi.org/10.1108/apjml-05-2019-0290

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 499–512. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499

Dialoke, I., & Ogbu, E. F. (2018). Transformational leadership and employee performance of selected private secondary schools in Rivers State. *International Journal on Leadership, 6*(2), 14-22. http://publishingindia.com/ijl/

Dimitrov, D. Y., & Darova, S. S. (2016). Factor structure of the multifactor leadership 104 questionnaire MLQ 5X. *Strategic Impact, 58*(1), 44–55.

Djalic, I., & Terzic, S. (2021). Violation of the assumption of homoscedasticity and

detection of heteroscedasticity. *Decision Making: Applications in Management and Engineering, 4*(1), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.31181/dmame2104001d

Dong, Y., Bartol, K. M., Zhang, Z. X., & Li, C. (2016). Enhancing employee creativity via individual skill development and team knowledge sharing: Influences of dual-focused transformational leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 38*(3), 439-458. http://doi.org/10.1002/job.2134

Donmez, S., & Toker, Y. (2017). Construction of a Likert-Type transformational leadership scale. *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi, 57*(2).

Downe, J., Cowell, R., & Morgan, K. (2016). What determines ethical behavior in public organizations: Is it rules or leadership? *Public Administration Review, 76*(6), 898-909. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12562

Dube, A., Giuliano, L., & Leonard, J. (2019). Fairness and frictions: The impact of unequal raises on quit behavior. *American Economic Review, 109*(2), 620-663. https://doi.org/10.3386/w24906

Eldor, L., & Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2017). The nature of employee engagement: Rethinking the employee–organization relationship. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 28*(3), 526-552. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1180312

Eliyana, A., Ma'arif, S., & Muzakki. (2019). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment effect in the transformational leadership towards employee performance. *European Research on Management and Business Economics,*

25(3), 144–150. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iedeen.2019.05.001

Ezam, Q., Jamal, T., & Shamsi, A. F. (2018). Role of motivation on employee job

satisfaction: Comparative analysis for income group. *Future Academy, XL*, 958-

968. https://doi.org/10.15405/epsbs.2018.05.78

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses

using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior*

Research Methods, 41(4), 1149-1160. https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149

Flannelly, K. J., Flannelly, L. T., & Jankowski, K. R. (2018). Threats to the internal

validity of experimental and quasi-experimental research in healthcare. *Journal of*

Health Care Chaplaincy, 24(3), 107–130.

https://doi.org/10.1080/08854726.2017.1421019

Ford, D., Myrden, S. E., & Jones, T. D. (2015). Understanding "disengagement from

knowledge sharing": Engagement theory versus adaptive cost theory. *Journal of*

Knowledge Management, 19(3), 476-496. https://doi.org10.1108/JKM-11-2014-

0469

Fox, K., Morrow-Howell, N., Herbers, S., Battista, P., & Baum, C. M. (2017). Activity

disengagement: Understanding challenges and opportunities for reengagement.

Occupational Therapy International, 2017, 1-7.

http://doi.org/10.1155/2017/1983414

Frais, K. M., & Popovich, D. (2020). An experiential approach to teaching mixed

methods research. *Journal of Education for Business, 95*(3), 193-205.

https://doi.org/10.1080.08832323.2019.1627995

Gardner, D. G., Wickramasinghe, V., & Pierce, J. L. (2018). Values congruence, organization-based self-esteem, and employee responses: Evidence from Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management, 18*(3), 349–372. https://doi.org/10.1177/1470595818814053

Gawke, J. C., Gorgievski, M. J., & Bakker, A. B. (2017). Employee intrapreneurship and work engagement: A latent change score approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 100,* 88-100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.03.002

Glavas, A. (2016). Corporate social responsibility and employee engagement: Enabling employees to employ more of their whole selves at work. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7*, 1-10. http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00796

Graham, A. K., Ziegert, C. J., & Capitano, J. (2015). The effect of leadership style, framing, and promotion regulatory focus on unethical pro-organization behavior. *Business Ethics, 126*, 423-436. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1952-3

Gupta, N., & Sharma, V. (2016). Exploring employee engagement: A way to better business performance. *Global Business Review, 17*(3_suppl), 45s-63s. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972150916631082

Gustomo, A., Febriansyah, H., Ginting, H., & Santoso, I. M. (2019). Understanding narrative effects: The impact of direct storytelling intervention on increasing employee engagement among the employees of state-owned enterprise in West Java, Indonesia. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 31*(2), 166-191. https://doi.org/10.1108%2Fjwl-07-2018-0088

Halcomb, E., & Hickman, L. (2015). Mixed methods research. *Nursing Standard*, *29*(32),

41-47. https://doi.org/10.7748%2Fns.29.32.41.e8858

Haley, L. (2018). What makes employees stay? Examining social exchange relationships, organizational commitment, and intent to leave among casino employees (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern Mississippi).

Hansen, J. A., & Pihl-Thingvad, S. (2018). Managing employee innovative behaviour through transformational and transactional leadership styles. *Public Management Review, 21*(6), 1–27. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2018.1544272

Harms, P. D., Crede, M., Tynan, M., Leon, M., & Jeung, W. (2017). Leadership and stress: A meta-analysis review. *The Leadership Quarterly, 28*(1), 178-194. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.10.006

Harper, S. (2012). The leader coach: A model of multi-style leadership. *Journal of Practical Consulting & Coaching, 4*(1), 22–31.

Hemsworth, D., Muterera, J., & Baregheh, A. (2013). Examining Bass's transformational leadership in public sector executives: A psychometric properties review. *Journal of Applied Business Research, 29*(3), 853-862. https://doi.org10.19030/jabr.v29i3.7785

Hetland, J., Hetland, H., Andreassen, C. S., Notelaers, G., & Pallesen, S. (2011). Leadership and fulfillment of the three basic psychological needs at work. *Career Development International, 16*(5), 507–523. https://doi.org10.1108/13620431111168903

Hollis, L. P. (2015). Bully university? The cost of workplace bullying and employee disengagement in American higher education. *SAGE Open, 5*(2), 1-11.

https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015589997

Holten, A. L., & Brenner, S. O. (2015). Leadership style and the process of

organizational change. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 36*(1),

2- 16. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-11-2012-0155

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology,*

63(6), 597–606. https://doi.org/10.1086/222355

House, R. J. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science*

Quarterly, 16(3), 321-339. https://doi.org/10.2307/2391905

Huang, G., Wellman, N., Ashford, S. J., Lee, C., & Wang, L. (2017). Deviance and exit:

The organizational costs of job insecurity and moral disengagement. *Journal of*

Applied Psychology, 102(1), 26–42. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000158

Hughes, D. J., Lee, A. W., Tian, A., & Newman, A. L. (2018). Leadership, creativity, and

innovation: A critical review and practical recommendations. *The Leadership*

Quarterly, 29(5), 549-569. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.03.001

Iangat, G. K., Linge, T. K., & Sikalieh, D. (2019). Influence of inspirational motivation

of employee job performance in the insurance industry in Kenya. *International*

Journal of Research in Business and Social Science, 8(6), 1-7.

https://doi.org/10.20525/ijrbs.v8i6.488

Ingham-Broomfield, R. (2016). A nurses' guide to mixed methods research. *Australian*

Journal of Advanced Nursing, *33*(4), 46–52.

https://www.ajan.com.au/archive/Vol33/Issue4/5Broomfield.pdf

Jena, L. K., Pradhan, S., & Panigrahy, N. P. (2018). Pursuit of organizational trust: Role

of employee engagement, psychological well-being and transformational

leadership. *Asia Pacific Management Review, 23*(3), 227-234.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmrv.2017.11.001

Jha, B., & Kumar, A. (2016). Employee Engagement: A Strategic Tool to Enhance

Performance. *Journal for Contemporary Research in Management*, ISSN 2348-

0092.

Jiang, J., Gao, A., & Yang, B. (2018). Employees' critical thinking, leaders' inspirational

motivation, and voice behavior. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 17*(1), 33–41.

https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000193

Jian-Xun, C., Piyush, S., Wu, Z., & Li, L. (2019). Demystifying the impact of CEO

transformational leadership on firm performance: Interactive roles of exploratory

innovation and environmental uncertainty. *Journal of Business Research, 96*, 85-

96. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.10.061

Joo, B.-K., Zigarmi, D., Nimon, K., & Shuck, B. (2017). Work cognition and

psychological well-being: The role of cognitive engagement as a partial mediator.

The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 53(4), 446-469.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886316688780

Juhary, A., Mardiyana, N., & Owin Jamasy, D. (2019). The effect of transformational and

transactional leadership on the commitment of organization, turnover, and

performance (At Baitul Maal Wat Tamwil, The Special Region of Yogyakarta).

IOSR Journal of Business and Management, 21(3), 9–17.

https://doi.org/10.9790/487X-2103040917

Junquera, B., & Brío, J. Á. D. (2017). Is the leadership style important in R&D departments in Spanish industrial companies? An empirical analysis. *Technology Analysis & Strategic Management, 29*(10), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1080/09537325.2016.1274024

Jurek, P., & Besta, T. (2019). Employees' self-expansion as a mediator between perceived work conditions and work engagement and productive behaviors. *Current Psychology,* 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-019-00241-w

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 33*(4), 692-724. https://doi.org/10.5465/256287

Karagiozis, N. (2018). The complexities of the researcher's role in qualitative research: The power of reflexivity. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Educational Studies, 13*(1), 19-31. https://doi.org:10.18848/2327-011X/CGP/v13i01/19-31

Katou, A. A., Koupkas, M., & Triantafillidou, E. (2021). Job demands-resource model, transformational leadership and organizational performance: A multilevel study. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management,* (ahead of print). https://doi.org/10.1108/ijppm-06-2020-0342

Kavya, M. L., & Padmavathy, G. (2017). Employee engagement: A review on engagement models. *Imperial Journal of Interdisciplinary Research, 3*(2), 871–877. http://www.onlinejournal.in/IJIRV3I2/143.pdf

Khaira, G. (2018). Nurse practitioners: Struggle for professional identity role of mentors/coaches in professional socialization. *Advanced Practices in Nursing, 3*.

https://doi.org/10.4172/2573-0347-c11-047

Kiernan, K. (2018). Calculating the cost of pilot turnover. *Journal of Aviation/Aerospace Education & Research, 27*(1), 49–59. https://doi.org/10.15394/jaaer.2018.1737

Knapp, H. (2019). *Intermediate statistics using SPSS.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Knechel, N., & Wolf, L. A. (2019). What's in a sample? Why selecting the right research participants matters. *Journal of Emergency Nursing, 45*(3), 332-334. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jen.2019.01.020

Knief, U., & Forstmeier, W. (2021). Violating the normality assumption may be the lesser of two evils. *Behavior Research Methods*. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-021-01587-5

Kossek, E. E., Petty, R. J., Bodner, T. E., Perrigino, M. B., Hammer, L. B., Yragui, N. L., & Michel, J. S. (2018). Lasting impression: Transformational leadership and family supportive supervision as resources for well-being and performance. *Occupational Health Science, 2*(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41542-018-0012-x

Koveshnikov, A., & Ehrnrooth, M. (2018). The cross-cultural variation of the effects of transformational leadership behaviors on followers' organizational identification: The case of idealized influence and individualized consideration in Finland and Russia. *Management and Organization Review, 14*(4), 747-779. https://doi.org/10.1017/mor.2018.27

Kumar, V., & Pansari, A. (2015). Measuring the benefits of employee engagement. *MITSloan Management Review, 56*(4), 65-72.

Kwan, P. (2016). The effect of trust on the relationship between instructional leadership

    and student outcomes in Hong Kong secondary schools. *Asia-Pacific Education*

    Researcher, 25(1), 111-121. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-015-0242-5

Laerd Statistics. (2015). Multiple regression using SPSS Statistics. *Statistical tutorials*

    and software guides. https://statistics.laerd.com/

Lam, M., O'Donnell, M., & Robertson, D. (2015). Achieving employee commitment for

    continuous improvement initiatives. *International Journal of Operations &*

    Production Management, 35(2), 201-215. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOPM-03-

    2013-0134

Lee, Y., Chen, P., & Su, C. (2020). The evolution of the leadership theories and the

    analysis of new research trends. *International Journal of Organizational*

    Innovation, 12(3), 88–104.

Lemon, L. L., & Palenchar, M. J. (2018). Public relation zones of engagement:

    Employees' lived experiences and the fundamental nature of employee

    engagement. *Public Relation Review, 44*(1), 142-155.

    https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2018.01.002

Liborius, P. (2017). What does leaders' character add to transformational leadership? *The*

    Journal of Psychology, 151(3), 299-320.

    https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2016.1270889

Liu, M., & Wronski, L. (2018). Trap questions in online surveys: Results from three web

    survey experiments. *International Journal of Market Research, 60*(1), 32-49.

    https://doi.org/10.1177/1470785317744856

Liu, X., & Markine, V. L. (2019). Correlation Analysis and Verification of Railway

    Crossing Condition Monitoring. *Sensors, 19*(19), 4175.

    https://doi.org/10.3390/s19194175

Ljajic, S., & Pirsl, D. (2021). The role of internal communication and workplace

    language in positioning of organizations. *Društvene i Humanističke Studije*

    (Online), 1(14), 441–452. https://doi.org/10.51558/2490-3647.2021.6.1.441

Louw, L., Muriithi, S. M., & Radloff, S. (2017). The relationship between

    transformational leadership and leadership effectiveness in Kenyan indigenous

    banks. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 1*(2), 1-11.

    https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v15i0.935

Ma, W., & Zhang, S. (2019). Research methods in linguistics. *Australian Journal of*

    Linguistics, 40(2), 269–270. https://doi.org/10.1080/07268602.2019.1574777

Maciejewski, M. L. (2018). Quasi-experimental design. *Biostatistics & Epidemiology,*

    4(1), 38–47. https://doi.org/10.1080/24709360.2018.1477468

Mackay, M., Allen, J., & Landis, R. (2017). Investigating the incremental validity of

    employee engagement in the prediction of employee effectiveness: A meta-

    analytic path analysis. *Human Resource Management Review, 27*(1), 108-120.

    https://doi.org/10.1016/jhrmr.2016.03.002

Mackie, D. (2014). The effectiveness of strength-based executive coaching in enhancing

    full range leadership development: A controlled study. *Consulting Psychology*

    Journal: Practice and Research, 66(2), 118-137.

    https://doi.org/10.1037/cpb0000005

Mahmood, M., Uddin, M. A., & Fan, L. (2019). The influence of transformational leadership on employees' creative process engagement. *Management Decision, 57*(3), 741-764. https://doi.org/10.1108/md-07-2017-0707

Martinez, M. G. (2015). Solver engagement in knowledge sharing in crowdsourcing communities: Exploring the link to creativity. *Research Policy, 44*(8), 1419-1430. https://doi.org10.1016/j.respol.2015.05.010

Matthews, J., Stanley, T., & Davidson, P. (2018). Human factor and project challenges influencing employee engagement in a project-based organization (PBO). *International Journal of Managing Project Business,11*(4), 873-885. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJMB-04-2017-0043

McGregor, S. L. T. (2018). *Understanding and evaluating research: A critical guide*. (1st ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Men, L. R., & Yue, C. A. (2019). Creating a positive emotional culture: Effect of internal 100 communication and impact on employee supportive behaviors. *Public Relations Review, 45*(3), 101,764. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2019.03.001

Menon, A. S., & Priyadarshini, R. G. (2018). A study on the effect of workplace negativity factors on employee engagement mediated by emotional exhaustion. *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering, 390*, 1– 8. https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899X/390/1/012027

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Milhem, M., Muda, H., & Ahmed, K. (2019). The effect of perceived transformational

leadership style on employee engagement: The mediating effect of leader's
emotional intelligence. *Foundations of Management, 11*(1), 33–42.
https://doi.org/10.2478/fman-2019-0003

Mind Garden. (2019). Mindgarden.com. https://www.mindgarden.com/

Moeller, J., Ivcevic, Z., White, A. E., Menges, J., & Brackett, M. A. (2018). Highly
engaged but burned out: intra-individual profiles in the US workforce. *Career
Development International, 23*(1), 86-105. https://doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/h6qnf

Mohamad Nor, N. I., Arokiasamy, L., & Balaraman, R. A. (2018). The influence of
internet of things on employee's engagement among generation Y at the
workplace. *SHS Web of Conferences, 56*, 1–7.
https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20185603003

Mokhber, M., Ismail, W. K. b. W., & Vakilbashi, A. (2015). Effect of transformational
leadership and its components on organizational innovation. *Iranian Journal of
Management Studies, 8*(2), 221-241.

Msimang, P. (2020). Lessons in our faults: Fault lines on race and research ethics. *South
African Journal of Science, 116*(9/10). https://doi.org/10.17159/sajs.2020/8449

Mutz, D. C., Pemantle, R., & Pham, P. (2018). The perils of balance testing in
experimental design: Messy analyses of clean data. *The American Statistician,
73*(1), 32–42. https://doi.org/10.1080/00031305.2017.1322143

Mwiandi, N., & Juma, D. (2018). Influence of training on the employee performance at
Wells Fargo Kenya Limited. *International Journal of Science and Research, 7*(4),
1519–1523. https://doi.org/10.21275/ART20181978

Nienaber, H., & Martins, N. (2020). Exploratory study: Determine which dimensions

    enhance the levels of employee engagement to improve organizational

    effectiveness. *The TQM Journal, 32*(3), 475-495. https://doi.org/10.1108%2Ftqm-

    05-2019-0151

Northouse, P. G. (2019). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (9th Ed.). Sage Publications.

Office of Personnel Management. (2019). *Federal employee viewpoint survey.*

    https://home.treasury.gov/system/files/241/2019_OPM_FEVS_AES_Department

    _of_the_Treasury_v2.pdf

Ohunakin, F., Adeniji, A. A., Oludayo, O. A., Osibanjo, A. O., & Oduyoye, O. O. (2019).

    Employees' retention in Nigeria's hospitality industry: The role of

    transformational leadership style and job satisfaction. *Journal of Human*

    Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 18(4), 441-470.

    https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2019.1626795

Ojwang, N. O. (2019). Influence of talent management practices on turnover intent

    among research scientists at the national museums of Kenya (NMK), Nairobi.

    International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science, 8(1), 1-19.

    https://doi.org/10.20525/ijrbs.v8i1.186

Olowoselu, A., bin Mohamad, M., & Aboudahr, S. M. F. M. (2019). Path-Goal Theory

    and the application in educational management and leadership. *Education*

    Quarterly Reviews, *2*(2), 448–455. https://doi.org/10.31014/aior.1993.02.02.77

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2005). Taking the "Q" out of research: Teaching

    research methodology courses without the divide between quantitative and

qualitative paradigms. *Quality and Quantity, 39*(3), 267–295.

https://doi.org/10.1007%2Fs11135-004-1670-0

Ospina, S. M., Esteve, M., & Lee, S. (2018). Assessing qualitative studies in public

administration research. *Public Administration Review, 78*(4), 593-605.

https://doi.org:10.1111/puar.12837

Ouedraogo, M., & Rinfret, N. (2019). The sharing and management of managers'

knowledge: A structured literature review. *Knowledge and Process Management,*

26(3), 244–261. https://doi.org/10.1002/kpm.1606

Parke, M. R., & Myeong-Gu, S. (2017). The role of affect climate in organizational

effectiveness. *Academy of Management Review, 42*(2), 334-360.

https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0424

Pleau, R. L., & Shauman, K. (2013). Trends and correlates of post retirement

employment, 1977-2009. *Human Relations, 66*(1), 113-141.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726712447003

Pohler, D., & Schmidt, J. A. (2015). Does pay-for-performance strain employment

relationship? The effect of manager bonus eligibility on non-management

employee turnover. *Personnel Psychology, 69*(2), 395-429.

https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12106

Popli, S., & Rizvi, I. A. (2016). Drivers of employee engagement: The role of leadership

style. *Global Business Review, 17*(4), 965-979.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0972150916645701

Powell, T. C. (2019). Can quantitative research solve social problems? Pragmatism and

the ethics of social research. *Journal of Business Ethics. 167*(1)*,* 41-48.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04196-7

Pradhan, R. K., Panda, M., & Jena, L. K. (2017). transformational leadership and

psychological empowerment: The mediating effect of organizational culture in

Indian retail industry. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management, 30*(1), 82-

95. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEIM-01-2016-0026

Presbitero, A. (2016). How do changes in human resource management practices

influence employee engagement? A longitudinal study in a hotel chain in the

Philippines. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 16*(1), 56–70.

https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2016.1202061

Purcell, J. (2014). Disengaging from engagement. *Human Resource Management

Journal, 24*(3), 241-254. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12046

Rai, A. (2018). Differential relationship of challenge and hindrance demands with

employee engagement. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy,

38*(9/10), 887–906. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijssp-12-2017-0174

Rana, S. (2015). High-involvement work practices and employee engagement. *Human

Resource Development International, 18*(3), 308-316.

https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2014.1003698

Ranjbar, M., Rafiei, S., Shafiei, M., & Kargar, V. (2019). Transformational leadership

style and employee creativity. *The Health Care Manager, 38*(3), 282–288.

https://doi.org/10.1097/HCM.0000000000000275

Rapp, A. A., Petersen, J. A., Hughes, D. E., & Ogilvie, J. L. (2020). When time is sales:

The impact of sales manager time allocation decisions on sales team performance. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 40*(2), 132–148. https://doi.org/1080/08853134.2020.1717961

Rashidin, M. S., Javed, S., & Liu, B. (2019). Empirical study on spirituality, employee's engagement and job satisfaction: Evidence from China. *International Journal of Public Administration, 43*(12), 1042-1054. https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2019.1665066

Rastogi, A., Pati, S. P., Krishnan, T. N., & Krishnan, S. (2018). Causes, contingencies, and consequences of disengagement at work: An integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review, 17*(1), 62-94. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1534484317754160

Rather, R. A. (2019). Consequences of consumer engagement in service marketing: An empirical exploration. *Journal of Global Marketing, 32*(2), 116-135. https://doi.org/10.1080/08911762.2018.1454995

Raziq, M. M., Borini, F. M., Malik, O. F., Ahmad, M., & Shabaz, M. (2018). Leadership styles, goal clarity, and project success: Evidence from project-based organizations in Pakistan. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 39*(2), 309-323. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-07-2017-0212

Reina, C. S., Rogers, K. M., Peterson, S. J., Byron, K., & Hom, P. W. (2018). Quitting the boss? The role of manager influence tactics and employee emotional engagement in voluntary turnover. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 25*(1), 5-18. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051817709007

Roof, R. (2015). The association of individual spirituality on employee engagement: The

   spirit at work. *Journal of Business Ethics, 130*(3), 585-599.

   https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014- 2246-0

Ross, M. W., Iguchi, M. Y., & Panicker, S. (2018). Ethical aspects of data sharing and

   research participant protections. *American Psychologist, 73*(2), 138–145.

   https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000240

Rothmann, S., & Baumann, C. (2014). Employee engagement: The effects of work

   home/home-work interaction and psychological conditions. *South African Journal*

   of Economic and Management Sciences, 17(4), 515-530.

   https://doi.org/10.4102/sajems.v17i4.419

Sakuraya, A., Shimazu, A., Eguchi, H., Kamiyama, K., Hara, Y., Namba, K., &

   Kawakami, N. (2017). A cross-sectional study of job crafting, work engagement,

   and psychological distress among Japanese employees. *BioPsychoSocial*

   Medicine, 11(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13030-017-0091-y

Salas-Vallina, A., & Fernandez, R. (2017). The HRM-performance relationship revisited.

   Employee Relations, 39(5), 626-642. https://doi.org/10.1108/er-12-2016-0245

Saleem, A., Wu, L., Aslam, S., & Zhang, T. (2021). Spotlight on leadership Path-Goal

   Theory silos in practice to improve and sustain job-oriented development:

   Evidence from education sector. *Sustainability (2071-1050)*, *13*(21), 12324.

   https://doi.org/10.3390/su132112324

Sarhan, N., Harb, A., Shrafat, F., & Alhusban, M. (2020). The effect of organizational

   culture on the organizational commitment: Evidence from hotel industry.

Management Science Letters, 183–196. https://doi.org/10.5267/j.msl.2019.8.004

Saunders, M. N. K., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2015). *Research methods for business students* (7th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Saxena, V., & Srivastava, R. K. (2015). Impact of employee engagement on employee performance - Case of manufacturing sectors. *International Journal of Management Research and Business Strategy, 4*(2), 139-174.

Scanlan, J. N., & Still, M. (2019). Relationships between burnout, turnover intention, job satisfaction, job demands and job resources for mental health personnel in an Australian mental health service. *BMC Health Services Research, 19*(1), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-018-3841-z

Schaufeli, W., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25*(3), 293-315. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.248

Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire: A cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 66*(4), 701-716. http://doi.org/10.1177/0013164405282471

Schneider, B., Yost, A. B., Kropp, A., Kind, C., & Lam, H. (2018). Workforce engagement: What it is, what drives it, and why it matters for organizational performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 39*(4), 462-480. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2244

Schroeder, L., Sjoquist, D., & Stephan, P. (2018). *Understanding regression analysis.*

Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sheehan, M., Garavan, T. N., & Morley, M. J. (2020). Transformational leadership and work unit innovation: A dyadic two-wave investigation. *Journal of Business Research, 109*, 399-412. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.10.072

Shen, Y., Ju, C., Koh, T., Rowlinson, S., & Bridge, A. (2017). The impact of transformational leadership on safety climate and individual safety behavior on construction sites. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 14*(1), 45. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph14010045

Shuck, B., Collins, J. C., Rocco, T. S., & Diaz, R. (2016). Deconstructing the privilege and power of employee engagement: Issues of inequality for management and human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review, 15*(2), 208-229. http://doi.org/10.1177/1534484316643904

Shuck, B., & Herd, A. M. (2012). Employee engagement and leadership: Exploring the convergence of two frameworks and implications for leadership development in HRD. *Human Resource Development Review, 11*(2), 156–181. https://doi.org/10.1177 /1534484312438211

Shuck, B., & Reio, T. G. (2011). The employee engagement landscape and HRD: How 104 do we link theory and scholarship to current practice? *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 13*(4) 419-428. https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422311431153

Shuck, B., & Reio, T. G. (2014). Employee engagement and well-being: A moderation model and implications for practice. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational*

Studies, 21(1), 43-58. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051813494240

Sinval, J., Marques-Pinto, A., Queirós, C., & Marôco, J. (2018). Work engagement among rescue workers: Psychometric properties of the Portuguese UWES. *Frontiers in Psychology, 8*(2229), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02229

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. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v8n8p91

Spiegelhalter, D. (2019). *Statistics: The art of learning from data.*

Stedman, N., & Adams-Pope, B. (2019). Understanding principal investigators' differences in leadership style and perceptions of teamwork to leverage leadership development. *Journal of Leadership Education, 18*(1), 14–24. https://doi.org/10.12806/v18/i1/r2

Sultana, S. (2015). The impact of employee engagement in improving organizational performance. *The International Journal of Business & Management, 3*(2), 111-114.

Syaifuddin. (2016). The influence of work stress and transformational leadership on work motivation and implication of employee's performance (case study). *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 15*(1), 42-48.

Talukder, A., Vickers, M., & Khan, A. (2018). Supervisor support and work-life balance: Impact on job performance in the Australia financial sector. *Personnel Review, 47*(3), 727-744. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-12-2016-0314

Tanskanen, K. (2015). Who wins in a complex buyer-supplier relationship? A social exchange theory based dyadic study. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 35*(4), 577–603. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOPM-10-2012-0432

Teymournejad, K., & Elghaei, R. (2017). Effect of transformational leadership on the creativity of employees: An empirical investigation. *Engineering, Technology & Applied Science Research, 7*(1)*,* 1413-1419. https://doi.org/10.48084/etasr.765

Theofanidis, D., & Fountouki, A. (2018). Limitations and delimitations in the research process. *Perioperative Nursing, 7*(3), 155–163. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2552022

Torabinia, M., Mahmoudi, S., Dolatshahi, M., & Abyaz, M. R. (2017). Measuring 114 engagement in nurses: The psychometric properties of the Persian version of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. *Medical Journal of the Islamic Republic of Iran, 31*(1), 83–89. https://doi.org/10.18869/mjiri.31.15

Turner, P. (2019). Critical values for the Durbin-Watson test in large samples. *Applied Economics Letters, 27*(18), 1495–1499. https://doi.org/10.1080/13504851.2019.1691711

Turner, P. (2020). *Employee engagement in contemporary organizations: Maintaining high productivity and sustained competitiveness.* Springer Nature.

Urbancová, H., & Vnoučková, L. (2018). Impact of employee development in agricultural companies on commitment, loyalty and performance. *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis, 66*(3), 803–

811. https://doi.org/10.11118/actaun201866030803

U.S. Department of Health & Human Services. (2018). *Belmont report 1979*. Retrieved
from https://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/regulations-and-policy/belmont-report/read-the-
belmont-report/index.html

Uttley, J. (2019). Power analysis, sample size, and assessment of statistical assumptions:
Improving the evidential value of lighting research. *Leukos, 15*(2-3), 143-162.
https://doi.org/10.1080/15502724.2018.1533851

Vargas, M. R. (2015). Determinant factors for small business to achieve innovation, high
performance, and competitiveness: Organizational learning and leadership style.
Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 169, 43-52.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.284

Verissimo, J. M. C., & Lacerda, T. M. C. (2015). Does integrity matter for CSR practice
in organizations? The mediating role of transformational leadership. *Business
Ethics: A European Review, 24*(1), 34-51. https://doi.org/10.1111/beer.12065

Vermooten, N., Boonzaier, B., & Kidd, M. (2019). Job crafting, proactive personality and
meaningful work: Implications for employee engagement and turnover intention.
SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 45. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v45i0.1567

Vieira, V. A., Perin, M. G., & Sampaio, C. H. (2018). The moderating effect of
managers' leadership behavior on salespeople's self-efficacy. *Journal of Retailing
and Consumer Services*, *40*, 150–162.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2017.09.010

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. McGraw Hill.

Wang, P. (2018). Reconsidering the costs and benefits of work engagement on work–

Family interaction and turnover intention: The antecedents and outcomes.

Community, Work & Family, 21(1). 1–23.

https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2018.1492906

Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organization*. New York, NY: Free

Press.

Westreich, D., Edwards, J. K., Lesko, C. R., Cole, S. R., & Stuart, E. A. (2019). Target

validity and the hierarchy of study designs. *American Journal of Epidemiology,*

188(2), 438-443. https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwy228

Williams, D. F., Chen-Bowers, N., Lankford, T., & Wolff, M. B. (2019). *Designing an*

organizational profile to inform leadership of employee well-being.

https://archive.hshsl.umaryland.edu/handle/10713/8849

Woehr, A., & Newman, K. (2020). Effects of dog ownership and academic success: A

correlational study. *Journal of Student Research, 9*(1), 1–11.

https://doi.org/10.47611/jsrhs.v9i1.1175

Wong, S. I., & Giessner, S. R. (2018). The thin line between empowering and laissez-

faire leadership: An expectancy-match perspective. *Journal of Management,*

44(2), 757-783. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315574597

Xu, F., & Wang, X. (2019). Transactional leadership and dynamic capabilities: the

mediating effect of regulatory focus. *Management Decision, 57*(9), 2284-2306.

https://doi.org/10.1108/md-11-2017-1151

Yadav, M., Choudhary, S., & Jain, S. (2018). Transformational leadership and knowledge

sharing behavior in freelancers: A moderated mediation model with employee engagement and social support. *Journal of Global Operations and Strategic Sourcing 12*(2). 202-224. https://doi.org/10.1108/JGOSS-08-2017-0030

Yalabik, Z. Y., Rayton, B. A., & Rapti, A. (2017). Facets of job satisfaction and work engagement. Evidence - Based HRM. *Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship, 5*(3), 248-265. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRN-08-2015-0036

Yardley, L., & Bishop, F. L. (2015). Using mixed methods in health research: Benefits and challenges. *British Journal of Health Psychology, 20*(1), 1-4. https://doi.org/10.1111%2Fbjhp.12126

Yaslioglu, M. M., & Erden, N. S. (2018). Transformational leaders in action: Theory has been there, but what about practice? *IUP Journal of Business Strategy, 15*(1), 42-53.

Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research and applications designs and methods* (6th Ed.). SAGE Publications Ltd.

Zhong, L., Wayne, S. J., & Liden, R. C. (2016). Job engagement, perceived organizational support, high-performance human resource practices, and cultural value orientations: A cross-level investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37*(6), 823-844. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2076

Ziedelis, A. (2019). Perceived calling and work engagement among nurses. Western *Journal of Nursing Research, 41*(6), 816-833. https://doi.org/10.1177/01939459187676

Zyphur, M. J., & Pierides, D. C. (2019). Statistics and probability have always been

value-laden: An historical ontology of quantitative research methods. *Journal of Business Ethics, 167*(1), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04187-8

Appendix A: Permission to Administer the MLQ

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™

Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)

and Scoring Guide
(Form 5X-Short)

by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.

info@mindgarden.com
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix B: Exemplar Abstract

Disengaged employees cost organizations billions of dollars annually. Business leaders must identify and align leadership styles to avoid losses and improve employee engagement. Grounded in transformational leadership theory, the purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and employee engagement. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used to measure transformational leadership, and the nine-question Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was used to measure employee engagement. Data were collected from 92 usable surveys from employees working in the customer experience field in a large organization in northwest Arkansas. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis indicated that the model, as a whole, was statistically significant $F(4, 87) = 22.873$, $p = .001$, $R^2 = .513$. In the final model, inspirational motivation ($B = .54$, $t = 3.77$, $p = .001$) and individualized consideration ($B = -.36$, $t = -2.11$, $p = .038$) were statistically significant. Idealized influence and intellectual stimulation did not have statistical significance. A key recommendation is for business leaders to implement engagement strategies focusing on motivational behaviors and individualized consideration. Implications for positive social change that could arise from these findings include creating a work environment conducive to stabilizing the labor market and promoting personal financial security.

Appendix C: Human Subjects Protection Certificate

CITI PROGRAM

Completion Date 21-Dec-2022
Expiration Date N/A
Record ID 53289011

This is to certify that:

April Throgmorton

Has completed the following CITI Program course:

Student's
(Curriculum Group)
Doctoral Student Researchers
(Course Learner Group)
1 - Basic Course
(Stage)

Not valid for renewal of
certification through CME.

Under requirements set by:

Walden University

CITI
Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative

Verify at www.citiprogram.org/verify/?wb467993e-2861-4fed-8405-ae0f91a6474b-53289011