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Transformational Leadership Influence on Rapid Organizational Change in Procter and Gamble Global Manufacturing Operation

Timothy M. Williams Sr.
Walden University

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College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Review Committee

Dr. Richard Thompson, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Thomas Diamond, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Kelly Davis, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer

Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University

2014

Abstract

Transformational Leadership Influence on Rapid Organizational Change in Procter and

Gamble Global Manufacturing Operation

by

Timothy M. Williams Sr.

M.B.A., Tiffin University, 2003

B.S., Tuskegee University, 1986

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Organizational Psychology

Walden University

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Abstract

Most companies lack the ability to implement organizational change; over 70% of Organization Change Initiatives (OCIs) fail. This inability has negative economic and survival implications for companies. OCIs must be effective and rapid to match the high pace of change in the business environment. Transformational leadership (TL) has been linked to successful OCIs through its positive influence on employee commitment and reduced resistance to change, yet little research has been done to identify its association with OCI implementation speed. This study tested TL and change theory and their association with change implementation. It sought to determine if a relationship exists between TL behavior and OCI implementation time. Archival survey and change data from 98 domestic and international manufacturing plants were used to examine relationships between employees' perceptions of leadership communication and trustworthiness and the speed of change. Hierarchical linear regression was used to determine if these behaviors could predict the change speed of an OCI. The study confirmed the association between effective leadership communication and employee trust in leadership, but it found no significant relationship between TL behavior and the speed of change. This finding is inconsistent with the majority of TL literature; however, companies may still benefit from exploring the potential of the study's theoretical concepts to help them improve the speed of organizational change. The limitations of the study were also noted as a potential contributor to the lack of significant findings, and recommendations are offered to reduce validity risk for similar studies in the future.

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Dedication

To my lovely wife, Dorotia, who sacrificed so much of my time and presence during this project. I am indebted to you for the love and encouragement you gave me. Thanks for believing in me!! I could not have done it without you being present in every way that I needed you to be. Baby, we got it done!!

Finally, I am thankful to God for leading me to start this project and for being there throughout the journey to provide me strength, resources, wisdom, and mind when the spirit was willing but the flesh was tired and weak. I dedicate this effort and the impact it will have on the lives of others for your Glory!!!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Organizations are challenged by the necessity and frequency of organization change (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, & Walker, 2007; Cohen, 1999; Golm, 2010; Isaksen, 2007; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Pieterse, van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010). Brown and Harvey (2006) stated the necessity for change and the high frequency of change is the only constant for organizations. This condition of frequent change is due to the rapidly changing market, which is driven by changes in technology, economic environment, and the social and cultural changes of a diversified consumer base (Boga & Ensari, 2009; Bridges, 1986; Cohen, 1999; Mokhber, Ismail, & Vakilbashi, 2011; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010; Seo et al., 2012; Vasilescu, 2012). This change is not only constant, but it is also complex, rapid, and increasing, generating ill-structured organizational challenges that have to be overcome for the company to survive (Boga & Ensari, 2009; Liu, Liu, & Zeng, 2011; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010; Sullivan, Sullivan, & Buffton, 2002; Vasilescu, 2012).

Because of the need for high pace change, organizations are seeking the key to improving their capacity to be flexible and routinely embrace and facilitate rapid organizational change (Bernerth et al., 2007; Boga & Ensari, 2009; Erickson, 2008; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010). This is also because of industry experiencing a

high failure rate in excess of 70% for organizational change initiatives(Gilley, Dixon, & Gilley, 2008b).

It is possible leadership may be the key leverage organizations are looking for to promote the capacity in organizations to routinely and rapidly embrace change because of the proven impact that leadership can have on organization performance (Golm, 2010; Kotter, 2005). Adding to the body of research in this area has social implication for industries needing a clearer definition of steps that can be leveraged in leadership to improve their organizations' ability to make change. This can have an impact on their organizational culture, their economic status, and their ability to respond rapidly and effectively to the needs of their customer.

This chapter will provide background on the study, specifically on leadership and organizational change along with information on Procter & Gamble's Integrated Work System change implementation, which is the data source for the study. The chapter also describes the problem and the nature of the study and provides the research questions and hypotheses, assumptions and limitations, significance, and the study's theoretical basis. Finally it concludes with a statement of the social change implications.

Background

Leadership and Organizational Change

Leaders play a crucial role in motivating performance and effectiveness on all levels and all areas of an organization (Golm, 2010; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Liao &

Chuang, 2007). On an individual level, the personality of a leader determines how the leader will lead and affects the performance of the people he/she leads (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Paulsen, Maldonado, Callan, & Ayoko, 2009). Pertinent to this study, this critical influence of leadership is also true for change leaders (CLs) or those leaders responsible for leading organizational change initiatives (OCI; Gilley, Dixon, & Gilley, 2008a; Paulsen et al., 2009; Vasilescu, 2012). The personality and leadership style of CLs impact the performance of employees going through an OCI; therefore, understanding the leadership style, personality traits, and/or leadership behaviors best suited for implementing this critical organizational function may be an advantage in overcoming the challenges of implementing a successful OCI.

CLs' personality and style have an impact on the performance of employees (Golm, 2010; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Liao & Chuang, 2007). Specifically, transformational leadership (TL) behaviors, which are relationship oriented behaviors such as communication, integrity, and trustworthiness, have a positive influence on the performance results of employees (Aarons & Sommerfeld, 2012; Anderson & Anderson, 2011; Boga & Ensari, 2009; Burnes & Cooke, 2012; Dlugosz, Aarons, & Ehrhart, 2010; Erwin & Garman, 2010; J. Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; J. Ford et al., 2008; Foster, 2010; Gilley et al., 2008a, 2008a; Golm, 2010; Harrison, 2011; Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008; Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2009a; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Paulsen et al., 2009; Randall & Nielsen, 2010; Stoker, Grutterink, & Kolk, 2012). This same

positive influence is also seen with employee commitment to change (CTC) and resistance to change (RTC) during OCI (Bridges, 1986; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Herold et al., 2008; Michaelis et al., 2009a). CLs who demonstrate TL behaviors, especially communication and trust building, may improve the potential of OCIs being successful or delivering its intended results (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000; Foster, 2010; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Time is an important component of strategic organizational change because management has recognized that time can provide competitive advantage in a fast changing environment (Kim & Mc Intosh, 1996). Improving the rate at which organizations are able to make change is a significant need of industry (Cohen, 1999; Golm, 2010; Isaksen, 2007; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010). Though implied in the notion of improving the success of OCIs, what is still elusive empirically is if the application of TL behavior, considering its positive employee influence, will inherently result in an OCI being executed more effectively and rapidly. Because there is little literature on improving the time, speed, and/or rate aspect of change in a successful OCI, this leaves a gap in knowledge to assist organizations in having the capability to change rapidly to meet a rapidly changing business environment (Murray & Richardson, 2003).

This study sought to determine if a relationship exists between vision communications and trust building, which are primary TL behaviors, and the rate or speed that organizations make change. The potential of this relationship is based on the

empirically established positive relationships TL has on commitment to change and resistance to change, which are critical to the successful implementation of organizational change. The study evaluated these relationships utilizing employee opinion data on leadership vision communication and trust in leadership from multiple Procter & Gamble (P&G) manufacturing plants both domestic and abroad. The data were collected while each plant implemented the same standardized OCI called the Integrated Work System (IWS). The time each plant took to complete the OCI was also collected and was the single dependent variable evaluated.

Procter & Gamble Integrated Work System Implementation

Procter & Gamble is a global Fortune 500 company and the world's largest producer and manufacturer of consumer products (Murray & Richardson, 2003; "Procter & Gamble - Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia," n.d.). P&G is recognized for their development of leadership skills in their employees and was voted number one in leadership development in 2012 by Chief Executive Magazine. Other recognitions include 2012 Fortune Top 10 Most Admired Companies and 2012 Glass Top 50 Companies to work for in the World ("PG.com Home: Sustainability, company, brands," n.d., "Procter & Gamble - Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia," n.d.).

In the mid-1990s in a highly competitive global market, Procter & Gamble began the implementation of a comprehensive manufacturing operating system in their manufacturing plants across the globe. This comprehensive system was labeled the

Integrated Work System (IWS) since it was an approach that integrated equipment, processes, and people improvement and development into a united approach to reduce cost, improve quality, and increase production, which would improve overall productivity and the profit margin for their products. This major organizational change has been executed systematically in each of their manufacturing plants individually and is tracked in a 5-phase approach. Each phase represents a major milestone towards a final culture change to an organization with a zero loss mentality and 100% employee involvement. I have firsthand experience with IWS implementation as a retired P&G employee with 26 years of experience in multiple P&G organizations. The majority of my career was spent working as an operations leader (12 Years) or human resource leader (14 years) in P&G manufacturing plants that were progressing through one of the phases of IWS.

The phases begin with Phase 0, which is the leadership preparation phase. The effort in Phase 1 is entirely to return equipment to its original equipment specification and health or Base Condition. Increasing the performance of the equipment as measured by the increase of time between equipment failures is the focus of Phase 2. This is done by enhancing the function and improving the long-term health of the equipment; significantly improving employees' skills and knowledge in equipment maintenance and operations is also done in Phase 2. The Zero Loss focus broadens in Phase 3 moving to optimizing supply stability, capability, and productivity in the entire manufacturing supply chain. Phase 4 then turns turning to leveraging the drastically optimized supply

chain to meet customer and consumer needs and expectations. This phased approach is assessed using standardized success criteria to determine if the necessary equipment, process, and people progression has been accomplished to qualify the plant to pass the five phases of the IWS implementation. The expected time to pass a phase can range from 18 to 24 months, but as expected, some plants accomplish phase completion faster than the average and some longer than the average. This variation in results may be attributed to the various constructs such as TL, CTC, or RTC which all can make an organizational change successful or cause it to fail.

This IWS approach has been very successful for Procter & Gamble and has contributed to the gain of market share in the majority of their brands and reduced prices by as much as 10% on most of their products (“Increasing Manufacturing Efficiency in Consumer Products VP USL 12-02-2010,” n.d.). The key metric for measuring manufacturing performance is “cost of goods sold as a percent of revenue” and this metric has been reduced from 57% to 48% from 1998 to 2010 (“Increasing Manufacturing Efficiency in Consumer Products VP USL 12-02-2010,” n.d.)

Problem Statement

Although change has become a constant need for companies, the ability to implement and manage the impact of organizational change is lacking and a problem in most organizations (Bernerth et al., 2007; Higgs & Rowland, 2005). Over 70% of OCIs fail and at times it reaches 80 to 90% (Gilley et al., 2008a). Many factors contributed to

these failures; however, it is clear from this statistic that the pathway to change is difficult for most companies to navigate. Organizational change implementation presents significant challenges, and few companies have successfully completed the change journey successfully (Gilley et al., 2008a).

Though TL has been linked to improving the success of organizational change initiatives through its positive influence on employee commitment to change and employee resistance to change, little research has been done to assess the relationship of TL with an obvious aspect of organizational change initiative success, which is the time or the speed that the organizational change occurs (Murray & Richardson, 2003). Ultimately, OCIs have to be effective to be successful, but they also have to be rapid to keep up with the high pace of change in society and the business environment.

Purpose of the Study

This study tested transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) and organizational change management theory (Kotter, 1995) and the impact they have on the rate or speed that organizations are able to implement change initiatives. It sought to determine if the empirically supported improvement in organizational change implementation resulting from the positive relationship between the constructs of both theories also results in organizational change initiatives being implemented more rapidly.

A nonexperimental, correlational approach utilized secondary attitude survey data collected by a large consumer products company as a part of the annual employee

opinion survey. Survey items representing employees' opinions on TL behaviors (e.g., vision communication and trust building) were evaluated and hierarchical linear regression was used to determine if these behaviors individually or collectively could predict the speed with which employees engage in the implementation of organization change initiatives. Employee opinions on leadership communication, leadership trust building, and time to progress through IWS phases were the main relationship evaluated with this study.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following research questions and hypothesis have been developed for this study:

RQ1: Is greater trust in the change leaders associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster?

H1₀: Higher trust in the change leaders, as measured by trust in leadership, is not significantly associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster.

H1_A: Higher trust in the change leaders, as measured by trust in leadership, is significantly associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster.

RQ2: Is effective change leader communication of the vision for the change associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster?

H2₀: Effective change leader's vision communication, as measured by vision communication, is not significantly associated with employees moving through organizational change faster.

H2_A: Effective change leader's vision communication, as measured by vision communication, is significantly associated with employees moving through organizational change faster.

RQ3: Is more effective change leader communication a mediator of the association between trust in the change leaders and employees moving through an organizational change faster?

H3₀: Effective change leader communication is not a mediator of the association between trust in the change leaders and employees moving through an organizational change faster.

H3_A: Effective change leader communication is a mediator of the association between trust in the change leaders and employees moving through an organizational change faster.

Theoretical Framework

Outcomes of initial studies of leadership by Burns (1978) in the late 70s provided the seed of research introducing the role TL can play in positive outcomes of organizational performance. Burns's model of leadership identified and gave the initial definition to transformational and transactional styles, which are foundational leadership

styles referenced by leadership researchers (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Ismail, Mohamad, Mohamed, Rafiuddin, & Zhen, 2010; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Pieterse et al., 2010; Seidman & McCauley, 2011; Weichun Zhu, Sosik, Riggio, & Yang, 2012).

Transformational leadership is the leadership style that influences the attitude of the follower through charisma, personal interaction, and the building of relationship (Michaelis et al., 2009a). Transactional leadership is the leadership style that provides direction, resources, and accountability to followers to ensure the execution of task or initiatives (Golm, 2010; Ismail et al., 2010). Bass (2006) further defined these two styles of leadership in the late 90s building on the Burns's work, but providing more behavioral definition for the two leadership styles. Bass outlined four components of transformational leaders (charismatic leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) and three components of transactional leadership (contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire, or nonleadership behavior), which is well known as the two factor model of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Burns (1978) introduced transformational leadership theory and defined transformational leaders as those who are inherently appealing to followers because of their ability to influence through communication and building trust. Kotter's (1995) change management theory proposed that a change leader's failure to gain followers' commitment and inability to effectively execute the activities of organizational change

are the broad reasons why organizational change initiatives fail. These two theories together provide the framework for this study because of the likelihood that transformational leadership behaviors can influence the commitment of followers to execute organizational change initiatives more effectively and more rapidly. The details of this theoretical preposition will be discussed further in Chapter 2.

Though the definition of leadership is constantly involving, the two-factor model of leadership is widely seen in literature and still foundational in leadership research. The model has empirically supported relationships with overall organization performance outcomes and more recently organizational performance outcomes in the area of organizational change (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass et al., 2003). This study builds on this foundational leadership concept by using a quantitative design to evaluate the associations among leader vision communication, leader trustworthiness, and the speed of organizational change. The potential relationships between these variable lends itself to a regression analysis, which is the primary analysis to answer the study's research questions.

Nature of the Study

This study used a quantitative, nonexperimental design. The data set for the study was developed from a Procter & Gamble archival database of their annual Employee Survey results and their manufacturing operations tracking system for recording manufacturing plant's progression through the IWS phases. The employee survey data

used were a subset of the total database encompassing only the opinions of manufacturing employees whose plants have made phase progression in their IWS implementation process.

The independent variables were P&G employee perceptions of trust in leadership and leadership vision communication. The dependent variable was change completion time, which was the time period necessary for a manufacturing plant to complete an IWS Phase. The survey results for trust in leadership and vision communication were aggregated to overall plant ratings for the corresponding phase completion time period and then tested for any statistical relationship. The scales, data origin, and data aggregation are described in greater detail in Chapter 3.

Definitions

Trust in leadership: A primary characteristic associated with leadership that exists when employees have a positive expectation, developed over time, that their leader or manager will not act opportunistically or take advantage of them by words, actions, or decisions and that their leader or manager will not with intent use their position to do them harm (Lines, Selart, Espedal, & Johansen, 2005; Sorensen, Hasle, & Pejtersen, 2011).

Vision communication: Any action of leaders to convey information about what employees can expect during and after the implementation of an organizational change

primarily to explain why the change is needed and address the employees' worries, concerns, or fears relative to the change (Elving, 2005).

Change completion time: The time it takes to complete a phase of IWS in a P&G manufacturing facility.

Commitment to change: The mindset of an individual that binds them to take the actions needed to accomplish change (Herold et al., 2008; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Resistance to change: The open, understood, immediate or deferred behaviors of individuals to hinder change because they perceive change to be negative (Agboola & Salawu, 2011).

Assumptions

The study assumed that employees' opinions relative to vision communication are referencing the site executive leadership team at each of the P&G manufacturing sites. This is assumed because in the P&G culture, the site leadership team drives major change, and employees as a norm see this team as the team ultimately responsible for change decision-making. Opinion survey questions relative to this construct use GBU Leadership where GBU represents Global Business Unit. Although this references a broader group of leadership than the site leadership team, the members of the site leadership team are the sites' first level of GBU leadership. Also, other GBU leaders, who are primarily in corporate locations, are far removed from the typical plant locations. This causes employees to be exposed to corporate GBU leadership very infrequently.

This lack of exposure may cause employees to tend towards referencing the site GBU leadership as the focus of the leadership survey items. I am comfortable in making this assumption after my long experience in finalizing survey results in multiple P&G manufacturing plants and confirming this assumption amongst survey participants.

Survey questions relative to trust in leadership were assumed to be employee opinions about their individual leader or manager responsible for day-to-day leadership of the employee or team of employees during the change implementation. This was assumed since the questions reference items such as “work plan” development, which is a commonly performed activity between a leader or manager and employees directly reporting to them.

Finally, it was assumed that survey ratings collected during the phase represent an opinion or attitude consistent during the change completion period. This is necessary since the survey is only executed annually and individual employee opinions can be swayed or changed more frequently. This assumption, however, is supported by the annual survey execution being a familiar and well-published priority, and employees being asked to share their opinion about the time since the last survey.

Scope and Delimitations

Organization change initiative failure is the problem being studied; more specifically, improving the failure rate of organizational change initiative is important. This study specifically focused on two transformational leadership characteristics, vision

communication and trust in leadership, and the role they could play in how rapidly followers can perform organizational change. This focus was selected because the business economic environment is constantly and rapidly changing; therefore, businesses have to keep up with this pace to survive.

Considering the previously mentioned focus, the population of this study was technicians in manufacturing plants going through IWS change initiatives. Though managers participate in the annual employee survey, their opinions are excluded from the study since managers are typically designated as change leaders. Manufacturing plants that had completed Phase 0 through 3 of IWS were sampled.

Limitations

The archival database was limited to the employees who chose to participate in the voluntary survey process each year. There was a strong likelihood that the same exact pools of participants did not participate in the survey each year. This means that in instances where there may be multiple survey ratings collected and averaged for a change period, it is likely to have a different pool of participants associated with each rating. In contrast, there is a likelihood that the multiple pools will share a core majority of the same participants who, as a norm, participate in the survey each year.

Significance and Implication for Social Change

Leadership has been shown to be a critical factor, if not the primary factor, in successfully implementing organizational change. The positive role of TL behaviors on

the commitment to change and resistance to change and its positive impact on organizational change is well validated. What is lacking, however, are empirical data that determine if this positive impact results in organizational change being implemented more rapidly. This study attempted to fill the current gap in literature and specifically determine the relationship between leadership trust building and vision communication behaviors and the speed that organizations make change. The implication for social change was significant considering the global need for organizations to implement change as effectively and quickly as possible in the current environment of unrelenting complex rapid change. The results of this study have the potential to point companies to focus more on their change leaders' behaviors in addition to the change implementation process itself to reduce the economic losses of organizational change failure. This focus could emerge as companies designing hiring processes identify candidates with the needed change leadership style. It also has the potential to identify the basis for designing training systems to build and strengthen change leadership behaviors in existing employees. The results of the study could even have offered findings that influence companies to build change leadership functions in their organizations the same as other foundational business functions like Engineering, Financing and Accounting, and Human Resources. Each of these would be an indication of social change.

Summary

In today's competitive global economy, change is the only constant as companies are continually looking for opportunities to obtain a higher level of competitive advantage. Although change is constantly before industries and many organizational change initiatives have been launched, it is well known that over 70% of them fail. In literature, many reasons for this high failure rate are described, but consistency is the role of leadership as a key component in both the failure and success of organizational change initiatives.

In this study, I sought to identify a relationship between leadership behaviors and the rate of organizational change. I proposed that if TL behaviors, specifically vision communication and trust building, have favorable relationships with constructs' commitment to change and resistance to change, then the result of these relationships will influence the speed organizational change occurs. It is likely that this speed can be increased if leadership behaviors (transformation and transactional) are strategically selected and applied to Kotter's (2007) eight reasons why organization change is not successful in most organizations. Chapter 2 will provide the theoretical and literary support for this proposal while Chapter 3, 4, and 5 will provide the study methodology, study analytical results, and results interpretation respectively.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

In this time of fast paced change in society and the business environment, one of the necessary characteristics of any successful organization is an ability to be flexible and routinely embrace and facilitate change (Erickson, 2008). Cohen (1999) said it is imperative that organizations facilitate change successfully in order to survive; success in organizational change is defined as meeting or exceeding the original intended goals of the change initiative (Maurer, 2005). Brown and Harvey (2008) stated that change is the only constant for organizations. Increasingly global economic markets drive this constant change. This globalization has required more aggressive changes in technology and broad changes in economic environments, resulting in a more socially and culturally diversified consumer base (Boga & Ensari, 2009; Bridges, 1986; Brown & Harvey, 2006; Cohen, 1999; Mokhber et al., 2011; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010; Seo et al., 2012; Vasilescu, 2012). Not only is the change organizations are experiencing constant, it is complex, rapid, and increasing. Survival is now the prize for many companies that are pursuing the ability to implement and manage change successfully (Boga & Ensari, 2009; Ford, 2012; Liu et al., 2011; Morgan & Zeffane, 2003; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010; Sullivan et al., 2002; Vasilescu, 2012).

Murray and Richardson (2003) revealed that organizational change has to happen quickly to be successful because rapid change creates momentum. Considering this assertion, organizations are seeking ways to improve their success rate with organizational change initiatives, which means they are looking for ways to ensure change initiatives meet their intentions, accomplish their goals, and are executed as rapidly as possible.

The success of any organizational change initiative (OCI) depends heavily on the leader of the change. The change leader must have the leadership and cognitive style to address issues associated with employee commitment to change (CTC) and resistance to change (RTC) through each phase of the OCI. The ability to address these two key factors is critical, if not absolutely necessary, for the OCI to be successful. Change leadership is the key consideration because the reason that 70% of organizational change initiatives are not successful is due to change leaders not effectively gaining organization commitment nor effectively executing the OCI to reach its goals (Kotter, 2005).

TL behavior has been shown to have positive influence on most organization performance outcomes (Golm, 2010). It has also been shown to have similarly positive influence on employee CTC and RTC during organizational change initiatives (Herold et al., 2008). TL behaviors such as communication and trust building have been supported as critical leadership behaviors that contribute to accomplishing a successful organizational change initiative (Lines et al., 2005; Petrescu, 2011). This study seeks to

determine if a relationship exists between communication and trust building and the rate or speed organizations make change.

The review begins with a discussion of organizational culture, organizational culture change, and the rate of organizational culture change failure. It continues with a review of what is known about leadership, the influence it has on organization performance, and the potential it has for reducing the rate of organization culture change failures. The review ends with a discussion of the psychological aspects of organizational change. This discussion explores CTC, RTC, and the relationship leadership behaviors (communication and trust building) have with reducing the rate or speed of organizational change.

Literature Search Strategy

The search for literature covered several psychology, business, and multidiscipline databases. Relevant literature was retrieved from the period of 1987 (TL foundation established) until present from PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, PsycEXTRA, PsycCRITIQUES, Academic Search Complete/Premier, Business Source, Expanded Academic ASAP, and ERIC databases. I used the following the search terms: *leadership, transformational leadership, personality, organizations performance, organizational change, organizational change failure, organizational culture change, rate, speed, rapid, fast, resistance to organizational change, commitment to change, communication, and trust*. The search explored articles from 1987 to 1992 when the foundational topic of TL

was established, then more recent articles, from the past 5 years to present, were searched. Articles were obtained primarily in digital format.

Theoretical Foundation

The influence of TL on followers' performance specifically began with Burns in his study in the field of Humanistic Psychology (Stewart, 2006). In the late 70s, Burns (1978) noted that no common concept of leadership existed because researchers were working in their specific discipline to answer questions unique to that discipline. Burns is acknowledged as the introducer of the concept of TL, which is people centered leadership that sponsors follower motivation and encourages follower engagement (Stewart, 2006). The TL concept was Burns's attempt to form a central leadership concept that he felt was lacking although there was an abundance of leadership literature at the time. Burns's book, *Leadership*, became the basis for the evolution of the concept of transformation leadership and transactional leadership (Stewart, 2006).

Burns (1979) also defined a transactional leader, a leadership approach which lies in contrast to TL. He explained that transactional leadership happens when leaders and followers meet to exchange what is individually valuable to each in order to further that which is primarily valuable to each. In contrast, TL occurs when the leader and follower meet to collaborate on that which is jointly valuable to each. In doing so motivation, inspiration, aspiration, and expectations to meet the individual's needs and the leader's needs throughout change produces an agreed upon relationship that grows to make the

change happen. This approach, he argued, promoted higher morality and real commitment to the goal of change, and combined the effort and resources of both parties involved (J. M. Burns, 1978; Stewart, 2006). Burns suggested that we move from the power-based top down approach of leadership (transactional) prevalent during the time, because it ignored the foundational characteristic of leadership and followership, which is common purpose (Stewart, 2006). Burns initiated the thought that mutual relationship is more powerful for change than the overemphasized role of leaders with power and position that marks transactional leadership.

Burns is recognized for his work of firmly establishing the concepts and definitions of transformational and transactional leadership. The work of Bass and Avolio (1993), recognized TL scholars, however, was an attempt to fill the gaps in empirical support lacking in Burn's(1978) initial work (Stewart, 2006). Burns came to admit that his initial work also lacked the consideration of the psychology of leadership, which recognized human needs and social change (Stewart, 2006).

Bass (1998), in his effort to fill the empirical gaps in Burns's earlier work, found that TL was more than an exchange between leaders and followers, but the unique power of TL behavior could move followers to perform beyond what was expected. TL was not just the act of leadership engaging followers around mutual purpose, but it greatly involved the behaviors of leaders that motivated and inspired followers to higher performance. These behaviors were studied and defined by Bass using the Multilevel

Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). His initial work resulted in a definition of four components of TL:

1. Charismatic leadership, or idealized influence, which is the ability of a leader to be admired and trusted to the degree that followers want to emulate them and the vision they communicate,
2. Inspirational motivation, which is the ability to motivate through generating followers' enthusiasm and challenging them to commit to goals and higher expectations,
3. Intellectual stimulation, which is the ability to motivate followers to be creative and to come up with new ideas and/or new methods to accomplish the goals, and
4. Individualized consideration, which is the ability to provide a support environment where the individual and his/her needs are respected. It also involves a willingness to attend to those needs and provide coaching and development for the individual (Bass, 1998).

Bass proposed that transformational leaders performed both transformational and transactional behaviors to some degree, depending on the need and situation, relying on the transformational behavior the most to motivate and inspire change. This again marked a new view of leadership and where Bass and Avolio (1993) introduced their two-factor theory of leadership, exerting that a full range of leadership behaviors encompasses both transactional and transformational behavior.

Because Bass (2006) expressed that transformational leaders preformed transactional leadership behaviors, he defined three components of transactional leadership involved in his definition of transformational leader: a) contingent reward, (b) management-by-exception, and (c) laissez-faire, or nonleadership behavior (Stewart, 2006). He viewed these leadership behaviors as the foundation of TL definition. The combining of transformational and transactional leadership behavior, different from Burns (1978), introduced a new robust concept of TL involved the full range of leadership (Stewart, 2006). The new concept encompassed both previous definitions of transformation and transactional leadership.

The application of the full range of leadership behaviors can be understood if the behaviors are viewed as on a continuum with the opposite extremes of this continuum being transactional and transformational behaviors. The view of a continuum displays the complimentary nature of the two opposite categories of leadership behaviors (Stewart, 2006). Further thought was given to the extremes of this continuum and the center point was said to be the point where managing and leading met; transactional behavior being more of what a leader needed to do to manage an organization and transformational behavior being what was more needed to lead an organization. Bass (1998) and Burns (1978) described leadership in terms of behaviors a leader had to display situationally to manage and lead an organization.

Later, Zaleznik (1992) veered somewhat from the “two factor/full range” leadership behavior definition of Bass and Avolio (1993) and argued that managers and leaders are two different types of people. He suggested that the differences in behaviors of leaders are primarily cognitive or psychological and stemmed from how the leader perceives chaos and order. This perception contributes to leaders perceiving goals more personally and with much deeper motivational meaning, whereas managers perceive them impersonally. Leaders relate to people on more intuitive personal level, whereas managers maintain relationships on a less emotional, more impersonal level. He did agree with Bass and Avolio that an organization could not be successful without both managers and leaders.

More recent thought and research continues to confirm Burns’s initial proposition of leadership behavior influencing the performance of individuals in organizations (Aarons & Sommerfeld, 2012; Anderson & Anderson, 2011; Boga & Ensari, 2009; Burnes & Cooke, 2012; Dlugosz et al., 2010; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Ford et al., 2008; Foster, 2010; Gilley et al., 2008a; Golm, 2010; Harrison, 2011; Herold et al., 2008; Michaelis et al., 2009a; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Paulsen et al., 2009; Randall & Nielsen, 2010; Stoker et al., 2012). Empirical research on the positive influences of leadership behavior at the employee level on trust, employee satisfaction, organization culture and climate, the effectiveness of leadership, and overall organization performance is abundant (Ahmadi, Ahmadi, & Zohrabi, 2012; Golm, 2010). Also, the impact of leadership

behavior, specifically TL behavior, on organizational change at the employee level is also supported (Golm, 2010; Michaelis et al., 2009a; Mokhber et al., 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010; Stoker et al., 2012). Empirical study on the influence of TL behaviors on organizational change on the broader organizational or group level is still an opportunity (Dlugosz et al., 2010; Golm, 2010; Herold et al., 2008; Liao & Chuang, 2007; Michaelis et al., 2009a; Mokhber et al., 2011; Oreg & Berson, 2011; Randall & Nielsen, 2010).

The definition of leadership is ever evolving to meet the changing needs and complexity of society (Herold et al., 2008). However, the foundational theory of two categories of leadership behavior, whether the variety of behaviors of any good leader or the individual cognitive style of a leader, remains a basis for our continued pursuit to refine a definition for leadership to meet today's societal needs. Because leadership, specifically TL, is positively related to the personality traits of leaders and these traits have the potential to affect the leader's values, feelings, attitudes, and eventually behaviors, it is important to incorporate leadership style or personality into this definition (Ahmadi et al., 2012). This definition also has to have application to the biggest need organizations have at this time, which is the successful implementation of organizational change.

What We Know About Organizational Culture and Change

What is Culture?

Individual behavior is rooted in what a person values, believes, and normally practices, therefore, the term *culture* speaks of the consistent predictable shared behaviors of a group or segment of people based on the shared values, beliefs, and practices of that group (Sternberg, 2004). Groups that share the same ethnicity or race are typically recognized as having come from the same culture or sharing the same culture (Kimoto, 2007). However, because culture is about shared consistent predictable behavior, the term can be applied to families, residents of the same community, city, state or country (Kimoto, 2007). It also can be applied to groups who may share a set of ideologies that lead to consistent predictable behaviors such as gangs, unions, sports teams, or even churches (Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012). The term culture can be applied to groups that share the same gender, sexual orientation, or sexual preferences. The application of the term can be broad, or the application can be narrow because it speaks to the consistent predictable behavior of a number of people based on their shared understanding, beliefs, and values. This can be a group of two or a group of millions brought together by some shared purpose or commonality (Anderson & Anderson, 2011; Bushe, 1988; Isaksen, 2007; Kimoto, 2007; Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012). With this insight into how the term culture is applied or utilized, we can now see how the term can be applied to organizations.

Organization Culture

Organizations are made up of a groups of individuals who share a common purpose encompassing the operations needed to supply a product or service that is demanded by the market (Bushe, 1988). The success of the organization is determined by how well it produces this product or service, which is measured by how long the company produces the product and consistently improves profitability over time (Bushe, 1988). This outcome equates to what I would term *company success*. The company's organization is not successful unless the company is successful; organization success and company success go hand in hand (Bates & Amundson, 1995). The behaviors of the organization or its culture plays a vital part in company success (Yarbrough, Morgan, & Vorhies, 2011).

These groups who make up the organization typically share a common work environment and many times a common corporate environment, or most times combination of both. Typically the corporate environment has an outline of shared principles, values, and practices that the corporation itself promotes (Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012). It also has a set of informal principles, values, and practices or norms that come about over time due to the social interaction of the individuals in the environment and the socialization that takes place from historical events, changes in technology, needs of consumers in the market, or the demands of the shareholder for more profit or return on their investments (Bates & Amundson, 1995). This culminates in

the production of organization culture; a set of consistent predictable behaviors shared by the members of the organization.

Organization Culture Change

The consistent predictable behaviors of an organization's culture are often the primary challenge for companies during change. The behaviors that make up organization culture are often barriers to making the changes needed to ensure the longevity needed for company success (Losada & Bajer, 2009). This is rooted in the psychology of human beings and their desire to maintain the status quo (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Humans tend to hold on to the familiar, to change only if the outcome is personally highly favorable and viewed as worth the effort required to accomplish and maintain the change (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

When OCIs are identified to improve the profitability of the company, companies need their employees to transition and prepare to accommodate the change as quickly as the non-organizational changes (buildings, equipment, technology, procedures, and so on) are made (Williams, 2010). This transition in the employees to support the OCI is organization culture change (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000). Influencing employees to make a change in their behavior to quickly and wholeheartedly support the OCI often leaves CLs perplexed and confused (Gilley et al., 2008a). Whether it is changing production equipment, changing operating procedure, shutting down one operating unit and reassigning the employees to a totally different unit, or increasing productivity by

redefining work expectations, all of these would require the organization or some segments of the organization to behave differently than they have in their recent past. It will in many cases require the organization to change their culture or the way it has consistently behaved or grown accustomed to behaving. Employees often resist this type of OCI to some degree, which can make the implementation of the change extremely tough to accomplish. Consequently, a very high number of initiatives to make culture change in organizations fail (Gilley et al., 2008a). Employees tend to resist change, even when the change is beneficial to the company and is projected to lead to higher employment security for them. There are reasons why employees resist, which we will address later; however, this scenario is a frequent one in companies (Ford et al., 2008). High pace frequent change has become a norm in business and to manage it, companies want cutting-edge solutions.

Change is a Constant for Organizations

In this time of fast-paced change in society and the business environment, one of the necessary characteristics of any successful organization is the ability to be flexible and routinely embrace and facilitate change (Erickson, 2008). Although some say strategic change executed at a rapid speed does not necessarily improve the business potential for longevity and success (Kim & McIntosh, 1996), Cohen (1999) said it is imperative that organizations facilitate change successfully in order to survive; success is defined as meeting or exceeding the original intended goals of the change (Maurer,

2005). Brown and Harvey (2008) stated change is the only constant for organizations. This is attributed to the economic market increasingly becoming more global, which has required more aggressive changes in technology, broad changes in economic environments, and has created a more social and cultural diversified consumer base (Brown & Harvey, 2006). Not only is the change constant, it is complex, rapid, and increasing. Survival is now the prize for many companies that are pursuing the ability to implement and manage change (Morgan & Zeffane, 2003; Sullivan et al., 2002).

Organizations Fail at Change

Although change has become a constant need for companies, there is a deficit in the ability to implement and manage the impact of organizational change in most organizations (Higgs & Rowland, 2005). Over 70% of OCIs fail and at times this figure reaches 80 to 90% (Gilley et al., 2008a). There are many reasons for this failure rate, but it is clear that implementing change is difficult and few companies have what it takes to manage and implement change successfully (Gilley et al., 2008a).

Reasons why organization culture changes fail. Based on a study of 100 companies that have attempted a variety of OCIs in various organization types and sizes, Kotter (2007) offered eight reasons why OCIs are not successful or do not meet their intended goals. They are (a) not establishing a great enough sense of urgency, (b) not creating a powerful enough coalition, (c) not creating a vision, (d) under communicating

the vision, (e) not removing barriers to the vision, (f) not planning for short term wins, (g) declaring victory to soon, and (h) not anchoring change in the culture.

Two categories for organization change failure. Two major categories are revealed when the activities of Kotter (2007) eight reasons for organizational change failure are evaluated. These categories are Not Gaining Commitment and Not Executing Effectively (Higgs & Rowland, 2005). This can be seen if Kotter's (2007) eight reasons are divided into two separate lists. The first list includes reasons (a) not establishing a great enough sense of urgency, (b) not creating a powerful enough coalition, (c) not creating a vision, (d) under communicating the vision, which can be defined as the reasons commitment is not gained for the OCI. The second list includes (e) not removing barriers to the vision, (f) not planning for short term wins, (g) declaring victory to soon, and (h) not anchoring change in the culture, which can be defined as the reasons the OCI is not executed effectively. These reasons will be referred to by their category title, Not Gaining Commitment and Not Executing Effectively, throughout the remainder of this proposal except where discussing the specific steps is required for clarity.

When CLs do not behave and perform their leadership role such that these categories are resolved as the OCI is implemented, the OCI has a high likelihood of not being successful (Kotter, 2005, 2007). The content of each reason is much more substantive than what is presented here, yet there is an important point to note; the one commonality in every reason and in every cause of failure is the behavior and actions or

lack of behavior and action of CLs (Kotter, 2007). A second important point to note is restating Kotter's (2007) eight reasons for OCI failures into Gaining Commitment, and Effective Execution categories capsulizes the primary responsibility of CLs to facilitate culture change so the OCI can be successful (Higgs & Rowland, 2005).

What We Know About Leadership

Hogan and Kaiser (2005), from their review of the empirical literature on leadership, leader personality, and organization performance, stated three things that have been empirically confirmed in the knowledge of leadership: (a) leadership is a real and broad dynamic, whose consequences make it one of the priority areas in human science, (b) leadership centers around enhancing output and performance of people on teams, in groups and in organizations; encouraging and developing their well being and quality of life to accomplish this goal, and (c) the leader's individual style and personality will determine how the leader will lead, and these individual characteristics can be determined and used to select potential or competent future leaders or to better the leadership ability of current leaders.

What is Leadership?

People are inherently self-focused and have a natural tendency to put their short term self-interest at the top of their agenda; therefore leadership is the ability to maneuver people from this natural tendency to working together and putting the priority and best interest of the group over their own self-focused interest because it is the best outcome

for the entire group (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003). In short, leadership is the ability to enhance a group's performance so that it excels against its competition or to accomplish its common goals (Avolio et al., 2003).

Leadership Personality and Organization Performance

Leader personality is described as the way a leader views himself/herself or the way the leader is viewed by others (reputation; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). It has been established empirically that leadership personality can determine organization performance (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Peterson, Smith, Martorana, & Owens, 2003). The proven rationale is leadership personality determines leadership style (the way the leader will behave as he/she leads); leadership style influences employees attitude and how well a group of employees or a team will function together to accomplish their shared goals; and organization performance is determined by how well employees function together. In their order of priority, the personality characteristics that employees see as reflecting an effective leader are integrity (trust building), decisiveness, competence, and vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Leaders have a greater influence on their employees when employees believe the leader can be trusted, that they are competent and able to make a decision, and are able to explain (communicate) the purpose, reasons, and value of major undertaking expected from the employee (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

Accomplishing the function of leadership (enhancing the organization's performance) has more to do with the personality of the leader than the traditional management skills that are measured to predict the success of a leader (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). The reasons leaders fail at their role of managing and leading can be summarized in four categories of personality dysfunction: (a) unable to motivate a team or group to work well together towards common goals, (b) unable to get work done through or with others because of betraying trust, (c) an inability to build relationships because of being arrogant, cold, insensitive, not trustable, or being too ambitious, not keeping commitment and following through, and (d) not being able to handle higher levels of responsibility when promoted (Leslie & Van Velsor, 1996).

It seems appropriate now to offer a more detailed description of leadership, specifically transformational and transactional leadership that are the components of the foundational theory for this study. Along with this, current research and thought on TL and its relationship to organizational change will be reviewed since this is also foundational for this study.

Leadership Styles and Behavior

Transformational leadership. Being a transformational leader infers the leader has innate abilities, characteristic, and style that are natural and can be accessed and applied in any organizational change situation; it has been labeled by many as charismatic leadership (Ahmadi et al., 2012; Herold et al., 2008). Barbuto (2005)

suggested that charisma is considered the fundamental ingredient in being a transformational leader. It is the ability to create great symbolic power, which occurs because the organization perceives that the leader is gifted with extraordinary talent and ability. This perception comes because TLs are good communicators able to deliver the vision for the change effectively in order to create the necessary sense of urgency. They are empowering, providing followers the inspiration and motivations to believe they can do that which at first may seem impossible (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Pieterse et al., 2010). TLs are personally credible and trustworthy and the organization trusts, admires and identifies with them (Burns, 1978). They are intelligent and stimulate the organization to be willing to take different approaches (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Gill (2003) said that this intelligence is cognitive, having the ability to think and problem solve; spiritual, having the ability to provide meaning and intrinsic value to situations; and emotional, having the ability to empathize and identify and share the feeling of the follower. TLs also are good listeners and tend to the needs of the organization (Herold et al., 2008; Linney, 1999). These abilities allow TLs to be uniquely suited to accomplish the following to ensure the OCI is successful (White, 2005): (a) aligning people, (b) setting a direction, (c) motivating people, (d) inspiring & energizing people, (e) employing credibility, (f) adopting a visionary position, (g) anticipating change, and (h) coping with change. These abilities are applicable to Kotter's (2007) Not Gaining Commitment category of reasons

why organizations change fail. Stated differently, TLs have the ability to address the Not Gaining Commitment reasons that cause organization change to fail.

As mentioned earlier, research on how TL influences organizational change on an organizational level versus an employee level is still lacking. Researchers, however, are turning their attention to this critical area due to the survival need for organization to be able to execute rapid change (Oreg & Berson, 2011). Golm (2010) and Herold et al. (2008) have approached the relationship between TL and organizational change on a organizational level and have findings that are consistent with more traditional findings on TL's influence on overall organizational performance.

Golm (2010) defined change leadership behaviors as a subset of traditional TL behaviors that are critical to organizations in times of organizational change. He listed these change leadership behaviors as envisioning (communication), action planning, sensitivity, idealized influence (trust & communication), leadership effectiveness, inspirational motivation (communication), and individualized attention. Golm also classified envisioning (communication), action planning, and sensitivity as primary change leadership behaviors. In his study of the relationship between TL and organizational change effectiveness, Golm found that there was a significant correlation between TL behavior and organizational change effectiveness. Further organizational change effectiveness was also positively associated with the primary change oriented behaviors envisioning (communication) action planning, and sensitivity. These outcomes

support the role TL behaviors can have in influencing OCIs at the organizational or group level. These group level relationships are consistent with TL organization performance outcomes on an individual level traditionally studied by researchers.

In addition, Golm (2010) found change leadership behavior has a strong positive correlation with three of the four TL behaviors: idealized influence, the degree that a leader is admired thus causing followers to trust them and to hear their vision and desire to relate and identify with him/her; intellectual stimulation, the ability to motivate creativity in the follower; and individualized consideration (attention), the degree to which the leader address followers needs by listening, coaching and mentoring, recognizing that each individual may have unique needs and views (respecting individual differences). The results of this research confirm the associations between TL and the specific leadership behaviors required during an OCI.

Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, and Liu (2008) studied 30 industrial organizations and the impact of TL during a specific work unit level OCI. Herold et al (2008), similar to Golm (2010), defined a difference between TL and change leadership behavior. However, unlike Golm (2010), Herold et al. (2008) defined change leadership behavior as TL (envisioning, empowering and stimulating employees, engaging the total organization in creating the future, and tending to employees' needs) in the here and now focused solely and specifically on the OCI at hand versus to promote more general organization performance. This means change leadership behaviors are not seen as a

subset of overall TL behavior as described earlier by Golm (2010). Herold et al. (2008) also stated that change leadership behaviors have an even greater influence on employee commitment if the leader is already demonstrating TL behavior consistently to promote general organizational performance.

Herold et al., (2008) found that group level variables TL and change leadership had a significant positive relationship to employee commitment to a specific change. They also found that only TL has a significant relationship with overall organizational commitment whereas this relationship did not exist with change leadership. In their hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) they learned that group level TL was significantly related to employee affective commitment to a specific OCI at the group level, whereas, surprisingly, change leadership did not have a significant relationship with employee commitment to a specific OCI. Inconsistent with most change leadership literature, this findings leads to the notion that longer term TL behavior is more valuable in influencing employee's commitment to an OCI than transformation leadership behavior (change leadership) demonstrated to only implement an OCI. It also gives little credence to some researchers' thoughts that leaders can be trained in TL behaviors and impact employees' commitment to an OCI. It is the employees' perception of the leader himself or herself being a transformational leader in character not just performance of TL behavior that is the primary consideration in making an OCI successful.

Stoker, Grutterink, and Kolk (as cited in Michaelis et al., 2009, 2012) stated that TL has received high acclaim such that it can be described as the “silver bullet” for organization performance and success. In their study of 38 CEOs, their leadership teams (organization size average 433 employees), and their perceptions of completed OCIs in their organization, they found TL behavior had a positive correlation with the effectiveness of completed change initiative. Also extremely pertinent to this study, they found a single leadership characteristic (feedback seeking behavior) moderated the relationship between TL behavior and both team performance and change initiative effectiveness. Leadership teams with low feedback seeking behaviors noted a positive relationship between TL and team performance behavior and change initiative effectiveness. Leadership teams with high feedback seeking behaviors showed no significant relationships for both team performance and change initiative effectiveness. This result helps solidify the potential for a single leadership characteristic to have positive relationship with team or organizational performance and the effectiveness and success of organizational change initiatives (Stoker et al., 2012).

Organizational culture and climate are a vital consideration in the implementation of organizational change (Isaksen, 2007). In their study of 65 mental health agencies in San Diego, Dlugosz, Aarons, and Ehrhart (2010) found that TL is significant in improving organization culture/climate (role clarity, growth and advancement, and fairness). The components of TL are as follows: intellectual stimulation, inspirational

motivation, individualized consideration, and idealized influence were found to have a positive relationship with organization climate/culture and organization climate has a positive relationship with employee citizenship behavior. They also found the relationship between TL and organizational climate/culture is stronger when the relationship between the leader and the employee is already strong which is also a result of TL behavior.

RTC is the primary challenge of CLs during an OCI (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Ford et al., 2008; Foster, 2010). In a study conducted in a Israeli school system prior to a major organizational change initiative, Oreg and Berson (2011) found that TL behaviors and employees' intentions to resist change had a significant negative relationship. Also, TL moderated the relationship between employee's dispositional RTC and their intention to resist change accounting for an additional 20% of the variance in employee's RTC intentions.

Not only does TL have positive effect on employee RTC, there is validation that it also promotes employee behavior to support an OCI (affective commitment). Michaelis et al. (2009a) studied research and development employees in the automotive industry in Germany 9 months after a new office software installation. They found that TL was significantly and positively related to employee's behaving to support change. This occurred because TL was positively related to affective commitment, which was positively related to employee change behavior.

Recent research promotes the significant influence TL behaviors can have specifically on an OCI on the organizational level versus just overall organizational performance or organizational change at employee level. This influence occurs through positive influence on organizational culture and climate, employee affirmative commitment, RTC, and overall OCI effectiveness.

Transactional leadership. Herold et al. (2008) defined a transactional leader as a leader who has the ability to manage the execution of actions steps so organizational change is completed successfully. This type leader is very different from the transformational leader because they are typically focused on a different aspect of the OCI (Pieterse et al., 2010; Stanley, 2006). Their focus is just as important but different (Hoff, 1999). Whereas the transformational leader is focused on setting directions, establishing visions, developing people, and organizing and building relationships, the transactional leader is focused on setting expectation and managing the activities of the OCI (Ahmadi et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2011; Stanley, 2006). Stanley (2006) described these managing activities as planning and budgeting, setting goals and targets, organizing and staffing, rational problem solving and coping with complexity. Hoff (1999) described it this way; he says “to manage” means “to bring about,” to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct, whereas “leading” is influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion. These abilities allow the transactional leader to be uniquely suited to accomplish the following to ensure the OCI is successful (White,

2005): (a) administer, (b) ask how and when, (c) focus on systems, (d) ensure that things are done rightly, (e) maintain, (f) rely on control, (g) have a short-term perspective, (h) accept the status quo, (i) have an eye on the bottom line, and (j) are the classic good soldiers. These abilities are applicable to Kotter's (2007) Not Executing category of reasons why organizations change fail. Stated differently, transactional leaders have the ability to address the Not Executing reasons that cause organization change to fail.

Because most research traditionally evaluates the transformational approach and transactional approach of leadership separately, little is known about the impact of the integration of these two approaches on the follower's response to an OCI (Herold et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2011). Liu et al., (2011) said to overlook transactional leadership as a factor in group change behavior is "ignorant" considering the empirical evidence that transactional leadership is a strong predictor of employee motivation for change behavior. Golm (2010) stated that the implicit assumptions found in recent literature that TL would have a greater impact on organizational change is not valid. In line with these thoughts, this literature review considers the role transactional leadership can have in improving the success of OCIs although the focus of this study centers primarily on TL. This seems appropriate since the study is an initial step in determining if leadership style can play a role in improving the speed in which organizations make change.

The limitations of transactional leadership are prevalently acknowledged in contrast to the numerous benefits of TL relative to promoting positive organizational

performance outcomes (Golm, 2010). However, more recently researchers appear to be reconsidering this traditional view. Golm (2010) found that transactional leadership has a significant and positive relationship with overall change oriented leadership and that it accounts for twice the variance in change leadership behavior as compared to TL. Waldman, Ramirez, House, and Puranam (2001) acknowledged that transactional leadership is a critical aspect of strategic leadership for organizational effectiveness considering it is more prevalent in organization than TL. In their review of relevant studies and in-depth interviews, Jong and Hartog (2007) found thirteen leadership behaviors that positively influence employee change behaviors. Four of the thirteen (rewards, providing resources, monitoring, and task assignment) are behaviors attributed to transactional leadership. A few researchers have initialized empirical support for a change in thought of the role transactional leadership can play in making an OCI successful.

Considering the role of transactional leadership in implementing a OCI, Liu et al. (2011) argued the nature of transactional leaders to set expectations and reward and punish employees for meeting or not meeting expectations can promote change behavior by outlining clear expectations and procedures for those behaviors. This is supported by their findings that transactional leadership does have a positive effect on group change behavior in situations where employees are not required to expend high levels of emotional labor (such as customer service representatives) to perform their roles. Also,

Pieterse et al. (2010) found that transactional leadership can promote change behavior in employees who may not have a high level of psychological empowerment; an employee segment not fully inspired by TL. Ahmadi et al. (2012) found that transactional leadership has a positive relationship with all three areas of organizational commitment; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative. This is significant for this study considering the role employee commitment plays in the success of an OCI. Herold et al. (2008) reported that the ability of transactional leaders to consistently follow practices and procedures can foster higher levels of employees CTC when this ability is applied to following good change management practices. Trust in leadership, another construct important to employee change behaviors, has also been found to be positively related to transactional leadership (Ismail et al., 2010).

Although the limitations of transactional leadership in positively sponsoring organizational performance and specifically OCI success is empirically supported, recent research offers a contrasting view exposing situations and circumstance where transactional leadership does positively promote employee change behavior and are positively related to constructs like employee commitment, trust, communication, and RTC which are crucial to the success of an OCI (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Ford et al., 2008; Foster, 2010; Ismail et al., 2010; Lewis, 2006). The implication is that both constructs, transformation and transactional leadership, should be considered in future

studies evaluating the impact of leadership behavior on organizational change (Liu et al., 2011; Pieterse et al., 2010).

Leadership Styles Applied to Organizational Change

Vasilesou (2012) said that it is impossible to have a true organizational change without true leadership; without true leadership, change will be slow, misdirected, and ineffective. Liu et al. (2011) stated that because the ability to change is critical to the success of organizations, it is important for management to know the type of leadership required to promote group or organizational change behaviors. Herold et al. (2008) stated that TL or the leadership that demonstrates personal, intrinsic skill, style, and characteristics is best for performing the responsibilities of facilitating and motivating organizational change. Herold et al. (2008) also stated transactional leadership or the leadership that can manage the execution of actions steps is best suited for executing the task required to implement an organizational change. These two leadership styles are generally used to accomplish Kotter's (2007) eight steps to accomplish a successful organizational change which are simply Kotter's eight reasons for organizational change failure restated in the actionable affirmative (as cited in Herold et al., 2008). In summary, transformational leaders influence employee commitment (Not Gaining Commitment) and transactional leaders manage to ensure employees' engagement in execution (Not Executing Effectively). OCIs have the best chance of success when CLs have the abilities to behave consistent with both approaches (Herold et al., 2008). As

mentioned earlier, this study focuses on the role of TL in reducing the failure rate of OCI's because the literature presents it as the leadership style that is the primary in influencing this construct. Also, the archival data used in this study lends itself to the TL focus. However, because transactional leadership has a role to play in rapid organizational change, this brief acknowledgement of current thoughts on its role hopefully provides a basis for further study of the significance of its role in rapid organizational change.

Psychology of Organizational Change

CLs often underestimate the psychological impact of OCI on employees (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000). This underestimation leads CLs to focus more on the upgrades of existing technology, replacement of or movement of personnel, installation of new processes or other more tangible changes to promote the OCI's success (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000). However, Bridges (1986) said this is what dooms most OCIs to failure. CLs overlook the most complicated change that is taking place during the initiative, which is the psychological change that has to take place within the employee for them to support the change behaviorally. This commitment to change (CTC) is what motivates the employee to do what is needed to make the change a success (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). The psychological move from their current state to CTC (accepting, supporting, and for some employees self-initiating activity to support the intent and goals of the OCI) is called transition (Bridges, 1986; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Transition is a three

phase psychological process involving (a) saying goodbye to the current state, (b) shifting into neutral which is an uncomfortable phase of uncertainty and confusions before, and (c) moving forward to the behaviors of the OCI's vision.

CLs have the responsibility for facilitating employees' movement through the psychological change of transition. They must provide the style of leadership needed to motivate employees to value the OCI and demonstrate behaviors that promote and implement the change (Ahmadi et al., 2012; Ford et al., 2008; Herold et al., 2008; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Kull, 2003; Loup & Koller, 2005; Machin, Fogarty, & Bannon, 2012; Maurer, 2005; May-Chiun Lo, Ramayah, de Run, & Voon Mung Ling, 2009; McCarthy, Puffer, May, Ledgerwood, & Stewart Jr., 2008; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Michaelis et al., 2009a; Nordin, 2012). Lack of employee CTC and increased RTC are the critical issues that CLs have to resolve during OCI execution (Foster, 2010). CTC and RTC are based in psychological needs employees experience as they go through transition (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Transition is a process where employees let go of the old state and move to the vision of the OCI psychologically (Bridges, 1986). CLs failing to recognize this psychological dynamic and not having the ability to address it and its contribution to a lack of CTC and increased employee RTC is at the root of why most OCIs are not successful (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000; Foster, 2010).

TL behavior has been shown to positively influence employee CTC and to minimize RTC because these behaviors are suited for leading employees through the transition period (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000; Bridges, 1986; Ford et al., 2008). TL, specifically, communication and trust building behaviors can help CLs address the confusion and uncertainty that often results in RTC, which can slow the speed of the OCI or cause the OCI to fail (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000; Michaelis et al., 2009a). CLs have to influence alignment and employee commitment, which is critical to the overall success of OCI (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Sponsoring this alignment also means addressing the misalignment or barriers to CTC that often are categorized as RTC (Erwin & Garman, 2010).

Different from earlier studies, more recent research has related RTC more to outcomes of the behaviors of the CL instead of behaviors associated intrinsically with the psychology of the employee (Foster, 2010). Whether the source of RTC is the CLs behavior or the attitude of the employee, it is a reality of OCIs during the transition period, and CLs have to have the capability and style to motivate the CTC needed to reduce RTC (Ahmadi et al., 2012; J. Ford et al., 2008; Foster, 2010; Herold et al., 2008; Jaros, 2010; Loup & Koller, 2005; May-Chiun Lo et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2004; Michaelis et al., 2009a; Nordin, 2012; Yang, 2011).

Commitment to Change

Meyer and Allen's (1991) work on commitment forms the conceptual framework that is prominent with many commitment researchers today. Their initial work was a literature review and an integration of the multiple definitions of commitment found (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Building specifically on Becker (1960), Mowday, Porter, and Richard (1979) and Weiner (1982) resulted in a three-component model of commitment defining commitment in terms of the employee's mind set and motivation for supporting the goals of the organization. The three components were affective commitment (AC), commitment because of the employees sincere belief in the organization's goals; normative commitment (NC), commitment because of a sense of responsibility to the organization's goals; and continuance commitment (CC), commitment because of the employee not wanting to lose the benefits the organization provides (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Although categorized, employees can experience each of these mindsets or attitudes of commitment individually or in a variety of combinations (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Commitment is related to many organizational outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover, job performance, and citizenship (Foster, 2010; Herold et al., 2008; Machin, Fogarty, & Bannon, 2012; Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005; Maurer, 2005). It recently has been given attention by commitment researchers as they describe an employee's CTC as an attitude towards change which includes the intent to not only support the change but a

willingness which motivates the employee to take action to see that the change is implemented successfully (Herold et al., 2008). It has been established that CTC denotes a psychological alignment or attachment to the change (Herold et al., 2008). It is this psychological alignment or attachment that TL behavior influences or initiates in a change project that transactional leadership behavior does not or at minimum influences significantly less (Herold et al., 2008). TL behaviors are more suited for convincing the employee of the need for the change versus transactional leadership behavior (Herold et al., 2008).

Lack of employee commitment to the OCI is a primary factor in the failure of OCIs (J. Ford et al., 2008; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Note that the commitment referenced here is different from the commonly discussed organizational commitment, which defines an employee's attitude about remaining with an organization. Herold et al., (2008) said that CTC is conceptually and empirically different from organizational commitment. CTC is the employee's commitment to the specific intent and goals of the OCI. Commitment to the goals of the OCI is the vital component in influencing employees to support the change behaviorally (J. Ford et al., 2008; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Commitment to the change means the employees have become convinced that the OCI is valuable overall to the organization and they have assessed that they have the ability, resources, and proper organization situation to execute the OCI successfully (Weiner, 2009). Thus, CTC motivates the organization members to action and Petrescu

(2011) said that one aspect of a successful change is a sufficient number of people developing the strong behavior and energy to act fast enough to implement the change. It has been shown that the mindset or attitude of the employee towards the OCI is what ultimately determines the success or failure of the initiative (Michaelis et al., 2009a). This is supported by the theory of reasoned action (TRA), which states that a person's attitude determines their behavioral intent and their behavioral intent determines the degree to which the person will invest the effort to perform that behavior (Ajzen, 2011; Sutton, 1998). Behavioral intent also reflects the motivation to perform planned behavior (Sutton, 1998). Simply stated relative to an OCI, employee's commitment (attitude) determines the degree and quality of effort (behavior) the employee will exert to support the OCI.

Research shows AC and NC are related to higher levels of behavioral support and effort for an OCI than CC (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Employee with AC and NC can be expected to demonstrate cooperative, championing behavior thus not only providing expected support, but going beyond base expectations and leading change at their level and even initiating planned or discretionary action. Employees with AC have the greatest tendency to demonstrate discretionary behavior (self directed and self motivated) to support and champion the OCI. Even uncommitted employees display a level of willingness to support the OCI; however, as expected they demonstrate the lowest level of effort of all of the other commitment categories (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Although all commitment, regardless of the category, is positively correlated with compliance behavior to support the OCI, the minimum of just compliance behavior would be inadequate to accomplish the employee effort needed to accomplish the maximum outcomes of the goals of most OCI (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). To ensure a successful OCI, CLs should seek to sponsor the highest level of AC and NC since these are highly correlated with championing and cooperative behavior for the OCI (Bridges, 1986; Foster, 2010; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Meyers and Herschoovitch (2001) suggested specific core processes to sponsor the highest level of commitment during an OCI for each commitment category: (a) employee involvement because AC develops when employees are involved and see the value, relevance, and association as they pursue the change, (b) rewards and recognition (socialization) because NC develops as benefits are provided and employees feel the obligation to reciprocate and as employees acknowledge and recognize, (c) communicate expected behavior and consequences because CC develops as employees clearly understand what they will lose if they discontinue support of the OCI (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Resistance to Change

RTC is the force in opposition to the outcome of commitment to organization change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). It is the employees' response during an OCI initiated with negative thoughts and feelings, which lead to negative behaviors towards

the OCI (Erwin & Garman, 2010). Organization change literature described RTC as an employee behavior due primarily to employees wanting to maintain the status quo and not being willing to commit to the goal and intent of the OCI (Foster, 2010). This unwillingness to commit to the change can be attributed to employees' thoughts from worry about the value of the change, impact to the organization culture, and impact to work expectations (Erwin & Garman, 2010). Petrescu (2011) described RTC as the employees' attempt to avoid the change because they are not sure of the goals of the change due to inadequate communication. Also, employees do not trust the change will be successful and this causes fear that their status or their rewards will be negatively impacted. The resulting employee attitude from these thoughts result in behaviors such as disagreement, lack of cooperation, sabotage, intentionally under-performing, and complaining. Employees may also display anger, frustration, anxiety, and fear, which can also be categorized as RTC (Erwin & Garman, 2010).

Contrary to the majority of organization change literature, some recent studies have shown no relationship between CTC and RTC (J. Ford et al., 2008; Foster, 2010). These studies show an overwhelming positive relationship between RTC and justice, establishing that RTC is more a result of employee responding to the attitude and behaviors of CLs that they perceive as unfair during the OCI implementation, specifically broken agreements and violations of trust, and communication breakdowns (Bernerth et al., 2007; J. Ford et al., 2008). Justice has been shown to influence commitment

positively (Bernerth et al., 2007). Employees have been found to have more CTC when treated fairly by the CLs (leaders demonstrate trusting behavior), when more thorough and accurate information about the change was communicated to them, and when communication was done in a sensitive and respectful way (Bernerth et al., 2007; Foster, 2010).

Change Leader Behavior: Fostering Commitment and Reducing the Resistance

TL is the leadership style most significant in the gain commitment phase of the OCI (Herold et al., 2008; Kotter, 2007). Communication and trust building are seen as two of the most recognized behaviors of TL in most leadership literature and are behaviors which can significantly influence CTC and RTC (Bernerth, 2004; Herold et al., 2008). Communication and trust building are two important factors in organizations being able to implement organizational change successfully and rapidly (Evans, 2007; Murray & Richardson, 2003). Soumyaja1 et al. (2011) found that quality communication and trust in leadership are significantly related to commitment to change. Similarly, Michaelis, Stegmaier, and Sonntag (2009a) also found trust in leadership and TL (role modeling and communication a vision) were significantly related to affective commitment. They went further in establishing that these relationships influence employee change behavior through the significant relationship affective commitment has on employee change behavior (Michaelis et al., 2009a). Because communicating a vision and trust in leadership promote employees' CTC, this sponsors a reduction in RTC

leading to a higher level of employee change behaviors (Bridges, 1986; Erwin & Garman, 2010; Michaelis et al., 2009a).

Communication. Luecke (2003) stated that communication is very effective in motivating employees and is essential in overcoming RTC when implementing an OCI. This is true because effective communication is the crucial behavior to promote the employees' early mind set and thinking for CTC (Eby, Adams, Russell, & Gaby, 2000). Poor communication can foster RTC through the production of rumors and other rationalized messages by employees that tends to be negative to the goals of change (Eby et al., 2000). Kotter (2007) outlined that leaders not effectively communicating the vision for the OCI is one of the reasons that a high number of OCIs fail. Gilley, Dixon, and Gilley (2008c) said that CLs who communicate effectively are able to accomplish the following during OCIs:

- Explain why the change is needed and what will change;
- Provide a graphic representation of the change that employees can better understand;
- Share expected negatives of the change;
- Share how success will be measured;
- Share how employee will be reward for their participation in the success of the change;
- Communicate, communicate, and communicate the purpose of the change;

- Share action plans, progress, and needed course changes;
- Versatility in communication styles to adapt to diverse employee; and
- Provide employees feedback and reinforcement to maintain their motivation and commitment.

When employees do not receive effective communication, meaning it is accurate, true, timely, and can be used for their purpose, this can result in mistrust and RTC (Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2009b; Schaubroeck, May, & Brown, 1994)

Trust. Maintaining trust in leadership is a key element in organizational change (Espedal, Johansen, Lines, & Selart, 2005). Employees will engage in the desired behavior even if they perceive doing so will put them at risk or perceive doing so will not be in their best interest, if they have a high level of trust in their leaders (Lines et al., 2005). Schaubroeck et al. (1994) found that trust in leadership can minimize employees' RTC. This finding has significant importance as we consider a CL's responsibility to sponsor the commitment of employees to motivate behaviors to support the OCI.

A way that leaders can foster higher levels of trust from employees is by behaving with integrity, honesty, and openness. This production of trust in leadership can then be the determinant of employees' openness to commit to change (Eby et al., 2000). This confirms that leadership behavior can dictate or at least strongly influence the behaviors of followers and be pivotal in followers accepting and aligning their behavior to the organizational change (Herold et al., 2008). Because justice is the key concern in

employees' minds when they resist change, having CLs who are trustworthy and fair, whose behaviors consistently confirm to the employee they will do their best to do the right thing is the foundation for eliminating RTC (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Schaubroeck et al., 1994).

Communication and trust building capability are the focus for CL's to sponsor employee commitment and reduce resistance. These behaviors are two of the primary behaviors attributed to TLs.

Summary and Conclusions

We know that leadership is important to the performance of organizations. The literature shows leadership behavior can positively influence the behavior of employees on the individual and organizational level. This positive influence on employee behavior has also been shown to exist when change leaders implement organizational change initiatives. Leadership behavior can determine the success or failure of an OCI.

The importance of change leadership behavior during organizational change is confirmed in the positive influence it has on the two critical constructs of employee behavior during organization change implementation: commitment to change and resistance to change. The CL's leadership style and behavior can influence the employee's attitude to be favorable or unfavorable towards the goals of the OCI. Employees' attitude determines the degree of commitment and motivation they will have

to invest effort in making the OCI successful and thus minimizes the barriers of resistance to change.

The leadership behavior that has been shown to sponsor this favorable attitude in employees is TL. Two TL behaviors that are critical to the successful implementation of OCIs are communication and trust building, especially during the gain commitment phase of the OCI implementation. The weight of the literature on improving the success rate of OCI affirms improved employee engagement, commitment, and reduction in resistance are critical to improve the effectiveness of the OCI implementation thus making it more successful. Each of these constructs has been shown to increase when TL is employed. This results in a more effective, cohesive, less problem-ridden OCI implementation that meets its goal.

Though implied, current literature lacks empirical confirmation of relationships between leadership characteristics and behavior and their influence on how fast employees will engage in the execution of organizational change. Change and innovation researchers have given little attention to pace and sequence of change until recently, therefore literature on improving these construct are scarce (Murray & Richardson, 2003). Although it has been shown that TL improves the effectiveness of the implementation of OCIs, what is missing in the literature is knowledge regarding the extent to which this improvement results in a faster implementation of organizational change.

Business organizations are responding to a consistent rapidly changing global economy, therefore, their need is to match this rate of change at a minimal to ensure business survival. Considering this need, how fast organizational change can be implemented and what can influence this construct becomes an important component of the success of change implementation.

The focus of this study was to explore if leadership behavior during an OCI could impact the rate of change implementation from start to finish. It was a reasonable assumption that if there was a higher level of employee CTC and a reduction in employee RTC due to TL behavior, there would be a potential for implementing the OCI more rapidly than if CTC were lower and RTC higher. TL behaviors such as communication and trust building have been shown to have a significant positive relationship to employee CTC that has a significant negative relationship with employee RTC. This study sought to answer the question: is there a positive relationship between CLs transformational behaviors, specifically communication and trust building, and the rate or speed of implementing an OCI?

Chapter 3 Research Method

Introduction

This study evaluated transformational leadership and organizational change management theory and the potential influence these constructs had on the speed that organizations implement change initiatives. The goal was to determine if the positive empirically supported relationship transformation leadership behaviors have on organizational change performance influences the rate or speed organizational change initiatives are implemented.

This chapter describes the study's design and rationale and how it addressed the study's problem statement. It also describes the characteristics of the archival database available, the population where the archival data was collected, how it was collected, and the criteria for sample selection from the database. A brief description of the approval process for utilizing the archival database is addressed along with variable definitions, research questions and hypotheses, analysis plan, threats to validity, and ethical implications.

Research Design and Rationale

The study investigated leader vision communication and trust in leadership (independent variables) and how they related to the change completion time (dependent variable) required for an organization to implement a requested change. Vision communication was defined as the ability of leadership to communicate a vision, address

employee concerns, and motivate the organization to commit to the change. Trust in leadership was defined as the outcome of the quality/character of leadership that gives them integrity and makes them believable. Change completion time was defined as the period of time it takes for an organization to complete the standard requirements for the IWS phase.

This purpose of this research was to determine if a significant relationship exists between either leadership vision communications and trust building or a combination of both and the time that an organization completes an organizational change initiative. To accomplish this purpose, the research design focused on correlations and relationships between the studied variables. Taking advantage of archival data, the nonexperimental study design made no attempt to influence any of the behaviors represented by the database nor was an attempt made to determine cause and effect relationships. Although cause and effect relationships might exist, this study proposed to determine their potential presence and magnitude, thus leaving causation and effect to future research. Although the nonexperimental aspect afforded this study due to its archival database is not as rigorous, this research approach was consistent with a number of organizational psychology studies, which used correlation and regression statistical analysis to further knowledge in the field of organizational change.

Methodology

Setting

Procter & Gamble Integrated Work System Implementation. Procter & Gamble is a global Fortune 500 company and the world's largest producer and manufacturer of consumer products (MarketLine, a Datamonitor business, 2011). P&G is recognized for their development of leadership skills in their employees and was voted number one in Leadership Development in 2012 by Chief Executive Magazine. Other recognitions include 2012 Fortune Top 10 Most Admired Companies and 2012 Glass Top 50 Companies to work for in the world.

In the mid-1990s in a highly competitive global market, P&G began the implementation of a comprehensive manufacturing operating system in their manufacturing plants across the globe (Chew, Nagano, Tominaga, & Zheng, 2010; DuVall, Mayor, & Elliot, 2010). This comprehensive system was labeled the Integrated Work System (IWS) since it was an approach that integrated equipment, processes, and people improvement and development into a united approach to reduce cost, improve quality, and increase production. The overall goal of the implementation was to improve overall productivity and profit margin for their products. This major organizational change has been executed systematically in each of their manufacturing plants individually and is tracked in a 5-phase approach. Each phase represents a major milestone towards a final culture change to an organization with a zero loss mentality and

100% employee involvement. I have firsthand experience with IWS implementation as a retired P&G employee with 26 years of experience in multiple P&G organizations. The majority of my career was spent working as an operations leader (12 Years) or human resource leader (14 years) in P&G manufacturing plants that were progressing through the phases of IWS.

The phases begin with Phase 0, which accomplishes leadership preparation for the change. Phase 1 has the focus of returning equipment to its original equipment specification and health, which is called *base condition*. Phase 2 focuses on the performance of the equipment by increasing the average time between failures experienced on the equipment. Enhancing the function and improving the long-term health of the equipment and significantly improving employee's skills and knowledge in equipment maintenance and operations are methods used to accomplish the focus of Phase 2. Phase 3 broadens the zero loss focus from the equipment to the entire manufacturing supply chain with the goal of optimizing supply stability, capability, and productivity. The final phase, Phase 4, clinches the entire effort by turning to leveraging the drastically optimize supply chain to meet customer and consumer needs and expectations. This phased approach is executed using standardized success criteria used to determine if the necessary equipment, process, and people progression has been accomplished to qualify the plant to pass the five phases of the IWS implementation. The expected time to pass a phase can range from 18 to 24 months, but as expected, some

plants accomplish phase completion faster than the average and some longer than the average. This variation in results can be attributed to the various constructs such as leadership, commitment, or resistance, which all can make an organizational change successful or cause it to fail.

Population

The population is the group of employees of the Procter & Gamble Manufacturing Company ranging annually from 18,000 to 47,000 at 133 to 156 manufacturing sites both domestic and abroad. These employees are a subset of the total company population that participated in the annual employee survey process during the period of 2007 through 2012. The population consisted of approximately 84% males and 16% females. One hundred percent of the population was employed at P&G manufacturing locations, 39 sites in the United States and the remainder abroad. The sample consisted of hourly employees although the entire population surveyed consisted of both hourly and salaried employees.

Sampling and Sampling Procedure

The research studied a sample of the total archival database which includes measures of the three constructs of interest in this study and which meet a criterion that minimizes environmental variation that could influence the results. The sample came from P&G manufacturing facilities only since manufacturing organizations was the focus of the IWS organizational change.

Because the survey results were obtained annually and phase completion time was predicted to be 18 to 36 months, multiple survey ratings were associated with some phase completion periods. In these instances, multiple ratings of the survey data were averaged and the average used for a single opinion rating for the phase.

The sample had a representation of individual level data (employee survey) and organizational level data (phase completion). The data analysis was performed at the organizational level so the procedure used for reconciling this difference is addressed below.

Sampling Frame. The IWS organization change initiative is executed in phases so P&G manufacturing organizations that completed Phase 0 through 3 of the four-phase process made up the sample.

Sample Size. My literary review of studies of TL behaviors and their relationship with other variables related to employees' behaviors at the group level identified multiple effect sizes (ES) (Herold et al., 2008; Oreg & Berson, 2011). These ES values ranged from 0.16-0.38 representing medium to large effect sizes (Cohen, 1992a). Cohen (1992b) suggested that a single effect value posited by the researcher is adequate to perform the power analysis. To this end, I selected the median value of the range effect sizes of group level literature, $ES=0.27$. For a multiple regression/correlation analysis, $ES=0.27$ again represented a medium to large effect size (Cohen, 1992a), so conservatively a medium effect size was expected for this study. I chose a reasonable

power level of 0.80 for the study because it is a generally used value and a significance level (alpha) of 0.05 since it is a standard value and the one used in the group level literature (Jack Cohen, 1988; Jacob Cohen, 1992a; Foster, 2010; Herold et al., 2008). Using an expected medium effect size, a significance of $\alpha=0.05$, and a target power of 0.80, the process and tables provide by Cohen (1992a) yields a sample size of $N=67$ for a multiple regression/correlation analysis of two independent variables. The archival database yielded a sample of 98 plants that met the selection criteria exceeding the $N=67$ recommended by Cohen (1992a).

Archival Data Description and Procedures

The archival database was obtained from P&G after reviews of the study's purpose and research with P&G manufacturing executives accountable globally for the IWS OCI implementation, organization psychologist resources in the P&G leadership development function responsible for collecting, analyzing, and communicating employee survey results globally, and a representative from the P&G legal department for privacy and the protection of P&G proprietary information. The database consisted of two separate data sets, Employee Survey data and IWS Phase Progression data. A letter granting approval for using the database was provided (Appendix A) with the stipulation that the P&G legal department be contacted prior to the final publishing of the study's results for a final legal review.

Survey Data Collection Procedure. The employee survey data set was collected using an opinion survey that assessed employees' attitudes on 20 measures important to the organizational performance within P&G. The employee responses were collected electronically using employee specific identification to allow the employee to access and complete the survey. Employees are expected to participate each year, but participation is voluntary. Although participation varies for each organization, participation ranges between 65 to 75% for most organizations.

The organizational change phase progression database consisted of phase completion time periods collected by standardized timing tracking procedures owned by the P&G IWS internal consultant who is assigned to the plant. These internal consultants were IWS resources trained on the broad practices and procedures of IWS implementation and are responsible for coaching and counseling their assigned plants through the phase implementation. Formal global standards must be met to begin and end each phase. The data collected consisted of start and end dates for every plant globally that has started and completed IWS phases. The dates were collected as a part a global system for tracking IWS phase completion across all P&G manufacturing plants. The phase completion periods was tracked in total number of days.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The survey instrument used was developed to collect annual employee opinion ratings for 20 key areas associated with P&G organization performance. The survey used

a 5-point Likert scale with selections of *strongly disagree-1*, *disagree-2*, *neither agree nor disagree-3*, *agree-4*, and *strongly agree-5* for each survey question. A range of three to eight items comprises each of the measures included on the survey. The plant survey summary consists of a single percent rating of the count of four and five responses selected for each of the 20 areas of the survey. This is completed for each P&G location and the location summary of all 20 areas are used to address issues that will promote higher organizational performance at that location.

The dependent variable was defined by the period of time necessary for a manufacturing plant to complete an IWS Phase. These data were manually captured data with the construct being measured by the numbers of years the plant was in a particular phase.

Survey results for trust in leadership and vision communication was summarized for the corresponding phase completion time period and then tested for a potential statistical relationship with phase completion time. A complete list of survey questions can be found in Appendix B, and more details about how the data were summarized and analyzed follows below.

Reliability and Validity. Cronbach's alpha (α) was calculated separately for the sample data for trust in leadership and vision communication. To verify instrument test-retest and internal consistency reliability, these results are reported in Chapter 4.

Construct validity for trust in leadership and vision communication was confirmed by

P&G Employee Survey subject matter expert Andy Biga, PhD for the survey and specifically confirmed for trust in leadership and vision communication scales (Appendix C).

Operationalization. The literature established the role transformational leadership behavior, communication, and trust building can have on improving the likelihood of a successful OCI through increasing commitment and reducing resistance to change. In this study, these two transformational leadership constructs were represented by the Trust in Leadership and Vision Communication scales in the P&G employee survey. It should be noted also that the scales represented the transformational leadership constructs as defined in the content of the literature review by specifically soliciting opinions about the P&G's cultural practices that demonstrate this content. This is important because awareness of P&G culture helps to see how the scales for this study fully represents the study's construct within the P&G culture. The following description of the variables in this study incorporates the P&G cultural aspects to aids in understanding how the identified scales fully represent the constructs that are the focus of this study.

Trust In Leadership. The scale consisted of 5 survey items such as “my manager and I have an open and trusting relationship” which accesses the employee's trust in their leader or manager. This is a measure of the employee's confidence that their leader will act favorably on their behalf and not intentionally use their leadership power

to do them harm (Lines et al., 2005; Sorensen et al., 2011). It also involved items that assessed partnership between the employee and manager to accomplish common goals, participation in planning the employee's work and development, and the leader's ability to value diversity of the employee, all of which are indications of a trusting relationship in P&G culture. Leaders are encouraged to build trusting relationships by sponsoring collaboration, communication, and valuing of the individual in the P&G culture and the total scale assesses these P&G's components of trust in leaders (Appendix B).

The ratings were an average of individual employee responses collected during the annual survey distribution averaged to a single value for the specific plant.

Vision Communication. The scale consisted of 3 survey items such as “the leadership in my business unit creates a clear and inspiring vision of the future” which assesses leadership vision communication. This was a measure of the leader's ability to inspire the employees by communicating what they can expect in the future from the organizational change to alleviate any fears or concerns (Elving, 2005). The total scale assessed employee's confidence in their leadership's ability to establish and execute a plan to accomplish the vision and that the plan is the right one to do it. This was consistent with the P&G cultural expectation and the practice of leaders communicating vision, goals, and plans to the organization through standard monthly and quarterly communication events and an annual vision and goal deployment. In the annual vision and goal deployment, the plant's entire employee population comes together in one

location to hear the same communication. Effective communications events have the intent of providing a level of awareness and understanding for the employee that generates employee confidence in the vision, direction, and plans for the plant or business unit and confidence in the leaders that developed them. These communication events are a norm in P&G manufacturing facilities and are the responsibility of the plant leadership team, which is made up of senior plant leaders. This is the same team that is responsible for change leadership in IWS implementation. Measuring how well this intent is met, which is the intent of the total scale for leadership vision communication, concurrently measures the employee's opinion of how well senior leadership is performing vision communication to the employees. This is consistent with effective communication being related to trust and confidence in the communicator.

Similar to trust in leadership, the rating for vision communication was an average of individual employee responses collected during the annual survey distribution.

Verification of test and retest reliability is reported below.

Demographics. Minimal demographic measures were represented in the archival database since its collection was not for research purposes. The database did include demographic measures such as country, site location, tenure, role, and gender measures to describe the sample. These were adequate considering the nature of the study was to focus on the organizational change process outcomes versus the organizations members' individual characteristics. Most measures were automatically collected since they are

specific measures representing the plants location. However, tenure and gender are each measured with a single item that asked the respondent to select their gender and a year range for their tenure at the time of the survey.

Data Analysis. The data analysis for this study was at the organizational level. The dependent variable, completion time, was an organizational level measure, therefore, the independent variable measures, vision communication and trust in leadership, were aggregated from the individual level to the organizational level to perform the proposed analysis. To accomplish this, individual survey responses for the independent variable scales corresponding to the selected completion time periods were identified. These responses were then averaged to provide an organizational level rating for each independent variable for the completion time period. In situations where survey data was collected more than once during a completion time period, the multiple independent variable organizational level ratings were averaged to a single rating and this single rating was used in the proposed analysis.

The proposed analysis used the latest addition of SPSS to analyze the following research questions and hypothesis:

RQ1: Is greater trust in the change leaders associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster?

$H1_0$: Higher trust in the change leaders, as measured by trust in leadership, is not significantly associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster.

H1_A: Higher trust in the change leaders, as measured by trust in leadership, is significantly associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster.

RQ2: Is effective change leader communication of the vision for the change associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster?

H2₀: Effective change leader's vision communication, as measured by vision communication, is not significantly associated with employees moving through organizational change faster.

H2_A: Effective change leader's vision communication, as measured by vision communication, is significantly associated with employees moving through organizational change faster.

RQ3: Is more effective change leader communication a mediator of the association between trust in the change leaders and employees moving through an organizational change faster?

H3₀: Effective change leader communication is not a mediator of the association between trust in the change leaders and employees moving through an organizational change faster.

H3_A: Effective change leader communication is a mediator of the association between trust in the change leaders and employees moving through an organizational change faster.

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the sample and reported in Chapter 4. Also, as a part of the hypothesis testing, a Pearson correlation analysis similar to the one mentioned above was done to test the significance relationship and moderating effects between trust in leadership, vision communication, and phase completion time. The appropriate correlation coefficients (r) and coefficient of determination (r^2) are reported in Chapter 4. A linear regression analysis was performed to determine the magnitude of phase completion time that can be predicted by trust in leadership, vision communication, and or their interactive relationship.

Threats to Validity

There is the potential for results to be combined from various international cultures, which may have different views, values, or expectations of leadership. This might result in some variation due to participants making selections based on their cultural meaning of the survey item, which may be different from others.

It is possible for participants to perceive questions relative to GBU leadership as senior leaders outside of their organization versus the senior leadership within their organization responsible for change leadership. Though possible this is unlikely considering the isolation of the majority of plant locations from corporate GBU leadership due to location and the common practice of plant technicians to focus on their site leadership team as their primary GBU leaders.

Survey data is cross-sectional or taken at a single point in time and infrequently during the phase thus having the potential to not represent the summary of the more longitudinal perception of the participants. This is the nature of the data collection and will be addressed in the limitations section of Chapter 4 if the data analysis identifies reasons to address this potential threat.

Finally, there may be some deviations due to aggregating individual ratings to a single site rating for the survey items.

Ethical Procedures

Anonymity of the participants was a concern since I worked full time in two of the plants and had close affiliation with five of the other plants included in the archival database. This was alleviated by the database being compiled with only gender and age demographic data for the participants and no data such as race, department, team, or job function that could be used to identify the participant. The data was evaluated by location and each data point was the average for the group of participants at that location. Every group of participants at the plant locations had in excess of 10 male and 10 female participants, satisfying the “rule of 10” in reporting the survey results. For security, the databases were stored and password protected in more than one medium and location. Although the databases did not include any data that violated the anonymity of the participants, still only researchers connected with this study and bound to ethical code had access to the original databases.

Summary

As stated in Chapter 1, this study evaluated the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and the speed of organizational change, measured by time in implementation phases. A sample of archival employee survey results from P&G manufacturing facilities as they implement IWS, a major OCI, was correlated with archival IWS phase completion timing data to identify any existing relationship. Descriptive statistics for the sample are provided along with Cronbach alpha (α) to confirm reliability in Chapter 4. A linear regression analysis was performed as the primary method of inquiry.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of a quantitative study of the influence of trust in leadership and vision communication on the speed of organizational change in P&G manufacturing plants across the globe. The research questions were as follows: First, is greater trust in the change leader associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster? Second, is effective change leader communication of the vision for the change associated with employees moving through an organizational change faster? Finally, is effective change leader communication a mediator of the association between trust in the change leaders and employees moving through an organizational change faster?

This chapter discusses the archival data file used to evaluate the research questions. It also summarizes the results of a correlation analysis, a hierarchical linear regression used to test Hypothesis 1 and 2, and moderation analysis used to test Hypothesis 3. A summary of the results is presented at the end of the chapter.

Description of the Archival Data Set

The archival database consisted of annual employee survey data and IWS phase completion data. The IWS phase completion data, documented as the plant completed a phase, provided the phase completed (0 through 3) and the time it took to complete the

phase. The employee survey data collected annually at each plant provided the employee opinion results for trust in leadership and vision communication.

Analysis Results

Phases: Ninety-eight observations were identified for the study. For this study, phases for product development ranged from 0 to 3. Table 1 presents the frequency distribution. This table indicates that there was approximately the same number of observations for Phases 1 and 2. There were considerably fewer observations during Phase 0 and Phase 3.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution of Four IWS Phases From 98 Plants

Phase	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Relative Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
0	24	24.5	24.5
1	31	31.6	56.1
2	30	30.6	86.7
3	13	13.3	100

Trust in leadership: This variable was measured using a 5-item scale. Scale items assessed employees' yearly reports of trusting leadership during each phase (e.g., "My manager and I have an open and trusting relationship"). Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*) with

higher scores indicating greater levels of agreement. Item responses on the scale were averaged and ranged from 2.98 to 4.27 ($M_{grand} = 3.68$, $SD_{grand} = 0.24$). The internal consistency of the scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$) indicated that the scale had strong internal reliability.

Vision communication: The level of leadership's ability to communicate to employees the company vision was measured using a 3-item scale. These items assessed employees' yearly agreement that leaders conveyed future plans in a well-defined manner (e.g., "The leadership in my business unit creates a clear and inspiring vision of the future"). Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale anchored at 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*) with higher scores indicating greater agreement. Items on the scale were averaged and ranged from 3.53 to 4.78 ($M_{grand} = 4.16$, $SD_{grand} = 0.21$). The internal consistency of the scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .88$) indicated that the scale had strong internal reliability.

Phase completion time: The time to complete each phase was measured in years. The completion time ranged from 0.25 to 8.00 years ($M_{grand} = 3.47$, $SD_{grand} = 1.69$). Table 2 displays the means and standard deviations for the completion time for the four different phases.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Completion Time as a Function of Phase

<i>Completion Time</i>		
<i>Phase</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
0	2.16	1.03
1	3.66	1.54
2	3.72	1.43
3	4.85	2.12
Total	3.47	1.69

To determine if phase (coded as an ordinal variable), trust in leadership, and vision communication were associated with the dependent variable, phase completion time, a series of bivariate correlations were computed. The results of these correlations are presented in Table 3. Phase was positively correlated with phase completion time ($r(98) = .46, p < .001$). Trust in leadership and vision communication were also highly correlated with one another, ($r(98) = .49, p < .001$). Trusts in leadership and vision communication were not significantly correlated with phase completion time (see Table 3).

Table 3

Bivariate Correlations for the Association of Phase, Trust in Leadership, and Vision Communication with Phase Completion Time

Scale	1.	2.	3.
1. Phase	--		
2. Trust	.11	--	
3. Vision	.04	.49**	--
4. Time	.46**	.03	.12

Note. Phase is measured on an ordinal scale (0, 1, 2, 3), Trust = Trust in leadership; Vision = Vision communication; Time = Phase completion time (in years)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$.

A hierarchical regression was conducted to test Hypothesis 1 and 2, trust in leadership and vision communication predicted phase completion time. On the first step, the ordinal variable for phase was entered to see if that variable significantly predicted phase completion time. Phase accounted for 21.10% of the variance in phase completion time, ($R^2 = .21$, $F(1, 96) = 25.63$, $p < .001$). On the second step, trust in leadership and vision communication were added to see if they predicted any additional variance in phase completion time. Adding these two variables did not account for significant additional variance in phase completion time, ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $F(2, 94) = 1.10$, $p = .34$). On this final step, the overall regression, with the three predictors, accounted for 22.9% of the variance

in phase completion time, ($R^2 = .23$, $F(3, 94) = 9.29$, $p < .001$). These results are depicted in Table 4.

Table 4

Results of the Final Step of a Hierarchical Multiple Regression Predicting Phase

Completion Time

<i>Variables</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Phase	.79	.16	.46	5.09	< .001
Trust	-.69	.72	-.10	-.96	.34
Vision	1.19	.82	.15	1.45	.15

Note. This analysis is significant, $R^2 = .23$, $F(3, 94) = 9.29$, $p < .001$.

Phase is measured on an ordinal scale (0, 1, 2, 3), Trust = Trust in Leadership; Vision = Vision Communication

Hypothesis 3 stated that trust in leadership would be associated with phase completion time and that this association would be mediated by the association between trust in leadership and vision communication. A mediation analysis allows researchers to determine if an independent variable has both a direct effect ($X \rightarrow Y$) as well as indirect effects, through a mediating variable, ($X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$) on a dependent variable (see Baron and Kenny, 1986; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). To test this hypothesis, Preacher and Hayes's (2008) procedure for mediation in SPSS was used. Trust in leadership was entered as the independent variable (X), vision communication was entered as the Mediator (M) and phase completion time was the dependent variable (Y). The ordinal variable of

phase was entered as a control variable (i.e., covariate). This analysis is depicted in *Figure 1*.

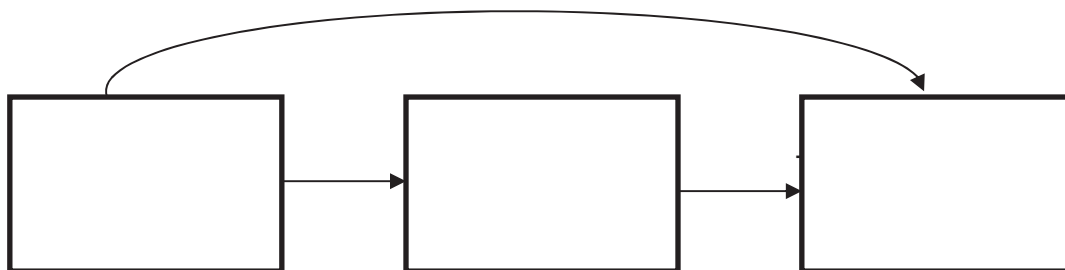


Figure 1. Model of meditation analysis predicting phase completion from trust in leadership and vision communication.

These results indicated the phase was a significant predictor of phase completion time ($\beta = .46, p < .001$). Trust in Leadership was a significant predictor of the mediator, vision communication ($\beta = .46, p < .001$). However, trust in leadership was not found to have either a direct effect on phase completion time ($\beta = .15, p = .15$), nor was there an indirect effect of trust leadership on phase completion time via a path through the mediator, vision communication ($\beta = -.10, p = .34$).

Summary

Based on a statistical analysis of the data, no support was found for the study's hypotheses. The null hypothesis for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 could not be rejected. Results of the correlation analysis showed a significant correlation between phase and phase completion time. A significant correlation was also found between trust in leadership and vision communication. The correlations analysis found no significant

relationship between the independent variables; trust in leadership and vision communication, and the dependent variable phase completion time. The hierarchical multiple linear regressions showed no significant relationships between the study's primary variables. The mediation analysis showed that phase was a significant predictor of phase completion time and that trust in leadership was a significant predictor of vision communication. However, trust in leadership had neither a direct or indirect effect on phase completion time via a relationship with vision communication. In Chapter 5, conclusions, recommendations and implications for social change are provided.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Managing and promoting successful organizational change is a major challenge in a climate of accelerating the global economic environment, information exchange, and growing global culture (Seo et al., 2012; Vasilescu, 2012). The purpose of this study was to determine if leadership behavior was associated with the rate of organizational change. There has been little research on the impact that leadership behavior can have on the speed of organizational change. In the current study, controlling for IWS Phase, I explored whether there was a predictor relationship between trust in leadership and vision communication and phase completion time in P&G manufacturing plants progressing through the four phases of IWS. The study also sought to determine if vision communication mediated the relationship between trust in leadership and phase completion time.

Trust in leadership and vision communication were determined from archival records of P&G Annual employee surveys covering the period from 2007 to 2012. Phase and phase completion time were determined from data collected as each P&G plant completed a phase during the 2007 to 2012 period. Statistical analysis included correlations, hierarchical linear regression, and mediation as described in Chapter 4.

Hypothesis 1 posited that there was a predictor relationship between the independent variable trust in leadership and the dependent variable phase completion

time. The results of the analysis showed that no significant relationship exists between trust in leadership and phase completion time and that trust in leadership is not a predictor of phase completion time. Similarly, Hypothesis 2 posited that there was a predictor relationship between the independent variable vision communication and the phase completion time. The results showed the independent variable vision communication and the dependent variable are not correlated, and there is no predictor relationship between the two variables. Hypothesis 3 posited that vision communication would mediate the predictor relationship between trust in leadership and phase completion time. Because the Null Hypothesis 1 (trust in leadership did not predict phase completion time) and Null Hypothesis 2 (vision communication did not predict phase completion time) were retained, the Null Hypothesis 3 (vision communication does not mediate a predictor relationship between trust in leadership and phase completion time) was also retained and confirmed by the mediation analysis.

Interpretation of the Findings

As described in Chapter 4, Pearson correlations were performed to determine if relationships exist between trust in leadership, vision communication, phase completion time, and the control variable phase. No significant relationship was found between trust in leadership and phase completion time. Similarly, there was no significant relationship found between vision communication and phase completion time. These findings were further confirmed in the hierarchical linear regression that showed that the predictor

variables (phase, trust in leadership, and vision communication) accounted for 22.9% of the variance in phase completion time. The predictor variable phase accounted for the majority of the variance in the model. Trust in leadership and vision communication added no significant variance in completion time. With these results, Null Hypotheses 1 and 2 were retained: Neither trust in leadership or vision communication predicted phase completion time.

These results were surprising considering the influence leadership behavior has on organization performance at an individual and organizational level (Aarons & Sommerfeld, 2012; Bass et al., 2003). In this study, phase completion time was established as a critical performance outcome for organizational change, and it was expected that leadership behavior would have a positive effect similar to that established in the literature. The literature does not support the overall results of the study since the association between leadership behavior and organization performance is well established. Although I believe the limitations mentioned in the coming section are the primary reason no associations were found, it has to be acknowledged that these results could be because no associations actually exist or there are other variables that minimize the association.

Is it possible that transformational leadership loses its potency in times of intense but well-structured and planned organization change? It has been found that transformational leadership does not predict performance under environmental conditions

of certainty (Waldman et al., 2001). It is reasonable to apply this finding to the IWS phase change process. The IWS change process was well-structured and documented for the organization to review. The steps to take and what could be expected were well known and shared as a “designed in” component of the implementation. Even the pitfalls of the process were consistent and known, and countermeasures were available through the council of well-trained internal consultants who had years of experience in coaching organizations through the change process. This stability, structure, and higher level of predictability might have provided enough knowledge or vision of the change outcomes that employees were more certain and thus less susceptible to the proven performance association of transformational leadership. Could it be that employees developed trust in the IWS change and a vision for its outcomes by exposure to the well-documented and structured IWS process? If so, this could mean that employees did not require trust and vision communication from leadership to reduce their uncertainty, thereby minimizing the association between the variables in this study. Uncertainty of the future in times of change is one of the primary reasons employees resist or fail to perform during change (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Ford et al., 2008). Uncertainty in the organization may have been minimized by the environment the IWS phase change implementation creates, thus eliminating the associations of transformational leadership (Kotter, 1995).

Proposing that transformation leadership behaviors, trust and communication, may not matter in organizational performance in times of well-structured and planned

change would challenge well established findings that the absence of these characteristics in leadership are primary reasons why change initiatives are not successful (Higgs & Rowland, 2005; Kotter, 1995, 2007). It would point future researchers to other variables such as environment, culture, and economic conditions, which are different than the personal influence of leadership that could be associated with the speed of organizational change. Although the potential for other variables besides leadership to be the key to rapid organizational change is a viable consideration for the lack of significance in the outcomes of this study, the well-established influence of leadership on organizational performance is hard to ignore. This leads to considering the possibility that if the transformational leadership style is not a factor in organizational performance during intense well-structured organizational change, maybe it is the transactional leadership style that primarily impacts organizational performance during well-structured change. Thus, perhaps only transactional, rather than transformational, leadership is critical to the organization change process.

It is possible that this study's results may have differed if transactional leadership behaviors were the focus since recent studies have found positive associations between transactional leadership behaviors and employee change behavior (Jong & Hartog, 2007; Waldman et al., 2001). Consider that transactional leadership is the component of leadership associated with organizational performance that could improve the speed which organizations are able to make change. A well-structured, well planned, more

predictable change process may lend itself to the characteristics of transactional leadership which are more direction-, fact-, and task-oriented (Herold et al., 2008).

Despite the lack of support for the alternative hypotheses proposed in this study, there were still several positive findings that should be acknowledged. Phase was positively correlated with phase completion time; thus, phase was found to be a significant predictor of phase completion time with completion times being longer for later phases than earlier phases. This was expected since each phase increased in complexity and effort required as the organization moved from Phase 0 through Phase 4; generally it would be expected that later phases required more time than earlier phases (Chew et al., 2010). As expected, trust in leadership and vision communication were also highly correlated, indicating that employees reporting that leaders better communicated the vision also reported a higher trust in leadership. The mediation analysis also confirmed this relationship showing that trust in leadership was a significant predictor of vision communication. This finding is consistent with the literature showing a strong association between effective leadership communication and employee trust in leadership (De Cremer & Tyler, 2007; Lines et al., 2005; Sorensen et al., 2011). This can be understood if one considers that employees may be more receptive or more likely to listen and receive communication from leaders they find trustworthier. This again is consistent with the literature that shows trustworthy leaders have better relationships with

followers, causing followers to be less resistant and more receptive during organizational change (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Ford et al., 2008).

Limitations of the Study

The unexpected results of the study lead to the acknowledgement of the statistical power, operationalization of the variables, and validity limitations of the study. Although there were 98 data points analyzed in the current study, more than satisfying the 67 recommended by the power analysis, the statistical power for each phase may have been lacking if each phase represented a unique organizational change event distinct from the other phases. Because the frequency of phase changes by phase only ranged from 13 to 31, below the 67 required in the power analysis, having adequate statistical power by phase was a considerable limitation.

The archival data set used for the independent variables in the study was collected on a fixed schedule with only one data point per year. Also, the data being collected were taken at various points during each phase and did not account for the host of leadership, economic, and other organizational changes that can occur and impact the attitude of employees over the average 3.47 years required to complete a phase. This method of data collection leads to the conclusion that the survey ratings collected for the independent variables may not have been a true measure of the study's constructs across the years that it took to complete the phase. This hindrance to the operationalization of the independent variables is due to the timing and frequency of collection of the survey data.

As noted in Chapter 3, operationalization of the variables was also a threat to validity because the scales used primarily represented the study's constructs as uniquely viewed in the P&G culture. The independent variable data were collected from archival P&G annual employee survey results instead of using a scale specifically designed to collect opinions for the two constructs. It was assumed that the broad nature and organizational impact of the IWS phase change was so significant that employee survey opinions would be based in the context of the phase change. This assumption may not have been a good one considering the results of the study. Though the internal reliability of the scales for trust in leadership and vision communication were strong, the independent variable data may not have shared the same meaning and definition as the constructs referenced in the organizational change literature. I would suggest that this, along with the collection method limitation, is the primary consideration for the surprising lack of significant results in the correlation, regression, and mediation analyses.

Recommendations

Addressing the speed of organizational change is a significant business need for organizations and has been given little attention by researchers. Researchers have addressed what makes change effective and what makes change successful. However, little has been found about the critical constructs that can cause change to happen more rapidly in organizations or if more effective organizational change means the change is

happening rapidly. This study was an attempt to fill this void. Future researchers can learn from the outcome of this study, not necessarily from the results from the study, which were primarily nonsignificant, but from the limitations of the study that offer considerations that can position future research for firmer findings.

Future researchers should consider a simple experimental approach utilizing a control group and experimental group. Conducting a study similar to this one, it would mean two manufacturing facilities with similar organizational structure, demographics, environment, culture, and leadership capability. Both would be followed longitudinally through the same standardized organizational change process or through the same phase. The treatment in the experimental group would be leadership development or leadership selection to strengthen the studied leadership behaviors in the experimental plant. This would also address improved operationalization of the variables since the scales for the specific studied leadership behaviors could be developed or selected consistent with literature.

Scales should be developed to measure the constructs being explored versus utilizing archival data. Although the archival data may be available and seem suited for the purpose of the study, it more often provides no significant findings for research purposes (Elder, Pavalko, & Clipp, 1993). This has to do with the relationship between the research question and the archival data. In the use of archival data, the researcher is searching through data to find data that closely fits a particular research question instead

of collecting data that actually fits the research question. The former typically requires changing the data to fit the research question or changing the research question to fit the data so the data can be more responsive to the research question (Elder et al., 1993).

Although, the final data may seem suited for the purpose of the study, as in this study, there may be methods in its collection that can limit operationalization and validity.

Having the accurate scales should be a key concern for future researchers.

Last, the method and frequency of data collection should be studied and be well structured to account for or control for all of the external and internal dynamics that occur in organizations that influence employees' opinions. This aspect of future studies will be a challenge since organizations are dynamic, ever developing, and difficult to predict.

The data collection process for future studies should have a very structured method and structured collection frequency, to ensure validity and to operationalize the constructs studied.

Implications

The findings of this study have implications for positive social change in two areas. First, through the conclusion of the literature review, the potential for using the proven strengths of leadership behaviors to improve organization performance is highlighted and is offered as a viable solution for solving the problem of organizational change failure. It offers a view that failure doesn't occur only because the right steps are not taken to make organizational change, but that the character and behavior of those

actually leading the organization as the steps are taken could be the primary cause for the failure and lack of speed in organizational change. Although the study did not find significant relationships between leadership behavior and the speed of organizational change, it does not mean that these relationships do not exist. The literature is overwhelming that the potential for these relationships is viable and merits future exploration. Bringing attention to this relationship can still motivate companies to explore this potential in a practical way by structuring leadership development and change leader selection during organizational change initiatives.

Secondly, the study provides recommendations based on the limitations of the current study that can help future researchers. These suggestions would improve the accuracy and validity of future studies in order to continue to fill the void in the research on improving the speed of organizational change. As mentioned in Chapter 1 and Chapter 4, this would be filling a need for businesses by offering direction for influencing and managing the complexity of rapid organizational change.

Conclusion

Knowledge and definition of leadership is ever developing to be applied to the rapidly changing business environment. This study attempted to further the understanding of leadership as it applies to the speed that organizations are able to make change as they face the challenges of this environment. It highlights the very rational potential for leadership to be a key construct in helping organization to foster more rapid

organizational change. This hopefully will draw the attention of future researchers to explore this potential relationship empirically and to draw the attention of companies to consider steps they can take to leverage and explore this potential relationship practically.

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Appendix A: Archival Data Approval



Robert E. Gibby, PhD
 Procter & Gamble
 HR Research & Analytics
 2 P&G Plaza
 TN-4
 Cincinnati, OH 45103
gibby.re@pg.com
 513.739.9416 (o)
 419.494.5306 (c)

Timothy M. Williams
 Procter & Gamble
 Bethel GO
williams.tm.2@pg.com

Dear Mr. Williams:

This letter provides approval to use P&G Survey data for the purpose of meeting your research objectives in the study titled: *Leadership Behavior Influence on the Speed of IWS Execution*. The specifics of the study are outlined in the attached Word and PowerPoint documents that you provided in consideration of your request to use P&G Survey data.

We agree to provide aggregate level P&G Survey data, at the plant level, for the following P&G Survey questions:

Relationship with Manager

- My manager and I have an open and trusting relationship.
- I receive ongoing coaching and feedback that includes actionable steps to help me complete my work priorities.
- I have had a productive and actionable Work and Development Plan (W&DP) discussion with my manager in the last 12 months.
- My manager and I partner effectively to achieve business and organizational results.
- My unique background and style of working are valued and leveraged by my manager.

Confidence in Business Unit Leadership

- The leadership in my business unit creates a clear and inspiring vision of the future.
- I believe my business unit is on the right track to deliver the desired business results.
- I have confidence my business unit has a plan in place to grow the business.

Pride in Company

- P&G is a company I am proud to work for.
- P&G is the best consumer products and services company in the world.
- P&G and its brands improve the everyday lives of the world's consumers.

Sincerely,



Research Proposal
 Final 1-3-2012.docx



P&G Survey
 Question For Regress

Appendix B: Survey Questions

Employee Survey Questions

Trust In Leadership

1. My manager and I have an open and trusting relationship.
2. I receive ongoing coaching and feedback that includes actionable steps to help me complete my work priorities.
3. I have had a productive and actionable Work and Development Plan (W&DP) discussion with my manager in the last 12 months.
4. My manager and I partner effectively to achieve business and organizational results.
5. My unique background and style of working are valued and leveraged by my manager.

Vision Communication

1. The leadership in my business unit creates a clear and inspiring vision of the future.
2. I believe my business unit is on the right track to deliver the desired business results.
3. I have confidence my business unit has a plan in place to grow the business.

Appendix C: Validity Confirmation

Sunday, August 4, 2013 11:39:36 PM Eastern Daylight Time

Subject: FW: Leadership Research-Tim W
Date: Sunday, August 4, 2013 11:38:30 PM Eastern Daylight Time
From: Timothy Williams
From: <Biga>, Andrew <biga.a@pg.com>
Date: Friday, August 19, 2011 8:41 AM
To: "Williams, Timothy" <williams.tm.2@pg.com>
Subject: RE: Leadership Research-Tim W

Hey Tim,

Attached are all of the survey questions. Below are my thoughts on possible survey questions that could line up with your proposed constructs.

Leadership Trustworthiness

Relationship with Manager

My manager and I have an open and trusting relationship.
 I receive ongoing coaching and feedback that includes actionable steps to help me complete my work priorities.
 I have had a productive and actionable Work and Development Plan (W&DP) discussion with my manager in the last 12 months.
 My manager and I partner effectively to achieve business and organizational results.
 My unique background and style of working are valued and leveraged by my manager.

Notes:

The focus of this construct is on the manager versus leadership. It has a facet of trustworthiness.

Communication Behavior

Confidence in Business Unit Leadership

The leadership in my business unit creates a clear and inspiring vision of the future.
 I believe my business unit is on the right track to deliver the desired business results.
 I have confidence my business unit has a plan in place to grow the business.

Notes:

Our confidence measures are the only items that directly assess leadership performance.
 Communication is a key element of leadership behaviour. We have done additional research that shows leadership communication can have a direct impact on how employees respond to these 3 items.

DV(s): Time to Reach Affective Commitment during an Organizational Change Initiative.

Pride in Company

P&G is a company I am proud to work for.
 P&G is the best consumer products and services company in the world.
 P&G and its brands improve the everyday lives of the world's consumers.

Notes:

I consider Pride in Company to be our closest measurement of Affective Commitment. However, there is not element of change measured with these questions.

I hope this helps. We can talk further next week.

Take care,

Andy

Andrew Biga, PhD

Procter & Gamble | Human Resources | Leadership Development | 513.206.0514

Curriculum Vitae

Timothy Williams, Sr.

HUMAN RESOURCES EXECUTIVE / ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT / CULTURE CHANGE

Dynamic career success as an accomplished Human Resources Executive experienced with a passion for leveraging organization optimization, HR systems improvement, and leadership development to facilitate critical business initiatives and culture change locally or globally. Highly respected business partner able to build trust, and strong relationships quickly because of HR mastery and deep value; and demonstrated internal consulting and service delivery with significant professionalism. Known for influencing executive leadership, peers, and direct reports through advising, coaching, and consulting to increased productivity and profits.

Areas of expertise

- Organization Change Management
- Culture Change Capability Development
- Individual and Team Executive Coaching
- Organization Design Development
- Organization Performance Optimization
- Relationship and Consensus Building
- Executive Leadership Teaming
- Strategic Planning / Deployment Process
- Legal Compliance Issues Resolution

EDUCATION

- **PhD** Organization Psychology, Walden University, Minneapolis, MN, 2014
 - GPA: 4.0 / 4.0
 - Dissertation: “Transformational Leadership Influence on Rapid Organizational Change in Procter & Gamble Global Manufacturing Operation.”
- **MBA**, Business, Tiffin University, Lima, OH, 2003
 - GPA: 4.0 / 4.0
 - Graduated with Honors
- **BS**, Mechanical Engineering, Tuskegee University, Tuskegee, AL, 1986
 - GPA: 3.62 / 4.0
 - Graduated with honors
 - Junior: President PI Tau Sigma Mechanical Engineering Fraternity
 - Sophomore: Co-Op Student of the Year
 - Freshman: All SIAC Offensive Guard

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE**UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX****Faculty, August, GA**

2014-Current

EDGEFIELD COUNTY HOSPITAL**Director of Human Resources, Edgefield, SC**

2013-Current

PROCTER & GAMBLE**Duracell Global Human Resources Executive, Bethel, CT**

2010 – 2012

Brockville Site Human Resource Executive, Brockville, ON

2007 – 2010

Augusta Site Human Resource Executive, Augusta, GA

2003 – 2007

Augusta Site Organization Effective Leader, Augusta, GA

2002 – 2003

Lima Site HR System Leader, Lima, OH

1999 – 2002