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A Grounded Theory of the Factors Affecting Employee Vision Inspiration

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

A Grounded Theory of the Factors Affecting Employee Vision Inspiration

by

Luis Luarca

MBA, University of LaVerne, 2000

BS, University of Phoenix, 1998

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

Walden University

February 2017

Abstract

Inspired, motivated employees are essential to organizational success. Research findings indicate a strong relationship between vision, leader charisma, organizational factors, and the extent to which employees feel motivated to achieve organizational goals based on the vision, known as employee vision inspiration (EVI). However, little is known about how employees personalize organizational visions and why this affects their performance. The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore in-depth the organizational and employee-related factors that affect EVI using the constant comparative method and grounded theory methodology, and how EVI manifests itself in employee behaviors directed toward the achievement of a company's vision. Interviews with a purposeful sample of 14 employees, chosen because they were inspired by their organization's vision, provided the data needed to answer the research questions and enable the development of a grounded theory of EVI. According to this theory, having an organization with a strong culture of two-way communication and a positive work environment fostered by a leader committed to an achievable vision positively affects EVI. The theory further indicates that such an organization acts as a motivator that enhances employee satisfaction and commitment, and elevates pride in the organization, thus positively affecting EVI. The significance to social change of this study is that it may enable leaders to understand how to inspire employees to be more creative and more committed to the success of the organization, thereby fostering a more fulfilling and satisfying organizational environment.

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to all entrepreneurs, small business owners, and creative

leaders out there who take the risks, face the challenges, and have the patience to start

and lead those businesses that most of us are too timid or unwilling to start. To all the

small business owners who stimulate the U.S. economy and take care of our families by

placing the stress, burden, and financial risks on their shoulders; while only asking in

return that employees do a good job and put in a good day of work.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Organizational vision has captured the interest of scholars in leadership,

organizational change, strategy, and other management disciplines. Empirical studies

have revealed important and complex relationships between vision and organizational

outcomes, and they form the foundation for further research in this area (O'Connell,

Hickerson, & Pillutla, 2011). Vision, which remains an important aspect of

organizational effectiveness that is not fully understood, offers a rich area for further

research (O'Connell et al., 2011).

Chapter 1 includes the background for this study as well as the problem statement.

Chapter 1 also includes the purpose of this study and presents research questions that

guided the study. The conceptual framework provides an outline for the study with the

nature of the study to follow. Assumptions, limitations, and delimitations, as well as the

significance of the study, complete the chapter.

Background

This study developed from a study by James and Lahti (2011), who presented a

research model integrating various levels of leadership, leader charisma, and

organizational system influences on employee vision inspiration or EVI ("motivation to

help achieve their organizations' vision," p. 108). James and Lahti indicated that a

significantly strong relationship existed between leader charisma and EVI, and that a

significant relationship existed between organizational system factors and EVI, which in

turn predicted multiple criteria for organizational performance (James & Lahti, 2011).

However, James and Lahti did not examine how employees specifically personalize

organizational visions and why they perform differently because of having personalized those visions (James & Lahti, 2011, p. 118). The authors suggested the need for future research into these areas. Kopaneva and Sias (2015) further noted in their research that scholars acknowledge employees' contribution to mission and vision dialogue but little research has studied the phenomenon. Kopaneva and Sias noted that organizational success is dependent on leaders and employees' maintaining similar perceptions of their organization's mission and vision.

O'Connell et al. (2011) posited that vision connects with a variety of outcomes, through a variety of mechanisms, both singly and in concert with other factors. Vision affects organizational performance, group effectiveness, and growth in entrepreneurial firms (O'Connell et al., 2011). There has been a fair amount of research focused on mission and vision statements that are effective (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015; Rajasekar, 2013), with most vision and mission research focused on the role of leadership in the development of mission and vision statements (Rupprecht, Waldrop, & Grawitch, 2013). On the other hand, there is little research on the effects of mission and vision statements on employees (Moghimi & Subramaniam, 2013).

Carton, Murphy, and Clark (2014) posited that the key responsibility of leaders involves creating and communicating two types of messages, visions and values, which help followers understand the ultimate purpose of their work. Although scholars have long considered how leaders communicate visions and values to establish a sense of purpose, they have overlooked how leaders can use these messages to establish the shared sense of purpose that occurs when multiple employees possess the same understanding of

the purpose of work. Carton et al. (2014) suggested that a specific combination of messages (i.e., a large amount of vision imagery combined with a small number of values) will boost performance more than other combinations because it triggers a shared sense of the organization's ultimate goal and in turn enhances coordination (Carton et al., 2014).

Organizational principles are an important influence on essential corporate actions, such as targets, values, and the mission and vision of an organization. Corporate guidelines are vital in explaining the significance of corporate principles to all levels of the hierarchy within the organization. Overall, mission and vision statements provide a significant channel for communicating essential values and norms to target different stakeholders (Martinez, Perez, & Rodriguez, 2014).

Contemporary organizations need employees psychologically connected to their work, willing and able to invest themselves fully in their roles, who are proactive and committed to high quality performance standards (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011). Regardless of the types of organizations, human resources are important organizational assets determining core organizational capability, effectiveness, and performance, together with other sorts of resources such as material or intellectual resources (Kim & Min Park, 2014). Kohles, Bligh, and Carsten (2013) noted that vision integration results in followers who know about the vision and perceive that it represents some form of improvement or advantage to them in their current work roles. Perceptions of bidirectional communications between immediate supervisors and followers significantly related to how much employees felt that the vision was directly applicable to their work

roles. Kohles et al. (2013) further suggested that employees' knowledge of what the vision is (vision knowledge) does not necessarily mean that they directly integrate the vision into their jobs. The results indicated that employee determined communications about how the vision is compatible with and applies to their jobs is what is most important. Furthermore, when followers perceive vision as compatible with their jobs, they take the next step and integrate the vision as a guide for their work (Kohles et al., 2013).

Kopaneva and Sias (2015) remarked that an organization's existence is based on the relevance of its mission and vision statements and they represent the organization's identity (Cooren, Matte, Benoit-Barné, & Brummans, 2013; Schoeneborn et al., 2014). The authors suggested that while a mission statement establishes an organization's uniqueness, a vision statement guides the evolution of the organization. These documents also function as a charter for organizational action (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015). Kopaneva and Sias (2015) also noted that powerful tools of persuasion (e.g., mission and vision) are the key to business strategies. In addition, He (2012) noted that sociocultural scholars have hypothesized that mission and vision statements are important ways of communicating and cultivating a positive culture throughout an organization.

Related to leadership and vision inspiration, Van Wart (2012) posited that there are many theories concerning leadership, where transformational leadership has become an important focus of interest. Research by Bronkhorst, Steijn, and Vermeeren (2013) noted that leaders have the ability to transform and change basic values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers (employees) to perform at optimum levels. Other researchers have

identified that leadership is inspirational (Van Wart, 2012) when it is "centered on the assumption that leaders can change followers' beliefs, assumptions, and behavior by appealing to the importance of collective or organizational outcomes" (Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012, p. 147). Many studies on transformational leadership have stressed its positive effects on performance (Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011) and employee outcomes (Whittington, Goodwin, & Murray, 2004).

Leadership is a ubiquitous feature of the human condition. Leaders set agendas and goals, define cultural identity, and motivate and organize others to do both great and terrible things. Leadership can dramatically transform people's lives; leading them into war, fundamentalism, recession, economic recovery, technological revolution, and so forth (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012).

Are leaders born or cultivated? The question of born or made is important not only for leadership, but for recruitment and training as well. If leaders are born or leadership comes from gifted individuals, then there is reason to recruit for that top talent and focus training more narrowly on those innately suited. If leadership occurs organically, then life's experiences and development opportunities become more important and subsequently training likely occurs more broadly (Van Wart, 2013).

Alternatively, Bronkhorst et al. (2013) posited that a transformational leader shows individualized consideration by diagnosing and elevating the needs of each follower. In addition, a transformational leader becomes a source of admiration, stimulating followers to see the world from new perspectives. Transformational leaders should provide inspirational motivation and thus meaning and a sense of purpose about

what the organization needs to accomplish. Given these qualities, a transformational leadership style will positively affect work motivation by enhancing the choices made by employees in terms of devoting effort to certain tasks and their willingness to persist in them. This study is necessary not only to fill the gap in research identifying factors that result in and from EVI, as well as the ways in which EVI motivate employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision, but also to further research into employee motivation and leadership.

Problem Statement

Carton et al. (2014) posited that increases in performance gained from a shared purpose are most likely the result of leaders communicating a large amount of vision imagery and a small number of values. The vivid detail gleaned from image-based rhetoric about the future leads employees to share a similar mental image, and the limited amount of conceptual detail gained from a focused value system provides meaning that different employees construe in a consistent way. The problem was the lack of understanding of how EVI works. There is little research identifying the reasons why employees are inspired by organizational visions and the effects EVI has on their performance. As stated previously, Kopaneva and Sias (2015) concluded that scholars acknowledge employees' contribution to mission and vision dialogue but have conducted little research on the phenomenon. This study included an in-depth analysis of current research regarding motivation, organization vision, employee engagement, and leadership that resulted in evidence that there was a gap in literature related to how visions inspire employees and the effect that vision inspiration has on their performance and satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative grounded theory study was to explore organizational and employee-related (i.e., personal) factors that result in and from EVI, as well as the ways in which EVI motivates employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. Also explored were the effect of EVI on employee performance and the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction. This study built on research of James and Lahti (2011), who presented a research model integrating various levels of leadership, leader charisma, and organizational system influences on EVI. Using the constant comparative method of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009) and grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 2006), insight into a theory of the factors that affect EVI, allowing employees to personalize their understanding of the organization's vision, and how this EVI manifests itself in employee behaviors directed toward the achievement of that vision, emerged.

Research Questions

The research questions were:

RQ1: What organizational factors affect EVI?

RQ2: What employee-related factors affect EVI?

RQ3: How do these factors interrelate to influence EVI?

RQ4: What is the effect of EVI on employee performance?

RQ5: What is the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction?

The answers to these research questions were important to achieving a better understanding of how organizations create and foster positive employee motivation toward the achievement of organizational visions.

Conceptual Framework

Employee motivation theories presented by Maslow (1954, 1968, & 1970), Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959), and Vroom (1964) supported development of the structured interview questions. Interview questions supported the identification of motivation triggers as described by Maslow, Herzberg, and Vroom, such as the need to belong, achievement and recognition, and performance rewards. A supportive style of interviewing encouraged participants to provide rich descriptions of motivation factors.

Maslow (1968) noted that human motivation meets five types of needs, ranked in a hierarchy: physiological needs, safety and security needs, belongingness needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization. Rooted in biology, Maslow's five levels of basic needs are the need for food, water, health (physiological), security, safety, and stability (safety). Maslow's basic needs identify the need for love and affection as well as a sense of belonging (social), which plays a part in employee motivation within an organization. As humans ascend the ladder of hierarchical needs, they seek to attain respect, prestige, and recognition (ego/esteem), a level of need they can find satisfaction for within an organization as well. Once humans have achieved satisfaction of these basic needs, they search for the ultimate fulfillment of growth, creativity, and the ability to use their skills appropriately—self-actualization (Maslow, 1968). This fulfillment of growth, creativity, and the ability to use skills appropriately can be most apparent in the work environment.

Maslow referred to the first four levels of this pyramid of needs, as *deficit needs* identifying life sustaining human needs without which humans cannot survive. A deficiency in these needs would create crisis. The fifth and final level of his pyramid referred to as the *being needs* where individuals achieve self-actualization (Maslow, 1968). Maslow also recognized that the environment (basic needs) plays a role in human development but did not rest his entire theory on the individual's development via environmental influences. Maslow stated, "Man is ultimately not molded or shaped into humanness or taught to be human. The role of the environment ultimately permits him or helps him to actualize his own potentialities, not its potentialities" (Maslow, 1968, p. 176).

In defining the environment where humans must attain self-awareness, Maslow (1968) recognized that only other people can satisfy the need for safety, belongingness, love, and respect (i.e., only from outside a person). It is because of this that deficiency motivated people are afraid of the environment, as there is always the possibility that it may fail or disappoint them(Maslow, 1968).

According to Mayfield and Mayfield (2012), the concept of self-efficacy is vital to individual motivation and was the critical link between self-efficacy and human performance in their study. Researchers used foundations of self-efficacy via Bandura's (1997) social learning theory, "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and to execute the courses of action required producing given attainments" (p. 2). Bandura (1997) posited that self-efficacy beliefs are the foundations from which "people's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on

what is objectively true" (Bandura, 1997, p. 2). The researchers noted that self-efficacy is not the equivalent of key organizational outcomes, such as performance, job satisfaction, attendance, retention, and loyalty. Instead, self-efficacy is an affective state that interacts with these measures, at times as reinforcement (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012, p. 360).

Herzberg et al. (1959) categorized motivation into two factors: motivator and hygiene. Motivator or intrinsic factors such as achievement and recognition produce job satisfaction. Hygiene or extrinsic factors such as pay and job security, produce job dissatisfaction. The development of the interview questions for this study considered Herzberg's two-factor theory because the importance of employee inspiration lies in how employees perceive their existence within an organization (see Figure 1). In other words, employees who believe their pay is inadequate, their supervisor does not care about them, or that working conditions are poor will perform less than expected by management. Poor employee motivation results from a leadership structure that does not consider employee work environments. On the other hand, employees need to know that there are opportunities within the organization to achieve personal growth, recognition, and more responsibility. Herzberg's two-factor theory supported development of the interview questions for this study because the interview questions related to employee motivation and looked to discover EVI motivators.

Job dissatisfaction

Hygiene Factors
- Quality of supervision
- Pay
- Company policies
- Physical working conditions
- Relations with others
- Job security

High

Motivation Factors
- Promotion opportunities
- Opportunities for personal growth
- Recognition
- Responsibility
- Achievement

Job satisfaction

Low
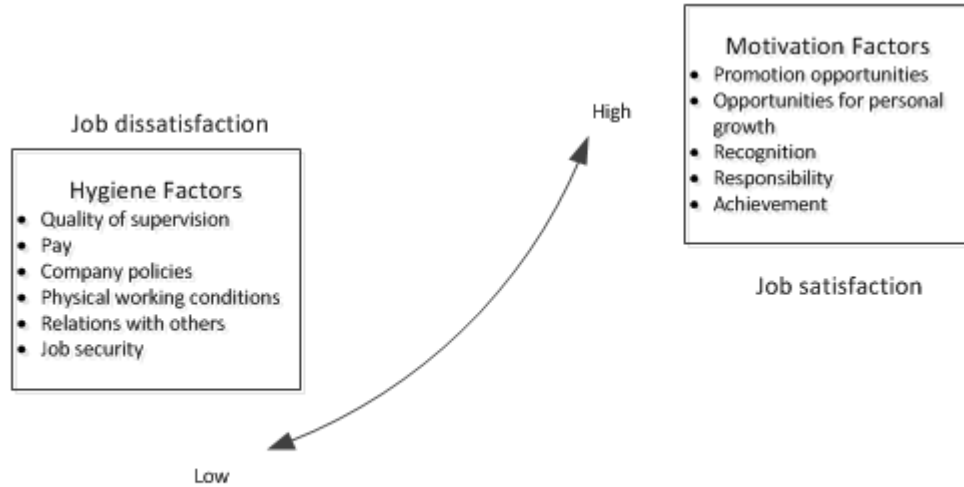
Figure 1. Herzberg's two-factor theory

Vroom's (1964) theory posited the belief that employee effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to rewards. In Vroom's expectancy theory, rewards may be either positive or negative (see Figure 2). The more positive the reward the more likely the employee will be highly motivated. Conversely, the more negative the reward, the less likely the employee will be motivated. Interview questions for this study also considered Vroom's theory of employee motivation to discern how employees perceived their organization in terms of expectancy. In other words, the interview questions helped provide understanding of what employees expected from the organization as well as what leadership of the organization expected from employees. The objective ensured that organizational leadership did not expect more than they were giving employees in terms of leadership, motivation, and vision inspiration.

Expectancy · Instrumentality · Valence

Effort → Performance → Rewards

1. Will my effort lead to high performance?
2. Will performance lead to outcomes?
3. Do I find the outcomes desirable?
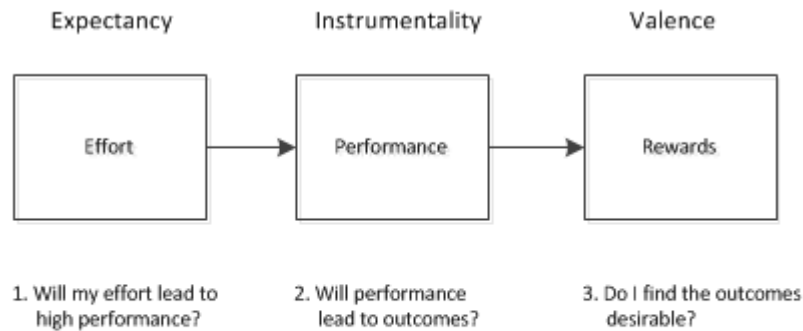
Figure 2. Vroom's theory

Nature of the Study

The design approach for this study was grounded theory to enable the development of a theory. The research design supported an iterative process of employee interviews to gather relevant information that supported an examination of the organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI, as well as the ways in which EVI motivated employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. Categorization of data gathered from interviews helped identify relationships. The design approach for this study, which in addition to investigating the phenomenon, enabled the development of a grounded theory based on systematic yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories *grounded* in the data (Charmaz, 2006). The research design helped glean relevant information using the constant comparative method of data collection as described by Merriam (2009).

Sutton, Reinking, and Arnold (2011) based their research on Glaserian approach to grounded theory. Their data collection and coding process began with a series of interviews that led to the development of a survey distributed to 353 participants. After

collecting interview survey data, preliminary conceptualizations of the data led researchers to a notion of risk and assurance, which they supplemented with other sources, such as a review of literature on assurance services, and aggregated and integrated appropriately (Sutton et al., 2011). Primary and secondary categories of data emerged, which they grouped to form a theoretical framework (Sutton et al., 2011).

Sutton et al. (2011) provided insights into the coding process and gained an understanding of how emerging technology research in accounting may benefit through more application of grounded theory. Sutton et al. (2011) documented the differences that have evolved in the Glaserian and Straussian approaches to grounded theory. There are many advocates of each method, and there is an expectation among the grounded theory research community that a researcher can adhere carefully to one methodology or the other. The structure from Strauss also provides a more defendable foundation against reviewers or critics that may be skeptical of the theorizations (Sutton et al., 2011). The authors recommended that new researchers allow the research problem and the research questions to emerge as the researcher immerses in the richness of the environment. The researcher should sample, categorize, sort, revisit, sample more data, and renew the process repeatedly until the theory emerges with clarity supported by data categorizations (Sutton et al., 2011).

Fourteen employees participated in this dissertation study and more made themselves available if needed to achieve data saturation. The sampling strategy was purposeful sampling. The justification of this sampling strategy was that it allowed me to identify participants who have experienced the phenomenon. Employees of the

organization joining in this dissertation study participated based on their tenure with their organization as described by Bauer (2010), who presented employee newcomer adjustment periods and their variables: employee self-efficacy, employee clarity, and social acceptance of new employees. Bauer revealed self-efficacy increased over the first few months post hire and then decreased steadily after about 3 months. Clarity dropped in the first few months but then generally increased after the third month. Social acceptance declined more slowly over the first 6 months and then generally increased past that point in time. The three variables are at similar points above average during their initial entry into the organization, which indicates employees begin their tenure within an organization feeling confident in themselves, their roles, and their acceptance by peers. After about 3 months on the job, the variables tend to diverge into different directions relative to individual personalities and organizational culture (Bauer, 2010). Employees within 1 year of employment participated in this dissertation study. Employee participants determined to meet this criterion via a verification of hire date with the organization's human resources department. Employees authorized a verification of their hire date during the exploratory interviews. Although 14 participants volunteered, data collection and analysis continued until data saturation occurred. According to Charmaz (2006), data saturation occurs when additional interviews do not yield further insights into the principal factors identified from the previous interviews (Charmaz, 2006).

The organization selected for the study compared to Omar, Davis-Sramek, Fugate, and Mentzer, (2012). This selection enabled the discovery of whether (a) organizational vision existed, (b) the organization's leadership agreed that there is

potential for vision inspiration within the organization, (c) the general findings of the study were useful to the organization, and (d) the organization would permit employees to participate in such a study on a voluntary, confidential basis. The participants in Omar et al. (2012) reflected diversity along several dimensions, such as tenure on the job, title (manager, senior vice president), firm size and annual sales ($250 million - $7 billion), and products and industry (e.g., automobiles, cosmetics, health care, and industrial products). An organization of similar diversity to that of Omar et al. (2012) with annual sales of $5 mm to $100 million participated in this study.

Omar et al. (2012) also mined their data via coding procedures such as open coding, axial coding, and selective coding and required each of the authors to follow specific coding techniques. Similar coding techniques supported this study. Omar et al. were able to develop a theory about the dynamic nature of the change process in firms through the eyes of study participants and the internal and external contextual conditions that can either inhibit or accelerate those changes. The authors adopted an interpretivist ontology using grounded theory to provide an in-depth analysis of interviews from seven manufacturing organizations providing a rich description of employee perceptions and challenges within each organization. Omar et al. examined operations managers who must carry out an interpretation process to set goals, process information, perceive their environment, and actively solve problems when confronted with the organization's decision to implement supply chain initiatives. Incorporating the constant comparative method of analysis revealed a more detailed level of analysis where the constant comparison is common with the incremental, iterative collecting and analyzing data in

grounded theory. The goal in Omar et al. was to gain insights into supply chain operational practices both inside and across firms (e.g., best and worst performing or operational challenges).

Omar et al. (2012) used grounded theory design because it allowed a deeper understanding of meanings and interactions as people go about solving their daily problems. Selected interview participants based on theoretical sampling guidelines were personnel working within organizations that explicitly sought out help in achieving supply chain management success, and thus had at least some level of recognizing the strategic and tactical implication of managing supply chain flows.

Similarly, Rosenbaum, Kuntze, and Wooldridge (2011) employed grounded theory methodology to develop an original framework illustrating why consumers engage in either an unethical retail disposition (URD) participation or restraint and demonstrated empirical support for the framework. Rosenbaum et al. (2011) incorporated a *strategy family* framework that involved organizing and coding data such as respondent statements to cultivate a theory that explains the various strategies people employ to formulate specific decisions or behaviors. A rough draft framework emerged from coded data collected from 264 interviewees regarding the reasoning for their URD participation or restraint. This strategy family framework organized the data well and clearly articulated the various strategies consumers employ to formulate URD behaviors.

Rosenbaum et al. (2011) obtained data from a group of 28 senior-aged men who were all members of synagogue men's club. Interestingly, two of the 28 seniors admitted to engaging in URD. One informant said that the item was "too expensive to purchase"

(denial of responsibility), while another explained, "I only needed a very specialized repair tool for a 15-second repair. I bought it and used it carefully knowing I would return it" (one-time usage). The seniors buttressed the emergent restraint rationalization; however, their insights also generated an additional reason for URD restraint. Namely, two seniors personally recalled how they remember working retail jobs in the past and noted how they detested experiencing customers who blatantly abused their firm's return policies. This new restraint rationalization was termed *prior victim*. Researchers developed categories (neutralizations) from qualitative evidence created and compared to neutralizations tested by dozens of researchers over the last 30 years. The framework revealed that URD participants employ eight neutralization techniques to defuse their internal shame and guilt associated with committing URD.

According to Rosenbaum et al. (2011), following the tenets of grounded theory, a framework for URD participation and restraint emerged. The framework posited that URD offenders employ one of eight neutralization techniques to deflect personal guilt and shame for committing the behavior and that non-URD consumer employ one of six rationalization techniques to support URD self-restraint.

Definition of Terms

Communicative leader: A leader, who engages employees in dialogue, actively shares and seeks feedback, practices participative decision-making, and is open and involved (Johansson, Miller, & Hamrin, 2014).

Defining moments: When leaders encourage managers to communicate messages about its products and services (Grant & Hoffman, 2011).

Emotional as social information (EASI) model: "Theoretical model regarding how both individual factors and social factors influence observers' (followers') processing and reactions to others' (leaders') emotional expressions" (Van Kleef, 2009, p. 186).

Employee participation plans: A plan to improve employees' organizational commitment and company performance (Park, 2012).

Employee vision inspiration: Motivation to help achieve an organization's visions (James & Lahti, 2011).

Leader heuristic transfer (LHT): "The conveyance of a leader's experience—based processes for pattern recognition, discovery, and problem solving—rules of thumb employees' may adapt for their own creative application" (McMahon & Ford, 2013, p. 69).

Motivation: An individual's desire to achieve a goal. When motivation is present, goals excel, and when motivation is not present, goals tend to be set aside (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Multi-foci commitment: Organization, team, profession and client (Yalabik, Van Rossenberg, Kinnie, & Swart (2015).

Onboarding: The formalized process within an organization, which is designed to help facilitate newcomer success (Bauer, 2010).

Organizational socialization: A process through which new employees move from being organizational outsiders to becoming organizational insiders (Bauer, 2010).

Person-environment fit: Person–environment fit defined as the compatibility that occurs when individual and work environment characteristics match. Models of person–

environment (PE) fit have always been a prominent theme in the field of industrial and organizational psychology (Kristof-Brown, Guay, & Zedeck, 2011).

Assumptions

Organization leadership and employees of the company selected to participate in this study chose to participate in this study because they wanted to improve their organizations and awareness of the importance of communicating the vision within their organization. Secondly, participants of this study responded to interview questions truthfully and to the best of their ability and those participants felt at ease enough to speak candidly during the interview portion of this study. Participants of this study understood this study's objectives and responded to the interview questions accordingly. In addition, the organization willing to participate in this study did so to learn how organizational factors affect EVI within their organizations and that this experience would help them establish positive vision inspiration within their organization once the findings of the study become available. These assumptions are necessary in the context of this study to clarify that this study is original and that no previous communication with participants, other than to describe the intent of this research, occurred.

Finally, as most business organizations (small, mid-sized, and large) have vision statements available to employees or at least have a vision statement written in the company manual, it is assumed that leadership within the organization selected for this study had minimal awareness of the importance of an inspiring vision statement.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this qualitative study was limited to research of organizational factors that affect employee motivation as it relates to EVI and builds on research by James and Lahti (2011) through an in-depth examination of one small business in the United States. I explored the reasons why organizational vision statements and the effects of EVI inspire employee performance (James & Lahti, 2011). The design approach for this study enabled the development of insight into a theory of the factors that affect EVI allowing employees to personalize their understanding of the organization's vision, and how this EVI manifested itself in employee behaviors directed toward the achievement of that vision emerged.

Transferability exists in this study by way of thick descriptions of specific information about participants and their work environment. Methods and findings of this study allowed for detailed account of the environment surrounding the research location, which will include a rich description of that environment, process of interviewing, and so forth. Not considered in this study are age, race, sex, religious or political affiliation and are not relevant for this study. Chapter 3 includes further discussion on design and method of this study as well as the rationale for the organizations chosen for the study.

Limitations

Limitations for this research existed because the organization considered for this study is a small business with gross revenue of $12 million. The decision to select an organization in this category relates to the researcher's familiarity of managing small businesses as well as his familiarity of the research topic. One larger Fortune 500

organization can participate in future studies. The researcher felt this size organization to

be appropriate for this study and the findings of this study are specific to the organization

selected. Although the physical location of the participating organization might identify a

unique section of the United States' small business landscape, further study could involve

a larger number of participating organizations as well as a larger geographic footprint. In

future research, sections of the United States can participate (North, South, East, and

West) or districts to determine other factors not identified in this study.

Significance

Rupprecht et al. (2013) provided confirmation that leaders first create a vision and

mission, shared values, and a strategy to proceed before they can inspire and empower

employees. According to Rupprecht et al. (2013), vision and mission, shared values, and

strategy predicted inspiration, motivation, and influence, while empowerment partially

mediates the relationship between vision and mission, shared values, and strategy, and

employee attitudes and behaviors.

Results of this study provided insight into the factors affecting employee vision

inspiration and employee positive attachment to organizational vision. The development

of a theory of factors that affect EVI would benefit organizations by creating and

fostering positive organizational visions ensuring employees work effectively toward an

organizational vision.

Significance to Practice

The significance of this study to organization management and leadership

disciplines expands research of employee motivation and EVI positive effects on

organization performance. This study might influence how organizations develop environments in which employees perform at their best. As previously noted, Kopaneva and Sias (2015) posited that scholars acknowledge employees' input into mission and vision development but little research into the phenomenon has studied it. Kopaneva and Sias (2015) noted the importance of leadership acknowledging employees' perceptions of mission and vision statements. Many leaders are able to articulate visions and strategies. In addition, many leaders are able to ensure employees in organizational environments feel appreciated. Further development of vision inspiration theory might augment leadership theory and employee motivation theory to narrow specific leadership attributes necessary to foster employee vision inspiration.

Significance to Theory

There has been little research in identifying the reasons why employees feel inspired by organizational visions and the effect that EVI has on employee performance and satisfaction. This study might add to the discussion of what motivates employees to commit to an organization's principles, goals, and vision. This study is significant to employee motivation theory of Maslow, Herzberg, and Vroom. Maslow's basic needs such as love and affection as well as a sense of belonging (social) play a part in employee motivation within an organization as well as Herzberg's intrinsic/extrinsic factors theory and Vroom's expectancy theory.

According to Maslow (1968), humans climb a ladder of hierarchical needs; looking to attain respect, prestige, and recognition (ego/esteem) and this level of need can be satisfied within an organization. Once humans have achieved satisfaction of these

basic needs, humans search for the ultimate fulfillment of growth, creativity, and the ability to use their skills appropriately, self-actualization (Maslow, 1968).

As noted previously, Herzberg's (1959) work categorized motivation into two factors: motivator and hygiene. Motivator or intrinsic factors such as achievement and recognition produce job satisfaction. Hygiene or extrinsic factors such as pay and job security, produce job dissatisfaction. Employees need to know that there are opportunities within an organization to achieve personal growth, recognition, and more responsibility.

Vroom (1964) based his theory on the belief that employee effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to rewards. Rewards may be either positive or negative. The more positive the reward the more likely the employee will be highly motivated. Conversely, the more negative the reward, the less likely the employee will be motivated. The goal was to ensure that the organization leadership does not expect more than they are giving employees in terms of leadership, motivation, and vision inspiration.

Significance to Social Change

The significance of this study to affect social change will manifest as leaders develop visions based on the findings of the study that inspire and motivate employees to be more creative and more committed to the success of the organization. Society as a whole might benefit from further development of EVI theory through employee growth and development

Summary and Transition

This qualitative study builds on the research of James and Lahti (2011) by means of an in-depth examination of the organizational and personal factors that result in and

from EVI. Constant comparative method of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009) and grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 2006) supported this study. This research considered grounded theory design to enable the development of a theory based on systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories grounded in the data (Charmaz, 2006). The research design incorporated employee interviews to collect relevant information categorized toward identifying connections within the data. Insight into the development of a theory of factors that affect EVI allowing employees to personalize their understanding of the organization's vision, and how this EVI manifests itself in employee behaviors directed toward the achievement of that vision surfaced.

The central concept of this study examined the motivation of employees in sharing organization vision. A theory emerged identifying employee motivation in sharing organization vision. that may encourage others to undertake EVI studies. Chapter 2 includes an examination of current literature that establishes the importance of furthering a grounded theory. in-depth examination of the phenomenon while examining and synthesizing relevant literature on vision, employee motivation, and leadership.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The focus of this study was engaged employees in the achievement of organizational goals and understanding how EVI worked. There is little research identifying the reasons why employees are inspired by organizational visions and the effects EVI has on their performance. Kopaneva and Sias (2015) concluded scholars acknowledge employees' contributions to mission and vision dialogue but little research into the phenomenon has been performed. Employee motivation theories presented by Maslow (1954, 1968, & 1970), Herzberg et al. (1959), and Vroom (1964) supported this study. These theories supported developing insight into a theory of the factors that affect EVI allowing employees to personalize their understanding of organizational vision and how this EVI manifests itself in employee behaviors directed toward the achievement of that vision.

Rupprecht et al. (2013) and Carton et al. (2014) posited that increases in performance gained from a shared purpose are most likely because leaders simultaneously communicate a large amount of vision imagery (e.g., words that describe people, colors, and actions) and a small number of values. The vivid detail gleaned from image-based rhetoric about the future (e.g., "to one day see a city full of hybrid cars") leads employees to share a similar mental image. The limited amount of conceptual detail gained from a focused value system (e.g., "our core value is environmental sustainability") provides meaning that construed in a consistent way by different employees.

Chapter 2 provides an examination of current literature that establishes the importance of furthering a grounded theory in-depth examination of the organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI. This literature review examines and synthesizes current literature to produce a description of organization vision how it relates to this research.

Literature Search Strategy

Research articles in the literature review came from various academic and public resources such as Thoreau Multi-Database Search, Academic Search Complete, and Google Scholar supported this section. Other academic research sources specific to business and business management databases such as Business Source Complete, ABI/INFORM Complete, Emerald Management, and SAGE Premier also support this literature review. Keyword phrases supported an iterative process of deduction and allowed for relevant saturation of the research topic. Keyword phrases such as *vision statements, vision statement creation, vision statement development, vision statement management,* and *vision inspiration* supported the search for current articles for the study. Other keywords such as; *leadership, leadership and vision statements, leadership and vision statement creation, leadership and vision statement development, organization vision, organization vision creation, organization vision development, motivation, human motivation, employee motivation, leader motivation, empowerment, employee empowerment, leadership skills, visionary leader, transformational leader, transactional leader,* and *servant leader* supported the search.

The literature search revealed little research identifying the reasons why employees remain inspired by organizational visions or research on the effect EVI has on their performance (James & Lahti, 2011). The literature search also revealed little research identifying the organizational and personal factors that result in and from employee vision inspiration.

Conceptual Framework

The notion of human motivation as well as contemporary views on organization vision, employee engagement, and leadership helped in the development of interview questions for this study. Primarily, human motivation theories developed by Maslow (1954, 1968, & 1970) as well as employee motivation theories presented by Herzberg et al. (1959) and Vroom (1964) supported the development of structured interview questions. Also considered were Bandura's (1963, 1971, 1977, & 1997) and Erikson's (1959) work.

A study by Shuck and Herd (2012) on employee engagement and leadership presented Maslow's (1970) theory on motivation and its importance to employee engagement and leadership. Motivation theory by Maslow, Herzberg, and Vroom were the major theoretical propositions of this study. Shuck and Herd examined a conceptual link between meeting and understanding employee needs and the use of emotional intelligence as a leadership competency, according to Maslow (1970). Shuck and Herd posited that according to the application of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, a leader does not necessarily do the work of meeting a follower's needs. Rather, a follower is motivated by their lowest level of unsatisfied need. In other words, employees look to

leadership for direction, inspiration, and guidance. The rationale for this study's theoretical foundation considered Maslow's hierarchy of needs as well as motivation related to employees and their attachment to organizational vision. Motivation theory relates to this study via the inherent motivation of all employees in various organizational environments to excel, achieve, and receive recognition, which informed the research questions of this study. This study was designed to explore the contributing factors within organizations that cultivate and foster positive motivation, thus expanding research on motivation theory.

Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1968) noted that five types of needs motivate people. Ranked in a hierarchy, they are: physiological needs, safety and security needs, belongingness needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs, and they were considered when developing interview questions related to EVI. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory has two underlying principles: (a) everyone starts at the bottom and attempts to move up the pyramid of needs and (b) a higher-level need activates when the one immediately below it in the hierarchy is met (Maslow, 1968).

The roots of Maslow's two levels of basic needs, such as the need for food, water, and health (physiological), and security, and stability (safety), are biological. Maslow's higher-order needs are the need for love and affection as well as a sense of belonging (social), which should play a role in employee motivation within an organization. According to Maslow (1968), as humans ascend the ladder of hierarchical needs, they seek to attain respect, prestige, and recognition (ego/esteem). Once humans have

achieved the satisfaction of these needs, humans search for the ultimate fulfillment of growth, creativity, and the ability to use skills appropriately (self-actualization). This fulfillment of growth, creativity and the ability to use skills appropriately can be most apparent in the work environment.

Maslow referred to the first four levels of this pyramid of needs, as *deficit needs* identifying life sustaining human needs, where humans cannot survive without them. A deficiency in these needs would create crisis. The fifth and final level of his pyramid are the *being needs,* where self-actualization occurs (Maslow, 1968).

Bandura's social learning theory highlights the significance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Bandura (1977) stated, "Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do" (Bandura, 1977, p. 22). Bandura stated that at varying stages of life, humans tend to model their behavior to other humans when considering who to *be* but is cautious to say that people do not passively absorb standards of behavior from whatever influences they experience. They must select from numerous evaluations prescribed and modeled by different individuals, as well as by the same individual in differing circumstances.

Conversely, Maslow (1968) stated that a self-actualizing individual who has achieved basic needs gratification is far less dependent on the environment, less beholden to it, far more autonomous, and more self-directed (Maslow, 1968). Maslow further stated that "man is ultimately not molded or shaped into humanness or taught to be human, the role of the environment is ultimately to permit him or help him to actualize

his own potentialities, not its potentialities" (Maslow, 1968, p. 176). In defining the environment where humans must attain self-awareness, Maslow recognized that the need for safety, belongingness, love relation and respect can only be satisfied only by other people, that is, from outside a person. It is because of this that deficiency motivated persons must be afraid of the environment, since there is always the possibility that it may fail or disappoint them (Maslow, 1968).

Maslow (1968) further posited that human motives are hierarchically structured, and their arrangement within the hierarchy defined by their respective levels of urgency/intensity/priority. Maslow defined these motives as *proponent* motives, where higher motives do not appear as universally as the more clamorous motives of hunger thirst. This does not mean that they are merely secondary and derivative; it means only that they are less proponent. In this instance, the motivation of development within the human is relative to the rankings as proponent motives. In other words, as a human develops and subconsciously focuses on satisfying the basic needs (proponent), the human might negate other needs that could be satisfied and supported by organizations that present themselves as enablers of development, but in fact are unknowingly obstacles. Maslow (1954) defined motivation by two premises: (a) human beings by nature want to acquire things that they do not have, and (b) once one set of needs is met, those needs are no longer a motivator.

As it relates to self-actualization, Maslow (1954) stated that the satisfaction of the more proponent motives is what hinders the full development of secondary motives, those motives that bring the human to realize self-awareness, self-actualization. In other

words, human desire (i.e., the need to eat, sleep, and feel safe) supersedes the human

need to *be*. Human desire to reach self-actualization is a part of the core of humans, but

the quest to satisfy the more urgent biological motives eclipses the need to reach self-

awareness. Even though humans desire to *achieve* being, humans will forego that

accolade to satisfy their basic needs. (Maslow, 1954)

Environmental Learning

Bandura (1977), on the other hand, stated that humans are able to direct their

courses of action toward valued goals by arranging the environmental conditions most

likely to elicit appropriate behavior and by creating cognitive aids and self-reinforcing

consequences to sustain it. "Individuals may be told how to go about this process and be

given some initial external support for their efforts, but that does not argue against the

fact that self-produced influences contribute significantly to future goal attainment"

(Bandura, 1977, p. 205).

Bandura (1971a) believed that people do not function in isolation. As social

beings, they observe the conduct of others and the occasions on which there is reward,

disregard, or punishment. They can therefore profit from observed consequences as well

as from their own direct experiences. Previously, Bandura (1963) argued that people

contribute to their own life course by selecting, influencing, and constructing their own

circumstance. Simply put, the motivation to excel and become better humans is natural;

however, the environment plays an integral role in facilitating that success. Organizations

can be a part of this facilitation via better-structured initiatives that foster human

development.

According to Bandura (1977), the development of self-reactive functions gives humans a capacity for self-direction. They do things that give rise to self-satisfaction and self-worth, and they refrain from behaving in ways that evoke self-punishment. When self-condemning consequences outweigh rewarding inducements, external influences are relatively ineffective. On the other hand, if certain courses of action produce stronger rewards than self-censure, the result is cheerless compliance. Humans can abate losses in self-respect for devalued conduct, however, by self-exonerating justifications. Environmental events can either predict other environmental occurrences, or serve as predictors of the relation between actions and outcomes (Bandura, 1977).

In considering Maslow's (1968) position, he stated that the goal for the human would be to become self-aware, a self-actualized with the help of his proponent motives, aided by the environment (organizations). This example lends itself to this passage. Maslow (1968) stated:

> So far as motivational status is concerned, healthy people have sufficiently gratified their basic needs for safety, belongingness, love, respect and self-esteem so that they are motivated primarily by trends to self-actualization (defined as ongoing actualization of potentials, capacities and talents, as fulfillment of mission (or call, fate, destiny, or vocation), as a fuller knowledge of, and acceptance of, the person's own intrinsic nature, as an unceasing trend toward unity, integration or synergy within the person. (p. 31)

According to Maslow (1968), basic needs relate to each other hierarchically, so that the fulfillment of one leads to and allows work toward fulfillment of the next-higher

one. Once fulfilled in these needs, the human individual can turn to higher realization in a

state of independence from the environment, realization that involves self-direction

where humans feel *accepted* and their self-efficacy exists. The satisfaction of the higher

need (self-actualization) is not just another level, but also the purpose of one's whole life.

In the development of organizations, leaders should understand and nurture Maslow's

theory of self-actualization, as these individuals, who are hard to find, would only serve

to perpetuate an organization in a positive manner, thus affecting social change.

Maslow (1968) stated that human development is not entirely natural in that

humans develop via an uncovered and actualized *will to health* which urges one to grow,

to develop one's potential, to actualize one's unique inner nature and thus to realize one's

identity. If one represses this urge or denies growth, one will experience an *intrinsic guilt*

that is a natural feeling of self-betrayal. However, the basic (physical) need for safety and

security operates on a psychological level as a fear of growth and a defensive regression

to the safety of the familiar past. This fear of going forward into new situations prevents

growth.

According to Bandura, Erikson, and Maslow, humans require either development

via stages or development via environments. Erikson (1959) stated:

> For the first component of a healthy personality, I nominate a sense of basic trust,
>
> which I think is an attitude toward oneself and the world derived from the
>
> experiences of the year of life. In fact, all of these criteria, when developed in
>
> childhood and when integrated in adulthood, blend into the total personality. We

have learned to regard basic trust as the cornerstone of a healthy personality. (p. 57)

Maslow on the other hand, theorized that in mastering each stage or level of basic needs, one ascends their realization of self-actualization. Maslow (1968) stated that the person whose basic deficiency needs is stably satisfied would see the world-reality in all its aspects-more clearly (Maslow, 1968). According to Maslow (1968), such a person will no longer be making deficiency-motivated demands on reality, and will not drive deficiency-motivated fears and suspicions. Hence, the interaction with oneself, with other persons, and with the world at-large will be more accepting, more capable of love and appreciation, and overall, just plain more enjoyable. This is the centermost part of what Maslow described as self-actualization (Maslow, 1968).

As Maslow and Erikson viewed each stage of development as a crisis, Erikson theorized the end of adolescence is the stage of an overt identity crisis. Erikson noted that human identity occurs throughout a lifetime and unconsciously to both the human and society. The root of human identity is self-recognition as a baby (Erikson, 1959). Maslow, on the other hand theorized that human development as it relates to full development and *being* is ongoing, beginning as young adults, contrasting Erikson's end of adolescence. Similar to Freud's view on deep human moral nature, Maslow also believed that the psychological foundation of human nature allows for good deeds and decent behavior. Rather, when humans behave poorly they are simply reacting to stress or pain of some sort and are being deprived of love and esteem, which are basic needs (Maslow, 1968).

Motivation Factors

Herzberg's (1943) work categorized motivation into two factors: motivator and hygiene. Motivator or intrinsic factors such as achievement and recognition produce job satisfaction. Hygiene or extrinsic factors such as pay and job security, produce job dissatisfaction. The development of the interview questions considered Herzberg's two-factor theory ensuring the questions read correctly so to not assume job dissatisfaction. In other words, employees who believe their pay is inadequate, their supervisor does not care about them, or that the working conditions are poor may perform less than expected by management because of their dissatisfaction with their job. This stems from a leadership structure that does not consider employee work environments thus resulting in poor employee job satisfaction. On the other hand, employees need to know that there are opportunities within the organization to achieve personal growth, recognition, and more responsibility. Herzberg's two-factor theory supported the development of the interview questions as the interview questions relate to employee motivation and look to discover EVI motivators.

Employee Performance

Vroom (1964) based his theory on the belief that employee effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to rewards. Rewards may be either positive or negative. The more positive the reward the more likely the employee will be highly motivated. Conversely, the more negative the reward, the less likely the employee will be motivated. Interview questions take into consideration Vroom's theory of employee motivation to discern how employees perceive their organization in terms of expectancy.

In other words, the interview questions will help understand what employees expect from the organization as well as understand what leadership of the organization expects from employees. The goal is to ensure that the organization leadership does not expect more than they are giving employees in terms of leadership, motivation and vision inspiration.

Literature Review

The essence of leadership in organizations is influencing and facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. Leaders can improve the performance of a team or organization by influencing the processes that determine performance. An important objective in much of the leadership research has been to identify aspects of behavior that explain leader influence on the performance of a team, work unit, or organization. To be highly useful for designing research and formulating theories, leader behavior categories should be observable, distinct, measurable, and relevant for many types of leaders, and taxonomies of leader behaviors should be comprehensive but parsimonious (Yukl, 2012).

This literature review examined and synthesized relevant literature about organization vision and leadership skills and included research of organization information sharing, leader emotion, employee participation, and motivation, and work engagement. This literature review also included relationships between research articles and this study. The literature review set the foundation for the requirements of Chapter 3 as it relates to the research design of this study, the population of this study, the survey instrument, and that data collection and analysis procedures.

Organization Vision

Rupprecht et al. (2013) provided confirmation that leaders first create a vision and mission, shared values, and a strategy to proceed before they can inspire and empower employees. According to Rupprecht et al. (2013), vision and mission, shared values, and strategy predicted inspiration, motivation, and influence, while empowerment partially mediated the relationship between vision and mission, shared values, and strategy, and employee attitudes and behaviors.

Rupprecht et al. (2013) focused on validation of a leadership measure called the General Inventory for Lasting Leadership (GILL), developed using Gill's (2006) framework as a guide. Gill (2006, 2012) proposed that (a) vision and mission; (b) shared values; (c) strategy; (d) empowerment; and (f) influence, motivation, and inspiration (engagement) are the essential components or aspects of effective leadership. Originally, Gill (2006) emphasized five facets of leadership conduct, whereas Gill's (2012) newer conceptualization of leadership separated vision and mission into two theoretical aspects and renamed the influencing, motivating, and inspiring conceptual facet as engagement. Gill's (2006) framework supported the perspective by Rupprecht et al. (2013). According to Gill (2006), recognizing a vision and mission includes "defining and communicating a meaningful vision" and creating a mission "through which the organization will pursue" this vision (p. 91). Gill (2006) stated that the development of a vision and mission provides an important broad-based understanding of group, departmental, or organizational goals. According to Gill (2006), creating shared values involves "identifying, displaying, and reinforcing" the values that follow the mission and vision

(p. 91). Having a consistent group vision, mission, and strategy improves the effectiveness of creating shared values in a group (Rupprecht et al., 2013).

Gill (2006) further proposed that empowering employees involves making sure that they are able to complete tasks and providing them adequate means or knowledge to complete their work. Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, and Bravo (2011) contributed by identifying that job performance and effectiveness improved by training employees or giving employees personal development opportunities. Rupprecht (2013) stated that effective leaders are able to empower employees to behave in ways that are consistent with the strategic vision of the group, department, or organization.

On a similar note, the importance of communication in leaders is important as presented by Carton et al. (2014) who posited that increases in performance gained from a shared purpose are most likely because leaders simultaneously communicate a large amount of vision imagery (e.g., words that describe people, colors, and actions) and a small number of values. The vivid detail gleaned from image-based rhetoric about the future (e.g., "to one day see a city full of hybrid cars") leads employees to share a similar mental image. The limited amount of conceptual detail gained from a focused value system (e.g., "our core value is environmental sustainability") provides meaning construed in a consistent way by different employees.

Carton et al. (2014) conducted an archival study of 151 hospitals and an experiment with 62 groups of full-time employees and found two dysfunctional practices: leaders tend to (a) communicate visions without imagery and (b) over-use value-laden rhetoric. Carton et al. (2014) discovered that, although leaders regularly invoke visions

and values in their rhetoric, they tend to do so in an ineffective way. First, leaders typically transmit visions with concepts (e.g., "to become the world's leading seller of luxury goods") rather than images (e.g., "to see customers smiling as they leave our stores"). This causes organizational members to "consider" the distant future rather than "see" the distant future. Martin Luther King's *I Have a Dream* speech is thus the exception rather than the rule, as most of the visions conveyed by organizational leaders are, ironically, not very visionary. Second, leaders tend to impart a number of values so large as to harm employee sense making. In short, leaders tend to construct *blurry* visions rather than vivid ones. Leaders tend to under-utilize imagery and then further obscure the clarity of their rhetoric by over-using values (Carton et al., 2014).

Conversely and related to the scope of this study, Sun, Peng, and Pandey (2014) studied how employees understand perceptions of organizational goal ambiguity; rather the perceived level of person-environment fit relationship to individual perceptions of organizational goals. In other words, do employees understand organization goals relative to their specific work duties? Sun et al. (2014) analyzed questionnaire responses from public and nonprofit organizations that presented employees who see themselves as compatible with coworkers and job requirements perceive lower goal ambiguity in organizations even after controlling for other individual characteristics, such as employees' reported level of role ambiguity, affective organizational commitment, and public service motivation. Sun et al. (2014) explored the influence of employees' compatibility with their working environment, in terms of person-environment fit, on their perceptions of organizational goal ambiguity. According to Sun et al. (2014)

reducing employees' perceptions of goal ambiguity is an essential strategy for improving

employee work-related attitudes and performance in public and nonprofit organizations.

While organizational goal statements serve an important function, employees do not refer

to them on an everyday or even an as-needed basis. Instead, their understanding of

organizational goals informs their day-to-day work activities (Sun et al., 2014).

Involving followers in the communication of a new vision can be critical to its

ultimate adoption as presented by Kohles et al. (2013). Kohles asked 1,500 employees

from a large supermarket chain to complete surveys concerning vision knowledge,

perceptions of the vision's innovation characteristics (i.e., relative advantage,

compatibility, trialability, observability, and complexity), bidirectional leader–follower

communication about the vision, perceived integration of the vision into work behaviors,

and organizational commitment.

One interesting aspect of the research in Kohles et al. (2013) related to the age of

the vision; rather the length of time since the latest version of the vision constructed and

first communicated. Data gathered in Kohles et al. (2013) collected 6 months after top

management communicated a new vision. Followers' perceptions of the vision's novelty,

age, and applicability likely play a critical role in their subsequent motivation to

understand and integrate the vision. In addition, it is important to assess the level of

follower receptivity to a new vision based on previous history; for example, followers

that have experienced high levels of top management turnover and changes in

organizational vision are likely to be much more cynical that a new vision is just the

flavor of the month. As a result, followers are probably less likely to invest significant

amounts of time in modifying their work behaviors in favor of maintaining the status quo (Kohles et al., 2013).

As it relates to vision communication, Johansson, Miller, and Hamrin (2014) developed a theoretical framework and found four central communicative behaviors of leaders (structuring, facilitating, relating, and representing), which are the most important aspects of a leader's communication within, between, and outside an organization. Johansson et al. (2014) also found eight principles of communicative leadership as well as proposed a theoretical grounding definition of a communicative leader. Johansson et al. (2014) defined a communicative leader as someone who engages employees in dialogue, actively shares and seeks feedback, practices participative decision-making, and is open and involved.

Johansson et al. (2014) noted that previous research focused on the communication of CEOs, middle managers, and first-line managers. Leading organizations towards achieving strategic objectives is important for CEOs and organizational leaders in top management teams, who articulate the organization's mission, vision, strategy, and goals. Thus, for CEOs and other leaders participating in top management, structuring and representing behaviors may be more important than developing and interacting behaviors (Johansson et al., 2014). According to Johansson et al. (2014), middle managers link hierarchical levels, actively engage downward and upward communication processes, and communicate laterally with their peers. Middle managers may contribute to develop a shared understanding in the unit through engaging

lower-level managers and coworkers in dialogue (Thomas, Sargent, & Hardy (2011).

Two interlinked discursive activities of middle managers contribute to sense making:

1. "Setting the scene"; and

2. "Performing the conversation" (Rouleau & Balogun, 2011).

Johansson et al. (2014) posited that in this fashion, the theoretical framework of *communicative leadership* has the ambition of accounting for leadership on top, middle and team levels while connecting to and providing a link to previous theories on communication competence.

Johansson et al. (2014) proposed framework and set of principles are leader centric and treat employees as passive followers (Heide & Simonsson, 2011). According to Johansson et al. (2014), the depiction of communicative leadership associates the relationship with employees with different backgrounds and experiences, as well as the organizational context (Day, 2011). Johansson et al. (2014) created a framework furthering the study of leader communication and development of communication competence. Their study is relevant to this study in that findings of survey results within this study produce evidence of minor leader communication within the ranks of management.

Kopaneva and Sias (2015) suggested most research touches the leadership side of developing and installing mission and vision statements, but does not consider employee views, perceptions, or motivation to follow organizational vision. Their research proposed that leaders must guide followership through vision and mission statements making the statements clear and easy for employees to follow as well as allowing the

statements to guide follower behavior that will positively motivate employees toward a common goal. There have been many traditional studies exemplifying the importance of clear and exciting vision statements that are valuable to leaders as well as employees (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015). Researchers have been studying the importance of effectively communicating vision and mission statements and their positive effect via formal communication to conclude that these statements help describe for followers the purpose of the organization as well as the organization's determination for survival (Babnik, Breznik, Dermol, & Trunk, 2014).

Cooren et al. (2013) noted that groups perpetuate their existence by way of reproduction through their agents whether those agents are leaders or employees. Conversely, typical research states that leaders' most important role is to create, develop, and distribute mission and visions statements and employees are simply to read and follow those statements. Tourish (2013) stated, "Leaders develop a monomaniacal conviction that there is the one right way of doing things and believe that they possess an almost divine insight into reality" (p. 28).

Fairhurst (2011) noted that the development of vision and mission statements is still something from which employees do not participate. On the other hand, employees can become involved in other areas of an organization. Tourish (2013) stated, "Those forms of empowerment that are considered relate exclusively to how those in follower roles can make the vision and strategies of their leaders more effective" (p. 12). Low employee motivation relates to leadership not realizing employees' failed interpretation of vision and mission statements (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015). Failing to realize how much

employees contribute to the substance of an organization is failure of leadership (Chaput, Brummans, & Cooren, 2011). Likewise, leaders are responsible for the formulation of statements when not including employees in their formation, communication, and execution (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015).

Kopaneva and Sias (2015) noted that vision and mission statements fail to align based on varying perceptions of alignment between leaders and followers relative to what is actually happening within the organization. The foundation of this study helps support future research on employees' personal attachment and development of organization vision because "everyone involved has a stake in its authoring" (Taylor & Van Every, 2011, p. 54).

In reviewing Kopaneva and Sias (2015) for relevance to this study, they identified a lack of similarity pointing to two different views on the construction requirements for vision coming from employees and leaders. This highlights the need to investigate employee personal attachment to organization vision goals. Kopaneva and Sias (2015) discovered that employees have little understanding of vision themes (17.9%) versus leadership intended themed vision statements. Equally, leadership developed vision statements fell below half of what employees understood vision themes to be. In other words, vision statements did not help leaders to achieve the desired unity within the organization (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015). Brummans, Cooren, Robichaud, and Taylor (2014) acknowledged that translations can begin and end in any order and that all translations are necessary for a "complex organization to exist" (p. 177).

Kopaneva and Sias (2015) revealed a potential miscommunication between leadership and employees' comprehension of the organization' mission and vision statements, which is that the messages in the company's mission and vision might have been too complex for employees to fully understand. This was evidence of Brummans et al. (2014) statement that, "although all translations are problematic, the most problematic of all is translating how the purposes i.e., mission, of the organization are translated into the many conversations of its own communities of practice" (p. 182). This also reinforces Fairhurst (2011) comments that vision statements should saturate all conversations and motivations of all followers.

Kopaneva and Sias (2015) revealed that leaders typically view organizations from a larger perspective than do employees, which is significant in considering how leaders and employees think and talk about an organization as well as how they are differently motivated to move the organization forward (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015). Kopaneva and Sias also indicated that employee motivation relates to employees feeling part of the organization's mission (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015). As employees differ in their understanding and perception of vision and mission statements, this typifies the notion that leaders and followers need to develop better communicative relationships in order to synchronize, matching efforts to move the organization forward (Tourish, 2013). Kopaneva and Sias (2015) findings reveal that some organization simply write mission and visions statement to appease the public as opposed to creating and developing statements that help cultivate purpose and direction for employees. The authors suggested

that leadership review the content and purpose of their statements to ensure reality within the organization.

Sarros, Cooper, and Santora (2011) investigated the relationships among leadership vision, organizational culture, and support for innovation in not-for-profit (NFP) and for-profit (FP) organizations. Sarros et al. (2011) posited that in NFPs, a socially responsible cultural orientation facilitates the relationship between leadership vision and organizational support for innovation, whereas in FPs, a competitive cultural orientation mediates this relationship. In an empirical study, Sarros et al. (2011) explored a survey of 1,448 managers and senior executives who are members of the Australian Institute of Management. Over 20,000 members of the Australian Institute of Management (AIM), the largest professional association of managers in Australia, surveyed through a mail survey. The survey was limited to the 290 managers of NFPs, and 1,158 managers in FP organizations who formed a majority component of the 2,380 total respondents. Most of the managers in the survey worked in organizations with fewer than 500 employees.

Sarros et al. (2011) revealed NFPs scored higher on a socially responsible cultural orientation where in in comparison, FPs scored more highly on a competitive culture orientation. Other findings in Sarros et al. (2011) revealed that leadership vision and support for innovation partially mediated by socially responsible cultures in NFPs and by a competitive culture (Sarros et al., 2011). There is significance in their findings by way of development of leaders responsible for sustaining organizational growth and competitiveness during times of substantial social and economic turmoil. When times are

problematic and workers feel their job security threatened, transformational leaders able

to articulate vision and engage workers in that vision also help build strong, creative, and

competitive businesses, regardless of the organizational sector; as a result, creativity and

innovation are encouraged (Sarros et al., 2011). Their study suggested that helping

leaders better articulate their organizational visions is a worthwhile effort, because these

leaders engage their workers in the strategic orientation of their organizations and build

innovative and creative enterprises as a result (Sarros et al., 2011).

 According to Sarros et al. (2011), transformational leaders who have the capacity

to define a vision for their organization and have that vision accepted and acted upon as

anticipated both individually and organizationally are another proposition. Sarros et al.

(2011) revealed that the formulation and then implementation of vision is a considerably

different proposition in FP compared with NFP organizations. Sarros et al. (2011) posited

that NFPs are more likely to benefit from leader vision that encourages *buy in* to a set of

principles that have social as well as economic implications, and which run counter to the

commercial imperatives of private enterprises.

 Grant and Hofmann (2011) presented an interesting study that is relevant to this

study in that they proposed that the responsibility for inspiring employees might not

always lie in the words of authority figures. When leaders and managers seek to show

employees how their work benefits others, it may be most fruitful to ask beneficiaries

(other managers) to deliver particular messages directly. This evidence may be

particularly reassuring to leaders who lack charisma or introverted managers who feel

uncomfortable speaking in public: rather than stepping outside their comfort zones, they

can outsource the task to knowledgeable beneficiaries who can share their own personal

experiences (Grant & Hoffman, 2011). This might be apparent in the organizations

participating in this study. Grant and Hoffman (2011) posited that one of the best ways

for leaders to create these *defining moments* for employees is to leverage beneficiaries'

capabilities to communicate credible messages about the impact of the organization's

products and services. In a slight departure from traditional leadership recommendations,

when leaders are seeking to inspire employees by conveying how their work makes a

difference, it may be productive for them to outsource aspects of their communications to

beneficiaries (Grant & Hoffman, 2011).

Taking communication seriously is not merely a call for attending more explicitly

to communication as an additional variable but involves a redirection in our

understandings of organizations and organizing processes (Kuhn, 2012). Park (2012)

posited that sharing management information with employees through self-managing

teams or group incentives leads to organizational commitment. Park results suggested

that a company should share information related to the company's operations with

employees when it adopts employee-participation plans to improve employees'

organizational commitment and company performance (Park, 2012). Formally adopting

such plans without information sharing may not improve those important outcomes. Park

(2012) noted that when a company introduces employee-participation plans, the plans

should be broad-based in order to make real gains. When measuring both participation

plans by the proportion of employees covered by each plan (rather than whether a

workplace had each plan in place), the plans had stronger relationships with information

sharing, organizational commitment, and performance (Park, 2012). In addition, when introducing participation plans, management should provide employees with considerable discretion for decision-making and reasonable financial incentives (Park, 2012).

Nam Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) empirically investigated the relationship between leadership behaviors and knowledge management practices. They specifically sought to study the influence of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors on knowledge management and the moderating effect of organizational culture in small to medium sized businesses in Australia. Their research found that both transformational and transactional leadership positively relate to knowledge management practices, they presented that charismatic leadership, and reward leadership behaviors have greater influence on all the dimensions of knowledge management practices. Nam Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) also revealed that charismatic leadership and reward leadership behaviors have greater influence on all the dimensions of knowledge management practices. Nam Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) further presented that the relationship between transactional leadership and knowledge management practices moderate hierarchy and mission organizational culture, which presented solid evidence in support of the moderating role of organizational culture on the relationship between transactional leadership and knowledge management.

Nam Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) contribute to this study by way of noting that the creation of a successful knowledge management system depends on how well leaders can balance transactional and transformational behaviors, authoritarian and participative systems, and task and relationship orientation (Nam Nguyen & Mohamed, 2011).

According to this research, leaders who choose to lead as transactional leaders will work within an organization's current culture and follow existing organizational norms, values, and procedures; rather, transactional leadership behaviors reinforce current knowledge management practices. Transformational leadership behaviors on the other hand, allow top executives to adapt the organizational culture and realign it with the new vision, when needed (Nam Nguyen & Mohamed, 2011). This research further found that charisma and contingent reward are the most effective leadership behaviors for knowledge management practices. The researchers further stated that leaders should focus on developing charisma and contingent reward leadership behaviors, relative to the organizational situation. Leaders should build respect and trust based on working with individuals, on setting up and determining agreements in order to achieve specific goals, on clarifying expectations, and on providing rewards for the successful completion of tasks.

Nam Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) further contributed to this study by way of highlighting the moderating role of organizational culture. The results of their research indicated that the effectiveness of leadership behaviors were contingent upon the type of organizational culture suggesting leaders should use this mechanism effectively in order to establish the forms of thinking and the levels of motivation and behaviors that are important for the organization (Nam Nguyen & Mohamed, 2011). According to their research, when knowledge management is in focus, leaders must devote time and attention to knowledge activities and issues, and they can do so through every-day

behaviors that send a clear message, something that particularly important (Nam Nguyen & Mohamed, 2011).

On the other hand, an interesting study found in Zhang, Wang, and Shi (2012) where the researchers here examined the congruence effect of leader and follower proactive personality on leader member exchange (LMX) quality, which in turn influences follower job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job performance. Zhang et al. (2012) relates to Nam Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) via organizational cultures and the role played by leaders in promoting employee proactivity at work, which in turn augments culture. Zhang et al. (2012) posited that organizations could benefit more from employee proactivity by matching leaders with followers on proactive personality, a disposition that many organizations deem pivotal for innovation and sustainable competitive advantage.

Alternatively, research by Halevy, Berson, and Galinsky (2011) reported five experiments from which they conclude that participants prefer visionary (their operationalization of charisma) over group representative (their operationalization of prototypically) leaders, especially in times of crisis. Their study also concluded that visionary leaders could better regulate followers' moods and strengthen followers' group identification than could representative leaders. Finally, their study concluded that followers are more willing to endorse change when promoted by a visionary than representative leader (Hogg et al., 2012).

Leader Emotion

Despite the importance that effective leader communication of visions, value-laden messages, and goals seem to have in leadership, little research about which leader behavior is conducive to effective persuasive communication of desired end states exists. Similar to Halevy et al. (2011), four experiments in Venus, Stam, and Van Knippenberg (2013) found that follower performance was highest when there was a match between leader emotion and end state goals in terms of implied regulatory focus (promotion vs. prevention). Three of these experiments tested the underlying mechanism of this pattern and found that leader enthusiasm (agitation) primed followers with promotion (prevention) focus, which in turn generated high follower performance when leaders communicated end states that sustained this focus. Venus et al. (2013) posited that the facilitative role of leader emotion lies in priming followers with the same regulatory focus as that implied by the communicated end state, which will enhance motivation and performance by creating regulatory fit, by sustaining followers' primed mindset. Venus et al. (2013) found the predicted match between leader emotion and desired end state when leaders communicated visions, value-laden messages, and concrete goals.

In the results of four studies, Venus et al. (2013) showed that effective vision communication varied as a function of the interaction between vision and leader emotion. They also showed the pattern of findings consistent with a regulatory fit interpretation and not with a valence match explanation. Leader enthusiasm as well a leader frustration led to higher performance for promotion visions than for prevention visions, whereas delivering a message with agitation led to higher performance for prevention visions than

for promotion visions. Venus et al. (2013) established that the interaction between vision focus and leader emotion attributed to a regulatory fit effect presenting that leader emotion primed an emotion, congruent follower regulatory focus. In line with the principle of regulatory fit, high follower performance resulted when there was a fit between the primed regulatory focus and leaders' vision focus (Venus et al., 2013).

Venus et al. (2013) showed that leader emotional displays through priming follower regulatory focus relate to higher performance and persistence when leaders infuse their persuasive messages with congruent values. Venus et al. (2013) showed that leader emotion facilitates leaders in communicating not only abstract goals such as visions and message-incorporated values but also concrete goals. Venus et al. (2013) also showed that leaders could effectively communicate concrete goals by displaying emotions that induce a regulatory focus implied by the communicated goal. Study 4 reconfirms the role of leader emotion as a useful tool for leaders in effectively communicating desired end states (Venus et al., 2013).

Similar to Venus et al (2013), Eberly and Fong (2013) examined cognitive and emotional reactions to leaders' expressions of positive and negative emotions, and demonstrated how these reactions affect perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Eberly and Fong (2013) showed that follower interdependence (dispositional or manipulated) plays an important moderating role in understanding reactions to leaders' emotions. Results of their three studies demonstrated that followers not only share their leaders' emotions, but also make attributions about the sincerity of their leaders' intentions, and these attributions affect their perceptions of their leader's effectiveness. Results in their

study also demonstrated that interdependent followers are sensitive to leader emotional valence and react more positively to leader positivity; non-interdependent followers do not differentiate positive from negative emotions in their leader.

Eberly and Fong (2013) noted the importance of incorporating followers' affective reactions into leadership emotion theory as well as their cognitive reactions (leaders lead via the heart and mind). In their study, they found that followers differentiated positive from negative emotions when interdependence was salient, but did not do so when interdependence was not salient. Expressing negative emotions within an interdependent context generated the least positive follower emotions, the most insincere follower intentionality attributions, and the least effective leadership perceptions. This suggested according to researchers that interdependent followers are more motivated to distance themselves from negative leaders; due to their interdependence, their leader's negativity reflects upon their selves, possibly triggering a cognitive shift towards less interdependence in an effort to reduce cognitive dissonance (Eberly & Fong 2013).

Emotional expression plays an important role in our social lives and can be especially true for leaders who hold greater power as compared with their followers (Chi & Ho, 2014, p. 1051). Based on the Emotions as Social Information (EASI) model, Chi and Ho (2014) studied the effectiveness of leaders' adverse emotional expression on employee performance by probing the controlling effects of follower conscientiousness, agreeableness, power distance orientation and perceived leader power. Chi and Ho (2014) gathered information from 40 companies from various industry types using a multisource, multiphase research design comprised of 191 leader-follower dyads, consisting of 86

leaders and 191 followers. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis show that followers' conscientiousness and agreeableness positively moderate the relationship between leader negative emotional expression and follower performance (Chi & Ho, 2014). When employees are low in power distance orientation and perceived leader power, the relationship between leader negative emotional expression and follower performance becomes negative.

Chi and Ho (2014) used the emotional as social information (EASI) model (Van Kleef, 2009) to explain the boundary conditions of the leader negative emotional expression-follower performance relationship. According to Chi and Ho (2014), the EASI model provides theoretical explanations regarding how both individual factors and social factors influence observers' (i.e., followers') processing and reactions to others (i.e. leaders') emotional expressions. Chi and Ho (2014) integrated both individual moderators and social moderators (i.e., perceived leader power and follower power distance orientation) into their research theoretical framework.

Chi and Ho (2014) conceptualized their study via the theoretical notion that "leader negative emotional expressions are observable displays of the leader's negative emotions; leaders may display negative emotions verbally or nonverbally when interacting with their followers, which in turn can influence follower behaviors and performance" (Visser, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef, & Wisse, 2013, p. 185). Although past research has presented that negative emotional behavior from leaders reduce employee motivation to follow as well as perception of leader competency, other research

has posited the negative leader behavior can be a benefit under particular circumstances (Eberly & Fong, 2013; Visser et al., 2013).

Chi and Ho (2014) found that the results of negative leader behavior effects on employee performance based on individual personalities of employees as well as the context of such negative emotional behavior. For individuals results show that high-conscientiousness employees realize higher performance when leaders display negative emotions toward them. This could be because conscientious employees are goal-achievement oriented and self-controlled (Javaras, Schaefer, & van Reekum, 2012); when leaders engage in negative behavior towards employees, employees may attribute negative behavior to a performance deficiency, such that they become motivated to improve their performance. On the other hand, low-conscientiousness employees are less inspired to achieve difficult goals and are less likely to recover from negative events than are conscientious followers (Jensen-Campbell, Knack, Waldrip, & Campbell, 2007).

The results of Chi and Ho (2014) presented that leader negative emotional expression is more effective with regard to the performance of agreeable followers than to that of disagreeable ones. When facing leaders' negative emotions, it is plausible that agreeable followers use performance improvement as a means to reduce arguments and maintain good relationships with the leader. In contrast, disagreeable followers tend to be argumentative and temperamental, and in turn more likely to react to leader negative emotional expression by engaging in negative performance behaviors (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999).

On the contrary, Chi and Ho (2014) did present that when employees feel their leaders as powerful, power distance orientation negatively controls the relationship between leader negative emotional expression and employee performance. Based on the findings from the post-hoc analysis in Chi and Ho (2014), "it is plausible that followers exhaust their emotional resources coping with leaders' expressions of negative emotions when they work under powerful leaders, which in turn reduces their inner resources to achieve high performance" (Chi & Ho, 2014, p. 1066).

Finally, and similar to the above mentioned studies, Mayfield, Mayfield, and Sharbrough (2015) used motivating language theory as a foundation to clarify how top leaders can construct and transmit strategic vision communications and related values messages to improve organizational performance. As the previous mentioned research discussed leader emotion, Mayfield et al. (2015) contributed potential frameworks for organizational-level motivating language implementation, diffusion, and future empirical analysis of motivating language theory in leader strategic vision and related values communications. Mayfield et al. (2015) developed a conceptual framework for analyzing and improving a vital top leader role: the clear and effective communication of an organizational vision and related values statements to internal and external stakeholders. Mayfield et al. (2015) suggested the necessary flexibility and utility for fulfilling top leader strategic vision related communication tasks, and the potential to enhance organizational performance, augment organizational reputation and to increase external and internal stakeholder satisfaction. Mayfield et al. (2015) demonstrated that some

successful organizations in fact do include empathetic phrases in their strategic vision and values messages.

Employee Participation

Cho and Park (2011) sought to answer two questions in their research; "Does trust affect employee satisfaction and organizational commitment by mediating management practices" and "To what extent are the three types of trust—trust in management, trust in supervisors, and trust in co-workers-distinctive in determining satisfaction and commitment"? Cho and Park (2011) focused on the 2003 Employee Attitude Survey implemented by the U.S. Federal Aviation Administration (FAA). Simply stated, this research investigated the role of trust within by examining the relationships among several managerial practices, trust, and employee attitudes, including employee satisfaction and organizational commitment. According to Cho and Park (2011), there are many trust relationships within organizations and their research tested whether each trust has a positive association with the given outcomes and which trust has the largest influence within the FAA. Cho and Park (2011) noted that trust in management had the strongest ties to both outcomes where according to this study; trust in management is substantially associated with employee satisfaction and Organizational commitment.

Cho and Park (2011) found that 23% of the respondents gave positive responses for trust in management, where 56% in their study gave a positive response for trust in immediate supervisors, and 62% of respondents in their study gave positive responses for their trust in coworkers. Trust in supervisors also played a significant role in employee attitudes in Cho and Park (2011) as bonds with top management and frontline workers,

supervisors' activities (delegating and clarifying goals earned subordinates' trust) influencing positive employee job satisfaction but still showing signs of weak commitment. These results prove the need to pay more attention to building trust among employees and management developing stronger levels of commitment (Cho & Park, 2011), and this study is relevant to this study for this reason.

Gao, Janssen, and Shi (2011) explored how employees' trust in their leader interacted with empowering leader behaviors in promoting employee voice. Gao et al. (2011) used data collected from 314 employees in the telecommunication industry in China discovered that the relationship between leader trust and employee voice became more positive when empowering leadership was higher rather than lower. Gao et al. (2011) also found this moderating effect of empowering leadership in the relationship between leader trust and employee voice for three different types of empowering leader behaviors, namely, participative decision making, informing, and coaching (Gao et al., 2011).

Gao et al. (2011) posited that employees who trust their leader are likely to feel safe and comfortable about the ways in which the leader will respond to their voice, thereby increasing the likelihood that they will actually engage in expressing their opinions and ideas about workplace issues, actions of others, or needed changes. If employees have low trust in their leader, employees may believe that coming up with their concerns and suggestions about critical work affairs is too risky, which may lead them to choose to remain silent on the subject in the workplace.

According to Gao et al. (2011), trust in leadership may induce beliefs among employees that the leadership has excellent leader skills and is doing a good job in maintaining a favorable work environment, leading employees to feel less urgency to focus on recognizing and voicing problems, irregularities, and possibilities for improvements. Moreover, employees might be concerned that their leader could perceive criticism and comments as a lack of trust in his or her leadership abilities, which might inhibit employees from delivering their voice.

Cicek (2013) identified that a mission statement should capture an organization's unique and enduring purpose, practices, and core values. A well-crafted mission statement has been attributed the power (a) to communicate the organization's direction and purpose, (b) to serve as a control mechanism, (c) to guide and focus decision making, (d) to create a balance between the competing interests of various stakeholders, and (e) to motivate and inspire organizational members (Bart & Tabone, 2000).

Cicek (2013) further noted in surveying 345 blue-collar employees of eight firms operating in manufacturing industry in Turkey that when organization shareholders and members have a shared vision, they have the same perception about how to integrate strategic resources and how to interact with each other. Analysis by means of a 5-point Likert type scale identified the effect of balance between job demands and control given on shared mission and vision by the surveyed blue-collar employees and posited that vision statements that include values also increase employee participation which ultimately results in organizational efficiencies (Cicek, 2013). Cicek further advocated organization leaders make it a top priority to allow for input and to keep followers well

informed of the overall visions of their respective organizations. An opportunity for further research as posited by Cicek would be to review job content within organizations as it relates to overall structure and organization of job related factors contributing to increased employee participation.

Cicek (2013) revealed that job demand (emotion) has the most significant effect on the shared vision in a negative direction. Relatively the lowest effect is control perceived by employees on the job in terms of time-salary. Emotional job demands experienced by blue-collar employees cause them to identify with organization vision. However, there is a positive relationship between the operation dimension of job demand and sharing vision with organization. In as much as blue-collar employees work at an operation level, working as expected by management and increment in these expectations get the employees to perceive themselves as critical role for organization. The blue-collar employees think that increment in job demands expected by management is important for organization's identification with organization's future position namely reaching vision expectations related to employee's identification with organization vision. The blue-collar employees seeing themselves as important for the organization identify with organization vision.

Sharma, Mohapatra, and Rai (2013) studied the level of managerial motivation among employees in a multinational organization in India and the stimulus of their motivation. The total managerial work force of this organization consisted of 1,760 personnel belonging to three entities (divisions) of the organization. Managers participating in this study queried via online surveys where initial level of motivation

toward organization commitment was quite high. Five hundred and seven managers filled the questionnaire, which represents a response rate of over one fourth (28.8%) of the total population. Sharma et al. (2013) aimed at determining the level of organizational commitment and identifying commitment predictors. The variables used as the potential predictors of commitment include two personal attributes of employees (locus of control and work ethic) besides certain demographic factors. The situational factors used as the potential predictors consisted of a number of dimensions of perceived organizational climate.

Sharma et al. (2013) used organizational commitment as the dependent variable assessed five items that respondents rated each item on a 4-point rating scale: strongly agree (3), agree (2), disagree (1) and strongly disagree (0). All five items were true-keyed items and were items such as; 'If a friend of mine is considering joining this company, I will certainly encourage him/her to do so'. Sharma et al. (2013) independent variables rated on a 4-point rating scale: strongly agree (3), agree (2), disagree (1) and strongly disagree (0).

Sharma et al. (2013) found that the level of organizational commitment of managerial employees is 62.67%, which when compared with similar studies conducted by the researchers in other Indian organizations reported the mean score of 69.47% for organizational commitment. Sharma et al. (2013) are similar with other Indian research revealing that work ethic, communication, employee recognition, job content, objectivity, training, and development as significant predictors of organizational commitment (Sharma et al., 2013).

Sharma et al. (2013) obtained results highlight the need of a greater focus on work ethic and its positive relationship with organizational commitment. It is important to note that in comparison to organizational and corporate ethics, personal work ethics research does not exist. Sharma et al. (2013) noted that communication plays a significant role in improving organizational commitment of employees. Sharma et al. (2013) also presented that employees provided with more opportunities for training and career development are more committed towards the organization. Sharma et al. (2013) further posited that in order to increase commitment level among employees, organization management should ensure impartial treatment of employees, fair recruitment policies, and consistent adherence to service rules and policies.

Wang et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 117 independent samples in over 113 primary studies to show that transformational leadership was positively related to individual-level follower performance across criterion types, with a stronger relationship for contextual performance than for task performance across most study settings. Wang et al. (2011) further revealed that transformational leadership related to performance at the team and organization levels. Additionally, both meta-analytic regression and relative importance analyses consistently showed that transformational leadership had an augmentation effect over transactional leadership (contingent reward) in predicting individual-level contextual performance and team-level performance. This research has the potential to clarify the precise ways in which transformational leadership impacts performance and may increase the practical utility of transformational leadership theory (Corley & Gioia, 2011). Moreover, by comparing the relative effects of transformational

and transactional leadership on different types and levels of performance, leaders can learn more about how these two types of leadership may work together to facilitate both effective performance across types and levels (Wang et al. 2011).

Equally, Holten and Brenner (2015) investigated the direct and indirect relationships between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and followers' appraisal of change through manager engagement to find that transformational and transactional leadership styles related to the engagement of managers. Holten and Brenner (2015) found that managers' engagement related to followers' appraisal of change where the two leadership styles also had a direct, long-term effect on followers' change appraisal; positive for transformational leadership and negative for transactional leadership.

Employee Motivation

Satisfaction of members in job performance related to job attitudes like organizational commitment and job satisfaction. When the attitudes of organizational members towards their jobs are not satisfactory, members tend to bear grievance against the organization and their jobs and incubate an intention to leave their current workplace. This means that positive job attitudes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and involvement are significant factors influencing turnover intentions (Kim & Min Park, 2014).

According to Grant (2012), transformational leadership develops employees' performance by motivating them to go beyond self-interest. Grant posited that transformational leadership is most effective in motivating employees when they interact

with the beneficiaries of their work, which highlights how the vision has meaningful consequences for other people.

Mayfield and Mayfield (2012) examined the role of leader motivating language theory as an enhancement of employee self-efficacy and performance. According to Mayfield and Mayfield (2012), leadership language and its effects on employee affect and outcomes have experienced significant advances in research progress and practice in recent years. Communication researchers have explored and developed persuasive framing models for practice to bridge the gap between leader intent and employee outcomes through verbal communication with the prospect of enhancing employee motivation (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012). Using the partial least squares coefficients in this study, results indicated that employee self-efficacy was 34% higher with increased levels of leader motivating language. The same data analysis revealed that employee performance grew by 20% with higher motivating language speech and that employees with higher levels of self-efficacy will perform 10% better than in those cases when self-efficacy was lessened (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012).

Similarly, Cho and Perry (2012) tested how intrinsic motivation influenced employee motivation via managerial trustworthiness, goal directedness, and extrinsic reward expectancy. Their study revealed that employees are intrinsically motivated when leadership is clear in direction and when leadership is trustworthy. The study also identified that strong leadership affected employee satisfaction , which in turn reduces employee intent to leave the organization.

Cho and Perry (2012) noted that managers and supervisors also help develop perceptions of leadership trustworthiness and direction for the organization. As connectors to front line workers and management, managers and supervisors are key in leading organizations by way of the direction of top management. The study findings showed that the more positive the work environment for employees, the less interested employees might become in leaving the organization. In addition, strong leadership as well as a guided leadership supports the notion that a positively motivated employee will not want leave an organization.

For example, Kim and Min Park (2014) noted that public employees are highly motivated when they understand their agency's mission very well and when they perceive a high level of mission compatibility between employees and an organization. This equips employees with a high level of psychological, emotional attachment or normative commitment to their organization. This also helps employees prepare for the potential of multiple career changes, and ultimately increases interpersonal trust and job satisfaction and decreases turnover intentions (Kim & Min Park, 2014).

Azaddin (2011) examined the underlying reasons behind failed mission statements and those failures having significant impact on performance. Azaddin (2011) defined four major domains of the mission statements: definitions, functions, focus, and form. They revealed the contradictions and confusion that surrounds research in this area and the they demonstrated concepts such as mission, vision, values, identity are mixed up with one another, leading to a slow progress in research and underutilization of the power of mission in practice (Azaddin, 2011). Azaddin posited that there should be conceptual

distinction between mission, vision, values, and other related concepts. The author suggested organizations develop and use a guiding statement to describe any statement that integrates more than one of the above-mentioned concepts in practice.

Azaddin (2011) also researched intrinsic motivation and employee intent to leave to confirm that leadership trustworthiness is key when raising employee satisfaction and lowering employee desire to leave. The study indicated that leader trustworthiness cultivates positive motivation and satisfaction. According to this research, motivation and satisfaction are higher relative to the higher levels of trustworthiness. Azaddin also examined turnover intention (employee intent to leave the organization), which under high levels of managerial trustworthiness is insignificant. According to Azaddin, the higher the levels of leader trust and the higher the levels of goal directedness by leaders, the more satisfied are the employees. Azaddin (2011) contributed practical research of employee motivation linked with employee satisfaction. Trust in the organization and trust in management relates to positive employee satisfaction (Azaddin, 2011).

Fernet, Austin, and Vallerand (2012) examined the relationships between job resources, work motivation, emotional exhaustion and occupational commitment, which helped explain the roles of motivational mechanisms in employee functioning. This notion fortified that increased employee motivation derived by preventing exhaustion, increased employee commitment. Their research underscores the importance of work motivation, and more specifically, its role in relation to job resources and employee functioning.

McMahon and Ford (2013) explored leader heuristic transfer (LHT) as a stimulus on employee inspiration. According to McMahon and Ford (2013), previous studies presented varying leadership theories on how intrinsic motivation might influence employee creativity, but few studies have explored how management can improve employee creativity by enhancing ability. LHT is defined as "the conveyance of a leader's experience-based processes for pattern recognition, discovery, and problem solving rules of thumb employees' may adapt for their own creative application" (McMahon & Ford, 2013, p. 69). In their study of 289 surveys, LHT had positive outcomes with employee creativity and LHT showed an influence on creativity (McMahon & Ford, 2013).

Findings from McMahon and Ford (2013) suggested that when leaders consider transferring what they have gleaned from their experiences the result may be greater than the sum of its parts. A leader may have useful problem solving skills but be unaware of, or not tasked with, novel challenges to which those leadership skills would apply. Likewise, a leader's employees may be aware of the novel situation they are facing, but not have the leadership skills by which to engage it unless, or until, the leader transfers his or her experience (McMahon & Ford, 2013).

Work Engagement

Albrecht (2012) studied employee engagement and employee well being in organizational environments and found that job resources significantly influence employee engagement and well-being. According to Albrecht (2012), beyond the provision of job-level resources, organizational and team level resources are key

motivational constructs, which help explain how greater levels of employee engagement and employee wellbeing develop. Additional job resources (e.g. job involvement) and additional up-stream organizational and team climate factors (vision clarity, psychological safety) evaluated for their direct and indirect impact on job resources and engagement (Bakker et al., 2011). Albrecht's (2012) study on job resources influencing employee engagement fortify this study's goal of better understanding how employees personalize their attachment to organization vision.

As it relates to employee engagement, Wang (2011) examined possible connections with organization philosophy and individual personalities and behavior results to present a model that included philosophy-oriented practice, individual adoption of management philosophy, and individual outcomes. Wang (2011) classified two dimensions of management, (a) identification with management philosophy, and (b) sense making of management philosophy where the philosophy-oriented practice might have an influence on the identification with, and sense making of management philosophy. Management philosophy is relevant in this study as employees; at some level, must be able to believe and make sense of what organizational plans and visions management tries to convey within an organization. In Wang (2011), both the identification with management philosophy and sense making of the management philosophy related to job involvement and organizational citizenship behavior.

The participating company in Wang (2011) had almost 6,000 employees working in 151 offices in 65 countries until August 2009. The main research instrument used in this research was a survey questionnaire and 1,200 employees randomly selected. In total,

1,019 employees answered the questionnaire, which included items measuring the adoption of management philosophy, philosophy oriented organizational practice, job involvement, organizational citizenship behavior, and individual demographic variables. The instrument consisted of items with 5-point Likert-type scales with anchors labeled (a) disagree, (b) moderately disagree, (c) neither agrees nor disagrees, (d) moderately agree, and (e) agree (Wang, 2011).

Wang (2011) noted that employees accept and are willing to follow the management philosophy based on the notion that individual adoption of management philosophy could facilitate the relationship between philosophy-oriented practices and individual outcomes. If the organizational effort of clarifying the mission and carrying out the philosophy did not translate to individual identification with the management philosophy and sense-making of the philosophy, then the organization might be frustrated by the fact that management philosophy is not related to visible individual outcomes (Wang, 2011). The study findings implied that management philosophy is not only an issue relevant to top level management, but also to all the individual employees which ties into this study as it relates to employee personalization of organization vision (Wang, 2011).

Wang (2011) revealed that a top-level management team is critical in implementing the philosophy-oriented practice, while the effectiveness of the practice is dependent on whether individual employees could really adopt the philosophy into their self-concepts. The more the individuals adopt the management philosophy of the company, the more they might be involved in the job and engaged in behaviors of helping

others and the organization (Wang, 2011). The value of Wang (2011) to this study relates to employees identifying with management philosophy and making sense of it in order to accept it. Wang noted that the cerebral and emotional aspects of conduct that support employees' ability to identify with management philosophy create a positive cognitive and emotional linkage.

Ruiz, Ruiz, and Martínez (2011) also contributed to this study via their study of work engagement by way of positive leader-follower relationships. Their research presented the importance of including the moral dimension to understanding leadership phenomenon by means of a better leader-follower relationship, which is similar to Wang (2011) philosophy-oriented practice. Both studies exhibited the suggestion between ethical leadership and employee positive job response, the leader–follower relationship being a positive relationship between the two. Ruiz et al. (2011) supported the belief that ethics may be an important aspect considered when exercising leadership in business organizations. Not only does the moral dimension of leadership give better comprehension but also it contributes to a stronger and successful leader-follower relationship. Therefore, ethical leadership makes the follower trust in the leader and satisfies the expectation of the relationship, achieving therefore an improvement in performance (Ruiz et al., 2011).

Ruiz et al. (2011), further contributes to this study by identifying the hierarchical level of management in which managers play a more important role in improving the employee job response. Ruiz et al. (2011) differentiated between a higher formal authority (top manager) and a less formal authority and higher interaction (supervisor).

The study confirmed that formal authority (top manager) plays a more important role, no matter the large organizational distance separating top manager from the average workforce. Further to this point, the cascade effect on ethics happens only in a partial way since the top manager still goes on having an important and significant direct effect on employee job response, which helps to resolve the classical controversy existing about the most influential managerial level on the employee (Ruiz et al., 2011).

On a similar note, Yalabik, Van Rossenberg, Kinnie, and Swart (2015) studied the link between work engagement and the multi-foci of commitment (organization, team, profession and client) and revealed that work engagement is a significant positive predictor of all four foci of commitment. Yalabik et al. (2015) studied one organization and indicated that individual employee vigor and dedication to the company, customers, and products (Yalabik et al., 2015) fostered employee commitment in that organization. This previous research compliments the study by Ilies, Curşeu, Dimotakis, and Spitzmuller (2013), who examined leadership emotional expressiveness and its connection to outcomes via idealized influence on followers as well as authentic leadership relationship development with followers. Yalabik et al. (2015) identified predictors of charismatic leadership, establishing emotional expressiveness as predictor of idealized influence, which is an important part in the charismatic leadership process. Ilies et al. (2013) findings suggested that emotional exchanges between leaders and followers matter for broader leadership outcomes. For example, leader expressiveness was associated with higher idealized influence and that idealized influence, which in turn, affected followers' perceptions of leadership effectiveness and their reports about the

effort they put forth in their work. Their research further found that having an idealized

influence on one's followers, being expressive is a necessary but insufficient condition, in

that one has to be authentic in trying to build open and truthful relations with

subordinates for expressiveness to translate into idealized influence. These results further

the notion that authentic leadership theory lends itself for other positive leadership

approaches (Ilies et al., 2013). This research is relevant to this study because of its

depiction of the connection to outcomes by way of leadership expressiveness. Rather,

how employees personalize their attachment to organizational vision relates to the

negative or positive expressive nature of their leader.

Leadership

Bronkhorst et al. (2013) identified that a transformational leader is expected (a) to

show individualized consideration by diagnosing and elevating the needs of each

follower, (b) to become a source of admiration (idealized influence), (c) to stimulate their

followers to see the world from new perspectives (intellectual stimulation), and (d) to

provide inspirational motivation, and thus meaning, and a sense of purpose about what

needs to be done. Given these qualities, a transformational leadership style will positively

affect work motivation by enhancing the choices made by employees in terms of

devoting effort to certain tasks and their willingness to persist in these (Bronkhorst et al.,

2013). Schaubroeck, Lam, and Peng (2011) posited that leaders inspire and support

employees individually and in groups in ways that advance organizational objectives, as

with transformational leadership. At other times; however, the same leader can help

employees to develop themselves as workers in a way that is independent of the

organization's cornerstone agendas, and build affect-based trust by conveying support for their well-being as individuals and as group members. The following research articles identify leadership skills that would foster and cultivate vision inspiration. Similarly, Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, and Frey (2013) studied a sample of 360 employees from 39 academic teams to conclude that transformational leadership enhances job satisfaction and team performance at individual and team levels.

Conversely, Andressen, Konradt, and Neck (2012) studied self-leadership examining the relationship between self-leadership, transformational leadership, and work motivation (self-efficacy, instrumentality) as it relates to job performance and affective commitment. Transformational leadership is described by Bass (1985) as a process of inspiring subordinates to share and pursue the leader's vision and of motivating others to move beyond their own self-interests and work for the aims of the team (Bass, 1999). As a multidimensional construct, four dimensions define transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized considerations. Andressen et al. (2012) also considered the influence of the work environment to understand the leadership model best which is in concert with Bandura's theory on environmental learning. Andressen et al. (2012) compared three competing models of self-leadership, which are theoretically plausible: self-leadership acting (a) as a process factor mediating the relation between transformational leadership and employee motivation; (b) as an input factor, simultaneously with transformational leadership; and (c) as a process factor mediating the relation between work motivation and job performance/affective commitment. Results

from structural equation modeling developed in the study showed that self-leadership is a process factor that facilitates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee motivation (Andressen et al., 2012).

Andressen et al. (2012) presented that self-leadership influenced by transformational leadership acts as a mediator variable. The goal-setting function of self-leadership further clarifies the motivating character of self-leadership. In their research, Andressen et al. (2012) determined that self-leadership is a process that determines work motivation; therefore, transformational leadership initiates self-leadership and acts as a process factor that subsequently increases employee motivation. Further, in their study Andressen et al. (2012) posited that self-leadership is an input factor and acts parallel to transformational leadership. The authors argued that self-management amplifies employee's behavioral modification in addition to a leader's action. The authors also posited that self-leadership might act as a process variable that is subsequent to motivation. When applied to self-leadership, according to Andressen et al. (2012), if an individual decides to engage in a certain action (motivation), self-leadership in terms of self-regulation and self-control is subsequently required to successfully achieve the intended goals (volition).

Continuing the transformation leadership theme, Bronkhorst et al. (2013) studied the relationship between transformational leadership and work motivation to find that there are links in leadership styles and work motivation. Their research also found that leaders setting goals facilitates a relationship between transformational leaders and work motivation by allowing the transformational leader to establish more challenging and

more specific goals. Bronkhorst et al. (2013) also found that transformational leaders are able to reduce false perceptions of red tape among employees when achieving goals. Researchers believed that this aspect is particularly important as it relates to goal setting and issue than deter achievement of goals, which is similar to Andressen et al. (2012).

Bronkhorst et al. (2013) presented that transformational leader style related to work motivation related to higher work motivation due to transformational leaders being able to energize their followers, resulting in a greater work effort. There are subconnections, as well such as goal setting mediating the relationship between transformational leadership and work motivation. In other words, a transformational leader will set challenging goals for the organization and employees. Another sub connection identified that there is an indirect relationship between transformational leadership styles and the goal-setting process. Results of Bronkhorst et al. (2013), show that transformational leaders are able to set more challenging (difficult) goals because they are able to overcome the procedural constraints perceived by their employees and transformational leaders are able to set specific goals because they are able to reduce organizational goal conflicts. Bronkhorst et al. (2013) results regarding the indirect effect on goal specificity are in accordance with Moynihan, Wright, and Pandey (2012) and Wright, Moynihan, and Pandey (2012), who found that transformational leaders are able to make goals clearer.

In contrast, Winston and Fields (2015) presented research on servant leadership demonstrating a strong relationship between servant leader behaviors and subordinate positive judgments about a leader by employees. Winston and Fields noted that in many

organizations today, leadership approaches that focus on the welfare of followers rather than glorification of the leader are increasingly valued. Van Dierendonck (2011) identified that servant leadership emphasizes a leader's facilitation of follower performance and development where a person-oriented leader that is a servant leader, creates safe and strong relationships within an organization. Servant leadership has been described and operationalized with a large variety of dimensions and there is still little consensus about a clear definition of servant leadership or the mechanisms by which it works (Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011). It can be determined though that servant leadership grounded in a personal need to serve meets this need (Clemmons & Fields, 2011). Servant leadership theory does not imply that power given to followers or leaders are subservient, but emphasize the responsibility of an organizational leader to encourage development of autonomy and responsibility of followers as opposed to a transformational leader who has the best interest of the organization in mind (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Hu and Liden (2011) found that servant leadership within teams in China not only predicted perceptions of team potency and independent ratings of team effectiveness, but also increased the effects of goal and process clarity on team outcomes. Other studies have linked servant leadership positively with satisfaction of followers' psychological needs, promotion focus, job satisfaction, empowerment, organizational commitment, and creative behaviors (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Related to Andressen et al. (2012) and Bronkhorst et al. (2013), Basford, Offermann, and Wirtz (2012) examined employee motivation and intent to stay considering how supervisors and senior management supervise and lead which is

important to this study as effective leadership through effective support (supervisors and senior management) contributes to employee belief in the vision of the organization. Basford et al. (2012) noted that as they are related, support from each level of management exerted an independent, positive influence on follower motivation and intent to stay, with senior management support showing greater impact (p. 202). Basford et al. (2012) developed their study for different levels of positions noting that support had higher impact on intent to stay for employees in management roles. Basford et al. (2012) found value in separating wide perceived supervisor support paradigm into two sub-constructs, perceptions of immediate supervisor support and perceptions of senior management support by followers. Supervisors and management exposed independent positive influences on follower motivation and retaining prospects, considering both sources may help provide a better understanding of the support-retention connection and guide organizations in developing suitable leadership training at different hierarchical levels (Basford et al., 2012).

Basford et al. (2012) presented connections between employees' understandings of supervisor support and senior management support where according to researchers; there are a number of explanations for why workers hold similar perceptions of the support they receive from different levels of leadership. It could be that supportive supervisors may be especially attracted to job openings at organizations with similar characteristics of support, and helpful managers may be more likely to hire supervisors who they perceive share their values (Basford et al., 2012).

Basford et al. (2012) measured support for leadership separately finding that employee perceived support from supervisors and senior managers independently affected their motivation and intention to stay. When employees perceive support from supervisors or senior leaders, their motivation and intent to stay is enhanced (Basford et al., 2012). The study also noted that when one management level is not supportive, support from another management level might help inspire employees to perform well and ultimately to stay at the organization. This study noted that by providing leadership support at multiple levels, both motivation and future retention may be enhanced compared with relying on support to come exclusively from either one (Basford et al., 2012).

Basford et al. (2012) noted that there were higher levels of employee motivation when there was higher level of senior leader support versus lower supervisor support for employees. Equally, employee intent to stay was stronger when senior management support was higher versus supervisor support. This was true for employees in higher and lower positions within the organization. This was not the case with employees in lower occupational roles (Basford et al., 2012). Basford concluded:

> Although enhancing the support offered by leaders at all levels is important, companies wishing to promote employee motivation and retention may need to devote special attention to leaders at senior management levels. Developing strategies to ensure that senior leaders demonstrate support and stressing communication from the top down may be especially important in increasing valued follower behaviors. (p. 211)

Basford et al. (2012) indicated that some organizational environments leaders support does have a larger portion in understanding the relationship between leader support and follower retention. There may be environments where employees have poor supervisory support but if employees feel as if they have support by leaders higher than supervisors do, and then their motivation to leave diminishes. On the contrary, if employees feel as if they have minimal support of leadership, which makes them feel less motivated to pursue a future within the organization, then they desire to stay and their motivation can be reduced (Basford et al., 2012).

Basford et al. (2012) stated:

That senior management support affects employee motivation and retention more than immediate supervisor support may be encouraging to many organizational leaders. Creating a supportive upper-level leadership culture may be easier than ensuring that every immediate supervisor demonstrates support, since there are generally fewer senior managers than immediate supervisors. In addition, fostering support at higher levels of leadership may drive lower level supervisors to engage in supportive behaviors. (p. 211)

Regarding a different type of leadership, autocratic leader, Rast, Hogg, and Giessner (2013) surveyed over 200 employees in the U.K. from various different organizations to determine the level in uncertainty and trust for an autocratic leader versus a non-autocratic leader. Rast et al. (2013) found that uncertainty increased support for and trust in an autocratic leader and weakened support for and trust in a non-autocratic leader; under high uncertainty the more autocratic the leader the more strongly

he or she was supported and trusted, and vice versa under low uncertainty. Increasing

uncertainty also strengthened the perception that an autocratic leader was more

prototypical of a group; the association under low uncertainty between being a less

autocratic leader and being perceived to be more group prototypical disappeared under

high uncertainty. This study supported the notion that for uncertainty-identity theory and

the articulation of uncertainty-identity theory with the social identity theory of leadership,

self-uncertainty encourages people to support and invest trust in leaders who adopt a

relatively autocratic leadership style and to withdraw support and trust from leaders who

are less autocratic (Rast et al., 2013). The study also suggested that that the perceived fit

of the leader to a group's prototypical attributes may play a mediating role; self-

uncertainty contributes to people viewing more autocratic leaders as more prototypical

than less autocratic leaders, and thus, in line with social identity theory of leadership

predictions, strengthens trust in and support for them (Rast et al., 2013).

Summary

The literature review included an in-depth analysis and examination of current

research regarding motivation, organization vision, employee engagement, and leadership

resulting in evidence that there is a gap in the literature that identified reasons why

employees are inspired by organizational visions and the effects a lack of employee

vision inspiration has on their performance. This review filled the gap by identifying how

employees specifically personalize organizational vision and why they perform

differently from having personalized those visions.

Researchers studied the importance of vision creation, communication of vision, employee motivation, and leadership skills, but current literature has not explored the phenomenon of vision inspiration and if employees personalize organizational vision. Carton et al. (2014) also posited the importance of communication in organizations that ultimately help support increased performance by employees. Carton et al. (2014) also noted that this positive communication comes via leaders communicating vision imagery (e.g., words that describe people, colors, and actions).

Further to the importance of communication, sharing organizational information is equally significant as presented by Kuhn (2012) who posited that not taking communication seriously is not merely a call for attending more explicitly to communication as an additional variable but involves a redirection in understanding organizations and organizing processes. Park (2012) also suggested that a company should share information related to the company's operations with employees when it adopts employee-participation plans to improve employees' organizational commitment and company performance.

As communication plays a vital role in organization vision, Venus et al. (2013) found that follower performance was highest when there was a match between leader enthusiasm for end state goals and communication of those goals. Venus et al. (2013) found the predicted match between leader emotion and desired end state when leaders communicated visions, value-laden messages, and concrete goals. Employee participation is important to vision commitment where Cho and Park (2011) presented research on trust and how employees develop trust in leadership as well as that trust being important

in commitment to the organization. Cho and Park found that trust in management is substantially associated with employee satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Mayfield and Mayfield (2012) furthered researched communication and examined the role of leader motivating language theory as an enhancement of employee self-efficacy and performance. Communication researchers have explored and developed persuasive framing models for practice to bridge the gap between leader intent and employee outcomes through verbal communication with the prospect of enhancing employee motivation (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012).

Albrecht (2012) studied employee engagement and employee wellbeing in organizational environments and found that job resources significantly influence employee engagement and wellbeing. Additional job resources (e.g., job involvement) and additional up-stream organizational and team climate factors (vision clarity, and psychological safety) assessed for their direct and indirect influence on job resources and engagement (Bakker et al., 2011).

Finally, Bronkhorst et al. (2013) studied transformational leadership and determined that this type of leader shows individualized consideration by diagnosing and elevating the needs of each follower. A transformational leader is also expected to become a source of admiration (idealized influence), and to stimulate followers encouraging them to see the world from a new perspective (intellectual stimulation). A transformational leader expected to provide inspirational motivation, meaning, and a sense of purpose about what needs done. Andressen et al. (2012) studied self-leadership examining the relationship between self-leadership, transformational leadership, and

work motivation (i.e., self-efficacy and instrumentality) as it relates to job performance and affective commitment.

I examined and synthesized relevant literature about organization vision and leadership skills, as well as research on organization information sharing, leader emotion, employee participation, and motivation, and work engagement. This literature review also included relationships between research articles and this study. The literature review in this study laid the foundation for the requirements of Chapter 3 as it relates to the research design of this study, the population of this study, the survey instrument, and that data collection and analysis procedures.

Chapter 3: Research Method

This qualitative study builds on the research of James and Lahti (2011) by means of an in-depth examination of the organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI, as well as whether or not EVI motivates employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. The study findings explored the effect of EVI on employee perceived performance and the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction. Chapter 3 includes the research design and rationale for the study as well as the role of a researcher, methodology, and issues of trustworthiness for the study.

Research Design and Rationale

This study was a grounded theory designed study that enabled the development of a theory based on systematic collection and analysis of qualitative data (Charmaz, 2006). The research design incorporated an iterative process of employee interviews to glean relevant information to categorize toward identifying influences within the data. I chose a qualitative research method over a mixed methods or quantitative design because the goal of this study was to develop a theory as opposed to measuring data that already existed. In this case, there was a lack of research on this phenomenon; therefore, there was no data to analyze.

Using the constant comparative method of data collection and analysis as described by Merriam (2009), insight into the development of a theory of the factors that affect EVI, allowing employees to personalize their understanding of the organization's vision, and how this EVI manifests itself in employee behaviors directed toward the achievement of that vision, emerged.

The proposed research questions derived from this process and are:

1. What organizational factors affect EVI,

2. What employee-related factors affect EVI?

3. How do these factors interrelate to influence EVI?

4. What is the effect of EVI on employee performance?

5. What is the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction?

The answers to these research questions was deemed important to achieving a better understanding of how organizations create and foster positive organizational visions ensuring that employees work effectively toward organizational vision. The central concept of this study supported an in-depth examination of the organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI, leading to the development of a theory that explains how those factors interrelated to inspire exceptional employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. Grounded theory emerged as appropriate for this study because the goal was not only to identify the factors that lead to EVI, but also to determine how those factors interrelate to cause EVI. I determined that case study was not appropriate for this study because the focus was not on a bounded system, such as a group or organization. Phenomenological design was not appropriate for this research because, while it would enable the identification of the factors involved in EVI, it would not enable the development of a theory of how they interrelated to cause EVI, which was the ultimate goal of this research study.

Role of the Researcher

As the researcher in this study, I was the primary instrument of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009); where the focus was to develop significance from the data collected. I had no personal relationships with participants either as supervisory or instructor that might suggest that I had any power over the participants. Individual participants and their organizations did not have prior knowledge of the researcher, professional or otherwise. As there were no relationships between myself as researcher and the participants, there were no biases to manage. The participants in this study did not know me. There was no conflict in the study as the organization selected and its employees participated on their own volition.

I alone conducted the interviews, recorded notes, and documented memos. Interview responses developed at face value and were documented until the categorization process began, avoiding bias in the study. Recording interviews supported accuracy of interviews. One researcher in the field added to the richness and depth of the data. As the single source of data collection, I ensured the confidentiality of the data as well as ensured professionalism and the ethical tone of the research when interviewing and discussing the research with participants. As the primary instrument of data collection, I ensured confidentiality and professionalism when on the organization's premises as well as when interviewing employees. As the researcher and the single source of data collection, I ensured the integrity of the process by which this study collected and analyzed data.

Methodology

The research methodology included employee interviews to gather relevant information that supported an examination of the organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI, as well as the ways in which EVI motivate employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. Categorized data from interviews identified relationships within the data. I used an open coding technique via a constant comparison procedure to identify commonalities or instances of significant recurring expressions from participants. Through axial coding I developed subcategories of data that linked similar experiences of employees and leaders creating a richer connection between experiences.

Participant Selection Logic

Fourteen employees in the organization who had been inspired by the organization's vision participated in this study. The sampling strategy used was purposeful sampling. The justification of this strategy was that it allowed me to identify participants who had experienced the phenomenon. Employees of the selected organization who elected to participate took part in the study by meeting the study criteria of having worked in the organization for more than one year. Participants were confirmed to have met this criterion via confirmation of personal records from company human resources department. Additional participants stood available to participate if necessary to reach data saturation. The organization selected proved to have a vision statement for all employees to see and the organization's leadership agreed that there was vision inspiration within the organization. The organization also believed findings of the study

would be useful to their organization. Leadership in this organization also believed the organization's employees would participate in such a study on a voluntary confidential basis. The participants in Omar et al. (2012) reflected diversity along several dimensions, such as tenure on the job, title (manager, senior vice president), firm size and annual sales ($250 million - $7 billion), and products and industry (e.g., auto, cosmetics, health care, and industrial products). I looked for organizations of similar diversity to those studied by Omar et al. except in annual sales and selected one organization to participate in the study. An organization with annual sales of $12 million participated in this research because this size organization was more appropriate for the purposes of this study.

Instrumentation

Instrumentation consisted of an interview protocol for personal interviews with employees. I noted comments and wrote memos during the research as well as after any interviews and during casual conversations that emerged. Notes and memos from the study helped control researcher bias as well as helped to identify and record external influences that might have affected the data. Recording and transcribing of employee interviews occurred for each interview to add quality and credibility to the study. Study participants scheduled their day around the interview schedule so as to not disrupt their normal business activities. Each employee understood that the study and the data collected included only one person as the primary data gatherer and that person managed the data with the strictest of confidentiality. Each interview occurred within sufficient time (30 minutes) to allow for employees who elected to participate in the study the opportunity to discuss their thoughts on EVI.

Pilot Study

The first organization that elected to participate in this study participated as the pilot study organization. An organization's election to participate in this pilot study identified that the organization's leadership agreed that a vision statement existed, visionary objectives occured within the organization, and that the organization's employees participated on a voluntary, confidential basis. Once authorized by the IRB (07-14-16-0080138), I initiated the selection process of choosing one organization to participate in the pilot study. Leadership in the organization selected to participate in the pilot study received a letter of cooperation to conduct a pilot study to review, sign, and file as part of the research documentation of the study (see Appendix A). The organization chosen to participate in the pilot study posted a notice of a pilot study to employees identifying the pilot study, its goals, and its objectives. The notice for the pilot study posted requested those employees interested in learning more about the pilot study attend an information session on a specific time and date. Employees wanting to volunteer for the pilot study willingly took the IRB consent to participate in a pilot study form with them at the end of the information session. Those employees e-mailed me via my e-mail address in the consent form letting me know their availability to schedule an interview time. I e-mailed them back with a scheduled time for their one-on-one interview. Participants brought their signed consent form with them to their interview. The IRB consent form for the pilot study lay on a table in the back of the information session to ensure privacy of those employees who chose or chose not to participate in the pilot study.

Employees and leaders from this pilot organization chose to meet with me privately and confidentially for their interview. Participants had the opportunity to meet with me in a conference room on-site, a private office on-site, or off-site at a public library or public coffee shop or other private place to which both parties agreed. This ensured privacy for each participant by allowing the interview to take place at a comfortable place. Each interview lasted sufficient length of time (30 minutes) to allow for employees to discuss their thoughts on EVI. This pilot study helped assess whether or not the instructions and interview questions of the study were clear and understandable and resulted in the necessary data from which to build a theory (see Appendix C). The notes and casual conversations that emerged assessed whether the interview questions supported the study. The pilot study participants understood that the pilot study and the data collected occurred with the strictest of confidentiality. At the end of this pilot study, I shared a summary of my findings with participants.

The pilot study criterion considered employees with more than 1 year of employment with the organization. Pilot study employee participants were confirmed to have met the study criterion via their company HR department. Sample interviews collected in the pilot study ensured the actual data collection and analysis process functioned appropriately. The pilot study resulted in only a minor change to one of the research questions.

Researcher Developed Instruments

I functioned as the primary instrument of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009) for the main study, and focused on developing significance from the data collected

to include observational notes. No other instrument of data collection other than the interview protocol existed and I did not have assistance in the development, management, or execution of the interviews. Data collection included hand written notes and comments from each interview.

The personal interviews in the study combined semi structured and open-ended questions. Unstructured interviews are the result of casual comments made by participants during personal interviews. Comments made during interviews emerged and discussed with individual employees or leaders. The information gained from those discussions supported the data analysis portion of this study relative to usefulness in the study. Participants expanded on comments made relative to their importance to the study. Follow up discussion emerged for those employees who offer spontaneous relevant comments.

The interview protocol followed this process; employees who volunteered to participate in the main study sat for individual interviews one at a time, in a quiet room, mostly a conference room, or available office space. The environment in the room appeared appropriate for the interviews with calming lighting, relative temperature, and sufficient privacy so participants can respond to interview questions freely and without fear of management intervention. I mitigated privacy concerns for each participant by conducting the interview where the participant felt more comfortable (conference room on site, private office, meetings rooms available at a public library or public coffee shop. etc.). Each interview occurred within a sufficient length of time (30 minutes) to allow an appropriate amount of time for employees to interview and discuss their thoughts on EVI.

Notes taken in the interviews added relevance and those participants who felt the need to expand on their interview questions extended their interview time once the initial interviews ended. The development of the interview questions took into consideration the notion of employee motivation and their relation to the research questions. Motivation theories by Maslow (1968), Herzberg (1959), and Vroom (1964) supported the development of interview questions (see Appendix D).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Leadership in the selected organization for the main study posted a notice of study to employees identifying the main study, its goals and objectives. The notice asked those employees interested in learning more about the study to attend an information session on a specific time and date. The information session occurred on the selected organization's property in a conference room (see Appendix E).

The information session gave employees an opportunity to learn more about the study. Employees wanting to volunteer for the study took the IRB consent to participate form at the end of the information session. Those employees emailed me via my email address in the consent form letting me know they would like to participate; I emailed them back with a scheduled time for their one on one interview. Participants brought their signed consent form to the interview. The IRB consent form lay on a table in the back of the information session to ensure privacy of those employees who chose or choose not to participate. The IRB consent form helped employees determine their willingness to participate in the study as well as helped determine whether employees are suitable to participate in the study based on their willingness to be forthright with their answers as

well as their understanding that their responses will be confidential. Participants brought their signed consent form to the one-on-one interview to ensure privacy related to their participation in the study and privately submit the consent form to me. For those employees who choose not to participate in the study, no further action occurred on their part. This discussion occurred in the information session. Participation in the study will be for those employees who have voluntarily signed the IRB consent form.

Discussions with business leaders in the community as well as business contacts throughout the U.S. heard of my study and expressed interest in learning more about the research method occurred. I developed a dialogue with each business leader to explain the objectives and method for conducting the research while the dissertation proposal remained in approval stage by the IRB. This dialogue initiated a meeting with those organization leaders who expressed interest in my study. Some initial conversations occurred via telephone or in the leader's office if local to my office. Once authorized by the IRB, I conducted the selection process of choosing one organization to participate in the study. At this point, organization leaders received a letter of cooperation to review, signed, and filed as part of the research documentation of the study (see Appendix F). Once on the organization premises, I verified whether a vision existed by way of a posted vision statement for all employees to see and whether employees will participate in the study voluntarily and with the guarantee of complete confidentiality. At the end of the study, I shared a 1-2-page summary of my findings with participants.

Data Analysis Plan

Data collected and analyzed using constant comparison methods following the principles of grounded theory espoused in Charmaz (2006) to help identify themes and reoccurring statements related to vision inspiration within the organization. Atlas.ti helped synthesize data. An open coding technique followed via a constant comparison procedure to identify commonalities or instances of significant recurring expressions from participants. Axial coding followed to develop subcategories of data that helped link similar experiences of employees thus creating a rich connection between experiences.

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Issue of Trustworthiness

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Credibility

According to Cope (2014), credibility refers to the truth of the data or the participant views and the interpretation and representation of them by the researcher. Researchers describing their experiences as a researcher and verifying the research findings with the participants enhance credibility. To support credibility when reporting a qualitative study, the researcher should demonstrate engagement, methods of observation, and audit trails. Copious notes on casual comments made by study participants as well as recorded and documented interview notes will be evidence of immersion into the thinking of study participants. Transcriptions of the recorded notes served as the primary data for analysis.

Transferability

Cope (2014) identified transferability as findings applied to other settings or groups. A qualitative study has met this criterion if the results have meaning to

individuals not involved in the study and readers can associate the results with their own experiences. Researchers should provide sufficient information on the informants and the research context to enable the reader to assess the findings' capability of being *fit* or transferable. Transferability exists in this study by way a thick description of specific information about participants and their work environment. Methods and findings allow for detailed account of the environment surrounding each research location, which will include a rich description of that environment and process of interviewing. The varied selection of participants as well as thick description of feedback allows for transferability.

Dependability

Cope (2014) referred to dependability as the constancy of data over similar conditions. This occurs when another researcher concurs with the decision trails at each stage of the research process. Through the researcher's process and descriptions, a study is dependable if the study findings replicate similar participants in similar conditions. Observations and notes will describe and document changes that occurred in the research and how changes affected the way the study occurred. There are documented procedures for checking and rechecking data and an auditable account of procedures as well.

Confirmability

Confirmability as described by Cope (2014) refers to a researcher's ability to demonstrate that the data represent participants' responses and not the researcher's biases or viewpoints. The researcher can demonstrate confirmability by describing how he or she arrived at conclusions and interpretations, and exemplifying that the findings derived directly from the data. Member checking involves return visits to research participants for

confirmation of research ideas (Charmaz, 2006). Member checking also allows for more material gathering and an opportunity to elaborate on research categories (Charmaz, 2006, p. 111). In reporting qualitative research, confirmability exists by providing rich quotes from the participants that depict each emerging theme. Interviews occur in a comfortable location and stress less for interviewees. Initial interview questions are general and easy-to-answer to put the participant at ease. Confidentiality of the interview and for each interviewee exists. Particular quotes emerge and authorized by participants to establish confirmability (Cope, 2014).

Ethical Procedures

Human participants experienced fair and respectful treatment during the study. Human participants contributed in exploratory interviews to develop the sample population for the main research portion of this study. In the main research portion of this study, human participation required participants to respond to personal face-to-face interview protocol approved by the. If a person withdrew from the study, the data/information gathered to that point and proof of that deletion converted to part of the study file. Data is private and confidential for this study only. All material and information from the study is stored in a safe place for 5 years at my offices located in Houston. Texas. Access to the stored data is only available to me, also the only person to disseminate the data as well as destroy the data when the 5-year period has elapsed.

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Summary

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This study builds on the research of James and Lahti (2011) by means of an in-depth examination of the organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI,

as well as the ways in which EVI motivate employee efforts to help achieve an

organization's vision. I also explored the effect of EVI on employee performance and the

effect of EVI on employee satisfaction. Chapter 3 includes the research design and

rationale for the study as well as the role of a researcher, methodology, and issues of

trustworthiness for the study. Chapter 4 includes data collection processes during the

main study as well as the data analysis of the study. Study results also presented in

Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this qualitative grounded theory study was to explore

organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI, as well as the ways in

which EVI motivates employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. Also

explored were the effect of EVI on employee performance and the effect of EVI on

employee satisfaction. James and Lahti (2011), whose study presented a research model

integrating various levels of leadership and leader charisma, was the foundation for this

study on research and organizational system influences on EVI. By using the constant

comparative method of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009) and grounded theory

methodology (Charmaz, 2006), it was possible to develop a theory of the factors that

affect EVI. As a consequence, employees are enabled to personalize their understanding

of the organization's vision, and understand how EVI manifests itself in employee

behaviors directed toward the achievement of that vision.

Chapter 4 contains a brief discussion of the pilot study, the research setting of the

main study, and the data collection and data analysis of the study. Chapter 4 concludes

with a discussion of trustworthiness, the study results, and a summary.

Pilot Study

Conducting a pilot study helped to ensure the research questions of the study and

the interview protocol were appropriate. The pilot study resulted in only a minor change

to one of the research questions. On occasion, not all participants of the pilot study

understood the research questions specifically as written. Some participants did require

some clarification so each participant had a better understanding of the questions. The

explanation of the questions did not alter or redefine the characteristics of the questions but simply clarified the question for the participant. A minor edit to question number 4 revised it from its original wording to, "Besides the vision itself, what about the organization inspires you to work to achieve the vision?" The wording to this question in its original format confused some of the participants in the pilot study. No other changes were necessary to the research questions or the interview protocol in preparation for their use with the main study participants. The pilot study occurred at an industrial coatings company in Houston, Texas, which had been in business for about 12 years. A charismatic leader who was interested in further developing employee relationships within his organization led the company. The main study participants were employees of a different business organization than the pilot study participants.

Research Setting

The organization participating in the main study was an Internet marketing business located in Houston, Texas, also in business for the past 12 years. The organization has successfully achieved specific growth targets year after year since its inception. The work environment for employees was a new location for the company that was quiet, clean, and dimly lit. The organization leader was an altruistic transformational leader who seemed to be extremely aware of opportunities for employee motivation within the organization. Thus, he was willing to allow his employees to participate in the main study. There were no personal or organizational conditions influencing participants or their experience within their organization at the time of study that might have prejudiced interpretation of the study results. The setting for each confidential interview

was in one of many small private conference rooms in the organization's office made available during data collection. To protect the confidentiality of participants before analyzing data, recording numbers replaced participants' names. A surrogate for the actual name of this organization, referred to as *the company,* appears in lieu of the organization's actual name when participants mention the actual company name in their responses.

Demographics

The participants in this study were seven men and seven women younger than 37 years old. Participants functioned in various capacities within the organization from team leaders to programmers to website designers. All participants had access to customer information as all participants routinely communicated with customers. Participants represented employees who felt inspired by the organization's vision statement and who personalized their understanding of the vision to help in the achievement of that vision.

Data Collection

Participants in the main study joined as a result of the information session conducted on the first day data collection was to begin. As identified in chapter 3, leadership of this organization posted a notice to employees asking employees who were interested in learning more about the study to attend an information session at a specified time on a particular date. Approximately 22 employees attended the information session. Through cursory conversation before the start of the information session and as employees entered the information session, three employees realized they did not meet the criteria for the study. These employees left the information session. The remaining 19

employees remained in the information session and learned more about the study.

Employees wanting to volunteer for the study filled out the IRB consent to participate

form at the end of the information session, which was on a separate table in the back of

the room. The IRB consent form helped employees determine their willingness to

participate in the study as well as help determine whether particular employees were

suitable to participate in the study based on their willingness to be forthright with their

answers as well as their understanding about the confidentiality of their responses.

Employees volunteering to participate in the study brought their signed consent forms to

a scheduled one-on-one interview to ensure privacy related to their participation in the

study, and turned them in prior to the start of the interview.

Those employees who volunteered to participate in the study either emailed a

probable time to interview or texted a likely time to interview. If available, employees

also made their way to the conference room at random to see if there was availability for

an interview. The participants were so busy that the one-on-one interviews occurred over

2 weeks totaling about 3 days of data collection. Fourteen employees participated in the

study out of the 19 who attended the information session. Five employees simply could

not attend the interviews based on this organization's fast pace and important work

demands. Each interview was approximately 30 minutes in length, with three interviews

lasting closer to 1 hour in length. Those interviews with the remaining 14 participants led

to the collection of rich data, resulting in data saturation.

Use of a Rev Voice Recording device enabled the recording and transcribing of

each interview. Rev Voice Recording is a voice recording service accessible on the

Internet or on a smartphone (Rev.com). Using Rev, it was possible to generate

transcribed documents of interviews within an hour of completing particular interviews.

The Rev website describes Rev as being able to complete transcriptions within twelve

hours with some interviews returned within the hour. Rev.com touts a 99% percent or

better accuracy rate for its recordings and transcriptions and is proud to employ humans

as opposed to automated software, ensuring accurate, reliable, professional transcription

(Rev.com).

The fact that the organizational environment for this study was busy was a

positive point of this study because it allowed for a better comparative method of analysis

of each interview transcript as the study proceeded. In other words, as some day's data

collection included only three to five interviews, the free time provided the opportunity to

conduct an initial review of data already collected to that point. The ability to analyze and

prepare to code words, lines, and incidents described in the interviews facilitated the

preparation of each transcript for the Atlas.ti software that was to codify constructs later

in the analysis phase. The early delivery of transcribed interviews also allowed for the

incorporation of a level of member checking. Member checking took place while waiting

for the next participant interview by taking notes and comparing emerging categories of

data back to previously interviewed participants for confirmation. There were many

opportunities to conduct follow-up conversations in this area. Follow up conversations

with interviewees included a copy of the transcribed interview returned by Rev as well as

research notes. Reviewing points of the transcript and research notes occurred to ensure

interpretation of the interview was accurate. Participants did not review the transcripts in their entirety during the member checking conversations.

Being able to develop an initial analysis of prime data collection conditions, this study fit the empirical world by way of constructing codes and developing them into categories that manifested participants' experience as well as having relevance by offering an insightful analytical framework that interpreted what was happening to develop relationships between implicit processes and structures (Charmaz, 2006, p. 54). There were no unusual circumstances encountered in the data collection for this study.

Data Analysis

Open coding procedures helped determine properties and dimensions of categories and helped create a more coherent body of categories (Charmaz, 2006, p. 60). From the initial analysis and coding process, 41 wide-ranging codes developed and 524 passages from interviews created a rich foundation of participant experiences. By reading and coding each interview transcript, commonalities in participant statements appeared. Themes and patterns emerged. A framework developed by associating participant discussions with codes, which allowed for organization and categorization of codes within Atlas.ti. Comparing quotations with codes and codes with codes, constructs related to factors that affect EVI emerged. Through iterative analysis constructs developed for each research question and within those constructs, factors emerged.

Culture, communication, and work environment emerged as constructs for Research Question 1 concerning what organizational factors affect EVI. Similarly,

motivation, personal satisfaction, and pride also emerged as constructs for Research

Question 2, concerning what employee-related factors affect EVI.

Participants noted that support from leadership and the organization setting the

right expectations was important. Participants also mentioned the importance of

leadership support and commented on the importance of the organization setting the right

expectations. Participant 11 stated, "*The company* wants people that (sic) are going to

come in and be able to be pushed every day and be able to grow and take things to the

next level. One of our monthly meetings was about being on the A-team. Either you are

already on the A-team, or you are cognizant of your strengths and weaknesses and

willing to improve on yourself to get to be in the A-team." Participant 12 supported this

notion by commenting, "There's also a culture of improvement. The people all the way

from the top, all the way down to newcomers who come in know that you are going to

have to work hard. There is a culture of pushing outside of your comfort zone, outside

your limits. If you don't improve at *the company*, you're likely not going to be sticking

around very long because you have to improve, you have to adapt, and you have to be

open to that in order to succeed here and to also fit in." Participants also noted the

organization in general as inspirational as well as their trust in leadership important.

Statements made by participants regarding the importance of trust within the organization

supported participants' belief that the vision statement was achievable.

Leadership's commitment to the vision statement emerged as a leading factor for

the communication construct of the organizational factors that affect EVI. Participants

discussed how leadership consistently communicated the vision and organizational goals

by way of monthly breakfast meetings. The breakfast meetings were a way for leadership to communicate the stability of the company putting employee minds at ease regarding job security. Four participants spoke of their awareness concerning the organization's stability. The monthly breakfast meetings facilitated transparency within the organization. Although one participant noted communication within the organization was not good, the majority of participants indicated that leadership communication regarding the vision statement occurred regularly at these breakfast meetings.

The final construct identified a positive work environment as an important factor. Participants mentioned the positive work environment in the organization and participants commented on the abundance of positive teams within the organization. Participant 3 stated, "It is the whole teamwork aspect or philosophy that we have here. We each know what we need to do to help each other, and get there." This construct included leadership transparency and work/life balance as important factors.

Three constructs emerged for Research Question 2; concerning employee related factors that affect EVI. Motivation, personal satisfaction, and pride emerged. Participants mentioned the importance of the organization itself being a motivator. Participant 2 stated, "They are definitely picky because the biggest thing that the company stresses is that we are looking for the right people. The right person is a person with a great attitude," Participant 7 stated, "The culture here that they develop of accountability and communication and education, and having a positive attitude, having those core values outlined for the company and then things that you can do for yourself."

Participants noted their commitment to the organization and the vision statement was important. Participant 3 stated, "I want to say that I'm pretty committed to this company." Being trusted emerged as an important factor for this construct as well. Participant 12 stated, "I think it is important that leaders trust their employees, all of them. If you are tasked with doing a job and you are here every day, and you are asking questions, and you are doing it, then I think it is hugely important that trust is a factor in that." Other statements made referred to the feeling of acknowledgment by supervisors as important factors.

The final construct related to employee pride for the individual's work as a leading factor. Statements indicated that employees were proud of their work and employees enjoyed healthy challenges within the organization. Participant 2 stated, "I hope it stays challenging. If not, I will check out." Participant statements also indicated pride for the company and having a sense of accomplishment working for the company as important factors. Feeling part of the organization also emerged as important. Participant 8 stated, "Here I feel like I matter. I feel like my presence here is noted when I am here and felt when I am not here. I think that is what inspires me."

Data revealed that factors interrelated to influence EVI by way of factors associating with other factors across constructs. For example, within the construct of pride, the factor of feeling part of the organization, feeling part of something great related to the culture construct. Similarly, this factor also related to work/life balance within the work environment construct. Another example was that leadership support related to culture and leadership support related to pride. Data indicated the interrelation of factors

influenced EVI by way of associating factors across constructs and existing in fluidity within the organization.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

A deeply rich amount of data collected by way of numerous notes and comments made by study participants is evidence of immersion into the rationale of study participants and supports a level of triangulation. According to Cope (2014), credibility refers to the truth of the data or the participant views and the interpretation and representation of them by the researcher. Credibility enhances for researchers describing their experiences as a researcher and verifying the research findings with the participants.

Transferability

Transferability exists in this study by way of the thick descriptions of the organization culture and environment provided by participant interviews described in the study results section to follow. Methods and findings allow for detailed account of the environment surrounding research location, which included a description of the organization environment and process of interviewing. The varied selection of participants in this study as well as thick description of feedback by participant statements presented in the study results section allows for transferability. Cope (2014) identified transferability as findings that applied to other settings or groups. According to Cope, a qualitative study has met this criterion if the results have meaning to individuals not involved in the study and readers can associate the results with their own experiences.

Researchers should provide sufficient information on the informants and the research

context to enable the reader to assess the findings' capability of being *fit* or transferable.

Dependability

Cope (2014) referred to dependability as the constancy of data over similar

conditions. This occurs when another researcher concurs with the decision trails at each

stage of the research process. Through the researcher's process and descriptions, a study

is dependable if the study finding with similar participants in similar conditions is able to

reproduce itself. Observations and notes described and documented changes that occurred

in the research and how changes affected the way the study reveals results. There are

documented procedures for checking and rechecking data and there is an auditable

account of procedures.

Confirmability

As described by Cope (2014), confirmability refers to a researcher's ability to

demonstrate that the data represent the participants' responses and not the researcher's

biases or viewpoints. The researcher can demonstrate confirmability by describing how

he or she arrived at conclusions and made interpretations, and exemplifying that the

findings derived directly from the data. In reporting this qualitative research,

confirmability exhibited by analysis of information rich quotes from the participants that

depict each emerging theme. Interview questions put interviewees at ease by asking

general, easy-to-answer questions first. Interviews were in a location that was

comfortable for interviewees and confidentiality of the interviews for each interviewee

existed (Cope, 2014). Researcher control of bias in this study consists of an auditable trail

of data that includes interview transcripts and Atlas.ti that facilitated the development of constructs from the data collected.

Study Results

Through iterative analysis constructs emerged for each research question and within those constructs, factors emerged. Constructs for each research question reveal factors associated to the purpose of this study, organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI and the ways in which EVI motivate employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision.

RQ1: What organizational factors affect EVI?

RQ2: What employee-related factors affect EVI?

RQ3: How do these factors interrelate to influence EVI?

RQ4: What is the effect of EVI on employee performance?

RQ5: What is the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction?

Research Question 1

What organizational factors affect EVI (Table 1)?

Table 1

Organizational Factors that Affect EVI

	Prevalence of code	Percent prevalence	Number of participants
Culture			
Leadership is Supportive	34	30%	12
The organization sets the right expectations	32	28%	11
Trust in leadership	17	15%	10
The vision statement is achievable	14	12%	7
Trust is important within the organization	9	8%	6
Employee's perception of leadership is positive	6	5%	3
Healthy competition	3	3%	1
	115		
Communication			
Leadership is committed to the vision statement	21	47%	10
Vision is communicated	10	22%	9
Communication is challenging	5	11%	2
The company is stable	5	11%	4
Communication within the org needs to improve	2	4%	2
Communication within the org is good	2	4%	1
	45		
Work Environment			
Positive work environment	37	37%	14
Work environment is made up of positive teams	29	29%	11
Collaborative	17	17%	7
Leadership transparency	8	8%	5
Work/life balance	6	6%	4
Accountability	2	2%	2
	99		

Culture, communication, and work environment emerged as constructs for Research Question 1 (see Table 1). Codes arranged in order by overall prevalence of code (occurrence of code over total number of codes). Included in the table is the number of participants whose transcripts included that code at least once. Data indicated the occurrence of employee statements related to receiving some level of support from leadership as important, with 30% of statements noting that leadership strived to maintain a level of open communication within the organization. Twelve participants mentioned leadership support. Participant 2 stated, "We have that open door. We can go to *him* or *her* whoever really." Participant 3 stated, "Having a great boss helps. The fact that you can communicate, and if you're not happy with something, you can say it, you can have a discussion about it, and it doesn't mean that things will go way, but as long as you can express your concerns or again, be open to discussion, I think that's really important." Participant 5 stated, "I think it is open. When he is here, he always has his door open. Unless he is on the phone or in a meeting, you can go from your direct manager all the way to him and he is always going to listen. I think that is important."

Related to the organization setting the right expectations, participant 11 stated, "Every month we reiterate some of our goals, and sometimes some new ones are discussed; for example, getting a lot of websites launched, being receptive to change, evolving, educating ourselves. Those are some of the ones that stick with me." Participant 12 continued this theme and stated, "It may be 'Hey, you do have a lot of work to do. You can do great things here, but you've got to work really hard and you've got to be open to learn.' I think it is a culture that they want to have people who are high achievers,

who are motivated, rise up and those who are not maybe they are not the right fit for the

company. I think that by having the high achievers rise up, that can motivate new hires,

things like that, and then even further enhance the culture of excellence. I think that that

is the goal of management. It is one of the core principles, 'Be intolerant of mediocrity.'"

Related to trust in leadership, participants made statements regarding the

importance of trusting leadership. Participant 3 stated, "I guess, that's the part that makes

me more prideful than anything is that I can walk into the CEO's office and just talk to

him about anything." Participant 4 stated, "It's [sic] just a place where pretty much since

day 1, I felt really comfortable and felt this was a place where I could grow

professionally and personally. So far, it's [sic] proven me right." When asked if it is

important that employees trust leadership, Participant 5 exclaimed, "Yes, definitely." And

when asked why she felt as such, participant 5 stated, "If there is no trust between

employees and management, employees will think that management doesn't [sic] care

about them so job performance might go down, or the employee might start looking

somewhere else. Participant 7 stated, "I think there's a strong connection in, I guess, the

employees to the leaders when it comes to trust." Participant 8 stated, "Feeling like

someone matters and being inspired by your coworkers, I think that's something that's

pretty common throughout the company."

Related to communication as a construct of the organizational factors that affect

EVI; the occurrence of participant statements identified 47% of statements associated

leadership being committed to the vision statement important. Leadership consistently

discussing the vision statement throughout the organization, particularly during the

monthly breakfast meeting emerged as important. Participant 6 stated, "I do kind of feel like those (monthly meetings) are helpful in a way, they recap everything that is going on in *the company*. It goes back to the transparency, because *he* tells us, "Here's how many people have come on as clients. Here is how many have left. Here are the increases. Here are the decreases. Here are the employees that have left. Here are the new employees who've come on board." It is just like other goals that we have hit, or other things that have happened at *the company* to be proud of, I guess." Participant 9 also stated, "I think that with the monthly breakfast meetings here I think the direction of those meetings gear towards that vision. It is not apparent. They are not shoving it down our throats, but it is always there in everything that we do."

Participant comments associated to the organization fostering a positive work environment in the final construct for research question one included participant 3 who stated, "Seeing that not only I can count on other people if I need help with something, but also seeing that other people can count on me. I think it's the whole teamwork aspect or philosophy that we have here." All 14 participants mentioned the positive work environment in the organization and 11 participants commented on the abundance of positive teams within the organization. Participant 9 stated, "I think the culture here...everybody seems very involved with the company. There is not really an employee out here dragging their feet, hating their jobs. Everybody loves it here that I can tell and I think that really boost morale and makes other people want to feel the same way." This was evident by observing how positively employees behaved and interacted with each other throughout the work day. Employees treated each other with respect and had a

smile on their faces. The best quote associated with the organization fostering a positive

work environment came from participant 4 who stated, "We are not rewarded for

competing against each other, we are rewarded for collaborating."

Research Question 2

What employee-related factors affect EVI (Table 2)?

Table 2

Employee Related Factors that Affect EVI

Motivation	Prevalence of code	Percent of prevalence	Number of participants
The organization itself motivates me	26	26%	12
My own personal goals and aspirations motivate me	20	20%	8
The culture of the organization motivates me	17	17%	9
The company itself is inspiring	14	14%	7
My job gives me a sense of purpose	11	11%	8
Rewarding/fulfilling	10	10%	6
Being surrounded by people you can relate to	1	1%	1
	99		
Personal Satisfaction			
Employee commitment to the organization	11	18%	6
The vision statement is important to the employee	11	18%	7
Trust "they trust me"	10	17%	7
I feel acknowledged	10	17%	5
Training is available at all levels	7	12%	4
My immediate supervisor motivates me	6	10%	5
Has the ability to attend training	3	5%	3
People care about me here	1	2%	1
I am recognized here	1	2%	1
	60		
Pride			
Is proud of his/her work within the organization	22	25%	12
Likes to be challenged	22	25%	10
Proud about the company I work for	17	20%	9
A sense of accomplishment	15	17%	9
I am passionate about my job	7	8%	5
I feel part of the organization, part of something great	4	5%	2
	87		

Motivation, personal satisfaction, and pride emerged as constructs for Research Question 2 (see Table 2). Codes arranged in order by overall prevalence of code (occurrence of code over total number of codes). Included in the table is the number of participants whose transcripts included that code at least once. "The organization itself motivates me" emerged as a significant motivation factor with occurrence of employee statements totaling 24% of statements associating the organization as a motivator. Participant 6 stated, "I really enjoy the atmosphere. It feels like a challenge, and I feel like I have purpose in my department, and I feel like I am important, and I love the work. Just, overall really enjoy being here." Participant 7 stated, "I really love the work I do and I do not want to do anything else but this, so that is I guess what keeps me here. Then the people that I work with here are experts in what they do, and that I know that I feel fully supported in my role. I know that I am not going to be perfect but I have people around me who are going to help me try to achieve that and help me mold my weaknesses into strengths and vice versa. I really could not see myself doing anything else but this. I like the work environment here. It is very collaborative. I like our team; I like the team effort that we put forth for this." Twelve participants mentioned the organization itself being a motivator.

Eight participants commented on their own personal goals and aspirations as motivators associated with EVI. Some comments included participant 3 who stated, "It is always nice to hear, 'Hey, good job,' or any type of criticism [sic]." To know that you are on the right path is something; it is motivating. It is important, yes." Participant 9 commented on an internal award program related to personal goals and aspirations and

stated, "We all want to be successful at what we do. That is the most important thing, but getting praise from your manager or from your peers, we have this thing called *Cheers for Peers* and you can anonymously praise somebody or give kudos to one of your coworkers to motivate, improve performance." Participant 12 commented, "What keeps me here? Honestly, I love to learn. I am always learning new things like putting together presentations to give a speech about say certain advertising, updates in the industry. I feel like I am learning and being challenged are good. I feel like I am growing as a professional employee, as a person on a day-to-day basis so the situations that I am in are good for me, from a professional perspective."

Personal satisfaction emerged as the second construct with employee commitment to the organization and the importance of the vision statement leading the construct (with 18% each). Six participants mentioned their commitment to the organization and seven participants commented that the vision statement is important. Related to commitment to the organization some participant comments were, participant 2 stated, "I do not want to see *the company* fail". Participant 3 stated, "I want to say that I'm pretty committed to this company." Feeling trusted and feeling acknowledged emerged as important factors with 17% each. When asked how it feels that co-workers and leadership acknowledge you, participant 1 stated, "It makes me feel a part of the organization. It makes me feel accepted, wanted, appreciated." Participant 12 noted, "They will generally come by and tell you, "You did great on this." They will give you some feedback. They will say, "You've been working really hard." They will give you some additional responsibility or ask you to do things like this. The people in upper management will acknowledge what

you are doing, you are working hard, and that those efforts are apparent." Related to acknowledgment, participant 13 stated, "I think that it is good for morale. I do know that people are different in what they need for affirmation. Me, personally, I am big on if I put a lot of time and effort in to something and it was a big project and it did good for a client and I hear, "Good job," or something, that does a lot for me. For some people, they need that on a daily basis for everything they do." Twelve participants mentioned the importance of feeling trusted and acknowledged within the organization.

Pride emerged as the final construct of employee related factors that affect EVI with the occurrence of employee statements at 25% noting pride of his/her work within the organization as important. Participant 5 stated, "It should come from every person. We all are very hands-on with our clients so pride should be one of those things that drive us. The quality of work that you do, the quality of your conversations, the level of care that you take to make sure that you are providing the best customer service, because we're not only providing a product, but a service, and I think a lot of that is intertwined."

When discussing liking a challenge, participant 1 stated, "I take it personal. If I say I am going to do something, I want to meet that. I want to make sure I do it in that time span or by that due date, and I think that is part of my work ethic." Participant 5 stated, "I like to see what I do, how it affects my clients, my customers, the partners that we have. It makes me want to strive to do better for them and, if there is anything I can see that might be helpful towards people within departments here, then I want to make sure those are streamlined as well so that we can become the best we can towards that." When asked about liking the challenges at work, participant 10 stated, "Yes." In addition,

when asked if a challenging work environment created motivation, participant 10 stated, "Definitely."

Research Question 3

How do these factors interrelate to influence EVI?

Data revealed that factors interrelate to influence EVI by way of factors associating with other factors across constructs. While observing the organization, it was noted that factors existed in fluidity within the organization; that is, organizational factors co-exist with employee related factors and vice versa. Leadership's ability to create and develop a culture that is supportive, set the right expectations and fostered trust throughout the organization allowed employees to identify that the organization itself is motivating, the culture of the organization is motivating, and the company itself is inspiring. Leadership's commitment to the vision statement and consistently communicating the vision statement while establishing transparency allowed employees to trust leadership and commit to the organization. When asked about trusting leadership participant 10 stated, "They have been mostly transparent and they do not hide. However, I did not trust them the first day that I got here, obviously, but over the years they have been transparent and they keep their word." When asked if trust in leadership is important, participant 11 stated, "Absolutely. As you are being pushed and challenged and opportunities arise, and just the day-to-days, the ins-and-outs that go with being an employee, you need to feel like you have a safe space, so trusting management is big. I think that can be hard the bigger your organization gets. They do communicate. *He* says,

"You can come to my office. You can come to my desk anytime and talk to me." They all encourage kind of open free two-way street communication."

Trust in leadership and an inspiring culture fostered a feeling of acceptance and acknowledgement allowing employees to believe in the vision statement and work toward achieving the vision. When asked about the culture of the organization participant #4 commented that her decision to come work for the organization years ago considered organization culture and stated, "Internal focus was a big deal for me when I was looking for a job. I definitely wanted it to be collaborative, internally focused, making sure that people were trained up as opposed to high stress and always trying to fight fires." A positive work environment positively influenced employee pride and created a sense of accomplishment for the organization. A sense of accomplishment developed passion for the job and allowed employees to feel part of the organization, part of something great.

Equally, employee related factors such as personal goals and aspirations exist because the organization is stable, the organization communicates the vision statement effectively, and leadership displays its commitment to the vision statement. The sense of purpose employees feel within the organization and that they find their roles rewarding and fulfilling are the result of organizational factors that foster a positive work environment and established the organization as a healthy thriving organization. Participant 14 stated, "I think we really try to start it upfront with them of what our vision is and what our foundation is here. I think just that we care about each other is the important part." As identified in the tables above, trust in leadership emerged as an

important cultural factor. The notion that employees trust leaders is an important

employee-related factor affecting EVI.

Research Question 4

What is the effect of EVI on employee performance?

Data indicated trust in leadership positively affected employee performance as

participants stated the importance of trust in leadership to be a positive effect of EVI on

employee performance. One noted remark from participant 5 who stated, "I think trust on

every level, trust in a manager from our newest starters that are our newest employees,

trust in their trainers, trainees, the managers at the lowest level to the managers at the

highest level." Participant 8 stated, "That just allows me to trust them because at the end

of the day they're looking out for me. Whether it is giving me support where I need it or

telling me the truth about something I did wrong so I do not do it again. That is why I

trust them." Trust developed a sense of employee commitment within the organization

and increased employee performance.

Data indicated leadership's commitment to the vision statement positively

effected employee performance by way of establishing consistent communication of the

vision statement therefore positively influencing employee performance. Ten participants

made statements related to leadership's commitment to the vision statement and nine

participants made statements related to leadership consistently communicating the vision

statement supported the notion that employee vision inspiration positively influenced

employee performance. Participants expressed commitment and support for the

organization and the importance of a positive work environment keeping them energized

and committed to the organization's success. The positive work environment in the organization positively influenced employee performance as evidenced in participants' comments on employee performance. Participant 9 stated, "Everybody loves it here that I can tell and I think that really boost morale and makes other people want to feel the same way." Participant 13 stated, "I like what I do every day. I like the variety of what I do every day. I like that I work on a team and I have multiple people and resources to work with. There is a long list of things and a lot of them are selfish reasons why I like being here and why I probably would not like a different environment. I think many people feel the same way. A lot goes in to it." Data indicated that participants commented on the importance of a positive work environment. When asked if teamwork is important, participant 12 stated, "Yeah, it definitely is. It is essential." There are so many moving parts. There are things that have to be done to even get one [or] two tasks completed that having competent-driven people on your team [is an asset]. They are essential to get things done and to ensure client satisfaction." Participant 13 added, "I like that I work on a team and I have multiple people and resources to work with."

Research Question 5

What is the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction?

The culture of the organization inspired positive employee satisfaction. Participant 6 commented on the internal system of bestowing praise on employees. Leadership allowed employees the opportunity to comment on organizational issues through the *Cheers for Peers* system mentioned previously. When asked about the *Cheers for Peers* system participant 14 stated, "I think most companies do not have the

luxury of allowing team members to convey and express what they want." The

organization consistently communicating the vision statement and applying the

philosophies of the vision statement supported the notion that vision statement

communication is a positive effect of EVI on employee satisfaction. When asked about a

sense of accomplishment, participant 5 stated, "It is really how I want to better myself. It

is how the company wants to better me as well." When asked about the general culture of

the organization, participant 12 stated, "It is inspirational for me to see a company doing

things the right way and then achieving results that help my client's businesses. It

motivates me to see the work that is done have an impact and hearing clients say, "Wow,

this has made a huge change," or "Wow, this is great." "We love this," or "We got a huge

sale from this lead that you guys helped generate for us. I thank you." Seeing those real

tangible successes, that has been something for me that is important and it ties back to the

vision statement and the mission of the company because that's one of the things that we

push for." Participants discussed their feeling accomplished and satisfied with working

conditions in the organization. Participants also mentioned leadership being committed to

the vision statement as a contributor to their feeling satisfied working and representing

the company.

Grounded Theory of EVI

A framework used to identify organizational and personal factors that affect EVI

emerged through inductive analysis from the interview data. According to Charmaz

(2009), grounded theory categories are grounded in data, emphasizing analysis over

description and categories over preconceived ideas and extant theories. By reading and

coding each interview transcript for this study, commonalities in participant statements

appeared. Themes and patterns emerged. A framework developed after associating codes

with participant comments. Comparing participant comments with codes and assembling

themes, constructs related to factors that affect EVI emerged. Through iterative analysis

constructs developed for each research question and within those constructs, factors
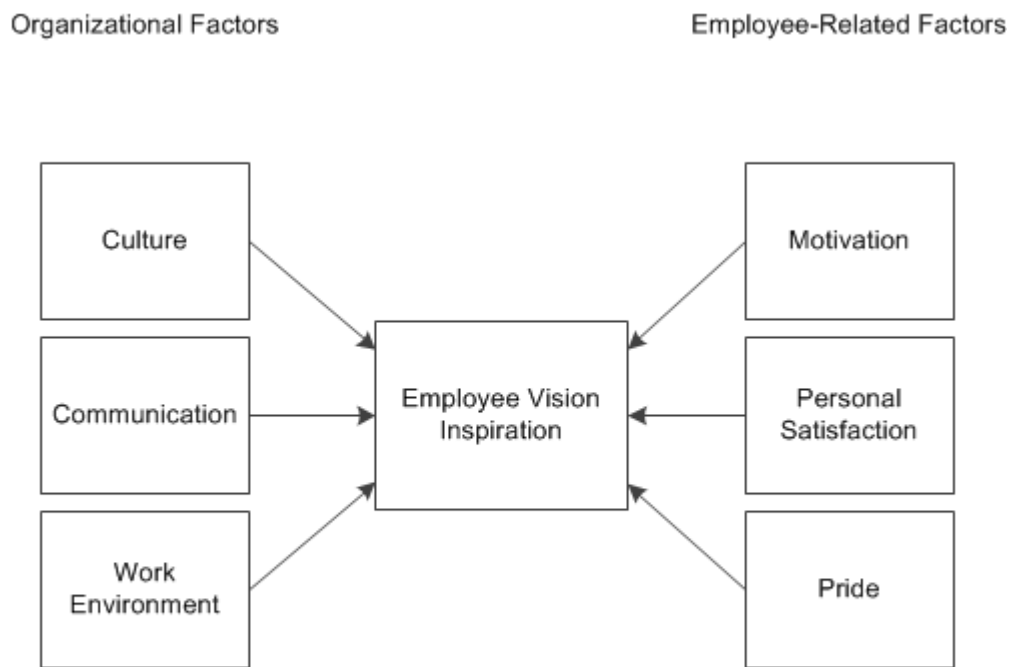
emerged (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Factors affecting EVI

The organizational and personal factors that result in and from EVI started with

categorization of themes identified during an iterative process of coding. Culture,

communication, and work environment emerged as leading constructs of organizational

factors that affect EVI. Supportive leadership and leadership's commitment to the vision statement emerged as significant factors in these constructs with positive work environment emerging as a significant factor in the work environment construct.

Motivation, personal satisfaction, and pride emerged as leading constructs of employee related factors that affect EVI with the organization itself being a significant motivator. Employee commitments to the organization and pride for his/her work within the organization emerged and were important to the personal satisfaction and pride constructs.

Summary

The research setting of the main study and data presented in this chapter addressed each research question. A framework developed. Tables and discussion identified organizational and personal factors affecting EVI as well as the effect of EVI on employee performance and employee satisfaction. Conclusions, discussions, and recommendations presented in Chapter 5 concludes this dissertation.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this qualitative grounded theory study was to explore

organizational and employee-related factors that result in EVI, as well as the ways in

which EVI motivates employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision as

indicated by effect of EVI on employee performance and satisfaction. Using the constant

comparative method of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009) and grounded theory

methodology (Charmaz, 2006), insight into the development of a theory of the factors

that affect EVI allowing employees to personalize their understanding of the

organization's vision and how this EVI manifests itself in employee behaviors directed

toward the achievement of that vision, emerged. The research design for this study was

grounded theory, which enabled the development of a theory of EVI. The research design

incorporated employee interviews to gather relevant information and supported an

examination of the organizational and employee-related factors that result in EVI.

Interpretation of Findings

Data collection, constant comparative coding, and the development of constructs

provided insight into the organizational and employee-related (i.e., personal) factors that

affected EVI. Data analysis also provided insights into ways in which EVI motivated

employee efforts to achieve this organization's vision as indicated by higher levels of

performance and satisfaction.

Participant statements confirmed that organizational leaders created a vision for

this organization with shared values that could and did inspire employees, which extends

Rupprecht et al.'s (2013) notion that leaders must first create a vision before they can

inspire. Participants' commented on the organization's rise to success and their leader

having a vision of what the leader wanted to achieve. This leader was able to implement a

vision into a positively energized environment for employees. Rupprecht et al. (2013)

provided confirmation that leaders first create a vision and mission, shared values, and a

strategy to proceed before they can inspire and empower employees. According to

Rupprecht et al., vision and mission, shared values, and strategy predicted inspiration,

motivation, and influence, while empowerment partially mediated the relationship

between vision and mission, shared values, and strategy, and employee attitudes and

behaviors. Study participants confirmed that they were familiar with the organization's

vision statement and that they understood its objectives.

Participant comments also related to Venus et al. (2013), who found that follower

performance was highest when there was a match between leader emotion and end state

goals. Having spent a considerable amount of time within this organization conducting

interviews and observing the work environment, observations revealed an altruistic

transformational leader who spent time with employees here and there when not doing

the leader's own work, always driving toward the organization's end state goal and

affirming the culture that propelled the organization forward. Venus et al. (2013)

suggested that leader emotion facilitated leaders communicating not only abstract goals,

such as visions and message-incorporated values, but also concrete goals. One aspect of

the organization's commitment to its end state goals was their hiring process where

participant comments alluded to hiring the "right" people as the start of developing a

positive culture of follower and leader. The hiring process within this organization was

rather challenging; not everyone interviewed received a job offer. Those hired to work for this organization were aware of the rigid, fast-paced work environment that perpetuated leadership's vision. Another aspect of matching leader goals and follower performance was the consistent communication of the vision statement at the monthly breakfast meetings, which leadership encouraged all employees to attend. This meeting was an opportunity for leadership to clarify its organizational goals and vision.

The study findings indicated that organizational factors that affect EVI included a perceptive leader who has vision and commitment to the organization such that the organizational environment fostered positive and motivated followership. According to Grant (2012), transformational leaders develop employees' performance by motivating them to go beyond self-interest. Grant posited that transformational leadership is most effective in motivating employees when they interact with the beneficiaries of their work, which highlights how the vision has meaningful consequences for other people.

Similarly, Bronkhorst et al. (2013) identified that a transformational leader shows individualized consideration by diagnosing and elevating the needs of each follower. Transformational leaders become a source of admiration (idealized influence) and stimulate their followers to see the world from new perspectives (intellectual stimulation). Finally, transformational leaders provide inspirational motivation, meaning, and a sense of purpose toward achieving vision goals. Given these qualities, a transformational leader will positively affect work motivation by enhancing the choices made by employees in terms of devoting effort to certain tasks and their willingness to persist in these (Bronkhorst et al., 2013). The findings of the study showed that

employees respected and trusted their leader as well as had some level of admiration as the leader continued to develop the organization by way of ensuring employees become trained, motivated, and inspired. Employee emotions related to respect, training, and trust they in turn received from their leader. The leader in this organization had achieved a level of followership as described in Bronkhorst et al. (2013).

Furthering this notion, Schaubroeck et al. (2011) suggested that leaders inspire and support employees individually and in groups in ways that advance organizational objectives, as with transformational leadership. At other times; however, the same leader can help employees develop themselves as workers in a way that is independent of the organization's cornerstone agendas, and build affect-based trust by conveying support for their well-being as individuals and as group members (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). This study supports Schaubroeck et al. (2011) in that the organization's leader supported employee development with monthly awards for performance, training, and "lunch and learn" time with leadership; thereby providing a mechanism to advance organizational objectives.

Albrecht (2012) studied employee engagement and employee well-being in organizational environments and found that job resources significantly influenced employee engagement and well-being. This study supported Albrecht (2012), who noted that beyond the provision of job-level resources, organizational and team level resources are key motivational constructs, which help explain how greater levels of employee engagement and employee wellbeing exist.

Data in this study identified that the availability of training positively affected performance and job satisfaction as it related to customer service; a cornerstone of the organization's vision statement. Related to customer service and being able to help customers with any issue, participant 14 stated, "If a client has questions and they e-mail me, I am more than happy to jump on it, give them a call if they want clarification on something. Just making sure that they are satisfied with *the company* and that they are happy with our services is what I enjoy about work." Similar to Albrecht (2012), the findings of this study indicated that in the organization studied, the basic resources provided to employees go beyond typical job resources, enabling employees to achieve higher levels of customer service and teamwork, thus cultivating job satisfaction. Study results revealed that the willingness of employees within the organization to go beyond typical job functions was present when the organization's leader provided leadership support, engendered trust, and fostered teamwork.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations for this research existed because the organization considered for this study was a small business with gross revenue of about $12 million. For future studies, more and larger organizations should be studied to see if the factors identified as essential to EVI in this study also emerge as important. Selecting one organization in one U.S. city limited this study. Although the physical location of the participating organization might identify a unique segment of small businesses in the United States, various other cities would present a more diverse cross section of U.S. small businesses. Further study could consider a larger number of organizations throughout a larger geographic footprint.

Future researchers could divide the United States into sections (North, South, East, and West) to determine whether other organizational and employee-related factors affect EVI than those identified in this study because organizations are unique relative to leadership, the business itself, and employee motivations; thus, creating potentially different factors.

The number of participants limited this study. As the organization employed over 50 employees, only 22 employees attended the information session of which 19 met the study criteria. The nature of the organization's business and the work environment itself prevented more employees from participating. In other words, the fast-paced work environment prevented some employees from participating as customer service is of utmost importance to the organization.

Recommendations

Recommendations for further research include development of more constructs by way of studying more organizations. Although codes in future studies would be different relative to organizations' cultures and leadership styles, many more organizational and employee-related constructs could emerge. This study revealed six constructs that supported a theory of organizational and employee-related factors that affect EVI within a single organization. Different constructs obtained by studying other organizations led by visionary leaders might enrich the theory of EVI discovered in this study.

Another recommendation for further research into organizational factors that affect EVI could include research on a broader scale. For example, the organization in this study was a privately held business organization that generated $12 million in annual sales, employed about 50 employees, and was led by one altruistic transformational

leader. Further research could include a larger privately held organization generating over $50 million in annual sales with over 150 employees and with more than one visionary leader. Future research could also include publicly traded organizations within the ranks of a Fortune 500 corporation. Those organizations typically have more than one visionary leader as well as a board of directors overseeing the leadership of the organization.

Future research could consider organizations from various industries, such as manufacturing, construction, or banking. The organization in this study was an Internet marketing business employing mostly generation Y and millennial employees. Future researchers could examine organizations employing a broader spectrum of generations as varying generational cohorts develop under different social and personal influences (e.g., the telephone and the Internet).

Further research could include an in-depth examination of organizational and employee-related factors that create and foster a particular leadership style that best leads to EVI. Schaubroeck et al. (2011) presented that leaders need to inspire and support employees individually and in groups in ways that advance organizational objectives, as with transformational leadership. At other times; however, the same leader can help employees to develop themselves as workers in a way that is independent of the organization's cornerstone agendas and build affect-based trust by conveying support for their well-being as individuals and as group members. Future research could identify the type of leader required to facilitate positive organizational and employee-related factors that affect EVI.

Andressen et al. (2012) studied self-leadership examining the relationship between self-leadership, transformational leadership, and work motivation as it related to job performance and affective commitment. In their study, four dimensions defined transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized considerations. They also considered the influence of the work environment and the leadership model best, which was in concert with Bandura's theory on environmental learning. Andressen et al. compared three competing models of self-leadership, which are theoretically plausible: self-leadership acting (a) as a process factor mediating the relation between transformational leadership and employee motivation; (b) as an input factor, simultaneously with transformational leadership; and (c) as a process factor mediating the relation between work motivation and job performance/affective commitment. Results from structural equation modeling developed in their study showed that self-leadership is a process factor that facilitates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee motivation (Andressen et al., 2012). Further, in their study, Andressen et al. posited that self-leadership is an input factor and acts parallel to transformational leadership. The authors argued that self-management amplifies employee's behavioral modification in addition to a leader's action. The authors also posited that self-leadership might act as a process variable that is subsequent to motivation. When applied to self-leadership, according to Andressen et al. (2012), if an individual decides to engage in a certain action (motivation), self-leadership in terms of self-regulation and self-control requires successfully achieving the intended goals (volition). Andressen et al.'s work somewhat explained defining this study's leader

as an altruistic transformational leader. An altruistic transformational leader has the ability to lead an organization successfully. This structure and focus of the organization studied reflected their vision statement.

Participants in this study noted a trusted and communicative leader who was consistently spreading a message of vision inspiration. Future research can examine such organizations led by vocal visionary leaders. This research on trustful and vocal visionary leaders and how they influence vision inspiration furthers Cho and Perry's (2012) study on intrinsic motivation. Cho and Perry studied leader influence on employee motivation by way of examining managerial trustworthiness, goal directedness, and extrinsic reward expectancy. Their study revealed that employees are intrinsically motivated when leadership is clear in direction and when leadership is trustworthy. The study results also identified that strong leadership positively affects employee satisfaction. Cho and Perry (2012) noted that managers and supervisors also help develop perceptions of leadership trustworthiness and direction for the organization. As connectors to front line workers and management, managers and supervisors are key in leading organizations by way of the direction of top management. The study findings showed that the more positive the work environment for employees, the less interested employees might become in leaving the organization. In addition, strong leadership as well as a guided leadership supports the notion that a positively motivated employee will not want to leave an organization.

Implications

Implications for social change from this study influence organizations, individuals, families, and society. This study might affect organizations by helping them

to understand the importance of focused leadership. Participants noted that leadership's commitment to the vision statement by way of developing an environment of commitment and trust contributed to employee motivation and factors that positively affect EVI. Based on the findings of this study, organizations have the opportunity not only to realize the effectiveness of developing achievable vision statements, but also to develop similar internal research in order to examine their own organizational and employee-related factors that positively affect EVI. Leaders can develop a more positive work environment for employees by attending to the factors discovered in this study.

Participants noted appreciation for the organization in providing what participants consider *much more than a job,* creating an environment of *healthy competition*, and an environment that provides *positive levels of challenges*. Participants' comments related to their personal sense of accomplishment and pride for the organization when they are able to go beyond the call of duty and help achieve success for their clients, the organization, and themselves. Participants also made comments regarding being able to provide for their families. Younger employees commented on being able to consider starting families as an important factor in their motivation and commitment to the organization. Comments made related to employees being able to discuss their work with friends and acquaintances in social settings. This study positively affects individuals by way of developing more confident and accomplished members of society.

The positive affect on individuals relates to Maslow's (1968) hierarchy of needs. Maslow noted that people try to satisfy five types of needs; physiological needs, safety and security needs, belongingness needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs.

Maslow's theory has two underlying principles: (a) everyone starts at the bottom and attempts to move up the pyramid of needs and (b) each need is met before the next one is activated (Maslow, 1968).

Positive feedback noted in this study illustrated employees feeling safe and secure that they belong to something and are at some level, self-actualized. Maslow's five levels of basic needs are the need for food, water, health (physiological), security, safety and stability. Maslow's basic needs identify the need for love and affection as well as a sense of belonging (social), which play a role in employee motivation within an organization. According to Maslow (1968), as humans ascend the ladder of hierarchical needs, they seek to attain respect, prestige, and recognition (Ego/Esteem). Once humans have achieved satisfaction of these needs, they search for the ultimate fulfillment of growth, creativity, and the ability to use skills appropriately (self-actualization). This fulfillment of growth, creativity, and the ability to use skills appropriately can be most apparent in the work environment.

Participant comments related to job security and being able to look toward future growth of the organization. As leadership plans to grow the organization, so too do the employees of this organization have plans to grow with the organization thus, creating a level of security for their families. Through growth of the organization, leadership creates opportunities to hire more employees who will also have the ability to realize the positive work environment described in this study.

This study findings support the organization's ability to facilitate two factors of Herzberg's (1943) employee motivation theory, motivator, and hygiene. Motivator or

intrinsic factors such as achievement and recognition produce job satisfaction. Hygiene or extrinsic factors such as pay and job security, produce job dissatisfaction. The development of interview questions for this study considered Herzberg's two-factor theory ensuring that the questions interpreted correctly. Employees know that there are opportunities within the organization to achieve personal growth, recognition, and more responsibility. Leadership in the organization ensured Herzberg's hygiene factor existed within the organization to help motivate employee performance. Monthly meetings recognize employees for a job well done and employees understand their pay and job security is based on positive performance within the organization e.g. teamwork and customer service.

Data indicated the organization performed at optimum levels by attracting, hiring, and developing employees who are up for a challenge and enjoy success. Vroom's (1964) theory on the belief that employee effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to rewards existed within this organization. According to Vroom, rewards may be either positive or negative. The more positive the reward the more likely the employee will be highly motivated. Interview questions developed for this study considered Vroom's theory of employee motivation to distinguish how employees perceived their organization in terms of expectancy. In other words, the interview questions helped understand what employees expected from the organization as well as understand what leadership of the organization expected from employees.

This study's results are far reaching related to positive social change. Organization leadership has the opportunity to influence employee development creating

a more confident individual who will move through society as a poised and self-assured contributor to society. Organizations that examine and study their internal practices related to organizational and employee-related factors that positively affect EVI become more competitive by way of dedicated and loyal employees. Commitment to achieve a vision and commitment to succeed within an organization elevates employee performance creating a level of competitive advantage allowing organizations to grow and prosper more efficiently.

The significance of this study to organization management and leadership disciplines expands research of how employee motivation and EVI positively affects organization performance. This study might positively influence how organizations develop environments in which employees perform at their best. Kopaneva and Sias (2015) posited that scholars acknowledge employees' input into mission and vision development but little research into the phenomenon has studied it. Kopaneva and Sias (2015) noted the importance of leadership acknowledging employees' perceptions of mission and vision statements. Many leaders are able to articulate visions and strategies and do their best to ensure employees feel appreciated in organizational environments. Further development of vision inspiration theory might augment leadership theory and employee motivation theory to narrow specific leadership attributes necessary to foster employee vision inspiration.

Conclusions

This study's findings may encourage organizations to review their organizational vision statements, and determine whether their organization is capable of developing the

factors that positively affect EVI identified in the study. Humans are the most important capital asset in an organization where providing a positive work environment by way of focused leadership committed to an achievable vision would create an environment that positively affects EVI. As stated by the Co-Chairperson, Co-CEO of Panda Express Inc., "Employees come first, guests second, and financials third." Cherng understands the importance of human capital development for the organization and touts company success to employee development. The study findings revealed factors that positively affect EVI and help develop strong, focused, employee-centric organizations focused on achieving the organization's vision.

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Appendix A: Letter of Cooperation for a Pilot Study

Company Name
Contact Name
Contact Address
Contact Telephone
Contact Email Address

Date:

Dear Luis Luarca,

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct a

pilot study of; A Grounded Theory of the Organizational Factors Affecting Employee

Vision Inspiration in *XZY Company.* As part of this pilot study, I allow you to conduct an

information session within my organization to determine potential employee participants.

I will allow you to conduct interviews with our employees, supervisors, and leadership

with more than one year of employment within the organization and not more than three

years of employment within the organization. You are allowed to use our conference

room(s) or private offices where applicable. I understand your data collection will consist

of interviews and notes and results of those interviews and notes will be available when

your university approves your completed dissertation. Individuals' participation will be

voluntary and at their own discretion.

I understand that our organization's responsibilities include providing a clean, quiet

interview space, typically a conference room or private office. I also know that I reserve

the right to withdraw from this pilot study at any time if our circumstances change.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve this pilot study in this setting and that this plan

complies with the organization's policies.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be

provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission

from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,

XYZ Owner

President XYZ

Walden University policy on electronic signatures: An electronic signature is just as valid as a written signature as long as both parties have agreed to conduct the transaction electronically. Electronic signatures are regulated by the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act. Electronic signatures are only valid when the signer is either (a) the sender of the email, or (b) copied on the email containing the signed document. Legally an "electronic signature" can be the person's typed name, their email address, or any other identifying marker. Walden University staff verifies any electronic signatures that do not originate from a password-protected source (i.e., an email address officially on file with Walden).

Appendix B: Notice of a Pilot Study to Employees

To All Employees;

The leadership of this organization is allowing Mr. Luis Luarca to conduct a confidential

research study on employee motivation specifically related to Employee Vision

Inspiration (EVI) for his dissertation. The results of this study will be available once

completed and published. Your participation in this pilot study is voluntary. If you

choose to participate in this pilot study, please attend an information session with Mr.

Luarca on (insert date) in the conference room for more information.

The leadership of this organization believes there is a benefit in such a pilot study and we

look forward to Mr. Luarca's published findings once analysis of his research within our

organization is completed.

Thank You,
Joe Leader
President/CEO
XYZ Sample Company

Appendix C: Interview Protocol for the Pilot Study

Name: Date of Interview:

Title:

Group/Dept.   Years of Service

Interviewed By: Date:

Consent Given:

Welcome to your interview. You are invited to take part in a pilot study of
the organizational and personal factors that result in and from employee
vision inspiration, as well as the ways in which employee vision inspiration
motivate employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. This
pilot study will also examine the effect of EVI on employee performance and
the effect of employee vision inspiration on employee satisfaction. This
study is conducted by Luis Luarca, a doctoral student at Walden University.
Please feel comfortable in answering as many questions as you like. This
interview is confidential. Nothing said in this interview is personally
attributed to you. All notes of this interview will be written in a manner that
no individual comment can be attributed to a particular person.

The central focus of this pilot study is the effect on employees of an inspiring
organizational vision.

Research Questions	Interview Questions
What organizational factors affect EVI?	Are you familiar with the company's vision statement? In your own words, what does your organization's vision statement mean to you? What is it about the organization's vision that inspires you? Why? Besides the vision itself, what other organizational factors inspire you to work to achieve the vision? Why?

What employee-related factors affect EVI?	What personal factors have caused you to be inspired by the organization's vision? Why?
What is the effect of EVI on employee performance?	What effect has the organization's vision had on your performance? Why?
What is the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction?	What effect has the organization's vision had on your job satisfaction? Why?

Interviewer's Notes:

The best quote from this participant:

The best story from this participant:

The most insightful comment about this organization from this participant:

Appendix D: Interview Protocol

Name: Date of Interview:

Title:

Group/Dept.   Years of Service

Interviewed By: Date:

Consent Given:

Welcome to your interview. You are invited to take part in a research study
of the organizational and personal factors that result in and from employee
vision inspiration, as well as the ways in which employee vision inspiration
motivate employee efforts to help achieve an organization's vision. This
study will also examine the effect of EVI on employee performance and the
effect of employee vision inspiration on employee satisfaction. This study is
conducted by Luis Luarca, a doctoral student at Walden University. Please
feel comfortable in answering as many questions as you like. This interview
is confidential. Nothing said in this interview is personally attributed to you.
All notes of this interview will be written in a manner that no individual
comment can be attributed to a particular person.

The central focus of this study is the effect on employees of an inspiring organizational
vision.

Research Questions	Interview Questions
What organizational factors affect EVI?	Are you familiar with the company's vision statement? In your own words, what does your organization's vision statement mean to you? What is it about the organization's vision that inspires you? Why? Besides the vision itself, what other organizational factors inspire you to work to achieve the vision? Why?

What employee-related factors affect EVI?	What personal factors have caused you to be inspired by the organization's vision? Why?
What is the effect of EVI on employee performance?	What effect has the organization's vision had on your performance? Why?
What is the effect of EVI on employee satisfaction?	What effect has the organization's vision had on your job satisfaction? Why?

Interviewer's Notes:

The best quote from this participant:

The best story from this participant:

The most insightful comment about this organization from this participant:

Appendix E: Notice of Study to Employees

To All Employees;

The leadership of this organization is allowing Mr. Luis Luarca to conduct a confidential research study on employee motivation specifically related to Employee Vision Inspiration (EVI) for his dissertation. The results of this study will be available once completed and published. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose to participate in this study, please attend an information session with Mr. Luarca on (insert date) in the conference room for more information.

The leadership of this organization believes there is a benefit in such a study and we look forward to Mr. Luarca's published findings once analysis of his research within our organization is completed.

Thank You,
Joe Leader
President/CEO
XYZ Sample Company

Appendix F: Letter of Cooperation

Company Name
Contact Name
Contact Address
Contact Telephone
Contact Email Address

Date:

Dear Luis Luarca,

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled; A Grounded Theory of the Organizational Factors Affecting Employee Vision Inspiration in *XZY Company*. As part of this study, I allow you to conduct an exploratory survey within my organization to determine potential employee participants. I authorize you to conduct interviews with our employees, supervisors, and leadership with more than one year of employment within the organization and not more than three years of employment within the organization. You are allowed to use our conference room(s) or private offices where applicable. I understand your data collection will consist of interviews and notes and results of those interviews and notes will be available when your university approves your completed dissertation. Individuals' participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion.

I understand that our organization's responsibilities include providing a clean, quiet interview space, typically a conference room or private office. I also know that I reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting and that this plan complies with the organization's policies.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be

provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission

from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,

XYZ Owner

President XYZ

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