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Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Change Effectiveness

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Abstract

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Nomahlathi N. Mgqibi

MBA, Liberty University, 2015

BS, University of Baltimore, 2013

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

October 2019

Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness. The theoretical framework for the study was transformational leadership. Midlevel managers who successfully implemented 1 or more organizational change initiatives in any large organization in the United States ($n = 107$) were conveniently selected to participate in the study. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X-Short was used to measure transformational leadership and the Project Implementation Profile (PIP) was used to measure organizational change effectiveness. The overall model, multiple linear regression, revealed a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness, F (5, 101) = 2.712, $p < 0.024$, and $R^2 = 0.12$. However, the independent variables were not statistically significant. Adoption of the findings of this study might assist business leaders to improve organizational change initiatives through standardized processes, which could improve productivity and minimize financial losses. The implications of this study for positive social change include the potential for long-term sustainable employment practices that might empower employees to be financially healthy and lead to improved quality of life.

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Dedication

I dedicate this doctoral study to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ. All glory and praise belongs to you. I also dedicate it to my mother, Helena Nomalungiselelo Mgqibi. God has answered your prayers. My uncle, Jeremiah Mgqibi, thank you for teaching me the value of education. Finally, I dedicate this study to TB Joshua. Thank you for allowing God to use you to change lives, nations, and the world.

Acknowledgments

Thank you, Jesus Christ, for blessing me exceedingly, abundantly, and more than I could ever imagine. You made a way when there was no way for me to embark on this doctoral journey. To my previous Committee Chair, Dr. Robert Miller and Committee Member, Dr. Jorge Gaytan, thank you for making sure that I had the foundation needed to complete this doctoral study. To my current Committee Chair, Dr. Chad Sines; Committee Member, Dr. Laura Thompson; and University Research Reviewer, Dr. Mary Dereshiwsky, thank you for your support and guidance.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Organizational change is a process of moving an organization from one equilibrium point to another (Naveed, Jantan, Saidu, & Bhatti, 2017). Organizational change is an important process that organizations must go through to remain competitive (Sune & Gibb, 2015). Militaru and Zanfir (2016) asserted that organizational change is an absolute necessity in a competitive environment. Organizational change failure results in costly financial losses for the organizations. According to Mellert, Scherbaum, Oliveira, and Wilke (2015), U.S. businesses lose a minimum of $399 million a year from organizational change failure. Nging and Yazdanifard (2015) argued that transformational leadership is the effective leadership style required to implement organizational change successfully.

Background of the Problem

While researchers reveal some organizational change efforts have resulted in organizational success, too often, organizational change initiatives fail and business leaders of large organizations are concerned about how to remain competitive in an increasingly unpredictable environment (Heckmann, Steger, & Dowling, 2016). Organizational change initiatives can be challenging to achieve successfully as evidenced by high implementation failure rates. In a survey conducted by Sull, Homkes, and Sull (2015), two-thirds of leaders reported they have failed to implement organizational change effectively. Similarly, Heckmann et al. (2016) revealed that as high as 70% of organizational change initiatives fail.

Successful execution of organizational change is a critical factor for all organizations to survive and succeed in a highly dynamic and competitive environment (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). Thus, understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness could help business leaders gain knowledge to improve effectiveness of the organizational change process, which could increase productivity and minimize financial losses. Therefore, the purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness.

Problem Statement

Failure to execute organizational change effectively remains a challenge for business leaders (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). U.S. businesses lose a minimum of $399 million a year from organizational change failure (Mellert et al., 2015). The general business problem was some business leaders fail to execute organizational change effectively, resulting in financial losses for their organizations. The specific business problem was some business leaders of large organizations in the United States do not understand the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. The independent variables were idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The dependent variable was organizational change effectiveness. The target population comprised of business leaders of large organizations in the United States. The implications for positive social change include the potential for business leaders to gain knowledge to improve effectiveness of the organizational change process, which could increase productivity and minimize financial losses. Furthermore, productivity growth may lead to a persistent employment effect and, thus, to the reduction of unemployment through long-term sustainable employment practices. Sustainable employment practices may empower employees to become financially healthy, which will lead to an improved quality of life in society.

Nature of the Study

Researchers employ the quantitative research method to examine relationships between variables in the form of correlation or comparison (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). Based upon the purpose of this study, which was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness, the quantitative method was the most suitable.

Researchers use the qualitative research method to explore and understand perceptions regarding a phenomenon (Leichtman & Toman, 2017). Because my focus was not to explore participants' perceptions related to a phenomenon, the qualitative method was not appropriate for this study. Finally, the mixed-methods research methodology is appropriate when the researcher combines both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect and analyze data (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015). The mixed-methods research methodology was not suitable for this study because the qualitative method as identified previously was not suitable for this research study.

Researchers use the correlational design to examine the relationship between two or more variables (Curtis, Comiskey, & Dempsey, 2016). Therefore, the correlational design was the most appropriate design for this study because the purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. Other designs, such as experimental and quasiexperimental are appropriate when the researcher is seeking to make inferences about the cause-and-effect relationships between independent and dependent variables (Zellmer-bruhn, Caligiuri, & Thomas, 2016). Therefore, experimental and quasiexperimental designs were not appropriate for this study.

Research Question

The central research question guiding this study was: What is the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness?

Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis (*H_0*): There is no relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness.

Alternative Hypothesis (*H_1*): There is a relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this quantitative correlational study was the transformational leadership theory. Dowton (1973) first developed the term transformational leadership. Transformational leadership emerged as an important approach to leadership with the work of Burns (1978). Burns identified the following key constructs underlying transformational leadership theory: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration. Idealized influence is divided further into two subfactors: idealized attributes and idealized behavior (Krishman, 2005). Bass (1985) extended the work of Burns by explaining the psychological mechanisms that underlie transformational leadership.

The transformational approach to leadership encompasses many facets, which include values, ethics, emotions, and long-term goals (Northouse, 2016). People exhibiting transformational leadership style are effective at influencing followers to act in ways that support greater good (Northouse, 2016). According to Burns (1978), transformational leaders transform and inspire people. As applied to this study, I expected the independent variables, which were idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, measured by the Multifaceted Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), to predict organizational change effectiveness because Al-Qura'an (2015) discovered a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness. Figure 1 is a graphical depiction of the transformational leadership theory as it applied to examine organizational change effectiveness.

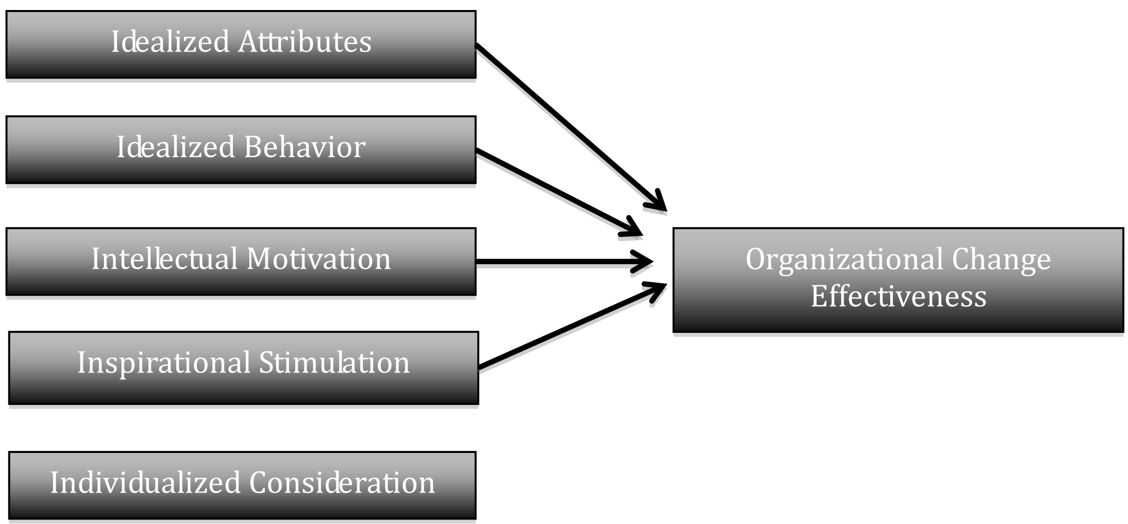

Figure 1. Transformational leadership theory in relation to organizational change effectiveness.

Operational Definitions

Assigned leadership: Assigned leadership occurs when an organization formal appoints an individual to a leadership position (Northouse, 2018).

Organizational change: a process of moving an organization from one equilibrium point to another (Naveed, Jantan, Saidu, & Bhatti, 2017)

Contingent reward: adoption of a reward system by leaders in exchange for the attainment of desired goals from followers (Dartey-Baah, 2015).

Emergent leadership: individuals who arise as leaders and exert significant influence over other members of the team without assigned formal leadership responsibility (Charlier, Stewart, Greco, & Reeves, 2016; Hoch & Dulebohn, 2017).

Laissez-Faire leadership: refers to a leader who avoids making decisions and provides followers with the power to make decisions (Amanchukwu, Stanley, & Ololube, 2015).

Management-by-Exception: leadership approach that involves corrective criticism, negative reinforcement, and negative feedback (Khan, Nawaz, & Khan, 2016).

Transformational leadership: leadership approach that involves inspirational articulation of a compelling vision and a clear set of organizational goals or missions, which provides meaning to all sets of activities throughout an organization (Barbuto Jr, 2001).

Transactional leadership: refers to a leader who negotiates and trade favors to obtain an agreement from the followers on expected goals and payoffs for completing the job (Northouse, 2016).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

According to Polit and Beck (2012), assumptions are circumstances in research, which researchers assume as truth. The primary assumption of this study was that participants would give an honest response to the questionnaires, as inaccurate responses could negatively affect the results of the study. Another assumption was that participants would correctly comprehend the questionnaire.

Limitations

A limitation is a weakness that potentially limits the validity of the results (Patton, 2015). According to Akaeze (2016), limitations are external conditions, which restrict the scope and have the potential to affect the outcome of the study. The study contained three limitations. First, data collection for this study was limited to responses from questionnaires. Second, information collected from participants lacked detailed responses because questionnaires consisted of closed-ended questions. Third, convenience sampling limited the potential to generalize the results.

Delimitations

A delimitation is a boundary and parameter to which a study is deliberately confined (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In this study, delimitation included collecting data from mid-level managers who have experience in organizational change initiatives in any large business in the United States. The study focused on the relationship between transformational leadership’s idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. Additionally, I used questionnaires that consisted of closed-ended questions to collect data.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

While many organizational leaders acknowledge the importance of organizational change effectiveness, failure to execute effectively organizational change remains a challenge (Chou, 2014). U.S. businesses lose a minimum of $399 million a year from organizational change failure (Mellert et al., 2015). The high costs of the organizational change failure warrant scholars to examine the relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational change effectiveness. This study is significant to leaders of large organizations in the United States in that leaders may obtain a practical model for understanding the relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational change effectiveness.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for positive social change include the potential for business leaders to gain knowledge to improve effectiveness of the organizational change process, which could increase productivity and minimize financial losses. Furthermore, productivity growth may lead to a persistent employment effect and, thus, to the reduction of unemployment through long-term sustainable employment practices. Sustainable employment practices may empower employees to become financially healthy and lead to an improved quality of life in society.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

To conduct this review of the literature, I obtained information from the field of leadership theories and organizational change studies. I accessed scholarly peer-reviewed literature using databases available from the Walden University Library, including ABI/INFORM Complete, Emerald Management Journals, Science Direct, Business Source Complete, and Google Scholar. Keyword search terms included *change, organizational change, change management, change implementation, strategy implementation, leadership, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership*. The literature I reviewed for this doctoral study consisted of 113 sources with a publication date from 2015–2019. The percentage of references within 5 years based on the anticipated chief academic officer's approval date is 88%. The literature review includes 83% peer-reviewed sources with publication dates from 2015–2019.

Leadership Theories

In the following section, I addressed different leadership theories to reveal how the leadership theories, especially transformational leadership can be effective in organizational change initiatives decision making. Leadership researchers argue that leadership styles are essential to the success of organizational change implementation (Ghasabeh, Soosay, & Reaiche, 2015). The theories that I discussed are *transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire*.

Transformational leadership. Dowton (1973) first developed the term transformational leadership. Transformational leadership emerged as an important approach to leadership with the work of Burns (1978). Burns identified the following key constructs underlying transformational leadership theory: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration. Idealized influence is further split into two subfactors: idealized attributes and idealized behavior (Krishman, 2005). Bass (1985) extended the work of Burns by explaining the psychological mechanisms that underlie transformational leadership.

The transformational approach to leadership encompasses many facets, which include values, ethics, emotions, and long-term goals (Northouse, 2016). People exhibiting a transformational leadership style are effective at influencing followers to act in ways that support greater good (Northouse, 2016). According to Burns (1978), transformational leaders transform and inspire people. Barbuto Jr (2001) stated that transformational leadership involves the creation and inspirational articulation of a compelling vision and a clear set of organizational goals or missions, which provide meaning to all sets of activities throughout an organization.

Northouse (2018) argued that transformational leaders have a high degree of integrity and character. Transformational leaders are concerned with developing and improving followers to their fullest potential (Avolio, 1999). Leadership behaviors associated with transformational leadership, include communication that focuses on a strong sense of purpose, behavior that fosters respect, confidence in goal achievement, inclusivity in problem-solving, innovation that encourages learning, and motivation that focuses on followers' development and growth (Northouse, 2018).

Leaders who exhibit transformational leadership are often effective at motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater good rather than their self-interests. Bass (1985) argued that transformational leadership motivates followers to do more than expected by (a) raising followers' levels of consciousness about the importance and value of idealized goals, (b) motivating followers to transcend their self-interest for the sake of the organization or team, and (c) encouraging followers to address higher-level needs. Transformational leadership results in people believing in themselves and their contribution to the greater common good (Bass, 1985).

Benis and Nanus (1985) identified four common strategies used by leaders in transforming organizations: *vision, social architects, trust*, and *creative deployment of self*. Benis and Nanu argued that only those within an organization can clearly articulate the vision of an organization successfully. Benis and Nanu noted that when leaders have established trust in an organization, a sense of integrity and healthy identity grows for the organization.

Posner and Kouzes (1988) developed a model by interviewing more than 1,300 middle and senior-level managers in private and public organizations. Posner and Kouzes model consists of five fundamental practices: *model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process*, *enables others to act*, and *encourage the heart*. These practices enable leaders to accomplish goals (Posner & Kouzes, 1988). Posner and Kouzes model emphasizes behaviors and is prescriptive. The model recommends what leaders need to accomplish to become effective. Posner and Kouzes argued that outstanding leaders are effective at working with people because they create a compelling vision that can guide people's vision. Posner and Kouzes encouraged the leaders to challenge and change the status quo and step into the unknown.

Bass and Avolio (1990) recommended that organizations should teach transformational leadership to all management positions. Bass and Avolio argued that it could positively affect organizations' performance. Furthermore, Bass and Avolio suggested that organizations should use transformational leadership approach in recruitment, selection, training, and development. Additionally, a transformational leadership approach can improve decision-making processes, quality initiatives, and team development (Bass & Avolio, 1990). In conclusion, the transformational leadership style requires leaders to know their strengths and weaknesses to relate to the needs of their followers and the changing dynamics within their organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

According to Nging and Yazdanifard (2015), leaders use different leadership styles when implementing organizational change initiatives. Nging and Yazdanifard argued that transformational leadership is the effective leadership style required to implement organizational change effectively. Nging and Yazdanifard concluded that different changing processes require different leadership styles including transformational leadership. Holten and Brenner (2015) identified processes, which may contribute to followers' positive reactions to change. Holten and Brenner discovered that transformational leadership approach has a direct, long-term effect on follower' change appraisal. Transformational leaders contribute to followers' positive reactions to change (Northouse, 2016).

Ghasabeh et al. (2015) argued that transformational leadership is appropriate in the context of globalized markets, which results in the convergence of societies toward a uniform pattern of economic, political and cultural organization. Ghasabeh et al. argued that in the absence of effective leadership, organizations are not capable of effectively implementing changes at the organizational level. Empirical studies highlighted transformational leadership as an enabler of innovation (Ghasabeh et al., 2015).

Quintana, Park, and Cabrera (2015) argued that transformational leaders motivate and inspire employees to achieve more than expected. Difficult goals enhance intrinsic motivation, which induces employees to place extra effort to achieve organizational goals (Quintana et al., 2015). Almutairi (2016) revealed that effective organizational commitment mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and performance.

The disadvantages of using transformational leadership style, include difficulty in defining the parameters because it covers such a wide range of activities and characteristics, including motivating, creating a vision and being a change agent, to name a few. Furthermore, the parameters of transformational leadership often overlap with conceptualizations of leadership (Bass, 1985). Bryman (1992) pointed out that people often treat transformational and charismatic leadership styles synonymously, even though according to Bass charisma is a component of transformational leadership.

Tracy and Hinkin (1998) noted a substantial overlap between each of the four constructs of transformational leadership. Tracy and Hinkin asserted the dimensions of transformational leadership theory are not clearly delimited. Another criticism is that transformational leadership treats leadership as a personality trait rather than a behavior that people can learn (Bryman, 1992). If it is a trait, training people in transformational leadership approach will be more problematic as it is difficult to teach people how to change their traits (Bryman, 1992).

Transformational leaders create changes, advocate new directions, and establish a new vision. Transformational leadership role gives the impression that the leaders are placing themselves above the followers' needs. However, Avolio (1999) refuted this criticism and contended that transformational leaders can be participative and directive as well as democratic and authoritarian. Related to this criticism, some researchers have argued that transformational leadership focuses primarily on leaders (Avolio, 1999). Thus, it has failed to provide attention to followers.

Bass and Riggio (2006) believed that transformational leadership is at the core of issues around the process of transformation and change. However, Bass and Riggio conceded there has been relatively minimal research examining how transformational leadership affects change in organizations. Wang, Ma, and Zhang (2014) discovered that a transformational leadership style has a positive effect on organizational justice and job characteristics. Wang et al. concluded that a transformational leadership style has an affirmative implication on motivation.

Transformational leadership factors. Transformational leadership factors are idealized attributes, idealized behavior, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration.

Idealized attributes. Two components that measure the idealized attributes are attributional component and behavioral component. An attributional component refers to the attributions of leaders made by followers based on perceptions they have of their leaders and behavioral component refers to the follower's observations of leader behavior (Al-Yami, Galdas, & Watson, 2018). According to Al-Yami et al (2018), transformational leaders who demonstrate idealized attributes earn credit and respect from their followers for emphasizing the importance of the moral and ethical consequences of key decisions. Carlton, Holsinger Jr, Riddell, and Bush (2015) suggested that idealized leadership behaviors should be the focus of workforce education and development efforts.

Idealized behavior. Idealized behavior is a leadership behavior that arouses strong follower emotions and identification with the leader (Aga, Noorderhaven, & Vallejo, 2016). Transformational leaders who demonstrate idealized behaviors sacrifice their own interests in advancing the interests of their followers (Bai, Lin, & Li, 2016). Leaders are in a position to set an example and influence the behavior of followers around them as followers learn by observing and emulating attractive and credible behavior (Downe, Cowell, & Morgan, 2016). Graham, Ziegert, and Capitano (2015) suggested that when leaders utilize a positive frame, they might inspire followers to promote organizational goals through their behaviors.

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation is leadership behavior that stimulates followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leader and the organization (Aga et al, 2016). This type of leadership behavior supports followers as they try new approaches and develop innovative ways of dealing with organizational issues. Leaders reveal to employees new approaches to investigate old problems, thus cultivating employees' innovation capabilities (Bai et al., 2016). Afsar, Badir, Saeed, and Hafeez (2017) highlighted that leaders provide guidance, encouragement and support the initiatives of employees to explore new opportunities for the benefit of the organization.

Jyoti and Dev (2015) examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee creativity. Transformational leadership yielded positive results in the form of employee creativity, which managers can use to generate sustainable competitive advantages for their organizations. Jyoti and Dev revealed there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee creativity. Jyoti and Dev recommended that leaders should adopt a transformational style and promote an open environment that encourages innovation and creative problem-solving.

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation is the description of a leader who communicates high expectation to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision in the organization (Khalifa, & Ayoubi, 2015). According to Khalifa and Ayoubi (2015), inspirational motivation enhances team spirit. Transformational leaders build collective aspirations, beliefs, a sense of community-based relationships, shared values, and common goals (Guay & Choi, 2015). Inspirational motivation reflects leaders' visions of what is right and important, including how to accomplish organizational goals (Veríssimo & Lacerda, 2015). According to Atmojo (2015), a transformational leader should possess the ability to articulate and align the vision of an organization to the followers. Atmojo suggested that transformational leaders should not use directive statements to transmit vision but through inspiration and motivation.

Individualized consideration. The individualized consideration represents leaders who provide a supportive environment to their followers (Bai et al., 2016). With this approach, leaders may use delegation to help followers grow through personal challenges. Individualized consideration concentrates on identifying employees' individual needs and empowering followers to build a learning climate (Ghasabeh, Soosay, & Reaiche, 2015). Leaders who use individualized consideration approach, coach and mentor followers, while considering the needs, abilities, interests, and goals (Guay & Choi, 2015).

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership refers to a leader who negotiates and trade favors with followers to accomplish goals (Northouse, 2018). Downton (1973) described transactional leadership as representing the fulfillment of contractual obligations, which over time creates trust and establishes a relationship with mutual benefits between a leader and a follower. Behaviors of a transactional leader involve an exchange process in which a transactional leader provides rewards in return for the subordinates' performance (Burns, 1978).

Transactional leadership pursues a cost-benefit exchange approach with the subordinate. According to Downe et al (2016), transactional leaders intervene only to set parameters, reward excellent performance, and discipline. Transactional leaders set goals and provide feedback and rewards to followers as a means of assisting followers in achieving pre-specified performance objectives.

Empirical research revealed that transactional leadership is associated with team performance and creativity (Anderson & Sun, 2017). Transactional leadership involves exchanges between leadership and employees, with rewards and punishments as key motivators. Transactional leadership emphasizes creativity by providing clear structure and standards, in other words, followers are not innovative but focus on expectations and regulations (Kark, Van Dijk, & Vashdi, 2018).

Transactional leadership approach does change or challenge the follower, but rather uses positional power to influence the follower to achieve organizational goals. Gottfredson and Aguinis (2017) argued the presence of contingent rewards improves the positive effect of the follower, which then translates into improved performance; conversely, not receiving rewards when they are merited likely causes decrease in job satisfaction, which translates into poor performance.

Transactional leadership differs from transformational leadership; the transactional leader does not individualize the needs of the followers (Bai et al., 2016). Transactional leaders, who focus their attention on achieving agreed standards, intervene only when the performance is below standards. Transactional leaders guide and motivate subordinates towards the completion of goals by clarifying role descriptions and setting tasks requirements. Transactional leadership has two key characteristics. First, transactional leaders tend to use rewards to motivate employees. Second, transactional leaders take creative action only when followers fail to complete the required tasks or underperform (Bai et al., 2016). In contrast, transformational leadership involves creation of a shared vision that employees are encouraged and empowered to pursue.

Deichmann and Stam (2015) investigated the effects of transformational or transactional leadership on identity. Deichmann and Stam argued that transformational and transactional leadership approaches are one of the most styles influencing the creativity of employees. Both leadership styles have the capacity to motivate followers to generate ideas for the organization. Deichmann and Stam revealed that both transformational and transactional leadership is effective in motivating followers. However, the effect of transactional leadership is contingent on leaders exchanging rewards to advance organizational goals. Thus, Khan (2017) argued that transactional leadership style might not be effective in managing the status quo.

Judge and Piccolo (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of more than 87 studies, examining the correlation between transformational, transactional leadership, and various performance outcomes. Judge and Piccolo found an overall validity coefficient of .44 for transformational leadership and .39 for transactional leadership. The results indicated that transformational leadership produces employees who perform because the employees take greater ownership of their work.

Transactional leadership factors. The transactional leadership factors are contingent reward and management-by-exception. Management-by-exception has two forms: *active* and *passive*.

Contingent reward. A contingent reward is the adoption of a reward system by leaders in exchange for the attainment of desired goals from followers (Dartey-Baah, 2015). Contingent reward approach focuses on achieving results (Khan, Nawaz, &Khan, 2016). Key indicators of contingent reward include performance (Khan et al., 2016). According to Anderson and Sun (2017), the contingent reward approach influences job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, and commitment to organizational change. Khan et al argued that contingent reward is effective when leaders use it to motivate employees to achieve higher levels of performance, although not as much as any of the transformational factors. Transactional leaders' use of contingent rewards inspire the employees, directly and indirectly, to exert extra effort for goal attainment.

Management-by-exception. Management-by-exception is a leadership approach that involves corrective criticism, negative reinforcement, and negative feedback (Khan et al., 2016). The leader uses corrective criticism, gives negative feedback, or applies other types of negative reinforcement (Northouse, 2016). It tends to be more ineffective than contingent reward or transformational leadership. Management-by-exception style approach has two forms: *active* and *passive*. Leaders who use management by exception (active) approach does not inspire workers to achieve beyond the expected goals, while leaders who use management by exception (passive) approach fail to provide goals and standards (Bass & Avolio, 2004). A leader using the active approach watches followers closely for mistakes and then takes corrective action. A leader using a passive approach intervenes only after problems have arisen. Transactional leaders who use an active approach monitor subordinates' performance for mistakes, whereas in the passive approach, leaders intervene only when employees do not meet expectations.

Laissez-Faire leadership. Laissez-Faire describes leaders who allow subordinates to work on their own (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Laissez-Faire leadership is the absence of leadership and is the most passive and ineffective leadership style. Amanchukwu et al. (2015) argued that laissez-faire leadership might be the worst leadership style. Laissez-Faire leadership is distinct from both transformational and transactional leadership in that leaders avoid taking responsibility for leadership altogether. Laissez-Faire leaders refrain from giving or making decisions and do not involve themselves in the development of their followers. With laissez-faire leadership style, contingent rewards are important, but not as a contingency.

Wong and Giessner (2018) stated that a laissez-faire leadership style is more passive and dismissive of followers' needs. However, laissez-faire leadership approach can increase followers' feelings of efficacy and knowledge exchange between followers; however, may not always result in such positive follower perceptions as research studies demonstrated subordinates' uncertainty and resistance against discretion at work, for example, reduced team performance and employee satisfaction (Wong & Giessner, 2018).

One of the advantages of laissez-faire leadership is that team members have so much autonomy, which could lead to high job satisfaction and increased productivity (Amanchukwu et al. 2015). Yang (2015) argued that laissez-faire leadership style is more effective when used at a later phase than the early phase of interaction between a leader and follower. Johnson (2014) conducted a quantitative research study to examine the relationship between the employees' perception of leadership style and the employees' level of job satisfaction. The study included 292 employees. Johnson discovered a negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership style and employees' level of job satisfaction.

Leadership

Leadership is a process whereby an individual influence a group of individuals toward attainment of a common goal (Northouse, 2018). As a process, leaders can observe and learn leadership behaviors. According to Northouse (2018), leadership is a highly valued complex phenomenon with universal appeal. Despite the abundance of literature on the topic, leadership has presented a major challenge to researchers and practitioners interested in understanding the nature of leadership.

The success of any business organization during change depends on its leadership (Appelbaum, Degbe, MacDonald, & Nguyen-Quang, 2015). There is a need for leaders who can provide organizations with vision and the confidence to innovate because leadership ensures success in almost any organizational change initiative (Militaru & Zanfir, 2016). Leadership is all about effective influence on subordinates to accomplish an organizational goal (Northouse, 2018). Leadership tends to focus on the leader and the specific mechanisms and strategies necessary to influence others, all of which involve communication (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017).

According to Amanchukwu et al. (2015), an effective leader must be visionary, passionate, creative, flexible, inspiring, innovative, courageous, imaginative, experimental, and initiates change. Amanchukwu et al. stated leaders provide followers with the elements they need to achieve organizational goals. Leaders motivate to make the path to attaining the goal clear and easy through coaching and direction, removing obstacles, and roadblocks (Amanchukwu et al. 2015).

As individuals who dominate others, leaders often wield enormous power. In this context, power is the capacity or the potential to influence others. Burns (1978) describes power from a relationship standpoint. According to Burns, power is not an entity that leaders use over others to achieve their own needs, but to promote their collective goals.

Burns pointed out that people view leadership discussion as elitist because of the implied power and importance often ascribed to leaders in the leader-follower relationship.

Jing and Avery (2016) stated effective leadership is one of the key driving forces for improving an organization’s performance. Effective leadership is an important source of sustained competitive advantage for organizational performance improvement. According to Jing and Avery, many practitioners and scholars argue that effective leaders create the vital link between organizational effectiveness and employees’ performance, facilitate the improvement of both leadership capability and improve employees’ satisfaction and commitment to the organization.

Leaders require social judgment skills, in addition to problem-solving skills. According to Zaccaro, Mumford, Connelly, Marks, and Gilbert (2000), social judgment skills refers to the capacity to understand people and social systems. Zaccaro et al. noted social judgment skills are necessary to solve unique organizational problems. Social judgment skills enable leaders to work with people to solve problems and implement changes successfully within an organization (Zaccaro et al., 2000).

Emergent Versus Assigned Leadership

Emergent leadership. Emergent leadership refers to individuals who arise as leaders and exert significant influence over other members of the team without being assigned formal leadership responsibility (Charlier et al., 2016; Hoch & Dulebohn, 2017). Hogg (2001) provides a unique definition of emergent leadership. According to Hogg, emergent leadership is the degree to which an individual fits with the identity of the group. People acquire emergent leadership through followers who support and accept the leader's behavior (Hogg, 2001). Positive communication behaviors of emergent leaders are firmness but not rigid and seeking other's opinions (Northouse, 2016).

Northouse (2016) noted that emergent leaders emerge through communication and not by position. Thus, emergent leaders are skilled communicators, who ask meaningful questions. Emergent leadership occurs when others perceive an individual as the most influential member of a group, regardless of the individual's title.

Emergent leaders encounter the same challenges as assigned leaders and need the same capabilities to address challenges successfully.

Lisak and Erez (2015) examined the global characteristics of emergent leaders on multicultural teams. Lisal and Erez discovered that leaders with global characteristics of emergent leadership serve as role models and unite the culturally diverse team members into a single coherent global team. Lisal and Erez also noted a significantly higher likelihood of team members with global characteristics appropriate for the global context to become emergent leaders. Charlier et al. (2016) examined the relationship between emergent leadership and team performance. Charlier et al discovered a positive correlation between emergent leadership and team performance.

Assigned leadership. Assigned leadership emerges from a formal leadership appointment (Northouse, 2018). Examples of assigned leadership are directors, managers, department heads, team leaders, and administrators. Assigned leaders have a formal position and are authorized to exercise power. Mendez and Busenbark (2015) argued that assigned leadership ensures the recognition of individual leadership efforts and contributions. According to Lachance and Oxendine (2015), leadership approaches typically focus on formal positions of authority; however, with the changing landscape of organizations leaders should focus on the development of skills that allow leadership from any role. When a person is engaged in leadership whether assigned or emerged is a leader (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2017).

Leadership Style

Leadership style refers to a style of leadership prevalent within the organization, for example, a transformational leadership style (Northouse, 2016). Leadership style consists of a behavior pattern of a person who attempts to influence others. What a leader devotes his or her attention can reinforce the organization message and change employees thinking in the desired direction. Understanding the leader’s behavior and use of symbolic or signaling reinforces the fundamental value system of the organization. Effective leaders learn to be flexible in their leadership style to meet everyone's specific needs (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016). Leadership style includes both *directive* and *supportive behaviors*. Furthermore, leadership style has four distinct categories of directive and supportive behaviors. The first style is S1, the second style is called S2, the third style is called S3, and the last style is called S4 (Northouse, 2018).

According to Asrar-ul-Haq and Kuchinke (2016), various leadership styles have an impact on employees, which directly or indirectly influences the behavior and attitudes of the employees. The leadership style of senior management can be a significant effect on change implementation. Nutt (1986) noted the use of leadership style to affect employee resistance positively during the change implementation process. Bajcar, Babiak, and Nosal (2015) examined the role of strategic thinking in the prediction of leadership styles. Bajcar et al.argued that the effectiveness of leadership depends on the efficient use of competencies relevant to specific conditions and situations. Therefore, strategic thinking increases leadership flexibility, innovativeness, and effectiveness (Bajcar et al, 2015).

Organizational Change

Lewin (1951) defined change as a transition from a current state to a future state. Organizational change is a phenomenon of moving an organization from one equilibrium point to another (Naveed, et al., 2017). The process of organizational change begins with a strategic vision the leaders have for their organizations. Effective leaders influence successful organizational change and integration of sustainability practices.

Change is an important process that organizations must go through to remain competitive (Sune & Gibb, 2015). Militaru and Zanfir (2016) asserted that organizational change is an absolute necessity. Most organizations are under pressure to proceed with the organizational change to cope with dynamic business environments. An organization's capacity to change depends on its internal ability to distribute the resources necessary to support the change process (Frank, Penuel, & Krause, 2015).

Watson (2015) conducted a study on the relationship between change and work engagement. Watson collected data from 20 companies going through organizational change and 27 companies not going through change, but consistently performed well financially. The research results revealed that an effective leadership style, such as transformational leadership style has a positive effect on work engagement during organizational change. Bass and Riggio (2006) research, which incorporates transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, has the strongest theoretical support.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) identified transformational leadership as highly effective in organizational change, which is important to firms' survival in a dynamic environment. Tichy and Devanna identified three stages of organizational change: (a) recognizing the need for change, (b) creating the vision, and (c) institutionalizing the change. Tichy and Devanna steps to change are like Lewin (1951) three stages of change: (a) unfreezing, (b) changing, and (c) refreezing.

Theories of Planned Change

Lewin's three-step model. Lewin (1951) model is the early change model explaining how to implement change effectively (Hussain et al., 2016). Lewin conceived change as a modification of forces to keep the organization's system stable. Lewin identified three phases through which organizational change initiatives must proceed before a change becomes part of the organization. The three steps in Lewin's model are unfreezing, movement, and refreezing (Cummings, Bridgman, & Brown, 2016). Lewin three-stage model is a powerful tool for understanding the change process.

In stage 1, unfreezing, disconfirmation creates pain and discomfort, which cause anxiety and motivate the person to change (Hussain et al., 2016). Unfreezing occurs when the driving forces are stronger or removing the restraining forces (Cummings, et al., 2016). Change rarely occurs by increasing driving forces alone, because the restraining forces often adjust to counterbalance the driving forces. The preferred option is to increase the driving forces and reduce or remove the restraining forces. Increasing the driving forces creates urgency for change (Cummings, et al., 2016).

In stage 2, moving, the person undergoes cognitive restructuring. The person acquires information and evidence that reveals change is desirable and possible. The primary task of stage 3 is refreezing. Refreezing is to integrate the new behaviors into the person's personality and attitudes (Hussain et al., 2016). Stabilizing the changes requires testing them to fit with the individual (Lewin, 1951). Lewin model provides a framework for understanding organizational change.

Lippitt, Watson, and Westley (1958) further developed Lewin's three-step model. Lippitt et al. seven-step model focuses on the role and responsibility of the change agent rather than the evolution of the change process. Lippitt et al. seven-step model: scouting, entry, unfreezing, planning, moving, stabilization and evaluation, and refreezing. Lippitt at al. suggested change agent should gradually withdraw from the change process role, as the change becomes part of the organizational culture (Karanja, 2015).

Kotter (1995) eight-step model is also like Lewin's three-step model. Kotter's eight-step change model consists of: (a) creating urgency, (b) form a strong alliance, (c) paint a vision, (d) hold on to the vision, (e) eliminate obstacles, (f) create short-term wins, (g) keep progressing, and (h) make the changing culture constant (Hornstein, 2015). Kotter (1995) developed the eight-step model for leading organizational change. Kotter emphasized the roles and responsibilities of the leaders leading change. In addition, the eight-steps are framework leaders should use to implement organizational change effectively. However, Kotter’s model is not suitable for every change initiative, but the new and complex market environment.

Action research model. An action research model is a research approach that solves practical problems and generalizes knowledge of societal structures and processes (Meadow et al., 2015). Lewin (1946) developed a model of action research. The process of action research consists of eight steps: (a) problem identification, (b) consultation with a behavioral science expert, (c) data gathering and preliminary diagnosis, (d) feedback to a key client or group, (e) joint diagnosis of the problem, (f) joint action planning, (g) action, and (h) data gathering after action (Takey & Carvalho, 2015). Lewin recognized that solutions must be meaningful within the context of the community and developed the model to collaborate with community members to frame the inquiry, undertake the research, analyze the findings, and take action (Meadow et al., 2015).

Action research takes the view that meaningful change is a combination of changing attitudes, behaviors, and testing theory (Takey & Carvalho, 2015). Action research embraces the notion of organizational learning and knowledge management (Meadow et al., 2015). Action research provides at least two benefits for an organization. The change agent objectively examines the problems and the type of problem determines the type of change action. Since action research heavily involves employees in the process, resistance to change is reduced (Takey & Carvalho, 2015). The employees and teams involved in the process become an internal source of sustained pressure to bring about the change (Lewin, 1946).

Positive model. The positive model is the promotion of a positive approach to planned change (Hussein et al., 2016). The positive model takes a different approach to organizational issues by focusing on what is working well in the organization instead of problems as in the deficit thinking approach, which organizations often use during the change process. According to Verleysen, Lambrechts, and Van Acker (2015), the positive model applies to the organizational change process when used through appreciative inquiry (AI).

Cooperrider (1986) developed AI as a new form of action research model for understanding and enhancing organizational innovation. Appreciative inquiry is capable of building social knowledge that evokes new ways of thinking and action possibilities among coauthors of a new-shared social reality (Verleysen et al., 2015). Appreciative inquiry explicitly infuses a positive value orientation into analyzing and changing organizations (Cooperrider, 1986). It promotes broad member involvement in creating a shared vision of the organization's positive potential.

Comparisons of Change Models

All three models- Lewin's model, action research model, and positive model describe the phases by which planned change occurs in organizations. The first phases are preliminary stage (unfreezing, diagnosis or initiate the inquiry), then closing stage (refreezing or evaluation). Lewin's model and action research model differ from the positive approach model in terms of change focus and the level of involvement of the participants. Lewin's model and action research model emphasize the role of practitioners with limited participant's involvement (Asumeng & Osae-Larbi, 2015). Furthermore, Lewin's model and action research are more concerned with correcting organizational change implementation problems than focusing on what the organization does well and leveraging those strengths. However, all three models emphasize the involvement of employees in the change process and recognize that any interaction between a consultant and organization constitutes an intervention that may affect the organization.

Approaches to Creating Change

Top-down approach. One of the most common ways in which organizations attempt to introduce change is by pushing changes down the hierarchy. In a top-down approach, leaders make decisions at the top and pass them down through formal channels of communications in a unilateral manner (Greiner, 1967). The advantage of the top-down approach is the quick results of change; however, the top-down approach focuses primarily on the unfreezing and freezing stages of the change process (Greiner, 1967). The freezing stage is usually unsuccessful since the top-down approach ignores the moving stage of the change process. People do not like when leaders coerced them, moreover to change.

Ryan, Williams, Charles, and Waterhouse (2008) conducted a three-year longitudinal case study approach to ascertain the efficacy of a top-down change in a large public organization. Ryan et al. asserted that organizational processes limit the effectiveness of communicating top-down change and prevent information from filtering down the organization in an expected way. Wheelen et al. (2017) argued that one of the limitations of the top-down approach is that motivation comes from the top and lower units go through the emotions.

Laissez-Faire approach. Laissez-faire approach is the avoidance or absence of leadership (Amanchukwu et al, 2015). The employees at the lower level of the units make the decisions. The laissez-faire approach assumes that people are rational beings who follow their rational self-interest. The most common forms of this approach are meetings, workshops, conferences, and trainings. One of the disadvantages of the laissez-faire approach is that it delegates much of the responsibilities (Middleton, Harvey, & Esaki, 2015).

Collaborative approach. The collaborative approach to change falls between the top-down and laissez-faire approaches. With this approach, leadership at the top of the organization provide a broad perspective to guide the direction of the process and may highlight the problems, which need the attention and invite participation. The underlying assumption for this approach is that patterns of behaviors and practices define organizational systems and structures, which are rooted in socio-cultural norms, values, and attitudes of people (Greiner, 1967). The collaboration between the superior and subordinates in implementing change does not necessarily mean the superiors have no distinctive role in the process, or subordinates completely take over the change process.

Resistance to Change

Zander (1950), an early researcher on organizational change, defined resistance to change as a behavior, which protects an individual from the effects of change. Though change can be beneficial to organizations, employees are often reluctant to change. The reluctance is understandable, as employees are comfortable with the status quo. Employees may fear that change will result is less favorable working conditions and economic outcomes than they are used to. Employees may also fear their skills may not be valued in the future and worry about whether they can adapt to the new changes (Cummings & Worley, 2015).

Moyce (2015) noted that resistance to organizational change is beneficial because the challenges leveled against the change are a fantastic opportunity to further inform and validate the proposal, in terms of both the change outcome and the approach to implementation. Moyce stated resistance is part of achieving the best possible outcomes for an organization. Positive outcomes are possible only when all possible inputs form part of the change process (Moyce, 2015).

Empirical research in organizational change revealed resistance to change as a significant challenge to organizational change initiatives. Tobias (2015) suggested that leaders should articulate why changes are necessary. If a leader paints an abstract picture of what the change process entails, employees will find it difficult to understand the reason for the change and will not grasp the urgency of the situation (Tobia. 2015). When expected results of the change initiatives make sense to employees, they are likely to carry out the tasks assigned to them.

Moss et al. (2017) explored the practices that organizations utilize to reduce resistance during organizational change. Communicating with employees through one-on-one discussions, memos, group presentations, or reports to help reveal the logic for a change initiative minimizes resistance to change (Moss et al., 2017). Furthermore, communication and participation shape whether existing practices or policies fulfill or contradict a set of values. Therefore, the role of the manager is to reveal how unexpected changes in the procedures, policies, and practices are consistent with organizational vision and values.

Leadership Role in Organizational Change Initiatives

Leaders at all levels have the responsibility of managing the organization's resources. The responsibility of management is to correctly identify the current internal situation within the organization and determine needed changes to ensure long-term success (Militaru & Zanfir, 2016). According to Sabourin (2015), managers plan the execution of change initiatives for their organizations. A successful change implementation demonstrates the leadership's ability to formulate, implement, and sustain the changes long enough to yield the intended results (Militaru & Zanfir, 2016). Barrick, Thurgood, Smith, and Courtright (2015) discovered that middle and lower managers have the most responsibility for meeting the goals established by senior leadership. Middle and lower managers implement the decisions made by the executives with the intent of achieving the organizational goals (Sull et al. 2015). They garner and shape the resources needed for the success of change implementation.

According to Eman, Isfahani, Hosseini, and Kordnaeij (2016), the ability to engage people through motivation seems to be the most important skill of lower-level managers. Middle management operates as a link between upper management and lower management and upper management sets vision and goals for the organization. (Eman et al., 2016). Kordnaeij (2016) discussed the effect of leadership skills of middle and lower management in the change implementation process. According to Kordnaeij, managers who can effectively motivate employees to execute change effectively, achieve implementation results. Thus, the ability to engage followers through motivation is the most important and needed skill for change implementation success.

Narikae, Namada, and Katuse (2017) researched the contribution of leadership on implementation of change initiatives. Narikae et al gathered data from 250 senior, middle and lower-level managers. Narikae et al argued that leadership commitment, communication, coordination, and employee involvement in decision making significantly influence change implementation. According to Narikae et al., leadership commitment facilitates the realization of organizational goals and communication ensures the meeting of deadlines while coordination enhances the achievement of sufficient results. Narikae et al concluded that leadership commitment, communication, and coordination have a positive influence on the success of organizational change.

Radomska (2015) examined whether a relationship between the competencies of managers and the effectiveness of change implementation. The respondents in the survey included managers from 200 companies that have achieved change success. The results of the study indicated that there is a positive correlation between the effectiveness of change implementation and competencies of managers. Thus, action taken by leaders is important in relation to change implementation effectiveness (Radomska, 2015).

Causes of Change Implementation Failure

According to Monauni (2017), change implementation failure is a global challenge for all organizations. Two-thirds to three-quarters of large organizations struggle to implement their change initiatives (Sull et al., 2015). Employees' insufficient understanding of the strategy and performance measures contribute to change implementation failure (Monauni, 2017). Furthermore, unclear responsibilities, insufficient strategy communication, and inadequate transformation concepts contribute to implementation failure (Dyer, Godfrey, Jensen, & Bryce, 2016).

Janjic, Tanasiac, and Kosec (2015) argued that change implementation failure results from a lack of adequate strategic control mechanisms. Gebczynska (2016) argued efficiency of the change implementation depends on the ability of organizations to decompose the process to managerial levels. Atkinson (2006) highlighted six silent killers of strategy implementation: (a) leadership style, (b) unclear strategic goals and conflicting priorities, (c) ineffective leaderhip teams, (d) poor vertical communication, (e) weak coordination across functions and business units, and (f) inadequate leadership skills.

Consequences of Change Implementation Failure

Organizational change implementation failures are costly. U.S. businesses lose a minimum of $399 million a year from organizational change failure (Mellert et al., 2015). Failed change implementation has a direct effect on investor confidence. Business analysts may downgrade the investment potential, resulting in the withdrawal of investments or hesitation to invest. This may lead to a downward spiral of an organization's stock value. An unsuccessful change implementation can cause an organization to lose attraction in the market. The firm's competitive advantage can fall behind competitors, especially competitors successful in implementing change initiatives.

A failed change initiative creates a legacy of failure and erodes trusts. It creates a ripple effect throughout the organization (Atkinson, 2006). According to Atkinson

(2006), the failure may become part of the organization's history and make future changes difficult to implement. In addition, change initiative failure undermines trust in the organization; more specifically, it weakens trust in the leadership. Change implementation failure may affect the reputation of the leadership and impedes upward mobility.

A failed strategy may lower employee morale, diminish trust and faith in senior management, as well as end up in creating an even more inflexible organization since an organization that has failed to change will encounter higher levels of employee cynicism in its next attempt (Dyer et al., 2016). Cynicism is an enemy of any type of organizational change (Heracleous, 2000). According to Heracleous (2000), cynicism is worse than skepticism, which still allows for the possibility of successful change and different from resistance to change, which can result from an individual's self-interest or misunderstanding of the goals of change.

Mitigation of Change Implementation Failure

The dynamic competitive environment in which organizations operate needs dynamic change strategies for the continued viability of organizations (Yi, Li, Hitt, Liu, & Wei, 2016). The dynamic process places pressure on business leaders' ability to constantly review existing resources and create new ones (Yi et al., 2016). Yi et al. (2016) suggested that firms should have clear metrics to measure the change initiative outcomes to ensure success. Organizations should acquire, develop, and configure resources to create capabilities necessary for the implementation of organizational change (Simon et al., 2007). To ensure the knowledge remains internal and translated into the company's processes, Simon et al. recommended that standardization of newly acquired capabilities, such routines are highly effective in the implementation of change

Both scholars and practitioners emphasize the need for improved success in implementation of organizational change. For change to be effective, Dyer et al (2016) suggested that organizations should have the proper resources and capabilities available and utilize in ways that create and sustain a competitive advantage. Matching a firm's capabilities with its strategies allow the firm to implement change successfully and achieve higher performance compared to other firms. However, access to resources is insufficient to make implementation a success (Dyer et al., 2016).

Bunger et al. (2017) researched the application of a practical approach to track strategies in ongoing change implementation initiatives. Bunger et al. argued practical approach facilitates clear reporting of the implementation process, including less observable steps. In addition, the practical approach could lead to an understanding of what it takes to implement change effectively (Bunger et al., 2017). Janjic et al. (2015) suggested that organizations should create effective strategic control mechanisms to implement change initiatives effectively.

Srivastava, Srivastava, and Sushil (2017) suggested the use of a managerial action plan to convert strategic goals into successful execution performance. Alharthy, Rashid, Pagliari, and Khan (2017) asserted change implementation success requires an understanding of the relevant influencing factors that dictate the outcomes. Alharthy et al. indicated how factors such as management decision, employee engagement, organizational systems, and performance influence implementation success. In addition, Alharthy et al. revealed how the influencing factors are more important in certain industries and less important in other industries.

Thanyawatpornkul, Siengthai, and Johri (2016) indicated that communication, reward and recognition, and training and development are three major HR practices influencing the success of change. An interpersonal relationship is a crucial factor that leads to effective execution of change achieved through effective communication (Thanyawatpornkul et al., 2016). According to Ali and Ivanov (2015), employees at each level in the hierarchy should understand leadership expectation to help leaders provide the appropriate support.

Varney (2017) examined the change process in search of the reasons why change initiatives fail. According to Varney, making organizational change initiative work effectively is not an easy task; however, the results of applied research involving multiple organizational change projects determined that scientific method approach assures a higher success rate. Varney suggested that leaders should apply a scientific method when making a change and conduct a test fit to determine if the planned change initiatives would work in the organization and understand the organization's culture before undertaking major change.

Sheehan and Bruni-Bossio (2015) outlined how managers and consultants could use a strategic tool such as a value curve to test whether their organization is underperforming because of executing the wrong value proposition or failure to execute the customer value proposition. The value curve is a graphical depiction of a company's relative performance across key success factors of its industry (Sheehan & Bruni-Bossio, 2015). Managers do not properly use tools such as value curve, which can reveal change necessities in the areas of the value proposition and its delivery process. The value curve helps to identify whether the firm has the right value and which areas need change (Sheehan & Bruni-Bossio, 2015). In addition to the value curve, Sheehan and Bruni-Bossio suggested that organizations could use value chains to communicate the value proposition to the target customers and that may result in a positive impact on the customer experience.

According to Bertram, Blasé, and Fixsen (2015), organizations should carefully consider the intervention components necessary to achieve change implementation effectiveness. Then, review the activities of each stage of implementation and the adjustments necessary (Bertram et al., 2015). A successful implementation ensures the organization has standardized practices for future strategy implementations (Bertram et al., 2015).

Clearly, the level of success of change implementation can range from full realization to outright failure (Atkinson, 2006). The business environment is constantly changing, implying that businesses need to be in a constant state of transformation. Disruptive factors in the change implementation process, such as unclear responsibilities and insufficient understanding of the goals can have a long-term negative effect on the organization (Bertram et al, 2015). Therefore, organizations need to realign their strategic approach in an effective and flexible manner when implementing changes (Dyer et al., 2016).

Transition

In Section 1, I explained the background of the problem, problem statement, purpose statement, the nature of the study, theoretical framework, and the significance of the study. Section 1 also contains information regarding the research question, the null and alternative hypotheses, operational definitions, assumptions, limitations, and the delimitations of the study. Furthermore, I discussed the review of the professional and academic literature in relation to transformational leadership style and organizational change effectiveness.

In Section 2, I discussed the methodological aspects of the study. Section 2 also contains information pertaining to the role of the researcher, the selection of the participants, the research method, and the research design. Furthermore, I described the population sample, including pertinent demographic variables. Additionally, I identified and defended the sampling method. Finally, I discussed the data collection instrument, data collection technique, and analysis techniques as well as data validity.

In Section 3, I presented study findings. I also addressed how business leaders in large organizations could apply study results to their professional practice to manage change effectively. Additionally, I provided a description of how the study results might influence society in the form of positive social change. Furthermore, the section includes recommendations based on the study results, as well as recommendations for further study in the topic area.

Section 2: The Project

In Section 2 of the study, I discussed the methodological aspects of the study. This section also contains information pertaining to the role of the researcher, the selection of the participants, the research method and research design. Furthermore, I described the population sample, including any pertinent demographic variables. Additionally, I identified and defended the sampling method. Finally, I discussed the data collection instrument, data collection technique, and analysis techniques as well as validity and reliability.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. The independent variables were idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The dependent variable was organizational change effectiveness. The target population comprised of business leaders of large organizations in the United States. The implications for positive social change include the potential for business leaders to gain knowledge to improve effectiveness of the organizational change process, which could increase productivity and minimize financial losses. Furthermore, productivity growth may lead to a persistent employment effect and, thus, to the reduction of unemployment through long-term sustainable employment practices.

Sustainable employment practices may empower employees to become financially healthy, which will lead to an improved quality of life in society.

Role of the Researcher

According to Kyvik (2013), in quantitative research, the role of the researcher is to select participants, collect data, analyze data, and present findings. My role as a researcher was to select participants, collect data, analyze data, and present findings. Quantitative researchers should follow the principles of post positivism and use empirical data to test theoretically derived research hypotheses (Guo, 2015). I incorporated the latest developments of quantitative research methods to address the specific business problem.

According to Saunders et al. (2016), quantitative researchers are biased if they are not independent and objective when pursuing research. The quantitative researcher must have a minimal opportunity for interaction with participants for research to maintain clear objectivity (Kyvik, 2013). I did not interact with participants because I used questionnaires to collect data and that also helped to maintain clear objectivity.

As outlined in the Belmont Report (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 1979), the key principles underlying the ethical treatment of research participants are respect for persons, beneficence, and justice. Respect for persons refers to the recognition of the importance of freedom of choice (Bromley, Mikesell, Jones, & Khodyakov, 2015). Beneficence is an action researcher’s take to ensure the well-being of participants (Polit & Beck, 2012). Justice is the belief that researchers should fairly consider the risks and benefits of the study (Bromley et al., 2015).

To show respect for the participants, which is a key principle in the Belmont Report, I had ethical responsibility regarding how I handle and administer the survey. My role as a quantitative researcher was to provide adequate information by which participants gained an understanding of the procedures, risks, and benefits that were associated with participating in the study. I also had a responsibility to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

I have had varying leadership roles in small, medium, and large organizations. I have successfully implemented organizational change initiatives; therefore, my professional experience was relevant to this study. However, my previous professional experience did not influence the data collection process. Furthermore, I had no personal or professional relationship with the participants, which helped me to remain independent and objective during the data collection process and the interpretation of results.

Participants

I created a respectful relationship with each participant, which included being open and honest about the purpose of the study. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2015), the researcher creates a respectful relationship with each participant that includes honesty. Saunders et al. (2016) recommended screening of participants to see if they meet the selecting criteria. The participants were carefully screened to see if they meet the eligibility selecting criteria. The eligibility selecting criteria was that participants are mid-level managers who have successfully implemented one or more organizational change initiatives in any large organization in the United States. Midlevel managers operate as a link between upper management and lower management (Eman et al., 2016).

According to Humphreys, Weingardt, Horst, Joshi, and Finney (2005), the criteria for selecting participants is aligned with the overarching research question and goals of the study. The overarching research question guiding this study was: what is the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness? The goal of the study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness.

The criteria for selecting participants in this study was in alignment with the overarching research question and the goals of the study. Humphreys et al. (2005) argued that incorrect criteria for selecting participants could significantly affect external validity. I used SurveyMonkey participant pool to administer the questionnaire. SurveyMonkey (2018) targets the type of participants the researcher wants a response from based on specific attributes, such as country, gender, age, and employment status.

Research Method and Design

Research Method

In this study, I used the quantitative research method with transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration as independent variables and organizational change effectiveness as the dependent variable. Researchers employ the quantitative research method to examine relationships between variables in the form of correlation or comparison (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). Based upon the purpose of the study, which was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness, the quantitative method was the most suitable.

Researchers use the qualitative research method to gain a deep understanding of the situation. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) suggested that researchers should use qualitative research method when interested in the process rather than the outcomes, in context rather than a specific variable, and discovery rather than confirmation. Patton (2015) recommended that researchers should use the qualitative method to explore an in-depth view of the individual's experience. According to Leichtman and Toman (2017), researchers use the qualitative research method to explore and understand perceptions regarding a phenomenon. Because my focus was not to explore participants' perceptions related to a phenomenon, the qualitative method was not appropriate for this study.

The mixed-methods research methodology is appropriate when the researcher combines both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect and analyze data (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015). With mixed methods research, the research objectives are imperative because they influence the choice of research approach, sample, instrumentation, measurements, as well as how the analysis of data is conducted (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). The mixed-methods research methodology was not suitable for this study because the qualitative method was not suitable for this research study.

Research Design

In the quantitative approach, the research design is divided into experimental, quasi-experimental, and correlational (non-experimental). Researchers use an experimental design to explore the cause-and-effect relationship between variables (Klenke, 2016). A control group and an experimental group characterize experimental design studies and researcher assigns subjects randomly to either group. According to Klenke (2016), the experimental design allows the researcher to manipulate a specific independent variable to determine what effect the manipulation would have on dependent variables.

A quasi-experimental design is appropriate when the researcher is seeking to make inferences about the cause-and-effect relationships between independent and dependent variables (Zellmer-bruhn et al., 2016). Quasi-experimental studies have some attributes of experimental research design as they involve some controls over extraneous variables when full experimental control is not practical. Therefore, experimental and quasi-experimental designs were not appropriate for this study.

The correlational design is a nonexperimental design where the researcher examines the relationship between two or more variables in a natural setting without manipulation or control (Curtis et al., 2016). In a correlational design, the researcher examines the strength of the relationship between variables by determining how a change in one variable correlates with another variable. Correlation studies have independent and dependent variables; however, the effect of an independent variable affects the dependent variable without manipulating the independent variable. Nonexperimental designs tend to be closest to real-life situations.

Correlational design studies cannot establish cause and effect because they do not involve manipulating independent variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). Researchers use the correlational design to examine the relationship between two or more variables (Curtis et al., 2016). Therefore, the correlational design was the most appropriate design for this study because the purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness.

Population and Sampling

Population

The target population for this study constituted of large organizations in the United States. U.S Census Bureau (2017), classify a large business as a company that employs 500 or more individuals. I confined the study to midlevel managers who have implemented one or more organizational change initiatives successfully in any industry in the United States. Midlevel managers implement the decisions made by the executives with the intent of achieving the organizational goals (Sull, Homkes, & Sull, 2015). They garner and shape the resources needed for the success of change implementation (Eman et al., 2016). Therefore, midlevel managers are a source of valuable knowledge of organizational change initiatives.

Sampling

Probability and nonprobability sampling are the two types of sampling techniques in research. Researchers use probability sampling to select population sample randomly (Saunders et al., 2016). The essence of probability sampling is that it allows every unity in the population an equal chance of being selected (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, probability samples are more representative of the study population. Nonprobability sampling does not involve any random selection and relies mostly on the researcher's judgment and the availability of the study population (Sarstedt, Bengart, Shaltoni, & Lehmann, 2017).

Simple random sampling is the most basic form of probability sampling. With this sampling method, each sample is randomly drawn and has the same probability of selection from the entire process of sample selection (Tyrer & Heyman, 2016). An alternative to simple random sampling is *systematic sampling*. Although simple *random sampling* and *systematic sampling* are identical, researchers tend to favor *systematic sampling* when a large population is involved because of its convenience, since only one random number is needed (Babbie, 2013). Both *simple random sampling* and *systematic sampling* ensure a degree of representativeness; however, the potential sampling error may cause the researcher to exclude important subsets of the population (Babbie, 2013).

To ensure that important subsets of the population are a presentation of the sample, researchers use *stratified sampling*. Researchers use *stratified sampling* when it is possible to identify and divided the sample based on strata (Tyrer & Heyman, 2016). It ensures a specific representation from the population in the sample. A stratified sample is representative of the study population than a simple random sample. One of the main disadvantages of the stratified sample is that researchers must identify all population members and subdivide the list into strata groups (Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers need information on the stratification variables to stratify the population. When it is not possible to identify every member of the population, but the researcher can identify preexisting groups, researchers use *cluster random sampling*. It works well with a large population that has identifiable groups. In addition, cluster random sampling is cost-effective than other sampling techniques. However, cluster random sampling can increase sampling bias and often, it is used with another random sampling technique (Tyrer & Heyman, 2016).

Probability sampling is not always possible to conduct (Palinkas et al., 2015). In such circumstances, researchers use nonprobability sampling. The three nonprobability sampling techniques frequently used in academic research are *convenience sampling*, *purposeful sampling*, and *snowballing sampling*. *The purposeful* sample consists of participants purposefully selected because of certain characteristics related to the purpose of the research (Patton, 2015; Palinkas et al., 2015). Selecting knowledgeable participants yields insights and in-depth understanding (Patton, 2015). With purposeful sampling, the researcher sets specific participant selection criteria and recruits as many participants who meet the criteria.

Snowballing sample refers to when a researcher starts with one participant then use the participant's contacts to identify other potential participants for the study (Heckathorn, 2015). Snowballing sampling is effective when the researcher has difficulty in finding participants who are difficult to recruit. However, one of the disadvantages of snowballing sampling is that participants often suggest others who share similar characteristics (Etikan, Alkassim, & Abubakar, 2015).

In this study, I used a convenience sampling technique. Convenience sampling is applicable to both quantitative and qualitative studies (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). A *convenience* sample refers to a sample readily available to the researcher (Cooke, 2017). According to Cooke (2017), if a researcher selects a sample because of easy access, availability, and inexpensive, the sampling methods is *convenience sampling*. The main reasons for the use of a convenience sample in this study were low cost and easy access to participants. However, according to Landers and Behrend (2015), the use of convenience sampling limits the potential generalizability of results to the population sample. The use of convenience sampling in this study limited the potential generalizability of results to the population sample.

Inclusion criteria provide guidelines for selecting participants who match a set of criteria (Rahman, 2015). Inclusion criteria for participation in this study included mid-level managers working for large organizations in any industry in the United States, 18 years or older, and have successfully implemented one or more change initiatives. The primary function of the inclusion criteria is to limit the potential selection bias by objectively identifying potential participants (Saunders et al., 2016).

A power analysis, using G*Power version 3.1.9.2 software was conducted to determine the appropriate sample size for the study. According to Aberson (2011), power analysis is an effective way to determine adequate sample size for quantitative research.

G*Power is a statistical software package quantitative researchers use to conduct a priori sample size analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Power analysis includes the standard power of 0.80 (80%), level of significance (alpha = 0.05), and medium effect size of f^2= .15 (Aberson, 2011). A priori power analysis, assuming a medium effect size (f^2= .15), α = .05, and 5 predictor variables, identified that a minimum sample size of 92 participants was required to achieve the standard power of 0.80. Increasing the sample size to 184 would increase power to .99. Therefore, 107 participants participated in the study (Figure 2).

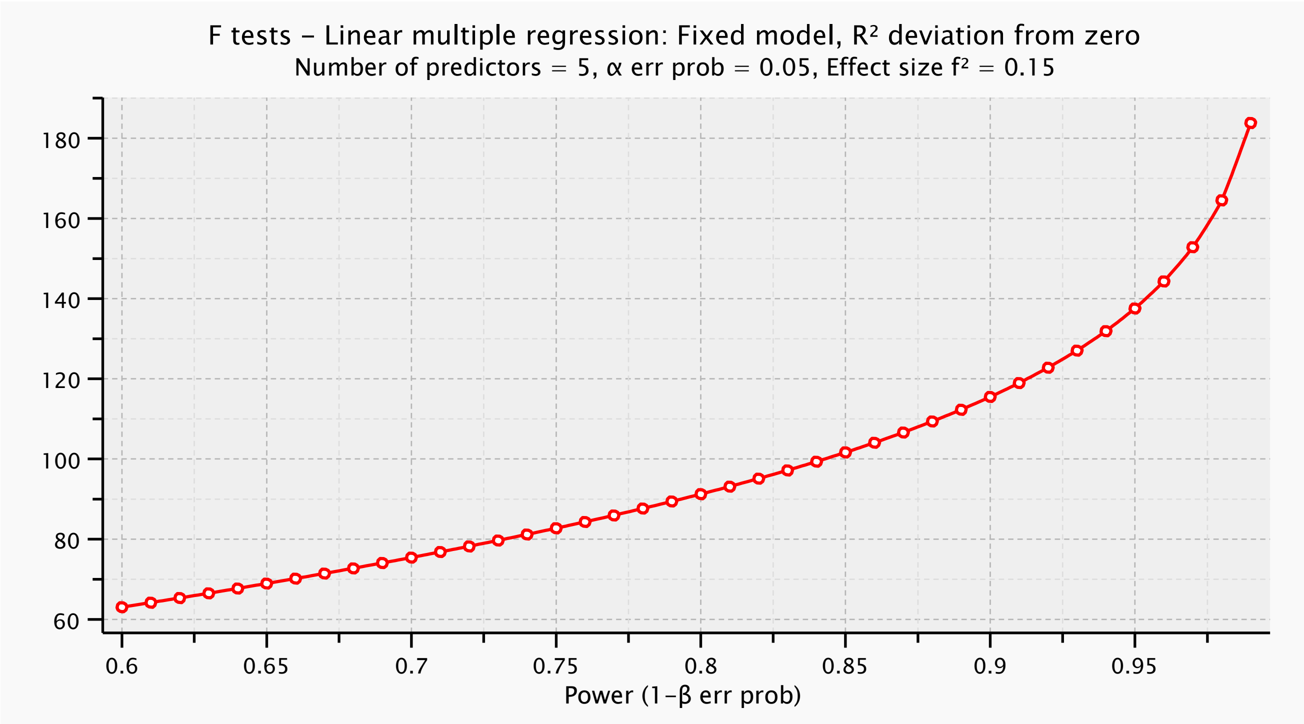

Figure 2. Power as a function of sample size.

Ethical Research

Research ethics refer to a complex set of values, standards, and institutional systems that regulate research (Tangen, 2013). Research ethics include topics such as the rights of participants to information, privacy, anonymity, and the responsibilities of researchers to act with integrity. According to Tangen (2013), it is imperative that researchers take into consideration the special responsibility for protecting the interests of participants during the research process. Hammersley (2015) recommended that researchers should treat ethics principles as reminders of what is important, rather than as assumptions for ethical judgments.

To maintain the confidentiality and privacy of research participants, Sixsmith and Murray (2001) recommended replacing names of participants with pseudonyms. In this quantitative correlational study, ethical consideration included the participants' right to confidentiality and privacy. Each participant signed an informed consent form, which ensured that participants understood what participation in the study entailed. According to Khan (2014), researchers must solicit informed consent to ensure participants are well informed about the study.

Participants had the right to withdraw from the study at any time and without prejudice. Khan (2014) noted that participants should voluntarily participate in research studies. I will guard the data against risks such as loss, unauthorized access, and disclosure. Furthermore, I stored the data in a password protected computer for a minimum of 5 years to protect confidentiality of participants. Yin (2018) suggested researchers should secure data against unauthorized access to preserve participants' privacy. Participants did not receive incentives in return for participation in the study. Marshall and Rossman (2016) argued that monetary incentives could lead to skewed results.

Instrumentation

The most popular measure of transformational leadership is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X -Short. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, developed by Bass and Avolio (1991), is multiple rater surveys, which measures the frequency of leadership behaviors using a 5-point Likert-type scale (Martin, 2015). According to Taylor, Psotka, and Legree (2015), the MLQ is a data collection instrument that measures leadership theory, which consists of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership.

The MLQ measures five areas of transformational leadership: (a) idealized attributes, (b) idealized behaviors, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, and (e) individual consideration (Allen, Grigsby, & Peters, 2015). The MLQ consists of 45 items: 36 leadership and nine outcome questions. In this study, I used 20 MLQ items pertaining to transformational leadership, out of the 45 MLQ survey questions. Participants rated leadership characteristics using a 5-point Likert scale (0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, 4 = Frequently, if not always).

Researchers continue to refine MLQ since its first use to strengthen its validity. Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramanium (2003) used 3000 participants to assess the psychometric properties of the MLQ. Antonakis et al. discovered that the MLQ clearly distinguished nine factors in the Full Range of Leadership model. The results of Antonakis et al. study revealed strong support for the validity of the MLQ. The MLQ is a worldwide and validated instrument for measuring leadership style (Antonakis et al., 2003). Many studies have tried to validate how accurate and reliable MLQ is for measuring transformational leadership.

Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) performed thirty-three independent empirical studies using the MLQ and identified a strong positive correlation between all components of transformational leadership. Although some researchers have been critical of the MLQ, no researcher has provided disconfirming evidence. Based on a summary analysis of studies that used the MLQ to predict how transformational leadership relates to outcomes such as effectiveness, in this study I used MLQ to measure transformational leadership style.

According to Shenhar, Dvir, Levy, and Maltz (2001), projects are implemented to create organizational change. Shenhar et al. argued that project purpose is irrelevant, and a positive correlation of an independent variable to organizational change effectiveness is important. Thus, in this study, I used Project Implementation Profile (PIP) survey instrument to measure dependent variable (organizational change effectiveness). PIP is the most popular and cited measure of project success (Rusare & Jay, 2015). The PIP questionnaire was developed by Slevin and Pinto (1986), which measures ten critical success factors that determine project implementation success (Rosacker & Olson, 2008). The PIP consists of 62 items; in this study, I used 12 PIP items pertaining to change effectiveness. Participants rated change effectiveness using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree).

The PIP is a survey instrument with established validity and reliability (Rusare & Jay, 2015). Rosacker and Olson (2008) stated researchers have verified PIP survey instrument to be valid and reliable. Slevin and Pinto (1986) developed the instrument from the research conducted from different industries. They benchmarked psychometric testing of the instrument against over 400 projects. Rusare and Jay (2015) conducted a study to evaluate the practical application of the PIP survey instrument. Rusare and Jay concluded that PIP is a functional survey instrument to measure project success.

Data Collection Technique

In this study, a survey was applicable to collect data from midlevel managers who have successfully implemented one or more organizational change initiatives in any large organization in the United States. According to Saunders et al. (2016), questionnaires are the most widely used survey tool for eliciting data from a large geographical area. Researchers design survey questionnaires in two forms: open-ended and closed-ended questions. For this study, I used self-administered questionnaires with closed-ended questions to elicit data from the participants. Researchers commonly use self-administered surveys as a quantitative method of data collection using closed-ended questions (Díaz de Rada & Domínguez-Álvarez, 2014).

Advantages of using a questionnaire as a data-collection technique include flexibility, its relative cheapness, and ease of administration (Bryman, 2016). According to Bryman (2016), the disadvantages of using questionnaire include the requirement for easily understood questions and the high rate of low response. Low response introduces systematic bias into the sample (Saunders et al., 2016). Furthermore, the absence of the interviewer means no opportunity exists to probe the respondent to elaborate further or clarify any ambiguity (Saunders et al., 2016).

I sent the questionnaire to the participants through SurveyMonkey platform. Online survey questionnaires are less expensive and reach out to more participants in a cost-effective manner (Bryman, 2016). Additionally, the anonymity of write-in questionnaires can encourage full and honest answers. I secured approval from the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) before distributing the survey to the participants. The IRB approval number for this study is 06-05-19-0669789.

I used a five-point Likert scale to measure the independent variables (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration). I also used a seven-point Likert scale to measure the dependent variable (organizational change effectiveness). Thus, the level of measurement for both independent and dependent variables is ordinal scale. However, I treated measurement of independent and dependent variables as an interval scale. Willits, Theodori, and Luloff (2016) argued that responses to Likert-point scale are interval measurements. With interval scale data, it is possible to use parametric analysis, which usually has more statistical power than non-parametric analysis (Willits et al., 2016).

Data Analysis

The central research question guiding this study was: What is the relationship between transformational leadership’s idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness?

Null Hypothesis (H_0): There is no relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): There is a relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness.

In this study, I used multiple linear regression (MLR) to measure the relationship between five independent variables and one dependent variable. MLR is a measure of the relationship between two or more independent variables and one dependent variable (Eti & Inel, 2016). MLR is an appropriate model because the purpose of this study was to examine whether a significant relationship exists between the independent variables (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) and the dependent variable (organizational change effectiveness).

MLR predicts the nature of the relationship by measuring the value of a dependent variable using the value of the independent variable (Aggarwal & Ranganathan, 2017). It assesses how much and in which direction the dependent variable changes. One of the advantages of MLR is that it allows researchers to examine the nature and strength of the relations between the variables and the unique contribution of each independent variable (Aggarwal & Ranganathan, 2017). Thus, MLR allowed me to examine the nature and strength of the relations between the variables and the unique contribution of each independent variable. MLR is particularly useful when trying to understand the predictive power of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

Although MLR is arguably the most flexible and powerful analytical tool, it has its disadvantages. One of the main disadvantages of MLR is that a researcher must impose a specific set of assumptions on the data (Aggarwal & Ranganathan, 2017). I used the IBM SPSS Statistics software, the latest version 25.0 for Windows to facilitate the analysis.

Researchers often encounter discrepant cases (missing data). Missing data can compromise the statistical power and reliability of the results (Kwak & Kim, 2017). Researchers have identified many approaches for addressing discrepant cases. The two common methods of addressing missing data in multiple regression analysis are *listwise deletion* (also known as complete-case analysis) and *pairwise deletion* (also known as available-case analysis) (Counsell & Harlow, 2017).

To address missing data, I used listwise deletion. Listwise deletion discards the data for any case that has one or more missing values (Enders, 2013). Listwise deletion has an advantage of producing a common set of cases for all analyses. The disadvantage of listwise deletion is that it requires missing completely at random (MCAR) data and can produce distorted parameter estimates when the assumption does not hold. Pairwise deletion attempts to mitigate the loss of data by eliminating cases on an analysis-by-analysis basis (Cheema, 2014). Consistent with likewise deletion, the disadvantage of pairwise deletion is that it requires MCAR data and can produce distorted parameter estimates when the assumption does not hold (Enders, 2013). However, pairwise deletion also has many unique problems. For example, using different subsets of cases poses subtle problems with measures of association.

Data assumptions. According to Green and Salkind (2016), MLR assumptions include:

(a) *Outliers*: are extreme scores in the population (Green & Salkind, 2016). Outliers can affect the results in two ways. First, values smaller or larger than others can inflate or deflate correlation coefficients. Second, outliers can affect the intercept or the slope of the regression line when intercept crosses the Y-axis at a lower or higher point.

(b) Multicollinearity: is when independent variables are highly correlated with one another (i.e. r >0.90) (Vatcheva, Lee, McCormick, & Rahbar, 2016). Multicollinearity occurs when there is a strong linear relationship between or more independent variables in a multiple regression model. The values of the estimated coefficients for highly correlated independent variables make it impossible to determine the variance in the dependent variable. Multicollinearity increases the chance of standard errors of the estimated coefficients, which increases the possibility of a Type II error. According to Bager, Roman, Aligedih, and Mohammed (2017), use of ridge regression application to find a new estimator for the coefficients that have less variance addresses multicollinearity

(c) Normality: indicates errors or residuals are normally distributed (Kozak & Piepho, 2018).

(d) Linearity: refers to the assumption that the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is linear (Green & Salkind, 2016).

(e) Homoscedasticity: refers to the assumption that for each value of the independent variable, the dependent variable should be normally distributed (Hoffmann & Shafer, 2015). The variance around the regression line should be the same for all values of the independent variables.

(f) Independence of Residuals: refers to the assumption that the errors in prediction are assumed to be random and independent (Ernst & Albers, 2017). Lack of independence underestimates or overestimates standard errors.

The following table contains assumptions and procedures for testing the assumptions for multiple regression test:

Table 1

Statistical Test, Assumptions, and Procedures for Testing Assumptions

Statistical test	**Assumptions**	**Testing**
Multiple Regression		
	Outliers	Normal Probability Plot (P-P)
	Multicollinearity	Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals
	Normality	“
	Linearity	“
	Homoscedasticity	“
	Independence of Residuals	“

Violations of the assumptions. Violation of the assumptions may raise concerns as to whether the estimates of regression coefficients and their standard errors are correct. These concerns, in turn, may raise questions about the conclusion reached regarding the independent variables based on confidence intervals or significance test. Researchers have identified statistical approaches that help identify and address data assumption violations.

To identify violations of *normality*, researchers should identify by examining the distribution of the residual plots (Kozak & Piepho, 2018). I examined residual plots to identify violations of *normality*. Researchers test for *linearity* by examining scatterplot or residual plots (Ernst & Albers, 2017). Ernst and Albers (2017) also argued that checking the distribution of residual plots is the best way of examining the presence of *homoscedasticity*. In this study, I used residual plots to test for *linearity* and examined residual plots for the presence of *homoscedasticity*. Researchers inspect scatterplots to detect o*utliers* (Green & Salkind, 2016). I inspected scatterplots to detect for the presence of *outliers* and no major outliers were detected.

Multicollinearity occurs when two or more highly correlated predictors appear simultaneously in a regression model (Hoffmann and Shafer, 2015). *Multicollinearity* can be detected through the *variation inflation factor* (VIF) or scatterplots (Vatcheva et al., 2016). I examined scatterplots to detect *multicollinearity*. According to Hoffmann and Shafer (2015), multicollinearity can result in biased standard errors, which could result in a misleading conclusion. To assess the *independence of residuals* assumption, I examined residual plot and scatterplots. Ernst and Albers (2017) argued that scatterplots alone are usually unsuitable and recommended that researchers should also examine the residual plots.

Bootstrapping is an alternative applicable inferential technique widely used in statistics to address data assumption violations (Warton, Thibaut, & Wang, 2017). I used bootstrapping to address the possible influence of assumption violations. Rather than rely on a single sample statistic to estimate a standard error, bootstrapping utilizes the sample as a substitute population from which replacement samples are drawn (Warton et al., 2017). The bootstrapped samples become the basis for constructing confidence intervals and hypothesis tests that do not require parametric assumptions (Hesterberg, 2015).

According to Puth, Neuhäuser, and Ruxton (2015), the essence of bootstrapping is to draw bootstraps from either the nonparametric bootstrapping or parametric bootstrapping. In this study, I used a nonparametric bootstrapping. Hesterberg (2015) stated that researchers prefer nonparametric bootstrapping in linear models. Nonparametric bootstrapping uses information from the original sample and makes no assumptions about the nature of the underlying population (Puth et al., 2015).

The disadvantages of bootstrapping are (1) the relatively elaborate procedure and (2) the computational burden. According to Baty et al (2015), regarding the first disadvantage, the researcher must examine the simulated error terms, regardless of how they are generated, to ensure correct properties, including centering them around zero and ensuring they have the same variance, distribution, and other properties as the original set. Regarding the second disadvantage, computational time can become a prohibitive burden (Baty et al., 2015).

According to Green and Salkind (2016), researchers tend to rely on beta weights and their confidence interval when interpreting inferential results. I interpreted inferential results by examining beta weights, their confidence interval, significance value, F value, R^2, etc. *Beta weight* is the determination of an independent variable's contribution to regression effect while all other independent variables remain constant (Green & Salkind, 2016). *Confidence interval* predicts the range of values of the true population based on the probability of 95%. (Belouafa et al., 2017).

Study Validity

In quantitative research, researchers collect numerical data to describe specific contexts or situations (Claydon, 2015). To establish rigor and trustworthiness in quantitative studies, researchers implement validity and reliability techniques. Heale and Twycross (2015) noted that although research findings are significant, it is critical not to ignore rigor of the research. According to Heale and Twycross (2015), to measure the validity and reliability of quantitative findings, researchers establish rigor using three types of evidence: homogeneity, convergence, and theory evidence.

Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to the confidence one can have in inferring a causal relationship among variables while simultaneously eliminating viral hypotheses (Green & Salkind, 2016). Thus, internal validity in an experiment or quasi-experimental designs focuses on whether the independent variable is the cause of the dependent variable. This study is a nonexperimental design (i.e. correlation) and threats to internal validity are not applicable. However, threats to *statistical conclusion validity* were of concern.

Threats to statistical conclusion validity. Statistical conclusion validity is a measure of how reasonable research or experimental conclusion is (Khan, Ali, & Sadiq, 2015). Threats to statistical conclusion validity are conditions that reject the null hypothesis when it is, in fact, true and accept the null hypothesis when it is false. The threats to statistical conclusion validity included (a) reliability of the instrument, (b) data assumptions, and (c) sample size.

Reliability of the instrument. Reliability is the degree to which the results obtained by measurement can be replicated (Bolarinwa, 2015). One of the crucial requirements for the instruments of data collection in research studies is the instruments' reliability or consistency of eliciting data from participants. Cronbach's α is the most commonly used test by researchers to determine the reliability of an instrument (Heale & Twycross, 2015). To determine the reliability of the instrument, I used *Cronbach's alpha*, which calculates the average correlation among all possible splits of a questionnaire.

According to Heale and Twycross (2015), researchers use indices of internal consistency of instruments to infer reliability. I reported indices as reliability of coefficients using a scale of 0 to 1. Reliability coefficients closer to 1 indicate the high internal consistency of the instruments and thus an indication of reliability. All independent variables' coefficient values were >0.80.

External Validity

External validity refers to the generalizability of the results to the population sample (Bolarinwa, 2015). When a researcher cannot generalization the results, the study has limited external validity. Thus, the sampling method is a critical step in the research process because it affects the external validity, which relates to the generalizability of the research results. Therefore, the use of convenience sampling in this study limited the potential generalizability of results to the population sample. Landers and Behrend (2015) stated that the use of convenience sampling limits the potential generalizability of results to the population sample.

Transition and Summary

In Section 2 of the proposed study, I discussed the methodological aspects of the study. This section also contains information pertaining to the role of the researcher, the selection of the participants, the research method and research design. Furthermore, I described the population sample, including any pertinent demographic variables. In addition, I identified and defended the sampling method. Finally, I also discussed the data collection instrument, data collection technique, and analysis techniques as well as data validity.

Section 3 includes a presentation of the study findings. In Section 3, I addressed how business leaders in large organizations could apply study results to their professional practice to manage change effectively. Additionally, I provided a description of how the study results may influence society in the form of positive social change. Furthermore, the section includes reflections, recommendations for action, and further research, as well as a conclusion.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. The independent variables were idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The dependent variable was organizational change effectiveness. The model rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis. Transformational leadership significantly predicted organizational change effectiveness.

Presentation of Findings

In this subheading, I will present descriptive static results, discuss testing of the assumptions, present inferential statistic results, discuss analysis summary of the study, and conclude with theoretical conversation pertaining to the findings. I employed bootstrapping using 1000 samples to address the possible violation of assumptions and to estimate 95% confidence intervals. According to Austin and Small (2014), 1,000 bootstrapping samples can estimate the 95% confidence intervals.

Descriptive Statistics

In total, I received 112 surveys. I eliminated five records due to missing data, resulting in 107 records used for the analysis. Table 2 depicts the descriptive statistics of the study variables. Figure 4 depicts a scatter plot, indicative of a positive linear relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness. The positive linear relationship indicates that transformational leadership is associated with effectiveness during organizational change.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Quantitative Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Bootstrapped 95% CI (*M*)
Idealized Attributes	2.57	0.75	[2.46, 2.72]
Idealized Behavior	2.63	0.78	[2.49, 2.78]
Inspirational Motivation	2.63	0.77	[2.49, 2.76]
Intellectual Stimulation	2.74	0.64	[2.63, 2.86]
Individualized Consideration	2.87	0.67	[2.75, 3.00]
Organizational Change Effectiveness	5.50	0.88	[5.33, 5.66]

Note: N = 107.

Tests of Assumptions

I evaluated multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals to assess violation of assumptions. Researchers use bootstrapping to address the possible violation of assumptions (Puth et al., 2015). In this study, I used1000 samples to minimize the possible violation of assumptions.

Multicollinearity. I evaluated multicollinearity by viewing the correlation coefficients among the independent variables. All bivariate correlations were small to medium (Table 3); therefore, the violation of the assumption of multicollinearity was not evident. The following table contains the correlation coefficients.

Table 3

Correlation Coefficients for Independent Variables

Variable	Idealized Attributes	Idealized Behavior	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
Idealized Attributes	1.000	0.620	0.707	0.672	0.659
Idealized Behavior	0.620	1.000	0.646	0.751	0.592
Inspirational Motivation	0.707	0.646	1.000	0.580	0.549
Intellectual Stimulation	0.672	1.000	0.580	1.000	0.610
Individualized Consideration	0.659	0.592	0.549	0.610	1.000

Note. N = 107.

Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I evaluated normality, outliers, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals by examining the normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residual (Figure 3) and the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 4). The examination of the distribution of residual plots indicated no major violation of the assumptions. Figure 3 provides supportive evidence of the tendency of the points to lie in a reasonably straight line from the bottom left to the top right (Kozak & Piepho, 2018). The examination of the scatterplot of the standardized residual showed no violation of the assumptions. Figure 4 provides supportive evidence of a lack of systematic pattern (Green & Salkind, 2016).

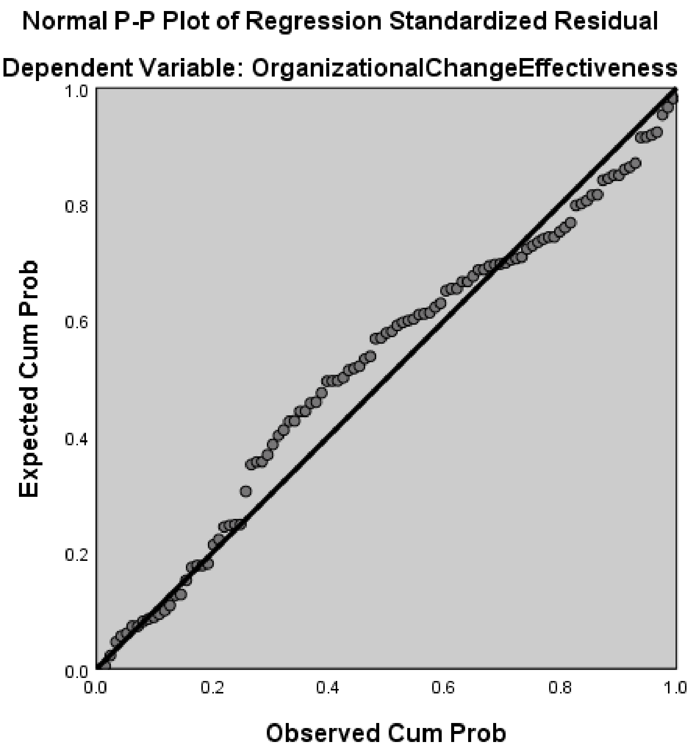

Figure 3. Normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals.

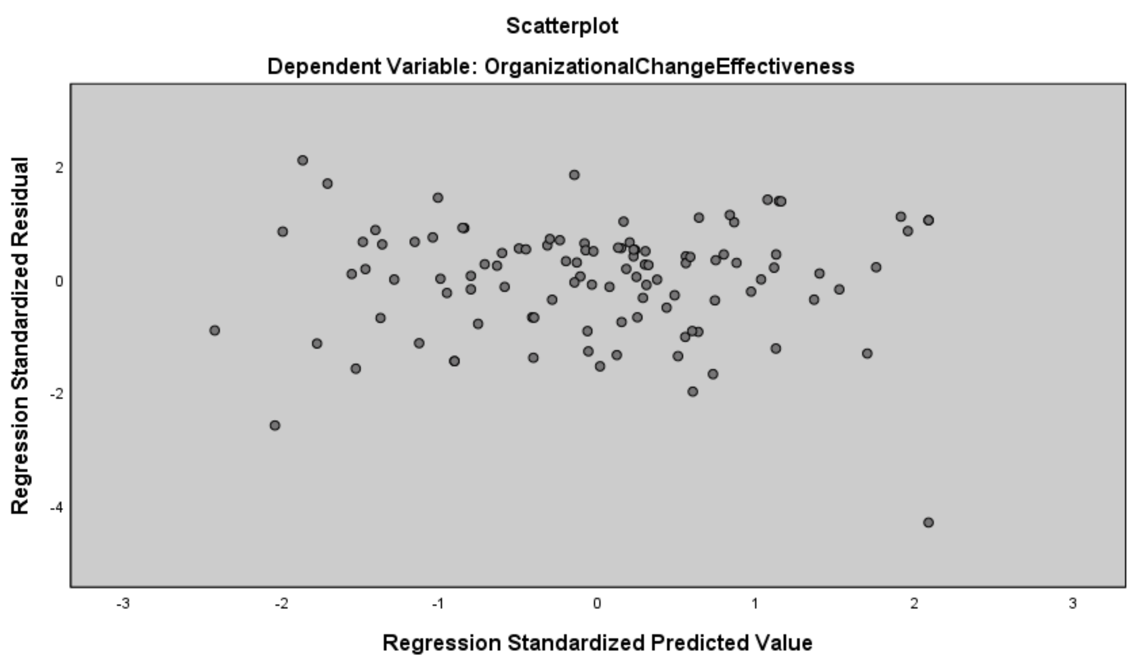

Figure 4. Scatterplot of the standardized residuals.

Inferential Results

I conducted a multiple linear regression, $\alpha = .05$ (two-tailed) to examine the efficacy of idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration in predicting organizational change effectiveness. The independent variables were idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The dependent variable was organizational change effectiveness. The null hypothesis was that idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration would not significantly predict organizational change effectiveness. The alternative hypothesis was that idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration would significantly predict organizational change effectiveness.

The overall model significantly predicted organizational change effectiveness, F (5, 101) = 2.712, $p < 0.024$, $R^2 = 0.12$. The $R^2 = 0.12$ indicates that approximately 12% of variations in organizational change effectiveness is accounted for by linear combination of the independent variables (idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration). However, no independent variable contributed significantly in organizational change effectiveness with idealized attributes ($b = 0.087$, $p = 0.638$); idealized behavior ($b = 0.053$, $p = 0.763$); inspirational motivation ($b = 0.157$, $p = 0.335$); intellectual stimulation ($b = 0.260$, $p = 0.231$); and individualized consideration ($b = -0.094$, $p = 0.586$). The b-values indicate the degree each independent variable affects the dependent variable, if the effects of all other independent variables remain constant. The final predictive equation was:

Organizational change effectiveness = 4.205 + (0.087 idealized attributes) + (0.053 idealized behavior) + (0.157 inspirational motivation) + (0.260 intellectual stimulation) **–** (0.094 individualized consideration).

Idealized attributes (*b* = 0.087): The positive value for idealized attributes as a predictor indicated a 0.087 increase in organizational change effectiveness for each additional unit in idealized attributes. In other words, organizational change effectiveness tends to increase by one unit as idealized attributes increases. This interpretation is true only if the effects of idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration remained constant.

Idealized behavior (*b* = 0.053): The positive value for idealized behavior as a predictor indicated a 0.053 increase in organizational change effectiveness for each additional unit in idealized behavior. In other words, organizational change effectiveness tends to increase by one unit as idealized behavior increases. This interpretation is true only if the effects of idealized attributes, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration remained constant.

Inspirational motivation (*b* = 0.157): The positive value for inspirational motivation as a predictor indicated a 0.157 increase in organizational change effectiveness for each additional unit in inspirational motivation. In other words, organizational change effectiveness tends to increase by one unit as inspirational motivation increases. This interpretation is true only if the effects of idealized attributes, idealized behavior, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration remained constant.

Intellectual stimulation (*b* = 0.260): The positive value for intellectual stimulation as a predictor indicated a 0.260 increase in organizational change effectiveness for each additional unit in intellectual stimulation. In other words, organizational change effectiveness tends to increase by one unit as intellectual stimulation increases. This interpretation is true only if the effects of idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration remained constant.

Individualized consideration (*b* = -0.094): The positive value for individualized consideration as a predictor indicated a 0.094 decrease in organizational change effectiveness for each additional unit in individualized consideration. In other words, organizational change effectiveness tends to decrease by one unit as individualized consideration increases. This interpretation is true only if the effects of idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation remained constant. The following Table predicts the regression summary table.

Table 4

Regression Analysis Summary for Independent Variables

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*B* 95% Bootstrap CI
Idealized Attributes	0.087	0.184	0.074	0.472	0.638	[-.0.239, 0.421]
Idealized Behaviors	0.053	0.174	0.047	0.302	0.763	[-0.281, 0.361]
Inspirational Motivation	0.157	0.162	0.138	0.969	0.335	[-0.140, 0.442]
Intellectual Stimulation	0.260	0.216	0.188	1.204	0.231	[-0.268, 0.708]
Individualized Consideration	-0.094	0.172	-0.072	-0.546	0.586	[-0.390, 0.256]

Note. *N*= 107.

Analysis summary. The purpose of this study was to examine the efficacy of transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration in predicting organizational change effectiveness. I used MLR to examine the ability of idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration to predict organizational change effectiveness. I assessed assumptions surrounding multiple linear regression and I did not find any serious violations. The model as a whole was able to significantly predict a relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness, F (5, 101) = 2.712, $p < 0.024$, $R^2 = 0.12$. However, the independent variables (idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) were not statistically significant.

Theoretical conversation on findings

The study results revealed a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness. The results of this study are consistent with the existing literature on transformational leadership and organizational change. Al-Qura'an (2015) discovered a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness. The study results are also aligned with Boga and Ensari (2009) findings. Boga and Ensari discovered a positive correlation between transformational leadership and organizational change.

Researches have consistently shown that transformational leadership style leads to positive organizational change. Transformational leadership is the effective leadership style required to implement organizational change successfully (Nging & Yazdanifard, 2015). Ineffective leadership is one of the leading causes of organizational change implementation failure. The findings from Amanchukwu et al. (2015) study indicated that effective leaders provide followers with the necessary skills to achieve organizational goals.

Application to Professional Practice

The results of this study are significant to leaders of large organizations in the United States in that business leaders might obtain a practical model for understanding the relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational change effectiveness. The in-depth understanding could assist business leaders gain a practical approach. The practical approach could lead to an understanding of what it takes to implement change effectively (Bunger et al., 2017). The findings of this study may serve as a foundation for a standardized change initiative process. Leaders could standardize some capabilities into the company's processes, such routines are highly effective (Simon et al., 2007).

U.S. businesses lose a minimum of $399 million a year from organizational change failure (Mellert et al., 2015). The high costs warrant business leaders to have knowledge, capabilities, and skills to implement change initiatives effectively. The dynamic competitive environment in which organizations operate needs dynamic change strategies for the continued viability of the organization (Yi et al., 2016). The dynamic competitive environment place pressure on business leaders' to constantly review existing resources and adjust them as needed.

Both scholars and practitioners argue that transformational leaders are effective at implementing organizational change. Transformational leadership style is a critical variable in the process of successfully implementing organizational change (Nging and Yazdanifard, 2015). Tichy and Devanna (1986) asserted that a transformational leadership style is highly effective in organizational change success, which is critical to organizations' survival in a dynamic environment.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for positive social change include the potential for business leaders to gain knowledge to improve the effectiveness of the organizational change process, which could increase productivity and minimize financial losses. Productivity growth may lead to a persistent employment effect and, thus, to the reduction of unemployment through long-term sustainable employment practices. Sustainable employment practices may empower employees to become financially healthy and lead to improved quality of life in society. Improved quality of life in society may improve family relationships and enable families to live with self-respect rather than despair.

Sustainable employment practices are essential to employees and communities. Engaged employees support their families and contribute to communities (Dyllick & Muff, 2015). Furthermore, sustainable employment practices could end the vicious cycle of poverty and improve the living standards of the people in communities. Transformational leaders create a positive working environment that positively enhances the employee’s commitment and contribution to the greater good (Porter, 2015).

Recommendations for Action

The results of this study indicated that a statistically significant relationship exists between transformational leadership’s idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. Based on these findings, I recommend that business leaders should have metrics to measure the success of change initiatives. According to Yi et al. (2016), the firm should have clear metrics to measure change initiatives.

Bass and Avolio (1990a) suggested that all levels of leadership in an organization should use transformational leadership approach. Therefore, I recommend that all organizational leadership should use transformational leadership style to affect the implementation of change positively. Bass and Avolio recommended use of MLQ questionnaire in transformational leadership training programs to determine the leaders’ strength and weaknesses. Programs designed to develop transformational leadership could use the MLQ questionnaire to improve decision making during change initiative projects.

The publication of this study will add to the body of knowledge and researchers could use the knowledge in future studies concerning transformational leadership and organizational change. I intend to present the findings of the study at professional conferences, as they are an effective way to communicate the results of a research study to scholars. Furthermore, peer-reviewed journals are also an important channel to disseminate the findings of a study. I intend to publish this study in the ProQuest dissertation database. Additionally, I may present the findings of the study at relevant business events.

Recommendations for Further Research

In this study, I examined the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. One of the limitations of this study was the use of convenience sampling. The use of convenience sampling limited the potential to generalize the results to only the population sample. According to Landers and Behrend (2015), the use of convenience sampling limits the potential generalizability of results to the sample.

Recommendations for further study include the use of probability sampling to potential generalize the results. Probability sampling is the preferred method because sample selection through randomization allows generalization of the results (Ekekwe, 2013). The essence of probability sampling is that every unit in the population has an equal chance of being selected (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, a probability sample is more representative of the study population.

Subsequent studies could use mixed-methods research methodology to extend the findings regarding transformational leadership and organizational change. The mixed-methods research methodology is appropriate when the researcher requires the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods in single research (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015). Change implementation failure is a global challenge for all organizations (Monauni, 2017). Thus, a mixed-methods research methodology could address the complexity of organizational change implementation failure.

Reflections

The results of the study broadened my perspective on the research topic. The findings of the study augmented my knowledge of the importance of using transformational leadership style when implementing change initiatives. Throughout the doctoral process, I learned how to be a scholar-practitioner. I plan to share the knowledge gained in this study by coaching, advising, and mentoring business practitioners and leaders.

According to Fusch, Fusch, and Ness (2018), researchers can mitigate bias by using data collection method that is appropriate for the study design. In this study, the use of questionnaires to collect data was the appropriate method to mitigate bias. Recognizing personal beliefs discern the presence of personal lenses and enables the researcher to be objective (Fusch et al., 2018). While conducting the study, I ensured that my personal beliefs did not influence the study findings and relied on the collected data to address the research question.

Conclusion

In this study, I examined the relationship between transformational leadership's idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and organizational change effectiveness. The results of the study revealed a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational change effectiveness. However, the independent variables were not statistically significant. Adoption of the findings of this study might assist business leaders improve organizational change processes. Furthermore, the findings of this study might enhance business leaders' performance through the restructuring of training programs to focus on behaviors that improve transformational leadership effectiveness. The implications for positive social change include the potential for long-term sustainable employment practices that might empower employees to be financially healthy and lead to improved quality of life.

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Appendix A: Permission to use Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To Whom It May Concern,

The above-named person has made a license purchase from Mind Garden, Inc. and has permission to administer the following copyrighted instrument up to that quantity purchased:

Sincerely,

Robert Most

Mind Garden, Inc.

www.mindgarden.com

Appendix B: Permission to use Project Implementation Profile Questionnaire

Pinto, Jeffrey <jkp4@[redacted]>

Mon 4/15/2019 8:17 AM

To:Slevin, Dennis P <DPSLEVIN@[redacted]>; Nomahlathi Mgqibi <nomahlathi.mgqibi@[redacted]>;

Dear N. Mgqibi

Thank you for your note. Please find attached an electronic copy of the Project Implementation Profile (PIP) for you purposes. Please note that this permission does not extend to using it for consulting or training purposes.

Best of luck with your research!

Jeff Pinto
Jeffrey K. Pinto, Ph.D.
Andrew Morrow and Elizabeth Lee Black Chair
of Technology Management
Black School of Business
Penn State, the Behrend College
jkp4@[redacted]

Appendix C: Multiple Linear Regression SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Organizational Change Effectiveness	5.4981	.87631	107
Idealized Attributes	2.5864	.74929	107
Idealized Behavior	2.6332	.78256	107
Inspirational Motivation	2.6332	.77041	107
Intellectual Stimulation	2.7430	.63549	107
Individualized Consideration	2.8668	.67408	107

Correlations

		Organizational Change Effectiveness	Idealized Attributes	Idealized Behavior	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
Pearson Correlation	Organizational Change Effectiveness	1.000	.280	.281	.291	.310	.195
	Idealized Attributes	.280	1.000	.620	.707	.672	.659
	Idealized Behavior	.281	.620	1.000	.646	.751	.592
	Inspirational Motivation	.291	.707	.646	1.000	.580	.549
	Intellectual Stimulation	.310	.672	.751	.580	1.000	.610
	Individualized Consideration	.195	.659	.592	.549	.610	1.000

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.344[a]	.118	.075	.84294

a. Predictors: (Constant), Individualized Consideration, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Idealized Behavior, Idealized Attributes

b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Change Effectiveness

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.635	5	1.927	2.712	.024[b]
	Residual	71.765	101	.711		
	Total	81.400	106			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Change Effectiveness

b. Predictors: (Constant), Individualized Consideration, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Idealized Behavior, Idealized Attributes

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.278	.406		10.538	.000		
	Idealized Attributes	.087	.184	.074	.472	.638	.354	2.827
	Idealized Behavior	.053	.174	.047	.302	.763	.360	2.778
	Inspirational Motivation	.157	.162	.138	.969	.335	.429	2.333
	Intellectual Stimulation	.260	.216	.188	1.204	.231	.357	2.801
	Individualized Consideration	-.094	.172	-.072	-.546	.586	.497	2.011

Bootstrap for Coefficients

Model		B	Bootstrap[a] Bias	Std. Error	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
1	(Constant)	4.278	-.007	.528	.001	3.230	5.356
	Idealized Attributes	.087	.006	.170	.603	-.239	.421
	Idealized Behavior	.053	.011	.169	.774	-.281	.361
	Inspirational Motivation	.157	-.002	.150	.292	-.140	.442
	Intellectual Stimulation	.260	-.031	.245	.295	-.268	.708
	Individualized Consideration	-.094	.019	.165	.565	-.390	.256

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples