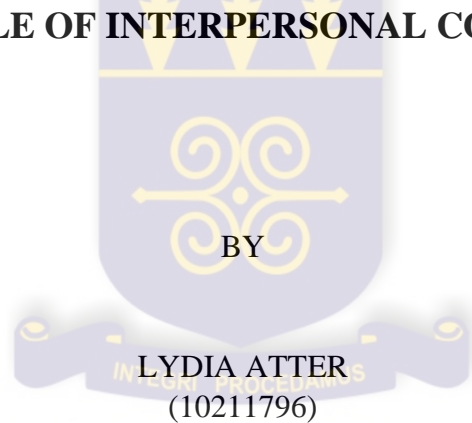


UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

**ENHANCING SUBORDINATES ENGAGEMENT THROUGH WOMEN
LEADERSHIP STYLES IN THE HEALTH SECTOR OF GHANA: THE
MEDIATING ROLE OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION.**



**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MPhil
ORGANISATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE DEGREE.**

JUNE, 2016.

DECLARATION

I do hereby declare that, this work is the result of my own research and has not been presented by anyone for any academic award in this or any other university. All references used in the work have been fully acknowledged.

I bear sole responsibility for any shortcomings

.....
LYDIA ATTER
(10211796)

.....
DATE



CERTIFICATION

I thereby certify that, this thesis was supervised in accordance with procedures laid down by the University.

.....
JAMES BABA ABUGRE (PhD.)
(SUPERVISOR)

.....
DATE



DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the Living God, for His guidance and protection.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am indebted to my supervisor, Dr. James Baba Abugre for his support with materials, time and intelligent guidance during the supervision of this work, God bless him. I acknowledge the massive support from my mother, Adzo Menetey and Siblings; Awoyaa, Korkor, Teiko, Nartey, Amiyo and Danso and all my nieces and nephews. May the Living God bless them.

To all whose encouragement and diverse support saw to the final completion of my Master of Philosophy programme, I say God bless you and guide your steps. To Mr. Simon Amoh, with much appreciation and love I say God richly bless you for the support and care. Also, am much grateful to Elder Robert Instiful, Mr. Anane Agboli and the family, Mr. Madison Lansah, Alex, members of Kristo Asafo church, Madina and lecturers and administrative staffs of University of Ghana Business School; Organisation and Human Resource Management Department.

I wish to thank management and staff of Ridge, Achimota and Ashongman community hospitals, GAEC clinic, Maamobi and Mamprobi polyclinics for granting me the permission to carry out my studies in their institutions.

For those who due to space I cannot mention your names but supported me in completing my two year course, I say God bless you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration.....	i
Certification	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgement	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of tables.....	ix
List of figures.....	ix
List of abbreviations	xi
Abstract.....	xii

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	3
1.3 Objectives of the study.....	4
1.4 Research Questions	5
1.5 Significance of the study.....	5
1.6 Organisation of the study	6

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....

2.0 Introduction.....	7
2.1 Theoretical Framework.....	7
2.1.1 The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory	7
2.1.2 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory.....	10
2.2 Review of concepts used in the study.....	14
2.3 Leadership.....	14
2.3.1 Theories of Leadership	15
2.3.2 Leadership styles.....	18
2.3.2.1 Transformational Leadership Style.....	18

2.3.2.2 Transactional Leadership Style.....	22
2.3.2.3 Leadership styles of women.....	25
2.4 Employee Engagement	26
2.4.1 Types of Engagement	33
2.4.1.1 Physical engagement.....	33
2.4.1.2 Emotional Engagement.....	34
2.4.1.3 Cognitive Engagement.....	35
2.5 Interpersonal Communication.....	37
2.5.1 Leadership and communication.....	42
2.5.2 Leader-subordinate communication.....	45
2.5.3 Leader-employee and leader-team communication behaviour	48
2.5.3.1 Initiating structure.....	49
2.5.3.2 Facilitating work.....	49
2.5.3.3 Relational dynamics.....	49
2.5.3.4 Supervisors representing employees and the unit.....	50
2.6 Relevant outcomes of leaders' communication behaviours.....	50
2.6.1 Clarifying roles using communication.....	51
2.7 Empirical evidence on the relationship between the constructs	54
2.7.1 Leadership and Engagement.....	54
2.7.2 Transformational leadership style and employee engagement	57
2.7.3 Transactional leadership style and employee engagement	59
2.7.4 Interpersonal Communication and Employee Engagement.....	61
2.8 Conceptual Framework for the study.....	63

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction.....	69
3.1 Research Paradigm.....	69
3.1.1 Interpretive Paradigm.....	69
3.1.2 Realism Paradigm	70
3.1.3 Positivism Paradigm	71
3.2 Research Approach.....	72

3.2.1 Qualitative Research Method.....	72
3.2.2 Mixed Method.....	72
3.2.3 Quantitative Research Method.....	73
3.3 Research Design.....	74
3.4 Sources of data.....	75
3.5 Target Population.....	76
3.6 Sampling Techniques.....	76
3.7 Sample Size.....	77
3.8 Instrumentations.....	78
3.8.1 Leadership styles.....	79
3.8.2 Employee Engagement Instruments	79
3.8.3 Interpersonal Communication Instrument	80
3.8.4 Demographic Variables	80
3.9 Data Analysis	81
3.9.1 Data editing, coding and screening.....	82
3.9.2 Missing value Analysis	82
3.9.3 Assessment of Normality.....	83
3.9.4 Outliers.....	84
3.9.5 Validity Analysis	84
3.9.6 Reliability Analysis.....	85
3.9.7 Test for Mediation.....	85
3.10 Administration Procedure	87
3.11 Ethical Consideration.....	88

CHAPYER FOUR: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.....

4.0 Introduction.....	89
4.1 Preliminary Analysis.....	89
4.1.1 Data Editing, Coding and Screening.....	89
4.1.2 Missing data analysis	89
4.1.3 Assessment of Normality	90
4.1.4 Treatment of Outliers.....	91

4.2 Characteristics of Population	91
4.3 Demographic Variables	91
4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)	94
4.5 Validation Test of the Measurement Model	95
4.6 Correlation Analysis	97
4.7 The Structural Model	98
4.7.1 Validation Test of the Structural Model	98
4.8 Testing of Hypotheses.....	100
4.8.1 Tests for Mediations	101
4.9 Conceptual Frameworks for the study	107
4.9.1 Conceptual Framework before analysis.....	107
4.9.2 Conceptual Framework after analysis.....	108
4.10 Discussion of Findings.....	108
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.0 Introduction.....	112
5.1 Summary of the study	112
5.2 Conclusions.....	114
5.3 Recommendations.....	116
5.4 Implication for theory and practice.....	117
5.5 Limitation of the study and Directions for future research.....	117
REFERENCES.....	119
APPENDICES:.....	
Appendix A: Questionnaire	173
Appendix B: Assessment of Outliers.....	178
Appendix C: Items for Confirmatory Analysis.....	179

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4. 1 Assessment of normality.....	90
Table 4. 2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	93
Table 4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis results for measurement model	95
Table 4.4 Model fit indices for the measurement model	96
Table 4.5 Correlation matrix.....	98
Table 4.6 Model fit indices for the structural model	99
Table 4.7 Predicting Employee Engagement (EE) from Leadership Styles	101
Table 4.8 Predicting Employee Engagement (EE) from Leadership Styles	101
Table 4.9 Mediating effect of IPC on TSL and PEE	102
Table 4.10: Mediating effect of IPC on TSL and CEE.....	103
Table 4.11: Mediating effect of IPC on TSL and EEE	103
Table 4.12: Mediating effect of ICP on TFL and PEE	104
Table 4.13: Mediating effect of ICP on TFL and CEE.....	104
Table 4.14: Mediating effect of IPC on TFL and EEE	105
Table 4.15: Results from the Baron and Kenny mediation approach	105
Table 4.16: Bootstrapping test of significance of mediation effects at 95% CI	107
Table 4.17: Summary results of bootstrapping mediation	107

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Researcher's conceptual Framework.....	67
Figure 4.1 Measurement Model.....	97
Figure 4.2 The structural Model	100
Figure 4.3 Conceptual Model before hypotheses	107
Figure 4.4 Final Conceptual Model	107

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- AMOS- Analysis of Moment Structure
CEE- Cognitive Employee Engagement
CFA- Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI-Comparative Fit Indices
EE- Employee Engagement
EEE- Emotional Employee Engagement
GFI- Goodness of Fit Indices
IPC-Interpersonal Communication
JD-R – Job Demand Resource
LMX-Leader Member Exchange
MLQ- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
PEE-Physical Employee Engagement
RMSEA- Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM-Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS-Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TFL-Transformational Leadership
TSL-Transactional Leadership

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate how women leaders enhance their subordinates' engagement using interpersonal communication as a mediating variable. Specifically, the study examines the extent to which women leadership styles help to engage subordinates in the health sector of Ghana. Additionally, the work tries to ascertain whether interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership styles and subordinate engagement. The study adopts a quantitative approach and a cross-sectional research design is used to collect data from six health facilities in the Accra metropolis. Three hundred respondents are purposively sampled and structured questionnaire is the main primary data collection tool. Data from the field is analysed using regression and Structural Equation Modelling. Results from the study reveals a significant relationship between leadership styles and subordinate engagement. Interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between both transactional and transformational leadership styles and the physical, cognitive and emotional engagement of subordinates. The study recommends that supervisors should focus attention to communicate with their subordinates to enable them get the needed information and direction to carry out their work.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The first chapter of the study explains the background to the study and outlines the research objectives and questions. It also includes the significance for the study and how the entire chapters in the study are organised.

1.1 Background to the Study

Leadership styles have been the most researched in the past in the area of organisational behaviour (Bellou, 2011; Zhang, Jia, & Gu, 2012; Sheikh, Newman, & Azzeh, 2013). The vast majority of existing literature has identified leaders as a pivot whose recognition of attributes, attitudes, and behaviours influence followers (Bass, 1990; Judge & Bono, 2002) to positive work outcomes and well beings. Although much has been done on leadership styles and other constructs like job performance, employee commitment, job satisfaction (e.g. Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson 2008; Anitha, 2014; Tuckey et al., 2012; Xu & Thomas, 2011), there are few studies that addresses the gap between leadership styles and employee engagement (Aryee, Walumbwa, Zhou & Hartnell, 2012).

Leadership has a role to play in enhancing the employee engagement through support, direction and information (Aryee et al., 2012; Hansen, Byrne & Kiersch, 2014, 2015; Meijman & Mulder, 1998; Pugh & Dietz, 2008; Xu and Thomas, 2011; Zhang et al. 2014a, b). Indeed, leadership is a fundamental factor that influences employee engagement (Anitha, 2014; Walumbwa at al., 2008). The leader or supervisor (which is used synonymously in this study) in improving the environment necessary for employees to be engaged (by giving them direction, instructions and information) becomes possible through interpersonal communication. Interpersonal

communication therefore becomes a need for the employee and which must be met and maintained by the leader to ensure subordinates positive work outcomes and well-being. This is because engagement occurs naturally when leaders are inspiring and are able to communicate employee's efforts and show how meaningful their efforts are to the organisation's success (Wallace & Trinko, 2009). Also, it is through communication that leaders communicate the organisational overall goal to the employees. This enables the employee to know how his/her individual roles fit into that of the overall organisation (MacLeod & Clarke, 2009) which leads to engaged workforce (Bindl & Parker, 2010). The employees become engaged by willingly investing themselves into their job roles (Kahn, 2010), they become engrossed in their roles to the extent that they do not pay attention to lunch and other breaks and they also develop a sense of identification to the organisation (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001).

Employee engagement is therefore influenced by communication (Kahn, 1992; Mishra, Boynton & Mishra, 2014; Pounsford, 2007; Welch, 2011; Wiley, Kowske & Herma, 2010). The natural occurrence of engaged employees in the organisation is crucial because it is one of the factors to the organisation's success. In that, the higher the engagement levels of employees, the better their performances. For example, highly engaged employees go above and beyond the core responsibilities outlined in their job descriptions, they are innovative and think outside the box to move their organisations forward (Guest, 2014). Also, when an employee is engaged, he/she is aware of his/her responsibility to the business goals and motivates his/her colleagues alongside for the success of the organisational goals (Anitha, 2014). Communication influences employee engagement and according to Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009), communication is one of the mechanisms of a leader's behaviours that translate into employees work behaviours and wellbeing. Communication however is relatively less studied (Avolio et al., 2009).

This research therefore seeks to look at how interpersonal communication can enhance daily subordinate engagement through women's leadership styles. This is because, certain characteristics like leadership and interpersonal relationships, expressing emotions, rewarding positive behaviour or paying attention to personal and socioemotional factors which are necessary for subordinate engagement and go beyond technical knowledge is associated with women (Kark, Manor & Shamir, 2011). This propelled the study to examine if indeed women leadership styles or behaviours can enhance subordinate engagement in the health sector of Ghana with the mediating role of interpersonal communication.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Engagement has been associated with performance outcome like growth, profit and productivity (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Rich, LePine & Crawford, 2010), competitive outcome (Anitha, 2014), organisational citizenship behaviour and customer satisfaction (May, Gilson & Harter, 2004; Saks, 2006). Despite the importance of employee engagement, scholarly research on the construct is inadequate (Wefald & Downey, 2009a). Relatively, few studies addresses the gap between leadership styles and engagement (Aryee et al., 2012), although much has been done on leadership styles and other constructs like job performance, employee commitment, job satisfaction (e.g. Walumbwa et al., 2008; Anitha, 2014; Tuckey et al., 2012; Xu & Thomas, 2011). The few that looked at leadership styles and employee engagement laid much emphasis on the transformational leadership style (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Salanova, Llorente, Chamber & Martinez, 2011; Wefald, Reichard & Serrano, 2011; Zhu, Avolio & Walumbwa, 2009) than transactional leadership style (Zhang, Bergsteiner & More, 2014a,b).

The few studies that looked at leadership styles did not also handle the mechanisms of leadership behaviours (communication behaviours) that translated into positive work behaviour of employees (Avolio et al., 2009). The aspect of the leader behaviour (i.e. communication) which affect employee engagement levels is also not well developed at the organisational level (Zhang et al., 2014) and needs to be further researched especially in emerging economies like Ghana (Abugre, 2012; Sharma & Kamalanabhan, 2012). Studies have been done on leadership styles and communication (Alan, Mikkelson, York & Arritola, 2015; Madlock & Booth-Butterfield, 2008; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002; Richmond & McCroskey, 2000) and that of communication on employee engagement (Baumruk, Gorman, Gorman & Ingham, 2006; Fatimah, Dharmawan, Sunarti & Affandi, 2015; Men & Hung-Baesecke, 2015; Mishra et al., 2014; Robinson, Perryman & Hayday, 2004; Scheider et al., 2009; Shaw & Bastock, 2005). However, very little has been done on how interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between leadership (transformational and transactional) styles and employee engagement hence, the need for this study. It is against this backdrop that this study is carried out.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study is to enhance daily subordinate engagement through women's leadership styles in the Health sector of Ghana: The mediating role of interpersonal communication.

1.3.1 Specific Research Objectives

The research specifically looks at the following objectives:

- i. To determine the extent to which women leadership style help to engage subordinates in the health sector of Ghana.

- ii. To ascertain whether interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transactional leadership styles and employee engagement.
- iii. To determine whether interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership styles and employee engagement.

1.4 Research Questions

- i. To what extent does women leadership style help to engage subordinates in the health sector of Ghana?
- ii. Will interpersonal communication mediate the relationship between transactional leadership styles and employee engagement?
- iii. Does interpersonal communication mediate the relationship between transactional leadership styles and employee engagement?

1.5 Significance of the study

Implication of this study in the research area will add to the existing literature in the areas of leadership specifically the in the area of transformational and transactional leadership styles and the engagement of subordinate. The study will find out whether interpersonal communication indirectly influence subordinates engagement. Studies done on employee engagement saw engagement as a single construct. This work adds to the few studies that sees employee engagement as having different dimensions.

The outcome of this study will enable us understand the need to have women leadership at the national, regional, district and the municipal levels. The study will again help in identifying the vital role of interpersonal communication on employee engagement.

1.6 Organisation of the study

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter one consists of the general introduction to the study, the problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions and significance of the study.

Chapter two consists of the literature review and the conceptual framework. Key terms associated with the research and extant reviews of related research materials are defined. It also deals with in-depth analysis of thematic areas and a thorough and objective illustration of evident and argumentative review of related research. For the purpose of this work, literature is reviewed in areas on leadership styles, employee engagement and interpersonal communication.

The methodology for the study is in chapter three. This chapter is made up of the research design, the population for the study, the sample and the sampling procedure, methods of data collection, instruments of data collection and methods used in the data analysis.

Chapter four explains the results and discussion of the findings. This chapter embodies the scrutiny of field data in order to provide a vivid outcome of the study. This is where the researcher answers the research questions that are posed in chapter one.

Finally, chapter five provides the summary, conclusion and recommendations from the study. Implication for theory, limitation for the study and direction for future studies are also outlined in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews work in the area of leadership styles, employee engagement and interpersonal communication. Theories and concepts that informed the study are outlined in this chapter.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Theories that informed the entire study are discussed here. They are the Job Demand-Resource theory and the Leader-Member Exchange theory.

2.1.1 The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory

Organisations can create appropriate conditions to provoke engagement (Robinson, Perryman & Hayday, 2004) through providing appropriate job characteristics. The Job Demand-Resource theory by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli, (2001) assumes job characteristics that engender engagement can be divided into demands and resources. Job resources are: “physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that help achieve work goals, and/or reduce job demands, and/or stimulate personal growth and learning” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.50).

The job resources are seen to stimulate a motivational process (both extrinsic and intrinsic) which can lead to positive work outcomes and wellbeing of the employee (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Schaufeli and Taris (2013), these job resources can be in the form of personal resources, which are defined as aspects of the self that enable an employee or

subordinate to have control and impact his/her environment successfully (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism and emotional stability).

The job demands on the other hand refers to the aspects of a job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort which are associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs (Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli & Taris, 2013).

There is evidence that high job demand causes burnout or disengagement (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Schaufeli, Bakker, & van Rhenen, 2009). However, a job demand that is seen to be challenging can result into positive work behaviour (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010) and a job demand is seen as challenging when the employee believes there are sufficient resources to meet the demand. On the other hand, when the employee sees there is insufficient resources, the same job demand is seen as a hindrance which might lead to further loss like disengagement. Examples of job challenges include workload pressure, time pressure, and cognitive demand (Van den Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte, & Vansteenkiste, 2010). It can be argued out that a job demand that is challenging can easily lead to positive work outcome with some level of resource.

According to the JD-R model, challenging demands of a job together with resources engages the employee in his/her work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2014; Demerouti et al., 2001). The reason being that job resources can easily offset the challenging job demand which can lead to engagement. For example, when an employee is faced with a challenging job in the form of workload pressure, the supervisor's support (which is a job resource) will help the employee to get the work done at the end of the day. Also, supervisor support in the form of feedback on performance provides the employees with information and participation in decision making

influence their emotional engagement (Bakker, Hakanen, & Demerouti, 2006) which directly affect their working environment positively (Spector, 1986).

In the JD-R theory, supervisors support in the form of feedback which provide information to employees, employees' participation in decision making have been noted to buffer the potential negative influence of job demands on engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007).

These supports from the leader or the supervisor builds trust (Mayer & Gavin, 2005) in the employee which ensures psychological safety, which according to Kahn (1990), must be present for engagement to occur. Trust according to Carroll (2006), is made possible through open communication and employees enjoy working in such open environment. Employees who experience an environment characterized by open communication have pride in what they do and they enjoy what they do as well. Trust builds commitment in employees, which lead to employee engagement (Mishra et al., 2014). This tells how vital the role of supervisors/leaders have in the engagement process of their employees.

According to Schaufeli (2015), certain characteristics of a leader aid in enhancing the engagement of employees. For example, when the leader is inspiring, strengthening and connected, the leader provide a form of job resource for the employees. Good leaders leverage an environment at the work place that increases work engagement and eliminate some burnout (Shuck & Herd, 2012). In JD-R model, leaders manage job demands and job resources in ways that prevents burnout and promote work engagement. Leaders provide their followers with resources like job control, skills, task variety and developmental resources in the form of performance feedback, career perspectives and monitoring, coaching, clarifying job roles reduces job demands like work overload, emotional demands and work- home interference. There is

some kind of interpersonal relationship between the leader and the subordinate when the leader is providing any form of support. This relationship is enhanced through communication. Interpersonal communication therefore ignites the motivation process which leads to positive work outcome and wellbeing of the employee like their engagement on the job. For example, it is through effective communication that organisations are able to disseminate their strategic goals to employees (Veld, Paauwe & Boselie 2010). The dissemination of the organisation strategic goals through communication enable the employees understand how their roles contribute to the organisational goals which make the employees become involved and engaged in their work.

However, the amount of interpersonal communication a leader will share with the subordinate will be determined by the kind of relationship that exists between them. The interpersonal relationship can exist through the leader- member exchange theory which is the second theory that informed this study.

2.1.2 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory

Job resources has been seen to activate a motivational process which lead to employees' wellbeing and positive work outcome like engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Nonetheless, the amount of job resources provided by the leader depends on the type of relationship with the employee. One way such relationship can be examined is through the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory which is rooted in the social exchange theories (Blau, 1964; Graen, 1976; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964), states that followers develop unique exchange relationships with their leader which influences followers' work attitudes and behaviours. LMX theory was defined by other researchers as an interpersonal

relationship between a leader and a subordinate which relates to follower outcome (Lee, 2000; Schyns, Petro, & Smith, 2007). The view that LMX is related to followers' outcome holds in that leaders in such high relationship with their followers provide resources like decision-making latitude, empowerment, and social support (Keller & Dansereau, 1995; Scandura, Graen & Novak, 1986; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997) which help the employee to perform at the work place. When the leader and the members are in high quality relationship, the leader become a resource which provide the employee with support, which make the employees become psychological safe (Shantz, Alfes & Arevshatian, 2016; Spreitzer, 2007). Psychological safety is important for fostering work engagement because it eliminates the wearing out of vigour, a core dimension of engagement (Kahn, 1990).

Studies have shown that the quality of the LMX relationship is related to positive subordinate outcomes, like job satisfaction, task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), commitment and role clarity (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Liden, 2012; Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007; Volmer, Niessen, Spurk, Linz & Abele, 2011).

LMX theory proposes that leaders have unique social exchange relationships with their followers and that the quality of these relationships differs between and among employees (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). The quality of the LMX relationship determines the degree to which leaders meet certain job demands of employees by providing them with information and the opportunity to participate in the decision-making. Based on the conservation of resource (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) and the job demand resource (JD-R) theory, (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014, Demerouti et al., 2001), it can be argued out that, the LMX is positively related to employee engagement and other work outcomes like job performance,

because followers have access to more job resources when they have a high-quality relationship with their supervisors (Bakker et al., 2007; Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006).

Employees in higher-quality exchange situations experience open communication with the supervisors (Yrle et al., 2002) which provides them with the information to carry out their work which reduce role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload (Dunegan, Uhl-Bien & Duchon, 2002). This is because communication makes it possible for the leader to provide the subordinates with instructions and direction to carry out work. The giving of the instructions and directions reduces role ambiguity, conflict and work overload. According to Beh and Loo (2012), health workers become disillusioned, stressed and disengaged from work when communication is insufficient and untimely. It has been clearly highlighted that communication is a critical factor for enhancing performance through employee engagement (MacLeod & Clarke, 2009). Besides, since employees in high-quality relationships are trusted by their leader, they are provided with more decision latitude (Townsend, Phillips, & Elkins, 2000) and empowerment (Keller & Dansereau, 1995). Decision latitude and empowerment help engage employees better in their jobs within the organisation as the employees have freedom to decide for themselves which work assignments they will focus on, and how they will execute them. As supervisors communicate with their employees in high LMX relationship, employees' also have a privileged way of communicating with the leader(s) (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

This two way communication process (interpersonal communication) represents one of the organisational conditions that drives engagement (Bakker et al., 2011; Kahn, 1992; Papalexandris & Galanaki, 2009). This form of engagement is related to a number of work outcome; for example, employees have a better health and less often absent themselves from work (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009). This is because, during engagement,

employees fulfill a positive work-related experience state of mind (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003) which has been found to be positively related to organisational commitment, job performance, job satisfaction and extra-role behaviour.

The benefits employees gained from the exchange process through interpersonal communication goes a long way to benefit other employees in the form of building strong relationships which become possible through communication (Awad & Alhashemi, 2012). For example, when employees' needs are met through satisfying communication (Pearce, 2003), the employees are more than likely to build relationships with their other co-workers. Sharing ideas, giving opinions, finding out what one needs to know, explaining what one wants, working out differences with others, expressing one's feelings (Goleman, 1998) can be regarded as essential elements that help relate to other people (Sherony & Green, 2002). More specifically, employees in a high-quality LMX relationship with their supervisor have significantly higher quality exchange relationships with co-workers in the form of social support. In this case, both co-workers share the same positive experiences (Heider, 1958; Sherony & Green, 2002).

Employees in high-quality LMX relationships engage in behaviours that is not only defined in their role description but the relationship may create a work environment in which colleagues help and support each other which influence both affective and behavioural outcomes (Kram & Cherniss, 2001). Relationship building in the form of support from team members predicts engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xu & Thomas, 2011). Simply put, high quality exchange relationship between the leader and the member also benefit other members in the form of building relationship which provide support for other members. The support from other members might lead to their engagement.

When an employee feels involved in the organisation, he or she is more likely to develop positive relationships with other stakeholders both within and beyond the firm. When an employee develops a relationship with external stakeholders, he or she can become an ambassador or advocate for the firm (Chong, 2007). After examining the theories that informed the study, major constructs (e.g. leaderships, leadership style, employee engagement and interpersonal communication) were reviewed.

2.2 Review of concepts used in the study

This section explains the various construct that is used in this study.

2.3 Leadership

Leadership is seen in every organisation as the medium within which a leader operates. For example, Fiedler (1996), stated that in organisations, the success or failure rests on the effectiveness of the leader. This effectiveness of the leader can help cope with the turbulent external environment of the organisation (Darcy & Kleiner, 1991; Hennessey, 1998). Organisations with effective leadership practices, as Hitt and Ireland (2002) mentioned, can help to improve performance since they would be able to bring about change in the turbulent business environment (Burke, 2002). For instance, it has been noted that leaders' effectiveness gives competitive advantages to the organisations in which they operate (Avolio, 1999; Lado, Boyd, & Wright, 1992; Rowe, 2001; Zhu, Chew, & Spangler, 2005). As effective leaders, their behaviours can facilitate the improvement of performance when organisations face new challenges (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000; Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997).

Although leadership has been well researched in academia in the past few decades (Bellou, 2011; Sheikh et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2012), there is no single agreed definition of leadership. Some

defined leadership in terms of behaviour, influence and interactional patterns (Yukl, 2002). Leadership as defined in terms of influence; saw leadership as an individual influencing a group of individuals towards the achievement of a common goal or vision (Northouse, 2001). However Attridge (2009), saw leadership in terms of behaviour; as a relatively consistent pattern of positive behaviour, applying to leader-follower interactions.

This study adapted the definition of leadership from Northouse (2001) and Attridge (2009) and defined leadership as influencing a group of people through interaction to achieve a vision. This implies that leadership as a process of influencing others is available to anyone and not conserve to people who are born with certain traits or characteristics as believed by those theorist who believed leaders are born. The next subsection reviewed some major theories which define leadership.

2.3.1 Theories of Leadership

According to Cleveland, Stockdale and Murphy (2000), early studies on leadership were concerned with traits or characteristics (who leads), behavioural approach (how the leader leads), situational or contingency approach (under what circumstances does the leader lead) and the rational theories (who follows the leader). Under the trait theory, leaders are seen as born with special traits or characteristics like ambitions, vision and the personality that attracts people to them. Criticism in validating this assertion, however, led to the emergence of style and behavioural approaches to leadership that shifted the emphasis from the characteristics of the leader to the behaviour and style the leader adopts (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Stogdill, 1948). The behavioural approach sees leadership in two forms task and interpersonal relationship (Northouse, 2013). The former (i.e. task dimension) included goal setting, organisation direction

and control whilst the interpersonal relationship dimension embraces interaction, support, communication and active listening.

Task-oriented leadership behaviours focus on goal accomplishment. These behaviours are intended to help employees achieve their goals and objectives, which primarily focuses on the efficient uses of personal resources (Yukl, Gordam & Taber, 2002). Task-oriented behaviours can include a focus on the clarification of role expectations, monitoring the performance of team members, scheduling of work tasks, and an emphasis on the achievement of high reliability for services and operations (Stogdill, 1974; Yukl et al., 2002). With task orientation, leaders also focuses on production and the technical aspects of the job (Bowers & Seashore, 1966). In short, task leadership puts the emphasis on work procedures, activities and goals.

While task-oriented leadership behaviour is focused on efficiency and achievement of goals and tasks, the objective of relations-oriented leadership behaviours are to help and support subordinates by making them feel as part of the work group. Relations-oriented leadership behaviours can include expressing encouragement to employees, increased levels of trust, respect, companionship between the leader and the employees, and cooperation between employees (Stogdill, 1974; Yukl et al., 2002). Furthermore, relations-oriented leaders tend to take an interest in employees, giving special attention to their individual needs (Bowers & Seashore, 1966), empowering employees to take initiative, consulting employees for input when making important decisions, and providing recognition for achievements and contributions (Yukl et al., 2002). Simply put, relations-oriented leadership behaviours put an emphasis on treating employees with respect, building relationships, and making the work environment pleasant.

Each of these leadership behaviour orientations has value to the function of an organisation and the personal and professional development of employees. However, it is argued that the most

productive leadership approach is a combination of task and relations-leadership behaviours (Blake & McCaense, 1991). Blake and McCaense (1991) referred to this type of leadership as team management, and the communication style of the leader has been associated with increased profits, productivity, and communication flow between leaders and followers (Hackman & Johnson, 2013).

Eagly and Johnson (1990) acknowledged that the distinction between these two approaches to leadership was originally the contribution of Bales (1950), which was then further developed by Hemphill and Coons (1957). This behaviour or style have been identified into two main styles: transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Avery 2004; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Drath, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

One of these two leadership style was identified as engagement-friendly leadership style which was the “transformational leadership” (Bass, 1999). However, the trait and behavioural theories focused on identifying one best way of leading and seem ignorant of the role which situational factors play in determining the effectiveness of individual leaders (Mullins, 1999). This limitation gave rise to situational and contingency theories of leadership (House, 1971).

According to these approaches (thus situational and contingency theories), a leadership style becomes effective based on situations and the leadership style differs according to the situations.

There has been a lot of leadership theories which has led to different leadership styles (Avery 2004; Bass 1985; Drath 2001; Goleman et al., 2002), and the continuous quest for a comprehensive leadership approach led to transformational and transactional leadership styles (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). The transactional-transformational school of thought (Bass, 1985) is now acknowledged as a dominant approach in the study of leadership (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005; Vera & Crossan, 2004). The full range leadership theory developed by Avolio and Bass (1991),

uses three typologies of leadership behaviours: transformational, transactional and the passive-avoidant/laissez-faire leadership style. This research will look at the two dominant leadership styles which is the transformational and the transactional leadership styles. This is because leadership theories currently group leader behaviours into two main styles: transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997, 2000; Men & Stacks, 2012) since they are considered more effective at influencing others.

According to Burns (1978), leaders are considered to be either transformational or transactional. On the other hand, others view leadership as a scale where transactional leadership is at one end and transformational leadership at the other and depending on the situation faced by the leader, he/she can adopt one of these styles (House, 1971, Mullins, 1999). These leadership styles are outline in the next subsection.

2.3.2 Leadership styles

2.3.2.1 Transformational Leadership Style

The research on transformational leadership by Burns' (1978), has led several researchers to study and define transformational-leadership (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1990) and operationalized the concept (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Some basic features in the definitions of transformational leaderships are visioning, challenging and consideration (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1990).

Bass (1985a) and Bass and Avolio (1990) developed Burns' (1978) ideas and theorized the concept of transformational leadership. Their work built not only upon the views of Burns,

however, they considered other contributions from (Bennis & Nanus 1985; Tichy & Devanna 1986). Bass (1990b) specified that transformational leadership “occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group” (p.21). Bass (1990a) stipulates that this transcending beyond self-interest is for the “group, organisation, or society” (p.53). In essence, transformational leadership is a process of building commitment to organisational objectives and then preparing followers to accomplish those objectives (Yukl, 1998).

Transformational leaders transform the personal values of followers to support the vision and goals of the organisation by creating an atmosphere in the workplace where relationships and climate of trust can be formed and established (Bass, 1985a). Transformational leadership style focuses on followers’ enhancement according to Bass (1985), by altering their morale, ideals, interest and values of the leader’s vision to perform above what is expected (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Yukl, 2006). By targeting follower’s interests and abilities, transformational leadership can enhance the follower’s commitment towards the organisation (Piccolo & Calgitt, 2006). Transformational Leadership style encourages the culture and human resource practices that motivate employees to participate in organisational development. This leads to employee empowerment which improves employee engagement (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Jin (2010, p. 174) suggested that transformational leadership integrates the elements of “empathy, compassion, sensitivity, relationship building and innovation”. It develops a climate of trust, nurtures employees’ confidence and encourages their employees’ individual development (Men & Stacks, 2012).

To add to that, the leader's objective according to Dartey-Baah, Amponsah-Tawiah and Sekyere-Abankwa (2011), is to bring and develop followers to a level where they can achieve organisational goals and objectives without the direct involvement of the leader. Transformational leaders take a real interest in the well-being of their employees and this leadership style is built on the creation of an emotional attachment between leaders and subordinates. This emotional attachment of the transformational leadership, according to Aldoory and Toth (2004) and Jin (2010), incorporates elements of empathy, compassion, sensitivity, relationship building, participative decision making, sharing of power and innovation which develop into positive work behaviours like engagement.

Transformational leadership style has been conceptualized with four main behavioural components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Walumba & Lawler 2003). Later Rafferty and Griffin (2004), added vision to the four main components, which they explained to be the charismatic expression of a positive future through inspirational communication and confidence-building.

The transformational leader has a positive future and through inspirational motivation, communicates the vision to the followers (Bono & Judge, 2004; den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). Leaders engage in idealized influence, by communicating what the group will achieve in the future, such leaders are admired and trusted, and encourage followers' perceptions to view their job as more significant. Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) posits that, leaders who are intellectual stimulated; give meaning to their organisation and to their followers' work.

The third component of transformational leadership, individual consideration, refers to giving direction, providing assistance and stimulating subordinates. The supervisor showing individual consideration acknowledges followers' feelings and emotions and their need to grow and develop

themselves (den Hartog et al., 1997). The supervisor provides a need to every specific individual as employees are seen as distinctive individuals who need specific, individual attention that corresponds to the developmental phase they are in (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The fourth component of transformational leadership is called intellectual stimulation, this is where the supervisor challenges the subordinate to see and handles difficulties from the way they see and define the problem themselves. The supervisor makes the workers vigorous thinkers within the organisation and consequently, the employees become more involved, committed, potent and cohesive and perform well in the organisation (Shamir et al., 1993).

An employee who receives assistance, inspiration and quality teaching from the supervisor, is likely to experience work as more challenging, involving and satisfying which makes the employee become highly involved with the job tasks. For example, the transformational leader's view of the future and inspirations according to Densten (2005), encourages engagement as the leader's inspirational motivation reduces employee fatigue as the employees have a clearer picture of what is expected of them.

Transformational leaders are charismatic who motivate followers and appeal to their ideals and moral values by creating and representing an inspiring vision of the future (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Yukl, 2006). This form of leadership involves the creation of an emotional attachment between leaders and their subordinates. This emotional attachment of the employee influences him/her to apply additional discretionary effort to his/her work (Gibbons, 2006) which leads to his/her engagement.

Studies have often emphasised the significance and the contribution of transformational leadership style ignoring the transactional leadership style. However, transformational and transactional leadership styles should be used together to get the best effect of leadership styles.

The meaning and importance of transactional leadership style must not be overlooked (Dai, Dai, Chen & Wu, 2013). The study therefore combines the transactional leadership style with the transformational leadership style, to get the best effect of these styles on employee engagement. In fact, much studies have been done on transformational leadership styles and employee engagement (see Aryee & Walumbwa, 2009; Babcock-Roberson, & Strickland, 2009; Salanova et al., 2011; Wefald, 2011; Zhu et al., 2009) than on transactional leadership.

2.3.2.2 Transactional Leadership Style

Transactional leadership is of exchange promises of rewards and benefits between the leader and the subordinates for the subordinates' fulfilment of work agreements with the leader (Bass, 1990b; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Howell & Avolio 1993; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). The transactional leader, according to Daft (2002), recognizes followers' needs and then defines the exchange process for meeting those needs. Transactional leadership is defined as a set of behaviours that encourage and lead followers to the direction of a goal by providing what is expected from the followers and the provision of resources for the completion of work (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2009). Both the leader and the follower benefit from the exchange transaction. The benefit of the exchange to the follower pushes him/her by appealing to their personal desires based on the instrumental economic transactions (Men & Stacks, 2012). Transactional leadership is noted for using bureaucratic authority to maintain control, focuses on completing task(s), and relies on rewards when work is completed and punishments when task is not completed (Bennett, 2009; Tracey & Hinkin, 1998) to achieve performance. This style of leadership is sometimes referred to as authoritative (Bennett, 2009).

Under transactional leadership, followers accept or comply with the leader's expectations in exchange for financial rewards, recognition, and resources, or to avoid disciplinary actions from the leader (Avery, 2004; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). As this style of leadership is more about exchange relationship, leaders are concerned with clarifying the needs/expectations of their followers (Bass, 1985; Podsakoff et al., 1990) for easy work done. The exchange relationship where needs and expectations are clarified represents the principal behaviour of the transactional leadership because it "captures the exchange notion fundamental to transactional leader behaviour" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 113).

Having clear expectations is more than providing an employee with a job description (Wagner & Harter, 2006). This will enable the employee to complete the job for the leader for its appropriate rewards. Inasmuch as clear expectations are important, having the needed resources to complete a job is also important. These resources offset job demands to create engagement. When a follower lacks the resources they need to do their job can lead to the team player becoming frustrated and less productive. According to Wagner and Harter (2006), leaders must ask themselves these questions, Do my followers have a well outlined set of responsibilities that move the organisation forward?, Do my people know what to do, what they do, and understand why they do it?, Do they know how their work contributes to the success of the team and the organisation as a whole? And how meaningful and connected their work is to the larger organisational picture? Finding answers to these questions will enable the leader get to know whether the employees have clear expectations.

Transactional leader has three dimensions which allow the leader to influence follower behaviours through a logical set of exchange propositions. Bass (1985, 1990b and 1998a) summarises several different types of behaviours inherent in transactional leadership style and

they are contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Northouse, 2010).

Contingent reward describes a set of behaviours whereby the leader sets expectations for the followers, communicates those expectations, and provides rewards to those followers who meet expectations. Active management by exception involves actively monitoring follower's progress towards expected performance levels, identifying followers who are falling behind expectations and initiating corrective actions upon those followers. Passive management by exception refers to leaders who wait for the poor performance of a follower to reach a critical level before initiating any intervention (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Transactional leadership has been seen to affect both the employee at both the individual and the organisational levels (Yukl, 2006). The leader obtaining agreement on what needs to be done and the promise of providing the appropriate rewards to give, for instance, give the employee some satisfaction to carry out the task (Walumbwa et al., 2008). In other cases, the leader monitors and correct subordinate action to ensure that the work is carried out effectively (Bycio, Hacken & Allen 1995; Walumbwa et al., 2008). The leader uses contingent punishments and other corrective action to respond to obvious deviations from acceptable performance standards (Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer & Jolson, 1997).

The transactional leadership style may have positive (Pillai, Schreisheim & Williams, 1999), negative (Patiar & Mia, 2009), or have no influence on individual outcome (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). The negative or no influence comes when the transactional leadership style restricts the employees' development of innovative and creative skills and hinders personal and organisational growth. This study seeks to find out if the transactional leader with some level of interpersonal communication at the organisational level can influence employee engagement.

Before then, the type of leadership styles portrayed by women in leadership position is discuss in the next section.

2.3.2.3 Leadership styles of women

Some researchers have marred the behaviours of women who are leaders with gender and sex. For instance, effective leadership has been perceived to require traits stereotyped as masculine (e.g. Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schien, 1989; Powell & Butterfield, 1989; Schein, 1975, 1994). Evidently, a consideration of the relationship between gender and such leadership styles has been extensively conducted in the literature (Gevedon, 1992; Pounder & Coleman, 2002; Priola, 2004; Ozga, 1993; Trinidad & Normore, 2005). Looking at the leadership styles of both sexes, it has been pointed out that male leaders are likely to adopt a task-oriented style of leadership whilst female leaders tend to be more concerned with maintaining interpersonal relationships (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Gevedon, 1992; Gibson, 1995; Oshagbemi & Grill, 2003; Rigg & Sparrow, 1994).

To add to the above, Rosener (1990) found that men are fond of using authoritative leadership styles, but women are more transformational and depend heavily on interpersonal skills. These task-oriented and interpersonal relationships constitute the dimension of leadership (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 2000).

Notwithstanding the gender and leadership style phenomena, the attitude, behaviours and attributes of leaders have been noted to influence the way their subordinate behave in the organisation (Attridge, 2009; Bass, 1990b; Field, 2007; Hansen et al, 2014; Judge & Bono, 2002; Walumbwa et al, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). For example, where the leader or the supervisor shows behaviours such as communicate openly, give fair supervision and provide opportunity for

development, employees reciprocate such behaviours from their leaders with positive work behaviours. There is therefore a reciprocal relationship between the leader and the followers which can be seen in the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory.

However, according to Kark et al. (2011), Cantor and Bernay (1992) and Johnson (1976), certain characteristics like interpersonal relationships, intermediary skills, communication skills, expressing emotions (for e.g., nurturance, gentleness and empathy), rewarding positive behaviour or paying attention to personal and socioemotional factors which go beyond technical knowledge is associated with femininity. Such behaviours of the leader (fair supervision, communication, opportunities for development, interpersonal relationship, expressing emotions) enhance employee engagement (Aryee et al., 2012; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Xu & Thomas, 2011).

The next section therefore discusses what employee engagement is and went on to find the dimensions of employee engagement.

2.4 Employee Engagement

Organisations know the contributions of an engaged employee to the organisation so they wish to increase employee engagement. Engaged employees willingly make use of their full selves in their work roles in a positive way, have the better wellbeing and have lower turnover intentions (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). There are many definitions of employee engagement, meanwhile, it is also argued that the definitions often sound alike to other known variables like ‘organisational commitment’ and ‘organisational citizenship behaviour’ (OCB) (Robinson et al 2004). Furthermore, Newman, Joseph and Hulin (2010) and Ulrich (1999), showed that engagement is closely related or is even a constituting element of a combination of

job satisfaction, job involvement, and affective organisational commitment. According to them, engagement shows different patterns of correlations with other constructs like job satisfaction, involvement and commitment. However, Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) and Rich et al. (2010) have different views. For example, after controlling for variables such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and organisational commitment, Christian et al. (2011), showed that engagement predicted in-role as well as extra-role performance. Rich et al., (2010) showed that the sole contribution of engagement to in-role and extra-role performance is more than that of job involvement, job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation among fire fighters. The reason being that engagement reflects an energetic drive, rather than a feeling of satiation, which is typical of job satisfaction. Also, engagement is more strongly related to performance than the other job-related attitudes (job involvement, job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation) because the explanatory power of engagement goes beyond that of the three attitudes.

According to Kahn (1990, 694) employee engagement is “the harnessing of organisation members’ selves to their work roles; where people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances”. According to Kahn (1990), the employee must believe in the organisation, its leaders and have the best working condition for engagement to occur. This research used the definition of Kahn because the research will measure the three types or dimensions of engagement (Physical, emotional and cognitive) to find out how leadership styles enhances these three dimensions of engagement through interpersonal communication.

Another definition of employee engagement saw engagement as an emotional and intellectual commitment to the organisation (Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006; Shaw, 2005). Employee engagement is defined generally as the commitment level and involvement an employee has

towards their organisation and its values (Anitha, 2014). An engaged employee, according to Anitha (2014), always know what is expected of him/her (i.e. his/her responsibilities) and in carrying out those responsibilities, he/she motivates his/her colleagues alongside for the success of the organisational goals.

Engagement refers to employees' commitment and connection to work as measured by the amount of effort employees are open and willing to disburse, and go beyond the call of duty to perform their role in excellence (Guest, 2014).

Frank, Finnegan and Taylor (2004), saw employee engagement as the amount of discretionary effort exhibited by employees in their job. Truss, Soane, Edwards, Wisdom, Croll, and Burnett (2006), simply define employee engagement as passion for work. Robinson et al (2004) defined engagement as a step up from commitment. Others defined engagement as a positive work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Where vigour is described as the situation where the employee shows energy and mental resilience while working. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm and challenge. Absorption is manifested when the employee is fully concentrated and happily engrossed in his/her work, without paying much attention to the time (i.e. time to go for breaks or close).

Engagement is the energy that an individual puts into his work, involving himself to improve performance (Maslach, 2003). To be precise, engagement is characterized by energy, involvement and efficacy, which are noted to be the direct reverse of the three burnout dimensions exhaustion, cynicism and lack of accomplishment respectively.

According to Kahn (1990) three psychological states of meaningfulness, availability and safety must be present for employees to be engaged. This model was first tested by May et al. (2004) in a field study, using questionnaires of employees of an insurance firm and they also confirmed that meaningfulness, availability and safety must be present for engagement to occur. The three conditions are explained below:

Meaningfulness

Meaningfulness (i.e. work elements) is defined as the positive “sense of return on investments of self in role performance” (Kahn, 1990, p. 705). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), the meaningfulness is influenced by work characteristics, such as challenging work and autonomy. In Kahn’s conceptualization, the meaningfulness variable completed a circular model where employees added value and significance to the work they were doing as well as received feedback about their value and significance to an organisation (Kahn, 1990; Maslow, 1970).

According to Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway and McKee (2007), meaningful work is all about “finding a purpose in work that is greater than the extrinsic outcome of the work” (p. 195). It has been the prime goal of every individual to look for work that is meaningful, personally fulfilling and motivating (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Chalofsky, 2003). For instance, Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs shows that once the lower basic needs which involve psychological, safety and social needs are met, individuals seek to address their higher needs, which involves moving from belonging to esteem to Self-actualization in order to meet life purposes (Chalofsky, 2003). When an individual work is meaningful, which has been noted to satisfy Maslow’s higher order needs leads to engagement (Kahn, 1990).

Safety

Safety which include (social elements, including management style, process, and organisational norms) is defined as the ability to show one's self "without fear or negative consequences to self-image, status or career" (Kahn, 1990, p. 705). Safety offers the most potential for leadership to influence engagement as there is an established relationship between supportive leadership and engagement (Kahn, 1990). Through safety, leaders provide an atmosphere that is supporting and trustworthy which allows employees to fully invest their energies into their work roles. For Kahn (1990), safety revolved around each employee's need to trust their working environment cognitively, emotionally and behaviourally as well as the need to reasonably understand what is expected of them at work. Psychological safety stems from organisational social systems in the form of co-worker interactions and organisational norms allows for greater engagement (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009).

According to Kahn (1990), the more the employee gives out in performing a role, the more exciting and comfortable is the performance. Kahn suggested, however, that individuals could vary how much of themselves they assign to each role, but with good interactions with co-workers and employees vary much of themselves in their roles.

Psychological safety is important for fostering work engagement because employees are able to take interpersonal risks (Spreitzer, 2007), through strong leader-member exchange relationship.

Availability

Availability is defined as the "sense of possessing the physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary" to complete one's work (Kahn, 1990, p. 705). Psychological availability also depends on the individuals having sufficient psychological and physical resources (e.g. self-confidence), to invest in their role performances (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). For the

availability variable, Kahn suggested that employees must feel they have the tools to complete their work or that, at a minimum, these tools can and will be obtained for them.

Availability of resources can be seen as opportunities for learning and skill development (Czarnowsky, 2008), a reasonable degree of job fit (Resick, Baltes, & Shantz, 2007), and commitment to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Macey and Schneider (2008) suggested that (a) job characteristics, (b) leadership, and (c) personality were related to the development of resources.

Meaningfulness is influenced by the nature of the job; that is, both task and role characteristics. Psychological safety is mainly influenced by the social environment; that is, through interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, management style, and social norms. Finally, availability depends on the personal resources that people can bring to their role performance, such as physical energy.

Kahn's used a qualitative study in the form of interviews and observation to derive these constructs using counsellors from a summer camp for adolescents and architects. In the study, he predicted that meaningfulness, safety and availability were positively associated with engagement. An employee will be engaged when the job is challenging and meaningful, the social environment at work is safe and personal resources are available. This is because the needs for meaningfulness, safety and availability are satisfied.

Aside the three psychological factors proposed by Kahn (1990), Rothbard (2001) also came out with two psychological components; attention and absorption. Attention is the amount of time an individual gives to his/her role and job while absorption is the focus of the individual towards his/her role and performance in that role (Rothbard, 2001).

A study was conducted in an insurance company in the US to test the antecedents of employee engagement using Kahn engagement theory by (May et al. 2004). According to them, job enrichment measured by job characteristics and worker role fit was found to be antecedents for meaningfulness; co-worker and supervisor relations along with co-worker norms and self-consciousness were found to be antecedents for safety; and resources (emotional, cognitive and health) and outside activities were found to be antecedents for availability. In another study also, Saks (2006) found that the most common proxies, job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), perceived organisation support (Rhoades et al., 2001) and procedural justice (Colquitt, 2001) were positively associated with engagement.

Job role needs to be specified and clarified as lack of clarity on the job role result in stressor (which causes stress to the employee). Role stress on the job affect the employee's perception of support on the part of the organisation. Role ambiguity is one such stressor, and involves the extent to which the employee is clear about his or her responsibilities. Gilboa, Shirom, Fried and Cooper (2008), found role ambiguity to have a very strong, negative effect on job performance. In short, unless employees have some idea of what their organisation requires of them, they cannot deliver. In contrast, those employees with low role ambiguity experience higher levels of control on their jobs, and therefore perform at higher levels (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007).

In order to develop an engaging culture, workplace must develop the environment that supports these factors (Lockwood, 2007). Trust in the leader, support from the leader, and creating a blame-free environment are components of psychological safety of the leadership behaviour which facilitate employee engagement (Kahn, 1990).

In the engagement arena, most of the studies done did not focus on the dimension of employee engagement but looked at engagement as a single construct. However, this study looks at the

various dimensions of employee engagement and will contribute to literature on the few studies done on these dimensions by scholars (e.g. Brit et al., 2001; Luring & Selmer, 2014).

2.4.1 Types of Engagement

2.4.1.1 Physical engagement

The physical dimension of engagement is often described as vigour. Vigorous employees have been found to have greater influence over events that affect their lives during job adjustments. According to Schaufeli et al. (2002) individuals with this type of engagement are seen as being energetic, mentally resilient, and able to persist when difficulties arise at work. Physical engagement also entails a willingness to invest effort on the job. The activities displayed physically (i.e. what we see employees do) can also be termed behavioural engagement. Such engaged employees bring their full selves to work and allow “the full range of senses to inform their work” (Kahn, 2010, p. 21). Employees exhibit such behaviours through positive feedback in the form of appreciation, recognition, and success (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Physically engaged individuals have a high level of connectivity with their work tasks and are highly concerned with performance outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Christian et al., 2011; Britt et al., 2012). One factor that enhanced engaged employees to performance outcome is the recognition from colleagues in the form of high ratings on both in-role and extra-role performance (Bakker et al., 2004).

Discretionary effort, which consists of an employee’s willingness to go above minimal job responsibilities (Christian et al., 2011; Harter et al., 2002; Lloyd, 2008; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leither, 2001; Rich et al., 2010; Wagner & Harter, 2006) enhanced increased performance (Christian et al., 2011).

2.4.1.2 Emotional Engagement

Emotional engagement is most often labelled dedication. Dedicated employees often experience positive emotions, including happiness, joy, and enthusiasm (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) and is characterized by a strong involvement in work, enthusiasm, and an outspoken sense of pride, significance, and inspiration. In other words, emotionally engaged individuals see their job as meaningful and important. The fact that they see their work to be meaningful urge them to willingly involve and invest themselves more fully (Bakker et al., 2012a).

Emotional engagement rotates around the investment and the willingness of an employee to involve personal resources which are physical, social, physical and psychological in nature. This stems from the emotional bond created when employees, on a very personal level, have made the decision to cognitively engage and are willing to give of themselves and thus identify emotionally with a task at that moment. Employees who are emotionally engaged with their organisation have “a sense of belonging and identification that increases their involvement in the organisation’s activities” (Rhoades et al. 2001, p. 825).

Emotionally engaged employees are better connected to any expectation that may arise in their environment in terms of job adjustment. Such employees are more willing to step outside the bounds of their normal routines and engage in new ways of working (Bakker et al., 2012). Emotional engaged employees also in addition, better and quickly adjust to the job context because they have the ability to create their own emotional resources such as optimism, self-efficacy, and organisation-based self-esteem (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Employees who become emotionally engaged become more productive, less physically

absent, and less likely to turn over (Czarnowsky, 2008; Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Ketter, 2008; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Wagner & Harter, 2006).

In terms of satisfaction, emotionally engaged employees do get satisfaction on the job due to display of more proactive behaviour, more personal initiative, learning and motivation which are all known to be associated resources (e.g. physical skills, health), social resources (e.g. friendships, social support networks), intellectual resources (e.g. knowledge and control), or psychological resources (e.g. self-efficacy, optimism). Emotional employee engagement will determine how his/her behavioural engagement is formed with job satisfaction (Wefald et al., 2011).

Positive emotions, including happiness, joy and enthusiasm are shown by emotionally engaged employees as a result of their dedication (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Such positive emotions seem to broaden individuals' momentum thought-action repertoire which is very much needed in order to thrive in personal resources any setting (Selmer & Luring, 2013, 2014). Such employees draw from their thought, actions and to solve problems (Fredrickson, 2001). These personal resources according to Bakker et al. (2012a), includes physical, influenced and directed outward.

2.4.1.3 Cognitive Engagement

Cognitive engagement is often termed absorption. An employee becomes cognitively engaged when he/she finds his/her work to be meaningful, safe physically, emotionally and psychologically and whether they have adequate tangible and intangible resources to complete their work (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Such employees concentrates fully on their job and feel happily engrossed in his/her work role to the extent that they do not pay attention to time

what the time says. Expressing of oneself is very important with this type of engagement. For example, Kahn (2010) suggested that employees express themselves when they feel like they can “make a difference, change minds and directions, add value” or join with something larger than themselves (pp. 22-23). However, when the expressions of the employee are not being recognized or considered, the employee chooses not to speak up which Kahn (2010) simply puts it “deaf ears make us mute” (p. 23). When employees decide not to speak up because they feel that they cannot add value, make a difference, change minds, or are simply ignored, it signaled non-engagement. This means cognitively, the engagement process never begun.

Engagement have generally been conceptualized by some researchers to be positive (e.g. Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). However, other research has found that some aspects of engagement may also be bad (e.g. Britt et al., 2012; Hallsten, 1993; Kühnel, Sonnentag & Westman, 2009; Vinje & Mittelmark, 2007). According to Kahn (1990), engaged workers are motivated to expend energy even in the face of difficulties which threatens to their long-term wellbeing. This shows how engaged employees are very responsive to factors in the work environment. Due to their responsiveness, highly cognitively engaged employees can be very sensitive to features of the work environment that could also have the capacity to harm them. From this argument, Hallsten (1993) argues that too much absorption can be threatening for the individual and may cause burnout. Employees become more absorbed in their work when they have high demands, especially if growth opportunities and organisational support in the form of job resource exist. However, studies have come out with findings that contradict the interaction between job demands and job resources on employee engagement (e.g. Bakker et al., 2008). For example, Hallsten (1993), argues out that too much absorption can be threatening and may cause burnout to the individual, Vinje and Mittelmark (2007), found that the absorption of

highly engaged nurses to the meaningfulness of their profession leads to the neglect of some of their professional responsibilities which ends up in frustrations.

The employee become engaged on the job, when he/she become physically present on the job, invest his/her whole self and becomes involved and identify with the organisation. An employee becomes present, involved and identify with the organisation when he/she understands what he/she is doing and have been given the needed directions and instructions. One way of giving the needed instructions and direction to the employee is through communication (Men & Hung-Baesecke, 2015). Communication that requires instant feedback (thus interpersonal communication) is discuss below:

2.5 Interpersonal Communication

Daily communication between supervisors and their subordinates in the form of giving feedback on performance, executing performance appraisals, providing information on how to carry out work facilitate the development of positive or negative subordinate organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Tansky & Cohen, 2001). Clarifying employee expectations, according to Robbins and Hunsaker (2003), is an important skill in interpersonal communication when employee commitment is considered. It deals with managing expectations in the area of employer-employee psychological contract (Clutterbuck, 2005). When messages are not clarified and are inconsistent, it affects the employee commitment to the organisation, which also have a negative effect on their outcome in the organisation. In order to enhance affective commitment as stated by Blundel (2004), the message delivered needs to have the following: (i) focus on the individual receiving the message, (ii) coherent, engaging and above all is (iii) interpreted as it

was intended. Commitment is very important in getting the employee engaged. As Robinson et al (2004) defined engagement as a step up from commitment.

Pounsford (2007) found that communication strategies such as storytelling, informal communication and coaching led to greater employee engagement, increased levels of trust in the organisation and increased revenue. Furthermore, Chong (2007), studying Singapore Airlines, found that focusing on face-to-face dialogue between management and staff helped the airline deliver its brand promise to its customers through the employees. This is because face-to-face interaction provides visual and verbal clues that complete the understanding of the information being shared. Cheney (1999) also observed that face-to-face communication is considered more reliable than written communication in a business context because verbal cues such as tone of voice and non-verbal cues such as body language and facial expressions.

Aside the face-to-face medium of communication, communication in itself helps to reduce uncertainty through this same medium in the form of interpersonal communication (Yamaguchi, 2005). People use communication to reduce uncertainty because through communication, employees get the information they need to do their job (Quirke, 2008). According to Berger and Calabrese (1975, p 103), “high levels of uncertainty increases information-seeking behaviour. As the uncertainty levels decline, information-seeking behaviour decreases”. The fact that uncertainty is uncomfortable, people communicate to obtain and interpret information to reduce uncertainty (Heath & Bryant, 2000). Once information seekers succeed in acquiring proper information, they will perceive the procedures of decision making as being fair and their uncertainty will reduce. On the other hand, if they cannot obtain proper information, their view on injustice will be enhanced and therefore uncertainty will increase.

Communication is considered as an essential element of every organisation as it is used to run organisational activities (Abugre, 2010). It is through communication that individuals understand their roles in the work place (Rogers & Rogers, 1976) and identify with the values of the organisation. Communication with internal stakeholders (e.g. employees) helps gain organisational legitimacy, organisational performance and competitive advantage. Also, communication helps in creating and maintaining relationships between and among groups in the organisation. This is because communication helps in sharing ideas, giving opinions, finding out what one needs to know, explaining what one wants, working out differences with others, expressing one's feelings (Goleman, 1998). Such practices are recognized as key influences for employee engagement (Bindl & Parker, 2010).

This achievement of meaningful relationships or bonds tend to be central to one's happiness and well-being in life (Hein, 1996). Goleman (1998) believe interrelationship between individuals is a main behaviour characteristic in the organisation. This interrelationship achieved through communication can motivate workers to increase their work output (Abugre, 2010; Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). This exchange relationship represents resources that facilitate the accomplishment of work goals, stimulate personal development, and increase work engagement among employees (Bhatnagar, 2007; Macey et al., 2009). Though a lot of research has proved that there is a relationship between direct supervisors and employee engagement, there has not been any universally accepted antecedents to engagement which indirectly affect the two variables (i.e. leadership and employee engagement). Some researchers have looked at antecedents such as communication, trust and integrity, and a rich and involving job (Baumruk et al., 2006; CIPD, 2006; Robinson et al., 2004; Schneider et al., 2009; Shaw & Bastock, 2005; Towers Perrin, 2003). This study will look at one of the antecedents which is interpersonal

communication. This is because according to Xu and Thomas (2011), those behaviours that affects engagement has not been unearthed. In other words, there remains a gap in understanding what leadership behaviours influence engagement.

Interpersonal communication involves real time face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions that allows instant feedback (Allen et al, 2007). Both the form and content of the interpersonal communication reflect the personal characteristics of the individuals as well as their social roles and relationships (Hartley, 1999). Interpersonal communication has been argued to be the richest type of channel as it aid in communicating complex information because it facilitated the use of immediate feedback and the use of natural language (Daft & Lengel, 1984). To add to that, Cameron and McCollumn (1993) posited that the two-way nature of interpersonal communication media such meetings, group problem-solving sessions and supervisor briefings enhance supervisor-employee relationship. Such relationship help the employee get more job resources from the supervisor which buffer the potential negative influence of job demands on engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, Bakker et al., 2007).

Interpersonal communication in the form of give-and-take interaction can clarify job roles of the employee to enhance their daily engagement. This is because the choice to express one's authentic self is understood as the emotional, social and physical act of engagement (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). According to Kahn (2010), expressing of oneself is very important with cognitive engagement. When employees decide not to speak up because they feel that they cannot add value, make a difference, change minds, or are simply ignored, it signaled non-engagement. This means cognitively, the engagement process never begun.

Communicating through interpersonal means acted as a motivator which increases the commitment of the employee and discourages voluntary turnover (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004).

Managing expectations build the employer-employee psychological contract (Clutterbuck, 2005). Breaching the psychological contract, according to Restubog, Bordia, Tang, (2006), can result in negative outcomes behaviour of employees (e.g. declining organisational commitment). Communication which builds employees' commitment in the organisation and also discourages their intention to leave comes as a result of the attachment the employees have towards the organisation and others. The following are characteristics present in the behaviours of successful interpersonal communicators, as elaborated by Pearce (2003):

- Positive self-concept. Individuals who have positive concepts of who they are (or who they think they would like to be) are in a better position to manage their relations with others.
- Open-mindedness – an open minded individual is able to see alternatives in situations, is willing to invite suggestions and has the ability to assess the alternatives.
- Ability to feel empathy – Goleman (1999) explains empathy as putting oneself in another person's place and in doing so one begins to see things as the other person does. Managers empathize with their subordinates, and they know when to be task oriented and when to be people oriented, because they are capable of putting themselves in a subordinate's place and answering the question: "what kind of direction does this person need?".
- Positive assertiveness and the ability to use persuasive strategies.

MacLord and Clarke (2009), indicated that supervisors must involve and communicate with employees through voice as this will aid in self-expression. Self-expression is viewed by Kahn (1990, p. 700) as the use of "personal voice, emotional expression, authenticity, non-defensive communication, playfulness, and ethical behaviour". According to MacLord and Clarke (2009),

the voice provides an opportunity for employees to comment on and get involved in the engagement process. However, communication cannot move to the interpersonal level unless the individuals involved gain information about others. Knowing each other necessitates openness and an agreement to share personal information, which is a critical part of the interpersonal transaction process (William, 1989).

Interpersonal communication enables people create social networks and from these networks, employees get social support (see, Beehr, King, & King, 1990; Madlock & Booth-Butterfield 2008). Social support provides not only emotional support such as love, acceptance and respect, but also information, including knowledge and advice (Dunkel-Schetter & Skokan 1990; Greenglass 1993; Jacobson 1986). Studies have also found that co-workers in the workplace can offer unique emotional support that family or friends cannot offer (Etzion, 1984). Social support is necessary for employees' interaction to be successful and satisfied in their jobs and careers (Stackman & Pinder 1999, p. 40). Kahn suggested, however, that individuals could vary how much of themselves they assign to each role, but with good interactions with co-workers and supervisors, employees usually vary much of themselves in their work roles. Such behaviours enhance psychological safety, the belief that the environment is safe to take interpersonal risks (Spreitzer, 2007). Psychological safety fosters work engagement as it reduces the depletion of vigour, a core dimension of engagement.

2.5.1 Leadership and communication

Managers spend most of their office hours engaging in communication and studies have shown that managers use above 70 to 90 percent of their time to communicate to employees daily (Eccles & Nohria, 1991; Mintzberg, 1973; Tengblad, 2006). Leaders can only lead their

followers through effective communication. Good communication skills enable, foster and create the understanding and trust necessary to encourage others to follow a leader. Creating and building relationship is the basis of communication. Communication need not be in any form to establish that relationship as relationship can be established when communication is in a sign language, body language, e-mail or face-to-face conversation. The importance of good communication skills is crucial and its value in the workplace is immense (Weisinger, 1998).

It has been established by many studies the importance of communication to leadership (Barge, 1994; Fairhurst, 2011; Tourish & Jackson, 2008). For instance, communication between a leader and a member has been shown to relate to employee commitment and positive organisational effects (Abu Bhakar, Dilbeck, & McCroskey, 2010). Furthermore, research has identified that leadership depends on the communication competence of the leader (Flauto, 1999). Communication which is the core element of leadership is the primary way leaders achieve their goals (de Vries & Bakker-Pieper & Oostenveld, 2010). Flauto (1999, p. 92) also posits that “communication is the principal means leaders use to achieve their goals and leadership is dependent on the communication competence of the leader.” Further to this, Holladay and Coombs (1993, p. 411) have argued that “leadership is enacted through communication in that effective communication shape the followers’ perceptions of a leader.

Although leadership is enacted in a communication processes (thus leadership occurs through the process of interaction and communication) according to Barge and Hirokawa, (1989), communication aspects are to a large extent ignored. For example, studies most often do not discuss how leaders’ communication abilities could be developed (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Fairhurst, 2005).

A leader who is seen as a communicative leader denote a person who readily inform others of their thoughts, are openhearted, willing to share information (Hogstrom et al., 1999). Such a leader (i.e. communicative leader) does better in achieving organisational goals than the counterpart who does not share his/her thoughts, is not willing to talk and share information and is not openhearted. Redding (1972) believed a good supervisor is the one who is communication-mindedness', listen empathetically, uses persuasion rather than telling, is sensitive and open.

In addition, Hersey and Blanchard (1993), said to achieve the best in supervision, the style used to supervise should be determined by the experience of your followers. This is because followers determine the type of leadership style the leader should use as the follower's experience, ability and willingness to do the job become the basis for determining leader style. The leader needs to recognize the importance of situational factors in selecting a style that will be appropriate to the context in which the leader is operating (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). A leader may have the knowledge and skills to act effectively in one situation but may not emerge as effectively in a different situation using the previous leadership style. It is important that the leader uses a variety of leadership styles and behaviours in their day-to-day activities based on a particular situation he/she finds him or herself (Oshagbemi & Ocholi, 2006). For instance, leaders should use more directive (i.e. more coaching-related) styles with less experienced followers and more participative style as followers gain experience and competency (Northouse, 2010). Leadership style used by a corporate leader will affect employees' feelings and their engagement. A communicative leader who is willing to involve with his employees will bring a higher level of employee engagement compared to authoritarian leader (Jablin, Cude, House, Lee & Roth, 1994).

Task-related personal communication between supervisors and their subordinates should be facilitated. An organisational climate in which subordinates can freely communicate and consult with their supervisors should be created (Yamaguchi, 2005). Expressing of oneself is very important with the employee engagement. When employees are made to express themselves, they feel they can add some value and can make a difference. However, when their expressions are ignored, they decide not to speak which is a sign of their non-engagement. As Kahn (2010) simply puts it, “deaf ears make us mute” (p. 23).

2.5.2 Leader-subordinate communication

In the communication behaviour tradition, findings illustrate that leaders provide employees with a sense of purpose, direction and identity (Fairhurst, 2001; Miller & Monge, 1986). The importance of communication in the organisation cannot be overlooked. For example, effective communication provides the organisations with a superhighway for developing the human resource base of the organisation. Leaders use communication to respond to evolving work settings and employee needs. A leader is judged effective or ineffective based on the quality and timeliness of his/her communicative behaviours. Effective communication between supervisors and their employees positively affect work behaviours and employees’ performance (Sarwar & Abugre, 2013). Effective interpersonal communication makes employees feel attached to others in the organisation, and this feeling of attachment to co-workers has been identified as a motivational factor that discourages voluntary turnover and leads to co-worker engagement (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004).

According to Anitha (2014), engaged employees always know their responsibilities and in carrying out those responsibilities, motivates other colleagues alongside for the success of the

organisation. The style used by the leader in dealing with the employees goes a long way to affect the feelings and the engagement of other employees.

Psychological attachment from employees to their employers is achieved through communication which comes as a result of sharing of organisation-related information with the appropriate person. Information sharing between the supervisor and the employee encourages employees to perceive themselves as core members of the organisation and so contribute to the organisation (Rousseau, 1998). Supervisors' internal communication with their employees motivates their subordinates to provide superior service to customers (Lowenstein, 2006). Communication has been noted to be associated with employee trust (Jahansoozi, 2006; Rawlin, 2008) and according to Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, (2009), this trust, in turn, is needed to build employee engagement through psychological safety. When the employee trust the environment that is he/she is working in, the employee will bring discretionary effort on the job (Frank et al 2004).

Furthermore, as previously discussed, internal communication in the form of face-to-face communication (such as team meeting, group problem solving session, supervisor briefing) and social media channels contributes to the perceived organisational transparency and authenticity because of their two-way, interactive, relational and participative features (Cameron & McCollum 1993; Men & Tsai, 2014). Such forms of communication fosters communication symmetry (White, Vanc, & Stafford, 2010) and builds supervisor-employee relationships than other forms of communication like publication. Face-to-face communication and social media communication specifically enhance transparency and authenticity which serve as the antecedents for employee engagement (Men & Hung-Baesecke, 2015). Employees will desire a direct and face-to-face communication medium from both their peers and managers in their work

organisations as this medium of communication has the benefits of accuracy and promptness of message response (Men et al, 2015). This type of communication medium binds workers together because it narrows the personality gaps at work organisations (Sarwar & Abugre, 2013). Supervisor-employee communication which is transparent and authentic not only build quality employee-organisation relationships (e.g. Kim & Rhee, 2011), but they also make employees to be engaged (Men & Hung-Baesecke, 2015).

The interpersonal factor in employee communication shows strong positive influence on employee engagement. Among all the available communication channels, employees still mostly prefer face-to-face communication, such as department meetings and meeting with the supervisor one-on-one basis (Men, 2014). “Face-to-face communication allows nonverbal communication and immediate feedback and reflects the willingness of the management to listen to employees” (Men, 2014, p16). Aside the face-to-face communication, other forms of communication (e.g. downward communication) is used to give orders, assign tasks, provide instructions and directions, inform employees of job procedures and policies, point out problems that need attention, and offer feedback on employees’ past performance (Robbins et al. 2010; Greenberg & Baron 2007). In other words, it is mainly used to tell the employees what they should do and how well they are doing. In respect of satisfying employees’ needs for organisational communication, it is important that employees can receive sufficient and accurate information about the organization and their jobs, and get feedback about the performance (Greenberg & Baron 2007). Studies have focused on supervisor factors that influence employee satisfaction, identification and supervisor credibility and communication between the supervisor and the employee has been identified as the most important factor that influence employee satisfaction (Teven, 2007). When employees feel that management is willing to listen, communicate, provide feedback, and care

about their development, the employees would have a positive attitude toward their companies (Men & Hung-Baesecke, 2015) and the employees would be more motivated to engage with it in sharing their views, having an affective commitment and getting involved.

In order to get the benefits of supervisor-employee communication, the communication should not only emphasize on achieving job demands. For example, communication emphasizing only on achieving job demands might elevate pressure and undue expectations and can lead to employee disengagement. On the other hand, when supervisors use motivating messages in communicating with their employees on issues of providing performance feedback, recognition and appreciation can improve employee engagement within the organisation (Choo, Mat & Al-Omari, 2013). Moreover, Hargie, Tourish, and Wilson (2002), posit that poor employee communication results in low commitment from employees, higher levels of absenteeism, increased employee turnover and reduced productivity.

2.5.3 Leader-employee and leader-team communication behaviour

Leader communication behaviours have been studied as dyadic relations between leaders and employees, teams or units. The four important leader communication bahavoiur activity proposed by (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Morgeson, DeRue & Kram, 2010) are initiating structure; facilitating work; relational dynamics; and representing the unit. Yukl (2002) also arrived at similar bahaviours which included clarifying, problem solving, supporting and networking. These four items addresses communication competencies of the leader in communicating with the employees at the team level or work unit (Jablin et al., 1994). Below are the four behaviours:

2.5.3.1 Initiating structure.

Initiating structure at the supervisor-employee level consists of planning, allocating tasks and setting goals and expectation for each employee by the supervisor. At the team or unit level, defining the mission of the unit, planning and allocating tasks is vital. It also includes setting goals and expectations for the unit, selecting appropriate team members, and providing sense-making or interpretations of events for members. This helps to enhance coordination efficiencies (Derue et al., 2011; Morgeson et al., 2010).

2.5.3.2 Facilitating work

At the manager-employee level, facilitating work includes coaching, training employees (in knowledge and skills) and giving feedback on employees' performance (Jablin, 2001; Morgeson et al., 2010). It also includes engaging employees in problem solving situation whereby the employees become part of situation that directly affect them (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003). On the hand, at the work unit level, coaching and training can operate not only at the individual level but in teams and units (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). Supervisors should note that in facilitating work through feedback, certain measures must be met by the supervisor. These measures are providing timely and relevant feedback to the unit which can aid in making corrections when and where necessary (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003).

2.5.3.3 Relational dynamics.

At this level, supervisors are seen as open-in keeping with a healthy communication climate. Leaders are also seen as approachable for asking questions, are good at listening, gives positive feedback and are trustworthy (Derue et al., 2011; Jablin, 1979; Morgeson et al., 2010). They also demonstrate supportive behaviours and handles issues in a constructive and respectful manner.

Leaders enacting these behaviours are viewed as considerate by individual employees and by the unit as a whole.

2.5.3.4 Supervisors representing employees and the unit.

At the supervisor-employee level, the supervisor uses his/her influence in getting resources from the upper level for the employees to work with easily (Jablin, 1979). At this level, employees expect their supervisor to be capable of using his/her influence on others in either the same organisation or outside the organization to get the needed tools to work with.

At the unit level, effective managers scan the external environment of the organisation to assess the opportunities and threats (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003) and collaborates with other units in a professional manner and protect the unit's mission (Poole, 2011). These activities of the leader (e.g. monitoring internal and external environments and their networking actions) aid them in seeking resources for their employees or team.

2.6 Relevant outcomes of leaders' communication behaviours

When the leader communicates effectively at the employee level, employees roles are clarified, they get committed to the organisation, and act in an engaged manner toward their work assignments (Derue et al., 2011; Jablin, 1979). These activities (role clarity, employee commitment and engagement) leads to higher levels of individual performance (Derue et al., 2011; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Morgeson et al., 2010) through their leader's communication behaviours. Leadership becomes more effective in engaging employees through clarifying roles and fostering an organisational culture (Alarcon et al., 2010).

At the unit level on the other hand, leader communication is linked with work unit cohesion, the unit confidence and effective internal group operating processes. As a result of unit cohesion,

confidence, and effective group processes; communicative leadership leads to higher levels of performance at the unit level (Derue et al., 2011; Morgeson et al., 2010).

The leader communication behaviours are based upon the work setting (thus the demands for coordination within and outside the units, established patterns for production or task accomplishment and unit or organisational culture among others) (Fairhurst, 2001; Jablin, 1979; Redding, 1972).

2.6.1 Clarifying roles using communication

The behaviour of the leader is interpreted by workplace behaviours in the form of work contexts. Work/job context characteristics are therefore recognized as potentially important moderators in the relationship between leadership styles and follower behaviours (House, 1996).

One way in which work contexts can vary is in the extent to which jobs are clearly defined and adequate information is given to employees to perform their roles well (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, (1970). When the role of employees is not clearly defined research has shown that, such situation act as situational stressor which can result in employees experiencing stress, tension, and anxiety as they struggle to understand the most effective and desired behaviours to engage in (Gilboa et al., 2008; Jackson & Schuler 1985; Jex et al., 2003). Situations of low role clarity may indicate that there has been an insufficient direction and instructions.

It has been demonstrated that leader behaviour is seen as effective by subordinates to the extent that it facilitates their goal attainment (House, 1996). In job contexts where there are low levels of role clarity, a more task-oriented leadership style, as opposed to ethical leadership, may be more motivating for subordinates (Zhang et al, 2014). This style is more likely to help them resolve role clarity issues. In situations of high uncertainty, subordinates are predominantly

looking for their supervisor to initiate, structure, set goals, assist with problem solving, provide social and material support, and give feedback on job performance (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994). Indeed, supervisors, as opposed to organisations more broadly, are the most important provider of role clarity, as many aspect of an employee's role (e.g. goals, responsibilities, rules of conduct) are, to a large degree, determined by their supervisors (Chen et al., 2002; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2011; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2004). Kahn (1992) proposed that leaders, in general, play an important role in creating the right context for employees to become engaged. Supervisors can also play a vital role in interpreting the rules and procedures that may have been determined by the organisation, and in doing so reduce the levels of role ambiguity experienced by subordinates (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994). For an individual to be engaged, all aspects of work engagement should be involved from the more operative dimension of daily work to identification with one's own organisation and job (Sarti, 2014). In situations where an employee perceives low levels of role clarity, their supervisor has potentially failed to perform this important role and may therefore be indicative of a poor supervisory relationship (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that low role clarity is often interpreted by employees as a signal that their supervisor is either unwilling or unable to provide support (Kahn et al., 1964). Furthermore, research also indicates that in situations of high role clarity, subordinates perceive greater levels of support from their supervisor, which aid them in carrying out their work responsibilities (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2004). Additionally, it has been noted that where employees perceive high levels of support from their supervisors, they reciprocate it with positive behaviour (Liden et al., 1997; Settoon et al., 1996).

More specifically, jobs need to be defined clearly by organisations and supervisors to maximize

role clarity. This is in line with the social exchange (Blau, 1964) and social learning theories (Bandura, 1977, 1986). First, in line with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it is suggested, that high levels of role clarity lead subordinates to reciprocate the positive context created by leaders in the form of discretionary helping behaviour. Based on conservation of resources (COR) theory and the job demands- resources (JD-R) theory, it has been confirmed that the exchange relationship between the leader and the member positively relate to followers' job performance because followers have access to more job resources when they have a high-quality relationship with their leaders which make them more engaged in their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, Bakker et al., 2007). These supportive supervisors' behaviours in the form of more job resource facilitate engagement (Bakker et al., 2007; Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006) and employees' job performance.

On the other hand, by not providing them with clear direction as to their role, the supervisor may lead subordinates to feel that they are not receiving the best supervision. In such a situation the subordinate is likely to perceive the leadership of their supervisor with skepticism and less willing to reciprocate in the form of helping behaviour.

Employees may blame their supervisors for a lack of role clarity, given that supervisors are typically viewed as agents of the organisation whose role it is to interpret the rules and procedures that have been determined by the organisation (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994). In situations where an employee perceives low levels of role clarity, their supervisor has potentially failed to perform their important role, and may therefore be indicative of a poor supervisory relationship (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

2.7 Empirical evidence on the relationship between the constructs

2.7.1 Leadership and Engagement

For the purpose of this study, a leader in this study will be an employee's direct supervisor who sees and monitors an employee's daily work (Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1997). The supervisor's role, according to research drives employee engagement (Gibbons, 2006; Frank et al., 2004; Schneider et al., 2009) through communication, trust and integrity and involving work (Baumruk et al., 2006; Robinson et al., 2004; Schneider et al., 2009; Shaw & Bastock, 2005).

The supervisor in enhancing employee engagement is done by playing critical roles in shaping employee attitudes and behaviours (Bhatnagar, 2007; Joo, 2010; Rousseau & Greller, 1994; Tymon, Stumpf, & Smith, 2011; Whitener, 2001). Similarly, supervisor support was found to significantly promote work engagement through information flow and a positive work environment, which is encouraging, supporting, innovative and appreciative (Bakker et al., 2007). They are able to directly influence staff towards the organisational goals by developing constructive interaction, strong relationships and showing supportive behaviours (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

In fact, a lack of support from supervisors has been found to be an important factor that links to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). In addition, first-line supervisors are important for building engagement and are noted to be the root of employee disengagement (Bates, 2004; Frank et al., 2004).

Employee support also exists when they perceive their immediate supervisor as someone who leads by example, offers the support needed to do a job well, is personally effective, and is good at developing people. Subordinates who get support from their immediate supervisor experience psychological safety, the belief that the environment is safe to take interpersonal risks (Spreitzer,

2007). Psychological safety is important for fostering work engagement because it reduces the depletion of vigour). An important aspect of safety stems from the amount of care and support employees' expect from their organisation as well as their direct supervisor. In fact, Kahn (1990) found that supportive and trusting interpersonal relationships as well as supportive management promoted psychological safety. Organisational members felt safe in work environments that are characterized by openness and supportiveness. Such environments allow members to experiment and try new things and when they fail, they do not fear the consequences of their failures (Kahn, 1990).

It has been noted that when employees receive any form of support from their supervisors and their subordinate such support results in positive work behaviours. In high-quality exchange relationships, leaders mentor subordinates (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). Bhatnagar (2007) argues that mentors enhance employee engagement; leaders of high-quality exchange relationships represent resources that facilitate the accomplishment of work goals, stimulate personal development and increase work engagement among employees.

The engagement of employee is seen to be a reciprocal of the kind of relationship felt between them and their supervisors. When an immediate supervisor provides opportunities for development, fair supervision, meaningful work, and autonomy, subordinates feel obliged to repay leaders with higher levels of organisational commitment, citizenship behaviours (Bhal, 2006), innovation (Basu & Green, 1997; Scott & Bruce, 1998), competency (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005;), and trust (Bauer & Green, 1996). Another way for individuals to reciprocate is through engagement where they approach their work with greater vigour, dedication and absorption (Saks, 2006). Engagement is therefore a payback or reciprocation for what an

employee receives. People reciprocate because they “fundamentally believe in reciprocation” (Macey et al., 2009, p. 15).

To engage employees, an organisation must capture the hearts and minds of the employees by sharing and communicating its strategic direction and goals and by rewarding and recognising performance. Simply put, engagement is a positive attitude that the employee developed when he/she finds organisational and cultural support (Seijts & Crim 2006). Hence, employee engagement is strongly driven by the immediate supervisor and his or her ability to meet employees’ emotional requirements. Leaders form a resourceful work environment is in line with some findings that leaders in high-quality LMX relationships provide employees with decision-making latitude, empowerment, and social support (e.g. Keller & Dansereau, 1995; Scandura et al., 1986; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997).

McBain (2007), stated that employee engagement is built through a process and needs a high level of leader’s commitment. Seijts and Crim (2006), argued that, if a leader can play his/her leadership role well, it can be expected that there will be a positive result from the employees in the form of engagement to the organisation where they work. Besides that, Lockwood (2007), also said that good communication between the employees and their leader may affect employee engagement. It is through communication that the employees become aware of what they expected to do, participate in decision making, and are provided with feedback on their performance and these help the employee to develop positive work behaviour which engagement is one of them. For example, Saks (2006) specifically stated that social supports such as organisational support and support from the leader have a positive relationship with employee engagement. Furthermore, Vazirani (2005), said that employee engagement is a level of

commitment and involvement of the employees which is affected by several factors with which leadership style is one.

The interpersonal aspect of relations between leaders and their subordinates is regarded as hugely important. Engaged employees obviously feel closer to their organisation and their sense of belongingness prompt some emotional bond to emerge. This affective reaction to their work is defined as commitment which is a step up from engagement.

2.7.2 Transformational leadership style and employee engagement

Studies have shown how transformational leadership style correlates to constructs like performance (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Yammarino, Spangler & Bass, 1993), innovative behavior (Basu & Green, 1997), organisational commitment (Bycio et al., 1995; Erkutlu, 2008; Lee, 2005), extra effort (Seltzer & Bass, 1990), turnover intention (Bycio et al., 19995), Organisational citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000), job satisfaction and motivation (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Transformational leaders are executives who promote and motivate their followers by projecting and communicating attractive visions, common goals and shared values and setting examples for the requested behaviour (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders are supposed to challenge employees positively (Bass & Avolio, 1990) and to increase their employees' willingness to exert effort in their job leading to successful performance which in turn results in more performance satisfaction and fulfillment (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008). Promotion of their followers' process of learning and self-improvement, strong relations with each of their subordinates as well as direct communication

are further characteristics of transformational leadership that improve employee health and work performance (Arnold et al., 2007).

Furthermore, through meaningful transformational leadership enhance mental health and affective well-being of the employee (Arnold et al., 2007; Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, & Brenner, 2008b).

Subordinates were found to consider their work as more important and more self-congruent when they had a transformational leader (Bono & Judge, 2004). Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) reported that performance of employees as a result of their engagement is affected positively through transformational leadership. According to them, engaged employees in turn perform more behaviours that promote efficient and effective functioning of the organisation.

According to Xu and Thomas (2011), there has been a constant linkage between transformational leadership and constructs that are argued by some to be part of engagement, such as motivation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, proactive behaviours, and organisational citizenship behaviours. It is argued that it is when the employee is engaged that he/she can be motivated, committed and show other good behaviours at the workplace.

Idealized influence (where the followers trust and identify with the leader) and intellectual stimulation (where the leader energize followers' creativity in a blame free environment) were significantly related to positive emotional arousal, personal goals and commitment to change (Attridge, 2009). Further, creativity which are encouraged through intellectual stimulation are elements of engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Inspirational motivation, by which leaders provide meaning and challenge in followers' work and individualized consideration, in which

leaders support followers' specific needs for achievement and growth (Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003) have clear links with the engagement constructs.

Moreover, the vision of the transformational leader itself was found to correlate with higher job satisfaction, commitment, work engagement and lower turnover (Attridge, 2009), even in different organisational and cultural settings (Attridge, 2009; Avolio et al., 2004). The constructive and positive feedback from this same leader improve followers' sense of self-determination, psychological meaningfulness and safety which are antecedents to follower work engagement (Zhu et al., 2009). The flow of information through communication coupled with a positive work environment, which is encouraging, supporting, innovative and appreciative according to Bakker et al., (2007) promote work engagement.

2.7.3 Transactional leadership style and employee engagement

Transactional leadership is an active form of strategic leadership which is an important ingredient for organisational effectiveness (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1997, 2000). Furthermore, transactional leadership style is more common than transformational leadership (Liu, Liu, & Zeng, 2011). Transactional leadership style tend to have low expectations of follower engagement within the organisation. According to Zhang et al (2014b), employee engagement is lower under transactional leadership.

High need for clarity according to Zhang et al (2014b), is associated with transactional leadership style than others (e.g. visionary and organic leadership styles) and the high need of clarity made the employee to be cognitively engaged. However, Bass (1990b) believe that this leadership style lack certain characteristics which might result in employees engaged. The

transactional leader lacks independent thinking and individualized consideration which aids in employee empowerment (Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Hater & Bass, 1988).

A study by van Vugt, Jepson, Hart, and de Cremer (2004), who randomly assigned three groups and made them take part in three investment task trials. The authors manipulated the content of the messages sent by the leader to the group members to simulate either a transactional, transformational or laissez-faire leadership styles. The finding from the study revealed that participants under transactional leadership style had limited amount of control in the decision making processes. According to Tims, Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2011), transactional leadership style does not contribute significantly to employee work engagement.

Conversely, according to Zhang et al. (2014b), transactional leaders interact with their followers to negotiate agreements. Therefore by clarifying follower demands and the consequences for given behaviors, transactional leaders can inculcate self-confidence in followers, thereby getting them to disburse the necessary effort to reach specified performance levels. Under this form of leadership style, followers necessarily does not engage with the organisation or its vision as what the transactional leader expect from the followers is to achieve their target after their roles have been clarified.

Certain characteristics of transactional leadership conflict with the employee engagement element of additional discretionary effort which might lead to low employee engagement. For example, the characteristics of transactional leadership of limited communication, low trust and integrity, boring job, low effective and supportive direct supervisors, low career advancement opportunities, low contribution to organisational success, and low supportive colleagues/team members, predict low employee engagement (Gibbons, 2006). However, the transactional leadership style has been associated with the cognitive engagement of the employee (Zhang et

al., 2014b). This cognitive engagement comes in as a results of the roles been clarified by the supervisor. Cognitive engagement becomes possible when the employee finds his/her work to be meaningful, safe physically, emotionally and psychologically and whether they have adequate tangible and intangible resources to complete their work (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010).

2.7.4 Interpersonal Communication and Employee Engagement

Internal communication which is well developed and effective represents one of the organisational conditions that drives engagement (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011; Kahn, 1992; Papalexandris & Galanaki, 2009). Also, MacLeod and Clarke (2009), highlight communication as a critical factor for enhancing performance through employee engagement. According to Bakker et al. (2011), internal communication is part of the organisational context in which engagement (or disengagement) occurs. Good quality internal communication enhances engagement. Employees need clear communication from senior management to understand how their own roles fit with that of the leaders' vision. For example, communication helps in discussing relevant organisational issues, it helps to generate and share information for creating ideas and make decisions between and among organisational members. Through such communication, organisational and individual goals are achieved.

Poor communication act as barrier to engagement and cause employee disengagement (May et al., 2004). A number of studies have tried to identify interpersonal skills essential in people management (Boyatzis, 1982; Whetten & Cameron, 2002). Robbins and Hunsaker (2003), reviewed a large number of studies and synthesised the interpersonal skills that surfaced on most lists. Most of these skills belong to three categories – leadership, the process of communication and motivation. Interpersonal skills under leadership relate to leadership style, handling conflicts,

running meetings, team building and promoting change while the process of communication includes sending messages, listening and providing feedback. Similarly, motivating is broken down into goal setting, clarifying expectations, persuading, empowering, and providing feedback. Clarifying employees' expectation in the motivation category as proposed by Robbins and Hunsaker (2003), as an important skill in interpersonal communication which leads to employee commitment. Interpersonal communication skills in supervisors are vital to promoting employee attachment to the organisation (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2004).

Employee engagement, which internal communication promotes, is “the degree to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in the performance of their roles” (Saks, 2006, p. 602). Prior studies have found that managers' internal communication with their employees motivates their subordinates to provide superior service to customers (Lowenstein, 2006). Internal communication boosts productivity by streamlining organisational roles and duties (Benner & Tushman, 2003). Pounsford (2007), found that communication strategies such as storytelling, informal communication, and coaching led to greater employee engagement, as well as increased levels of trust and revenue in the organisations.

Several scholars have highlighted the positive influence of internal communication on employee engagement (Chong, 2007; Saks, 2006; Welch & Jackson, 2007). Thus, internal communication between supervisors and subordinates should enhance trust between them and lead to greater employee engagement with the company. Additionally, transparent communication has been discussed as a critical factor for engaging employees (Men & Hung-Baesecke, 2015). Kitchen and Daly (2002), argued that internal communication is crucial for both organisation's success and for its day-to-day existence.

Saks (2006), also emphasized the need to communicate with employees clearly and consistently to achieve employee engagement, suggesting that employees who are more engaged will have a more positive relationship with their employers. Indeed, Welch and Jackson (2007), identified internal communication as crucial for achieving employee engagement. They felt that managers were critical in sharing reliable and open communications with their employees in order to promote their sense of belonging and commitment as well as helping employees to better understand the goals of the organisation.

The antecedents of employee engagement have been discussed across disciplines. For example, Saks (2006) posited that job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice, and distributive justice affected employees' job and organisational engagements. Yet, from the communication perspective, effective employee engagement requires an internal communication programme that is designed to help employees understand the organisational goals and to allow them to recognize the organisational values (Bindl & Parker, 2010), so that they can have a sense of belonging and will be willing to contribute to organisational effectiveness.

Communication and the ability to communicate effectively are vital to create and maintain relationships. Sharing ideas, giving opinions, finding out what one needs to know, explaining what one wants, working out differences with others, expressing one's feelings (Goleman, 1998) can be regarded as essential elements in building relationships.

2.8 Conceptual Framework for the study

A study by Men and Hung-Baesecke (2015), look at engaging employees in China by assessing the impact of communication channels, organisational transparency and authenticity. To answer

the research question of this study, the researchers used stratified and quota random sampling strategies to sample four hundred and six (406) respondents who work for medium and large corporations from a variety of industries in China.

The study found that the interpersonal factor in employee communication shows strong positive influence on employee engagement. Employees also prefer face-to-face communication (like departmental meeting) channel. Their findings were similar to those of Men's (2014), who said in her study that "face-to-face communication allows nonverbal communication and immediate feedback and reflects the willingness of the management to listen to employees" (p. 16). When employees feel that management is willing to listen, communicate, provide feedback, and care about their development, they would have a more positive attitude toward their companies and have a sense of control over their work performance.

A study done by Zhang et al (2014a), on the relationship between leadership paradigms and employee engagement used convenience sampling to recruit four hundred and thirty nine (439) retail sales assistants working in eight shopping malls across Sydney, Australia. The findings from the study confirmed the predictions that engagement is associated with leadership style. As Bates (2004), asserts that the role of direct supervisors is increasingly regarded as significant in driving engagement. This is because supervisors between the organisations and the employees. On the contrary, there was negative prediction under classical or transactional leadership and positively in both visionary and organic leaderships.

Classical and transactional leadership styles perceived in direct supervisors are associated with negative employee engagement. This is because classical leadership is characterized by the antecedents of limited communication, low trust and integrity, boring job, low effective and supportive direct supervisors, low career advancement opportunities, low contribution to

organisational success and low supportive colleagues/team members, all of which predict low employee engagement. However, high need for clarity (through communication) according to Zhang et al (2014b), is associated with transactional leadership style than others (e.g. visionary and organic leadership styles) and the high need of clarity made the employee to be cognitively engaged. To add to this, the need for clarity related positively to employee engagement (Zhang et al., 2014b). An explanation for this could be found in the idea that employees high in need for clarity care about their jobs and thus may be more likely to become cognitively engaged in the work environment (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). This could explain why the need for clarity is positively associated with employee engagement.

Cognitive engagement is often termed absorption and an employee becomes cognitively engaged when he/she finds his/her work to be meaningful, safe physically, emotionally and psychologically and whether they have adequate tangible and intangible resources to complete their work (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Such employees concentrates fully on their job and feel happily engrossed in his/her work role to the extent that they do not pay attention to time. Although there is some form of employee engagement under the transactional leadership style, the engagement is low (As-Sadeq & Khoury, 2006). Since engagement levels differ within workforces, communicators need to consider the communication needs of employees with varying levels of engagement (Fatimah et al., 2015). For example, a highly emotionally engaged employee may have a greater need for information to validate an ongoing sense of belonging to the organisation. It can be again argued out that employees under transactional leadership will be engaged on their job due to the financial reward. For example, Farndale and Murrer (2015), did a study on job resources and employee engagement under a cross-national perspective. This study explored job resources-engagement relationships in Mexico, the Netherlands and USA. Data

were collected from a financial services specifically local employees working in bank retail branches.

The results demonstrated that financial rewards, team climate and participation in decision making have a positive relationship with engagement across the countries, but the strength of these relationships differed significantly between countries. There was a strong relationship between financial rewards and engagement in Mexico, followed by the USA, but the relationship was of no practical significance in the Netherlands. Although this supports the notion that countries higher on masculinity value focus on monetary reward in return for performance (Demerouti, 1999) does not fully support the argument that this relationship will be stronger in individualist societies (due to Mexico's collectivist culture).

This may be explained by considering how extrinsic rewards (e.g. extra payment for good performance) might increase engagement in collectivist cultures due to economic security having higher priority over intrinsic rewards, such as self-actualization (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003).

On the other hand, research on transformational leader and engagement has shown direct and indirect relationship. For example, Salanova et al. (2011), for example looked at the indirect relationship between transformational leadership style of supervisors and staff nurses' extra-role performance as mediated by nurse self-efficacy and work engagement. The findings from the study showed some level of partial mediation in the relationship researched. Which means there was an effect of transformational leadership in extra-role performance as mediated by work engagement.

Also, Tims et al. (2011), tested whether day-level self-efficacy and day-level optimism mediates the relationship between day-level transformational leadership and day-level employee engagement. From the multi-level analysis of the general questionnaire and daily survey data

collected from participants for five consecutive workdays, the study revealed a positive significant relationship between day-level transformational leadership and day-level work engagement with a full mediation of day-level optimism.

Zhu et al., (2009), investigated (a) the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' work engagement, and (b) whether the leadership–engagement relationship is stronger when positive follower characteristics are higher versus lower. They found that follower-rated transformational leadership significantly correlated with follower work engagement and with self-rated follower characteristics.

Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010), reported that performance of employees as a result of their engagement is affected positively through transformational leadership. According to them, engaged employees in turn perform more behaviours that promote efficient and effective functioning of the organisation. Transformational/visionary leadership has a positive relationship with the two key elements of employee engagement: connection and additional discretionary effort (Morhart et al., 2009). Also, Hasen et al., (2015), concluded from their study that engagement is best predicted by transformational leaders (in the form of interpersonal leadership behaviours).

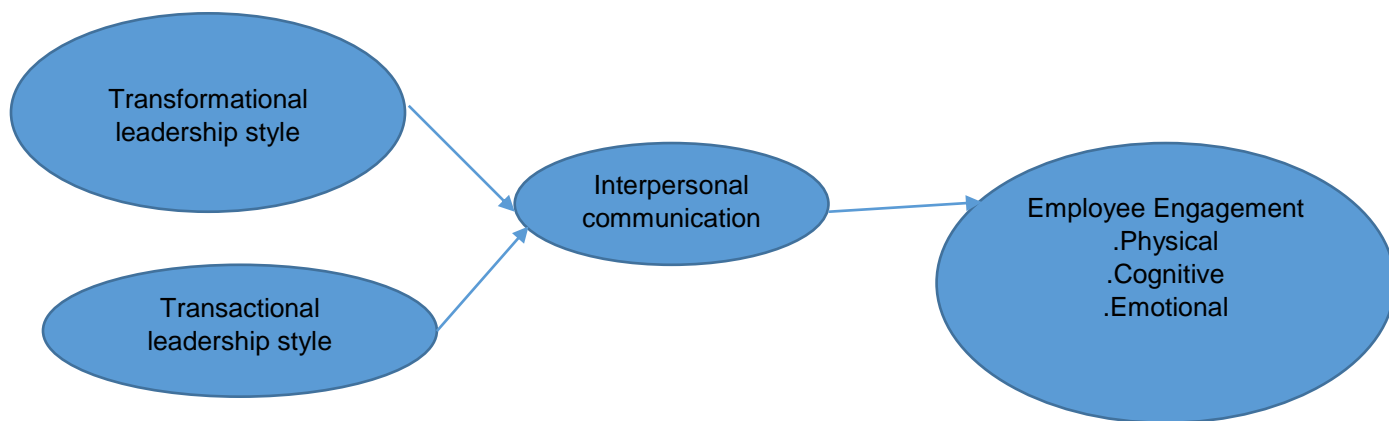


Figure 2.1: Researcher's conceptual Framework

This study proposes that interpersonal communication mediates between leadership style and employee engagement. The following hypotheses has been proposed:

H₁ There is a significant relationship between women leadership style and their subordinate engagement in the health sector of Ghana.

H₂ Interpersonal communication will mediate the relation between transactional leadership style and transactional leadership style.

H₃ Interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transactional leadership style and cognitive employee engagement.

H₄ Interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transactional leadership style and emotional employee engagement.

H₅ Interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and physical employee engagement.

H₆ Interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and cognitive employee engagement.

H₇ Interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and emotional employee engagement.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The research methodology underlies and informs the style of the research. This chapter addresses the methodology for the study by looking at the research approach and design, the sampling technique and sample size, the instruments used and the method that was used to analyse the data.

3.1 Research Paradigm

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007), philosophical perspectives or paradigms are clear assumption which entails the researcher's plan and approach to create knowledge within a specific context. On the other hand, Fraser and Robinson (2004, p. 59), describe paradigms as a 'set of beliefs about the way in which particular problems exist and a set of agreements on how such problems can be investigated'. Saunders et al. (2007), posit that, it is very useful for a researcher to provide a significant justification on the chosen philosophies. This does not imply a particular philosophy is superior to the other but rather each philosophy is exceptional at doing different things in relation to the research questions (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Generally, a research paradigm may be grouped into three: interpretivism, realism and positivism and they are discussed below.

3.1.1 Interpretive Paradigm

Interpretive paradigm is built on the view that the world is subjective and is seen differently by persons (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), and can be understood by the persons who participate in it (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007). Researchers who use the interpretive paradigm rely on

participants views of the situation being studied (Creswell, 2003). That is they view the world through the perceptions and experiences of their participants as they accept multiple viewpoints from their participants. According to the interpretivists, the multiple viewpoints stems from the fact that the external world is variable and that people have different views and perceptions of the world (Willis, 2007). This often leads to a comprehensive understanding of a situation when multiple responses are accepted (Klen & Meyers, 1998; Morehouse, 2011).

Methodologies of the interpretivists include: case studies (in-depth study of events or processes over a prolonged period), phenomenology (the study of direct experience without allowing the interference of existing preconceptions), and ethnography (the study of cultural groups over a prolonged period) (Scotland, 2012).

Qualitative methods mostly satisfy the use of the interpretive approach (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Nind & Todd, 2011; Silverman, 2000; Thomas, 2003; Willis, 2007). Qualitative methods according to Thomas (2003), are usually supported by interpretivists, because the interpretive paradigm “portrays a world in which reality is individually and socially constructed, complex, and ever changing...” (p.6).

Aside the above advantages, this paradigm is not devoid of limitations. Participants’ autonomy and privacy can be compromised because the researcher is more intimate with the participants. To add to the limitation, participants are vulnerable and have less control on the researcher who may impose their own subjective interpretation on them.

3.1.2 Realism Paradigm

In its philosophical position, reality exists independently of the researcher’s mind, that is, there is an external reality (Bhaskar, 1978; Harre & Madden, 1975). Realism is seen as an alternative to

both positivism/empiricism and constructivism as a stance for research and evaluation in the social sciences (House, 1991; Mark, Henry, & Julnes, 2000; Maxwell, 2004a, 2008; Pawson, 2006; Pawson & Tilley, 1997; Sayer, 2000). This is because, both the interpretivism and the positivist philosophical approaches can be used in a study to gain a better understanding of the subject. This brings about easy validation and replication of data, due to the combination of these two approaches.

3.1.3 Positivism Paradigm

This is also called the scientific paradigm. The Positivists hold the view that reality can be observed and that genuine knowledge is based upon sense experience which can only be researched through the means of experiment and observation (Cohen et al, 2007). They create, acquire and communicate knowledge by going to the field with an objective mind where the researcher and the researched objects are different entities. The methodology adopted is aimed at explaining relationship by identifying causes which influence outcome (Creswell, 2007). The Positivist lay emphasis on scientific method, statistical analysis and the generalization of their findings when conducting scientific studies in the social world. However, with the positivism paradigm, statistical tests are often misused and their findings are often misinterpreted. For example using parametric test for non-normally distributed data (Scotland, 2012).

Also, the Positivists believe their research is value-free but selection of variables, actions to be observed and the findings to be interpreted are in itself value-laden (Salomon, 1991). Nonetheless, the positivism paradigm sits well with this research because the research aims to explain the relationship that exists among the variables and how the mediator

(interpersonal communication) will cause the independent variable (leadership style) to influence employee engagement (the outcome variable).

3.2 Research Approach

There are three approaches to research which are qualitative, mixed and quantitative methods.

3.2.1 Qualitative Research Method

The qualitative research approach or method in the form of action research, case study research and ethnography was developed to enable the studying of social and natural phenomena (Myers, 1997). Kaplan and Maxwell (1994), posits that the goal of understanding the natural phenomena from the view point of the participants is largely lost when textual data are quantified. This method uses the interpretive philosophy (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; McQueen, 2002; Nind & Todd, 2011; Silverman, 2000; Thomas, 2003; Willis, 2007) where the researcher forms part of those who are been researched.

According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), the qualitative method provides individual case information, can determine how participants interpret constructs. The use of rich details to describe phenomena as they are situated in the local settings is associated with this approach. However, this method is very difficult to use in testing hypotheses and theories, it takes time in collecting data and is time consuming when analysing data as compared to the quantitative method. Results are also influenced by the researcher's biases.

3.2.2 Mixed Method

The mixed method uses triangulation (which is the combination of qualitative and quantitative) approach, technique and concepts into a single study (Creswell, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie,

2004). Aina (2002), argues that the qualitative and the quantitative research methods have their own limitations and is therefore ideal to use multiple methods to supplement each other and also overcome the biases. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), the mixed methods can add insights and understanding that might be missed when using either qualitative or quantitative methods. The mixed methods can also be used to reinforce generalizations of results but this method is more expensive and time consuming.

3.2.3 Quantitative Research Method

The positivism or the empiricism philosophy underpinned this approach and the research is seen to be independent of the researcher (Creswell, 2003). The quantitative method uses survey and experiments (Sohb & Perry, 2005) to collect data so that information can be quantified and statistical treated in order to accept or refute “alternative knowledge claims” (Creswell, 2003, p. 153). A quantitative research approach according to Creswell (2009), is an investigation into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with numerical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the hypothesis hold true.

According to Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar and Newton (2002), conducting research using this method is relatively easy and quick, the findings are considerable relevant to policy decision because statistic are aggregated from large samples. However, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), argue that the researcher’s theories used may not reflect the understanding of the local community. Also knowledge produced may be too abstract when applied to local situations, contexts and individuals.

Nonetheless, the quantitative method sits well with this research because the intent of the researcher is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalizations that contribute to theory (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Also, the method used for analyzing data from the field (i.e. Structural Equation Modelling) was more appropriate using a quantitative method than a qualitative method.

3.3 Research Design

Cross sectional surveys have been described as snapshots of the populations about which a researcher gather data (Aron & Aron, 1999). The survey method sits well with this study due to the cross-sectional nature of data collection. For example, transfers, leave and off duties are frequently taken by workers in these health facilities. This makes it difficult to carry out a longitudinal study where a particular participant or group of participants are to be studied for a period of time.

A cross sectional study is particularly suitable for estimating the prevalence of a behaviour in a population (Sedgwick, 2014) at a point in time. Prevalence is the proportion of the population that has that behaviour. Cross-sectional studies are relatively inexpensive, quick and easy to do because there will be no need to do a follow-up on the respondents. They are useful for generating and clarifying hypotheses and can lay the groundwork for decisions about future follow-up studies (Kraemer, 1994).

Respondents for the study were studied appropriately using the cross sectional survey. This design was used because characteristics of the respondents were studied at a single point in time. There was no need to do a follow up on the respondents therefore making this design appropriate.

3.4 Sources of data

Data according to Gay, Mills and Airaisian (2006), are pieces of information a researcher collect and use to examine the topic, hypotheses or observation. Leedy and Ormrod (2010), argue that data are those pieces of information that any particular situation gives to an observer.

There are two sources of data in research and they are the primary and the secondary data sources. Primary data are data collected for a specific problem at hand which can be available for reuse by other researchers in the research community (Hox & Boeiji, 2005). Primary data when reused by the research community becomes a secondary data. Secondary data are data that is collected by someone else for another primary purpose (Johnston, 2014). Cooper and Schindler (2006), outlined the strengths of secondary data to include the following, less time consuming, relatively fast and less expensive. However, such data can be outdated and since such data are usually collected for different purposes, it content might poorly correlate with the current researcher objective(s) (Yin, 1994; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006). Johnston (2014), further stated that, since the secondary researcher (i.e. the researcher who is now using the secondary data) was not part of the data collection process, the researcher would not know if the data collected was affected by problems such as low response rate or participants misunderstanding a particular survey questions. In spite of these limitations, secondary data were collected from journal articles and text books.

Aside the secondary data, primary data in the form of questionnaire was also used for this study. Questionnaires which are more closed ended were used because of these advantages (see Lynch, 1996; Nunan, 1999; Gillham, 2000; Brown, 2001), which included an efficient means to collect data from large samples, can be sent simultaneously to a large number of people and is cost

effective. The primary data source which was mainly questionnaire was used because the researcher wanted to gather a large sample so as to quantify the variables under study.

3.5 Target Population

The respondents were health workers and other non- health workers who were under women supervisors in some selected hospitals and polyclinics. The health workers were those who provide direct health services like the doctors and the nurses and the non-health workers were those who provide indirect service which include pharmacists, secretaries, executive officers, accountants, orderlies and security men. This study did not compare the level of engagement of these two different groups, but rather data was collected to assess their engagement level when they are being supervised by females. According to Shantz et al., (2016), these two groups (direct and indirect health workers) are the two crucial occupational groups in healthcare.

3.6 Sampling Techniques

According to Babbie (1990), sampling method involves taking a representative selection of the population and using the data collected as research information. A probability sampling method (stratified method) was used to select the six health centres in the Accra Metropolis and a non-probability method (purposive method) was used to sample the respondents. Stratified sampling is a method of sampling in which the population is divided into sub-groups and a random sample was then selected from each sub-group (Fink, 1995). The health centres were into the following stratas; hospitals, clinics and polyclinics. Three hospitals were sampled in all and they were Ridge (regional) hospital, Achimota (district) hospital, Community hospital, Ashongman (quasi-government) hospital. One clinic was sampled which was the Ghana Atomic Energy

Commission (GAEC) clinic and two polyclinics were sampled and they were Maamobi and Mamprobi polyclinics.

To select the respondents, the purposive sampling was used. First purposive sampling was used to select women leaders in the various health facilities and this method was again used to select the respondents. Purposive sampling procedure is a non-probability sampling method in which sample is taken based on the researcher knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of the research aims (Babbie, 1990). MacNealy (1999), argues that this method of sampling is used when respondents are selected to answer questions on a certain subject. The respondents were selected based on the following purpose:

- i. The respondent was under the supervision of a female.
- ii. The respondents should have served under the female supervisor for not less than three (3) months. The respondents were made to rate their female supervisors on their leadership styles and it is necessary the employed have worked under the female supervisor for at least three months in order to assess the leadership styles used by the supervisor.

3.7 Sample Size

Sample size is very sensitive in Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). According to Ullman (2006), SEM is based on covariances and covariances and are less stable when estimated from small sample. Again, the researcher argued out that parameter estimates and chi-square test of fit are also very sensitive to sample size. In order to conduct a reliable factor analysis the sample size needs to be big (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Field, 2009; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001) as SEM is a large sample technique.

Although there is little consensus on the recommended sample size for SEM (Sivo, Fan, Witta & Willse, 2006), according to Hair et al., (2006), the minimum sample size of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis is 100-150 respondents. However, Garver and Mentzer (1999) and Hoelter (1983) proposed a critical sample size of two hundred (200) respondents.

The researcher decided to sample three hundred and fifty (350) respondents in order to get a fair representation of the respondents and also provide sufficient statistical power for data analysis. In all, three hundred (300) questionnaires were retrieved from the field representing 85.7% response rate. The researcher used this sample (n=300) because according to Ding, Velicer, and Harlow (1995), the use of Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) which is commonly used in software for the estimation procedure in structure modelling requires a minimum sample size of between 100-150 respondents, therefore the use of the three hundred respondents was more appropriate. Also, as the sample size increases, the MLE method increases its sensitivity to detect differences among the data.

3.8 Instrumentations

Three (3) variables were used for the research. The independent variable was leadership style and the outcome variable was employee engagement and the mediating variable was interpersonal communication. Questionnaires were the main source of data collection which was gathered from primary sources. The questionnaire was in four (A, B, C and D) sections. The variables used in the study are outlined below:

3.8.1 Leadership styles

This was the first part (section A) of the questionnaire. Leadership style was adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X Short (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The Rater form of the MLQ was used where employees were made to rate their leaders. The Rater Form is more appropriate to use because its reliability is higher and the correlations between the rating form and the items are better (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The first twenty items measured the transformational leadership style and it was rated on a five-point Likert scale with 1 – (Not at all) to 5- (frequently, if not always).

These twenty items measured the four behaviours of the transformational leader; idealized behaviour, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and inspirational motivation.

Transactional leadership style was measured by twelve items and the questionnaire was also adapted from (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The twelve items measured contingent rewards, active management by exception and passive management by exception. It was also measured on a five point Likert scale with 1 – (Not at all) to 5- (frequently, if not always).

3.8.2 Employee Engagement Instruments

This was the second part (section B) of the questionnaire. Employee Engagement was measured by job engagement scale developed by Rich, LePine and Crawford (2010) based on Kahn's (1990) three dimensions of employee engagement: physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement. This scale was adopted because the research seek to measure how leadership styles of female supervisors enhances the cognitively, physically and emotionally engagement of their subordinates. Six items were used to measure physical employee engagement, six items were used to measure emotional employee engagement and six items were again used to measure

cognitive employee engagement. The physical and emotional health of workers through their engagement according to Eisenberg, Bowman and Foster (2001) fosters quality care in the health facilities.

These items were measured using a five point Likert scale with 1- (strongly disagree) to 5- (strongly agree).

3.8.3 Interpersonal Communication Instrument

This was the third part (section C) of the questionnaire for the study. Interpersonal communication scale was adapted from several research instruments; supervisory consideration was adapted from House and Dessler (1974), Role Clarity scale from Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970), and feedback scale from Hackman and Oldham (1976), and Young et al., (1998). Participation scale was adapted from Teas, Wacker and Huguen (1979), and communication competence behaviour of a supervisor was adapted from Monge, Backman, Dillard and Eisenburg (1982), and Northouse (2001). In all, seventeen items were used to measure interpersonal communication variable.

These items were measured using a five point Likert scale with 1- (strongly disagree) to 5- (strongly agree).

3.8.4 Demographic Variables

This was the last (section D) of the questionnaire. The respondents' age, gender, years worked under the immediate supervisor and the position/rank of the immediate supervisor constituted demographic variables. With the exception of the rank/position of the immediate supervisor, all

demographic variables were used as control variables. Demographic variables influence employee engagement (Ariani 2013; Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

However, the demographics that influence employee engagement is determined by the organisation in which the study was done, the dominant gender, the number of experience of the employees, the income and the educational background of the employees.

Swaminaathan and Anantha (2009), saw in their study that experience and income influence employee engagement. Also, Breevart et al., (2015), controlled for gender, education, marital status, working hours per week and tenure on employee engagement.

3.9 Data Analysis

The data was analysed using descriptive statistics, correlation, regression and covariance based type of structure equation modelling. The Predictive Analytical or the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software version 20.0 and Analysis of moment structure (Amos) version 22.0 were used to perform Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to test the hypothesised relationship between the constructs in the structural model. SEM is appropriate for studies as it involves the testing of relationship between multi-dimensional constructs simultaneously (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2006; Nimako, 2012). According to Teo, Tsai and Yang (2013), SEM is capable of either assessing or correcting for measurement error, it incorporate both unobserved (i.e. latent) and observed variables and estimating direct and indirect effects of variables under study.

Demographics variables were analysed descriptively. Correlation was used to test the assumption underlying regression analysis by establishing relationship between the study variables. The first hypothesis was analysed using regression and the other six hypotheses were measured using the

Baron and Kenny (1986) method and the bootstrapping method was used in order to assess the significance of the indirect effects of the mediator variable on the predictor and the outcome variables.

In the use of SEM, there are several other issues that must be considered prior to the analysis. Some of these issues are data editing, coding and screening, missing values, outlier and data normality (Bryne, 2010; In'nami & Koizami, 2013; Kline, 2011; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006; Teo et al., 2013; Ullman, 2006). These conditions necessary for SEM (thus the covariance based method) is discussed below:

3.9.1 Data editing, coding and screening

SEM must undergo data screening before it can be put to appropriate use. Such preliminary analysis often saves time and leads to a more precise understanding of the results (In'nami & Koizami, 2013).

3.9.2 Missing Values Analysis

A researcher who relies on only completed cases of data that have been inputted in any software is often left with limited number of complete cases to estimate a model with. SEM employs large number of measured variables which is affected by missing values. Missing values can be analysed using the pairwise deletion, the listwise deletion and the expectation maximization (EM) approach. According to Schumacker and Lomax (2010), the pairwise and the listwise deletion methods are not recommended because they have the capability of reducing the subjects in the data set thereby reducing the sample size. Therefore the study used the expectation maximization approach to handle missing data.

A test called the Little test was used to predict missing data analysis using the Expectation Maximization (EM) approach. The EM algorithm was used for data that were missing completely at random and data that were missing at random. According to Little and Ruben (1987), this approach helps in obtaining maximum likelihood estimates. The maximum likelihood estimates is used in most software procedure to model the structure (Ding et al., 1995).

The expectation maximization approach was used because it provided unbiased and efficient (Graham, 2003) parameters which is useful in the calculation of internal consistency.

3.9.3 Assessment of Normality

The most commonly employed techniques for estimating models assume multivariate normality in SEM (Ullman, 2006; Teo et al, 2013). Multivariate normality test was conducted as data skewness and Kurtosis is very important in SEM. However, kurtosis is seen as most essential as it affects test of covariances and variances (DeCarlo, 1997), upon which Structural Equation Modelling is built. Multivariate normality can be assessed through the use of Mardia's (1970), coefficient which evaluates multivariate normality through the evaluation of multivariate kurtosis.

According to Bentler (2005), data is multivariate non-normal when the critical ratio (z values) is greater than 5 or 6. However, Raykov and Marcoulides (2008) provided a formula for calculating multivariate normality. According to them, Mardia's coefficient for the data can be compared with the formula $p(p+2)$ where p equals the number of observed variables in the model. If the Mardia's coefficient is lower than the value obtained from the above formula, then the data is deemed as multivariate normal.

3.9.4 Outliers

Although outliers are often considered as an error or noise, they may carry important information and is therefore important to identify them prior to modeling and analysis (Williams et al., 2002; Liu, Shah & Jiang, 2004). In SEM, it is entirely reasonable and perhaps even preferable to choose an estimation method that addresses outliers in situation of non-normal data than to transform the data. Data that are transformed to behave normally, have under or overestimated values that does not reflect the true values of the population. An estimation method was therefore used in dealing with outliers in this study.

The squared Mahalanobis distance (D^2) for each case was computed to determine outliers. A case that stands distinctively apart from all the D^2 values is an outlier (Bryne, 2010).

3.9.5 Validity Analysis

According to Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), validity is the extent to which a measure or set of measures correctly represents the concept of study. Face, content and constructs validities were performed. Face and content validity were assessed by my supervisor to ensure clarity, understandability and suitability of the questions.

The structured questionnaire construct validity was determined by conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to purify the measures, assess the unidimensionality of the scale items, and to assess discriminant validity (scores on the measure do not correlate with variables that should differ, or are expected by theory to not correlate with the construct) among these constructs. Following the recommendation of Gerbing and Anderson (1992), CFA was specified in Amos 22.0 with these constructs; transformational

leadership, transactional leadership, physical employee engagement, cognitive employee engagement, emotional employee engagement and interpersonal communication.

3.9.6 Reliability Analysis

The extent to which a variable or set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure (Hair et al., 2010). A commonly used measure of assessing reliability which was the internal consistency (DeVon et al, 2007; Hair et al, 2006; Trochim, 2001) was used. This internal consistency was measured using coefficient or Cronbach alphas (Trochim, 2001). Alpha coefficient values greater than 0.60 was deemed reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

3.9.7 Test for Mediation

Mediation is the intervening variable or mechanism that transmits the effect of a predictor variable on an outcome variable (Mathieu, DeShon, & Bergh, 2008; Ndofor, Sirmon, & He, 2011). That is mediation acts as mechanisms or processes that connect antecedents and outcomes or the relation between the predictor and the outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The mediating variable either transmit partially or wholly, the effect of the predictor on the outcome (Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon, 2008).

A mediator variable is very useful to help understand the mechanism through which a cause (independent variable) produces an effect (dependent variable) (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009).

In this study, interpersonal communication acts as a medium through which the leadership styles exhibited by female supervisors in the various health centres cause employees to be physically, emotionally and cognitively engaged to their work.

In order to test for mediation as depicted in the conceptual framework for the study, the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was applied. First, the proposed mediator “interpersonal communication” was regressed on “leadership style”; second, “employee engagement was regressed on leadership style”; and third, “employee engagement was regressed” on both “leadership style” and “interpersonal communication”. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation occurs when the mediator affects (i.e. significant) on the independent variable in the first equation; secondly, the independent variable must affect the dependent variable in the second equation; thirdly, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation. Moreover, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second and significant for partial mediation to occur. Perfect mediation occurs if the independent variable has no significant effect when the mediator is controlled.

The use of the Baron and Kenny (1986), method was to assess the role of interpersonal communication on employee engagement. Thus whether interpersonal communication (i.e. the mediator) fully or partially mediates leadership styles (transformational and transactional) on employee (physical, emotional, cognitive) engagement.

Baron and Kenny’s method has been the most widely used method to demonstrate mediation (see MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Wood, Goodman, Beckman, & Cook, 2008) in most social and health sciences although its massive use does not guarantee that it is a safer strategy for mediation analysis.

The great popularity and the frequent use of Baron and Kenny’s (1986) method might suggest it is the best procedure. In fact, Baron and Kenny’s proposed method contains some vital limitations. Some of the limitations are:

- The method is less potent (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Mallinckrodt et al., 2006)
- The method does not take into account the control of measurement errors in the estimation of coefficients (Hoyle & Robinson, 2003; Preacher & Hayes, 2004).
- The use of regression in running the mediation analysis (Judd & Kenny, 1981; Frazier et al., 2004).
- The Baron and Kenney (1986) method which uses the causal steps approach is not powerful enough to detect an indirect effect (MacKinnon et al, 2002).

However, bootstrapping method proposed by Shrout and Bolger (2002), which is a nonparametric resampling procedure, is being recommended for testing hypotheses about mediation given the nonnormal nature of the sampling distribution of an indirect effect (Bollen & Stine, 1990; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Lockwood & MacKinnon, 1998; MacKinnon et al., 2004; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). In that, bootstrapping can test the direct, the indirect and the total effects of the mediated variable with the other variables.

MacKinnon, Lockwood and Williams (2004), compared bootstrapping to the traditional product of coefficients and found that bootstrapping, especially when combined with a bias correction provided more accurate error rates and greater power for detecting indirect effects. The bootstrapping method was therefor used to identify the indirect effect of the mediator (Interpersonal communication) on the leadership styles and employee engagement.

3.10 Administration Procedure

The questionnaire was left with the respondents. The researcher left the presence for the respondents to fill the questionnaire so that the researcher's presence does not influence the

responses of the respondents. Permanent workers were considered in the sampled health facilities.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

A content letter was taken from the University of Ghana Business School (UGBS) specifically the department of Organisation and Human Resource Management. Respondents were not coerced to fill the questionnaire and there was no form of materials gifts that influence their responses. To ensure anonymity, respondents were not asked of any sensitive questions like their names and personal addresses.

To ensure confidentiality an empty box was left at an appropriate place in the various hospitals where respondents dropped their filled questionnaire.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the analysis of data collected from the field for this study. The chapter presents demographic characteristics of the respondents, the analysis of hypotheses and the discussion of findings.

4.1 Preliminary Analysis

Certain conditions must be fulfilled in order to use SEM. Some of these conditions includes data editing, coding and screening, missing values analysis, assessment of normality and outliers. These conditions are discussed below:

4.1.1 Data Editing, Coding and Screening

In order to gain a high level of precision in the data entry process for this study, a double check of data was performed. As a first check, all entries were verified case by case and as a second check, descriptive statistics including frequency distribution was conducted on all inputted questions to assess wrong coded questions. When such wrong coded items appear, they were corrected in the original data set.

4.1.2 Missing data analysis

A test called the Little test was used to predict missing data analysis using the Expectation Maximization (EM) approach for data that were missing completely at random and missing at

random. The expectation maximization approach was used because it provided unbiased and efficient (Graham, 2003) parameters which is useful in the calculation of internal consistency.

4.1.3 Assessment of Normality

Raykov and Marcoulides (2008) provided a formula for calculating multivariate normality. According to them, Mardia’s coefficient for the data can be compared with the formula $p(p+2)$, where p equals the number of observed variables in the model.

From table 4.1, the number of observed variables are six which are transactional and transformational leadership styles, interpersonal communication, physical, emotional and cognitive employee engagement.

$$P(p+2)$$

$$6(6+2)$$

$$= 48$$

According to the formula, if the Mardia’s coefficient is lower than the value obtained from the above formula, then the data is deemed as multivariate normal. The Mardia’s coefficient from table 4.2 is (9.115) and is lesser than the value from the formula which is (48). This shows normality test in table 4.1 for data used in the analysis is normal.

Table 4. 1 Assessment of normality

Variable	Min	Max	Skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
Tenure	1.000	5.000	.864	6.111	1.686	5.961
Gender	1.000	2.000	-1.329	-9.395	-.235	-.830
Transactional	1.000	5.000	-.537	-3.795	-.347	-1.227
Transformational	1.333	5.000	-.440	-3.112	-.402	-1.421
Interpersonal	1.200	5.000	-.712	-5.033	.590	2.084
Emotional	1.500	5.000	-1.178	-8.332	.963	3.406
Cognitive	1.333	5.000	-.923	-6.525	.980	3.463
Physical	2.000	5.000	-.868	-6.140	.463	1.638
Multivariate					13.314	9.115

Source: Field Data, 2016.

4.1.4 Treatment of Outliers

The squared Mahalanobis distance (D^2) for each case was computed to determine outliers. The table in (appendix B) shows minimal issues of cases standing distinctively apart from all the D^2 values.

A review of these values reported in the table in (Appendix C) shows minimal evidence of serious multivariate outliers for this study.

4.2 Characteristics of Population

Three (3) hospitals, a clinic and two Polyclinics were sampled for the analysis. The population for the study was those who provide direct services to the patients (e.g. doctors and nurses) and those who provided indirect services like the pharmacist, the accountants, and cashiers among others. The three hospitals were Ridge, Achimota, and Ashongman Community hospitals, the clinic was the Ghana Atomic Energy Commission (GAEC) and the two polyclinics were Maamobi and Mambrobi.

4.3 Demographic Variables

The table below shows the demographic characteristics of the respondents and this was included in the study because according to (Ariani 2013; Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), certain demographics of respondents like age, tenure, gender and educational level affects employee engagement. Some of these variables were controlled on the dependent variables to examine their effects. Data gathered from the field shows that majority of the respondents were females 233(77.7%) and males represented 67(22.3%).

The ages of the participants to this study shows that most of the respondents were in the (25-31) age bracket which corresponded to 158(52.7%) of the respondents. This was followed by 64(21.4%) of respondent who were in the (32-38) age group. Participants who were within the (18-24) age bracket were 46(15.3%). Furthermore 13(4.3%) of the respondents were in the (39-45) age category, 12 (4%) of the respondents were within (46-52) age bracket and 7(2.3%) were 53 years and above. This shows that the hospitals and the polyclinics where data was gathered for the study had most of the staffs in their youthful ages.

The number of years served (tenure) shows majority 157(52.3%) of the workers in these health centres had worked for (1-3) years while respondents who have worked for less than a year were 83(27.7%) and 53(17.7%) had worked for (4-6) years. Respondents who have work for (10-12) years were 4(1.3%) and least of the workers have work for (7-9) years and they were three in number.

The ranks/positions of the supervisors were assessed by the employees and the researcher grouped the ranks into medical and non-medical workers. The medical workers provided direct medical services to their patients' while the non-direct workers played indirect roles to the patients (e.g. prepare and keep patients records, offer counselling services, keep the health facility neat and tidy etc.). The direct workers represented 222(74%) and the non-direct workers represented 78(26%). The table 4.2 below has a summarised report on demographic variables.

Table 4. 2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Gender of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Male	67	22.3
Female	233	77.7
Age of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
18-24	46	15.3
25-31	158	52.7
32-38	64	21.4
39-45	13	4.3
46-52	12	4
Above 53	7	2.3
Tenure	Frequency	Percentage
Less than a year	83	27.7
1-3 years	157	52.3
4-6 years	53	17.7
7-9 years	3	1
10-12 years	4	1.3
Rank/Position of supervisor	Frequency	Percentage
Medical: Chief Nursing Officer	2	0.7
Deputy Director of Nursing	18	6
Principal Nursing Officer	125	41.6
Principal Midwifery Officer	13	4.3
Senior Nursing Officer	50	16.7
Senior Midwifery Officer	6	2
Medical Officer	5	1.7
Senior Anesthetist	1	0.3
Non-Medical: Administrators	5	1.7
Estate Manger	9	3
Procurement	3	1
Clinical Psychologist	4	1.3
Senior Accountant	13	4.3
Head of Laboratory	14	4.7
Claims Manager	2	0.7
Pharmacist	7	2.3
Engineering Manager	1	0.3
Assistant Chief for Info	18	6
Environmental	2	0.7

N=300

Source: Field Data, 2016.

4. 4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Thirty-five items in the data set gave the researcher considerable leeway in obtaining items that best met face validity for the constructs under study. The tabular representation of these items, their codes, mean and standard deviation can be found in (Appendix C) of this study.

Table 4.3 illustrates the item loadings and provides the improvement of the goodness-of-fit indexes as a result of modifications to the measurement model. The internal consistencies of the measures were evaluated using Cronbach's alphas. All constructs had Cronbach's alpha values greater than 0.6 as the recommended threshold (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 4.3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis results for measurement model

Construct	Variables	Loadings	t value	Sig.	Cronbach's Alpha
Transformational	TFL5	.642	Fixed		.682
	TFL4	.685	9.175	***	
	TFL2	.614	8.485	***	
Transactional	TSL2	.806	Fixed		.683
	TSL1	.656	10.499	***	
Physical Engagement	PEE6	.680	Fixed		.887
	PEE5	.716	11.349	***	
	PEE4	.830	12.807	***	
	PEE3	.810	12.674	***	
	PEE2	.781	12.303	***	
	PEE1	.729	11.357	***	
Cognitive Engagement	CEE6	.814	Fixed		.888
	CEE5	.636	11.663	***	
	CEE4	.830	16.729	***	
	CEE3	.789	15.584	***	
	CEE2	.846	17.069	***	
	CEE1	.682	12.840	***	
Emotional engagement	EEE6	.828	Fixed		.887
	EEE5	.804	15.956	***	
	EEE4	.867	17.693	***	
	EEE3	.768	14.973	***	
Interpersonal communication	IPC6	.685	Fixed		.819
	IPC5	.650	9.850	***	
	IPC4	.732	10.424	***	
	IPC3	.722	10.515	***	
	IPC1	.645	9.591	***	

Note: Transformational Leadership Style (TFL), Transactional Leadership Style (TSL), Interpersonal communication (IPC), Physical Employee Engagement (PEE), Cognitive Emotional Engagement (CEE) and Emotional Employee Engagement (EEE)
Significant at *p-value<0.01 **p-value<0.05 *p-value<0.10**

4.5 Validation Test of the Measurement Model

The table 4.4 below displays the model fit indices for the measurement variable. The Normed-Chi square (χ^2/df) is 1.861; the Goodness of Fit Indices (GFI) is 0.988; the Comparative Fit Indices (CFI) is 0.944; and the Root Mean Square Error of approximation (RMSEA) is 0.054.

These values all reached an acceptable level, indicating that the overall fitness of the model was sufficient (Schreiber et al., 2006). The table 4.4 below displays the model fit indices for structural models in relation to the acceptable fit indices recommended by scholars.

Table 4.4 – Model fit indices for the measurement model

Model Fit Indices	Recommended Values	Authors	Measurement Model
(χ^2/df)	≤ 3	Hayduk (1987)	1.861
GFI	≥ 0.90	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoom (1996)	.988
CFI	≥ 0.90	Bagozzi and Yi (1980)	.944
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	Hair et al., (1998)	.054

Below is the measured model after the confirmatory analysis and their loadings

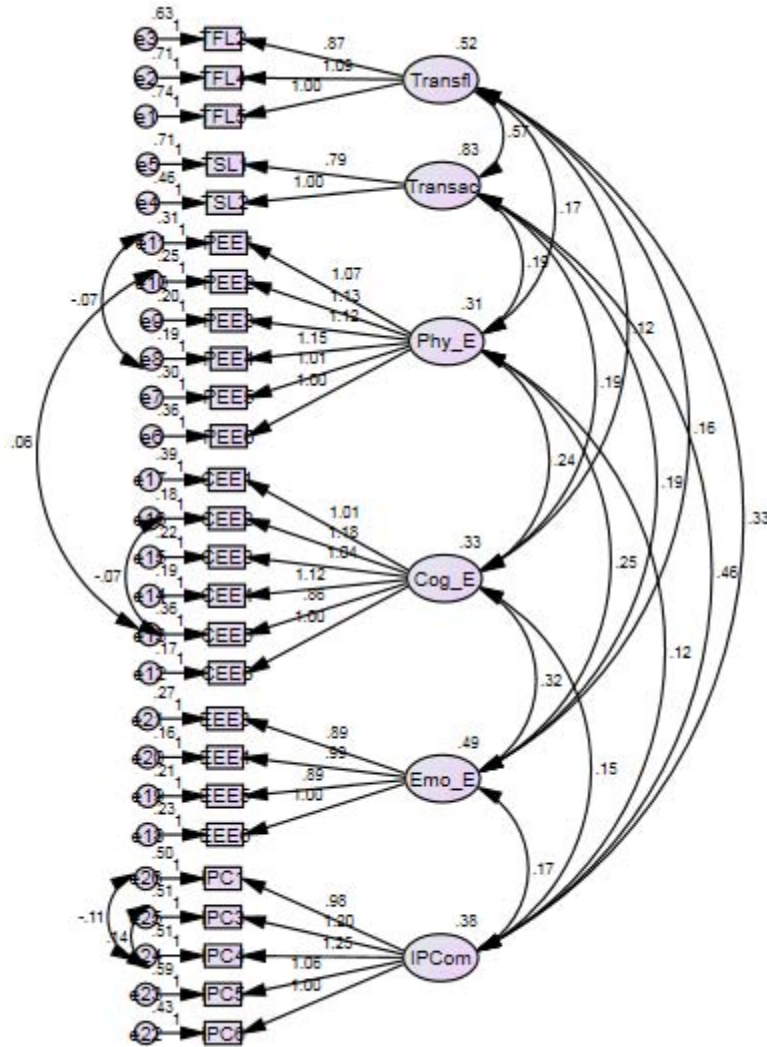


Figure 4: 1 Measurement Model

4.6 Correlation Analysis

A Pearson correlation was conducted on the factors to determine the relationships that exist among them. The results from table 4.5 revealed positive and significant relationships among all the factors at 95% confidence interval. This caters for discriminant validity and also indicates that the factors were different from each other and not measuring the same constructs.

Table 4.5: Correlation matrix

	Mean	SD	TFL	TSL	PEE	CEE	EEE	IPC
TFL	3.63	0.86	1.00					
TSL	3.61	0.98	0.61**	1.00				
PEE	4.27	0.63	0.34**	0.29**	1.00			
CEE	4.33	0.62	0.24**	0.31**	0.68**	1.00		
EEE	4.37	0.70	0.26**	0.22**	0.56**	0.72**	1.00	
IPC	3.84	0.75	0.56**	0.60**	0.29**	0.37**	0.32**	1.00

Note: Transformational Leadership Style (TFL), Transactional Leadership Style (TSL), Interpersonal communication (IPC), Physical Employee Engagement (PEE), Cognitive Emotional Engagement (CEE) and Emotional Employee Engagement (EEE).

****Significant at p -value < 0.01.**

4.7 The Structural Model

The structural model conducted in this study was intended to test the hypothetical propositions based on the conceptual framework (transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, interpersonal communication, physical employee engagement, cognitive employee engagement and emotional employee engagement and control for gender and tenure) for this research.

4.7.1 Validation Test of the Structural Model

In examining the structural model, the attention is on the proposed hypotheses that reflect the relationships between the latent variables. The purpose is assessing whether the data support the proposed conceptualisation.

The Normed-Chi square (χ^2/df) is 1.52; the Goodness of Fit Indices (GFI) is 0.98; the Comparative Fit Indices (CFI) is 0.99; and the Root Means Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is 0.042. These values all reached an acceptable level, indicating that the overall fitness of the model was sufficient (Schreiber et al., 2006). The table 4.6 below displays the model fit indices for structural models in relation to the acceptable fit indices recommended by scholars.

Table 4.6 – Model fit indices for the structural model

Model Fit Indices	Recommended Values	Authors	Structural Model
(χ^2/df)	≤ 3	Hayduk (1987)	1.523
GFI	≥ 0.90	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)	0.988
CFI	≥ 0.90	Bagozzi and Yi (1980)	0.993
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	Hair et al., (1998)	0.042

The hypotheses for this study were examined using the critical ratio (C.R.) that denotes the parameter estimate divided by its standard error (S.E). It functions as a z-statistic (t-Value) in testing that the estimate is statistically different from zero, based on a 0.05 confidence level. According to Byrne (2001) in order for the relationship to be significant the critical ratio of the test must exceed+1.96.

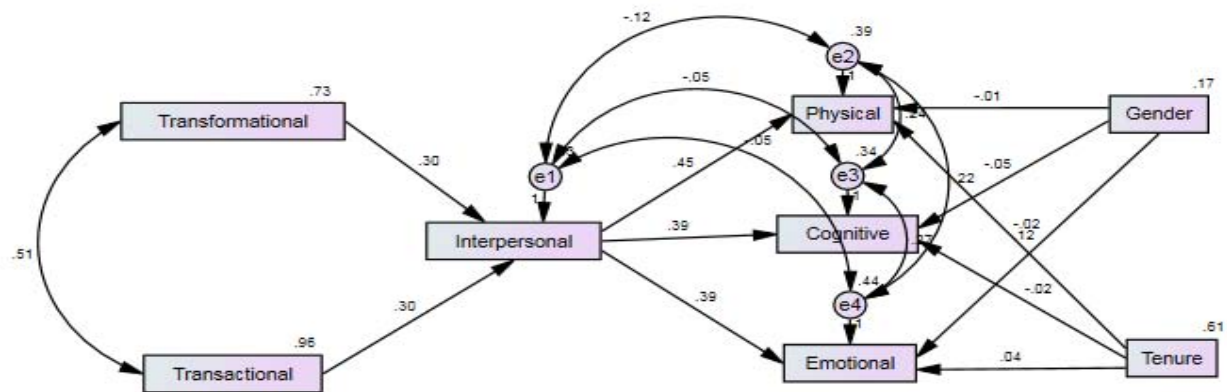


Figure 4.2. The structural Model

4.8 Testing of Hypotheses

H₁. There is a relationship between women leadership styles and subordinate engagement

To determine the relationship between leadership styles and subordinate engagement, a linear regression analysis was performed. The result from table 4.7 below shows that there is a significant relationship between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and employee engagement without the control variables ($\beta = .352^{***}$). Leadership styles explains 12% of the variance in employee engagement. Also, when leadership styles should increase by a percentage, employee engagement will increase by 35.2 % holding all factors constant.

However, when the control variables (gender and tenure) were introduced in the second table 4.8, leadership style was still significant at a higher value ($\beta = .354^{***}$). All the variables explains 13% variance when the control variables were introduced. If leadership styles should increase by a percentage, employee engagement will increase by 35.4% holding age and tenure constant. This shows control variables (gender and tenure) significantly affect employee engagement.

Table 4.7: Predicting Employee Engagement (EE) from Leadership Styles

	β	R ²	F-Test	Adjusted R ²
Leadership Style	.352***	.124	42.487***	.122

*Significant at ***p-value <0.01 **p-value <0.05 *p-value <0.10*

Table 4.8: Predicting Employee Engagement (EE) from Leadership Styles

	β	R ²	F-Test	Adjusted R ²
Tenure	- .010	- .178		
Gender	.028	.074		
Leadership Style	.354***	.126	14.177***	.117

*Significant at *** p-value < 0.01 **p-value <0.05 *p-value <0.10*

4.8.1 Tests for Mediations

The Baron and Kenny (1986) method was used to test whether the mediator (interpersonal communication) fully or partially mediated between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and the three dimensions of employee engagement (physical, emotional and cognitive).

H₂ Interpersonal communication mediates physical employee engagement and transactional leadership style.

In using this the Baron and Kenny approach, some three conditions must be met:

- i. Regress the mediator (interpersonal communication) on the independent variable (transactional leadership style) which must be significant in model 1 (0.60***)

- ii. Regress the dependent variable (physical employee engagement) on the transactional leadership style which must also be significant in model 2 (0.29***).
- iii. Regress the physical employee engagement which is the dependent variable on both transactional leadership style and interpersonal communication.

If the value in model 3 (0.18*) is significant and is less than in model 2 (0.29**), there is partial mediation.

It can be concluded from table 4.9 that, interpersonal communication partially mediates with transactional leadership style and physical employee engagement.

Table 4.9: Mediating effect of IPC on TSL and PEE

Variable	Model 1 (IPC)	Model 2 (PEE)	Model 3(PEE)
TSL	0.60***	0.29***	0.18*
IPC	-	-	0.18*

Note: Transactional Leadership Style (TSL), Interpersonal communication (IPC) and Physical Employee Engagement (PEE).

*Significant at ***p-value <0.01 **p-value <0.05 *p-value <0.10*

H₃ Interpersonal communication mediates cognitive employee engagement and transactional leadership style.

The same three conditions of the Baron and Kenny method was applied here in the second hypothesis.

The value in model 3 (0.14*) is significant and is less than in the model 2 (0.31**), according to the Baron and Kenny (1986), there is partial mediation.

The researcher concludes from table 4.10 that, there is a partial mediation of the mediator (interpersonal communication) on the independent variable (transactional leadership style) and the dependent variable (cognitive employee engagement).

Table 4.10: Mediating effect of IPC on TSL and CEE

Variable	Model 1 (IPC)	Model 2 (CEE)	Model 3(CEE)
TSL	0.60***	0.31***	0.14**
IPC	-	-	0.29***

Note: Transactional Leadership Style (TSL), Interpersonal communication (IPC) and Cognitive Employee Engagement (CEE).

*Significant at ***p-value <0.01 **p-value <0.05 *p-value <0.10.*

H4 Interpersonal communication mediates emotional employee engagement and transactional leadership style.

The same conditions were run to achieve the result for hypothesis four.

The value in model 3 (0.05) is less than in model 2(0.22**) but the value in model 2 though less is not significant as in table 4.11, according to the Baron and Kenny (1986), there is full mediation when the value in model 2 is lesser than in model 3 and is also not significant.

Conclusively, interpersonal communication mediates fully the relation between transactional leadership style and emotional employee engagement.

Table 4.11: Mediating effect of IPC on TSL and EEE

Variable	Model 1 (IPC)	Model 2 (EEE)	Model 3(EEE)
TSL	0.60***	0.22***	0.05
IPC	-	-	0.30***

Note: Transactional Leadership Style (TSL), Interpersonal communication (IPC) and Emotional Employee Engagement (PEE).

*Significant at ***p-value <0.01 **p-value<0.05 *p-value<0.10*

H5 Interpersonal communication mediates physical employee engagement and transformational leadership style.

There is a partial mediation between the mediator, interpersonal communication on transformational leadership style and physical employee engagement. This is because the independent variable significantly predicted less in model 3 (0.26*) and is significant than in

model 2 (0.34*) as seen in table 4.12. This means that only part of the effect of transformational leadership style goes through interpersonal communication.

Table 4.12: Mediating effect of ICP on TFL and PEE

Variable	Model 1 (IPC)	Model 2 (PEE)	Model 3(PEE)
TFL	0.56***	0.34***	0.26***
IPC	-	-	0.15**

Note: Transformational Leadership Style (TFL), Interpersonal communication (IPC) and Physical Employee Engagement (PEE).

Significant at *p-value <0.01 **p-value<0.05 *P-value <0.10**

H₆ Interpersonal communication mediates cognitive employee engagement and transformational leadership style.

In applying three conditions in the Baron and Kenny method of testing mediation, the analysis confirms that the value in model 2 (0.24***) is greater than the value in model 3 (0.05***) in table 4.13, there is a partial mediation between the mediator, interpersonal communication on transformational leadership style and cognitive employee engagement because the value in model 3 (0.05***) was lesser than in model 2 (0.24***) and is also significant. In other words, transformational leadership style partly goes through interpersonal communication to influence cognitive employee engagement.

Table 4.13: Mediating effect of ICP on TFL and CEE

Variable	Model 1 (IPC)	Model 2 (CEE)	Model 3(CEE)
TFL	0.56***	0.24***	0.05**
IPC	-	-	0.34***

Note: Transformational Leadership Style (TFL), Interpersonal communication (IPC) and Cognitive Employee Engagement (CEE).

Significant at *p-value<0.01 **p-value<0.05 *p-value<0.10**

H7 Interpersonal communication mediates emotional employee engagement and transformational leadership style.

There is a partial mediation between the mediator, interpersonal communication on transformational leadership style and emotional employee engagement. This is because the independent variable significantly predicted less in model 3 (0.11*) and is significant than in model 2 (0.26***) as seen in table 4.14. This means that only part of the effect of transformational leadership style goes through interpersonal communication to influence emotional employee engagement.

Table 4.14: Mediating effect of IPC on TFL and EEE

Variable	Model 1 (IPC)	Model 2 (EEE)	Model 3(EEE)
TFL	0.56***	0.26***	0.11*
IPC	-	-	0.26***

Note: Transformational Leadership Style (TFL), Interpersonal communication (IPC) and Emotional Employee Engagement (EEE).

Significant at * p -value<0.01 ** p -value<0.05 * p -value<0.10**

Table 4.15: Results from the Baron and Kenny mediation approach

The mediation role of IPC	Results
H ₂ TSL→PEE	Partial
H ₃ TSL→CEE	Partial
H ₄ TSL→EEE	Full
H ₅ TFL→PEE	Partial
H ₆ TFL→CEE	Partial
H ₇ TFL→EEE	Partial

After the Baron and Kenny (1986) method of mediation was used, the bootstrapping method was used to reinforce the Baron and Kenny (1986) method and to significantly find out the indirect role of the mediator on the predictor and outcome variables.

The bootstrap method was used to test the indirect effect of interpersonal communication on leadership styles and the three dimensions of subordinate engagement. The biased corrected

(BC) bootstrap confidence interval (CI) was used over the percentile CIs because the bias correction method improves power and type 1 error rates (Mackinnon et al., 2004).

The bootstrap method was used to create confident intervals (CIs). The path from transactional leadership style to physical employee engagement is mediated by interpersonal communication CI (0.14, 0.29) and is significant (0.21, p-value <0.01). The path from transactional leadership style to cognitive employee engagement is mediated by interpersonal communication CI (0.10, 0.27) and is significant (0.18, p-value <0.01). Again, the path from transactional leadership style to emotional employee engagement is mediated by interpersonal communication CI (0.09, 0.24) and is significant (0.16, p-value <0.01).

Under the transformational leadership style, the path from the independent variable (i.e. transformational leadership style) to the dependent variable (physical employee engagement) is mediated by interpersonal communication CI (0.10, 0.27) and is significant at (0.18, p-value <0.01). The path from transformational leadership style to cognitive employee engagement is mediated by interpersonal communication CI (0.10, 0.24) and is significant (0.16, p-value <0.01) and finally, the path from transformational leadership style to emotional employee engagement is mediated with interpersonal communication CI (0.07, 0.22) and is significant at (0.14, p-value <0.01). Table 4.16 and 4.17 show the results of the tested hypotheses.

Table 4.16: Bootstrapping test of significance of mediation effects at 95% CI

Relationship	Effect	Estimates	Percentile Bootstrapping			Bias corrected Bootstrapping		
			LLCI	ULCI	Sig.	LLCI	ULCI	Sig.
TSL→IPC→PEE	Indirect	0.21	0.13	0.28	0.000	0.14	0.29	0.000
TSL→IPC→CEE	Indirect	0.18	0.10	0.27	0.000	0.10	0.27	0.000
TSL→IPC→EEE	Indirect	0.16	0.09	0.24	0.000	0.09	0.24	0.000
TFL→IPC→PEE	Indirect	0.18	0.10	0.27	0.000	0.10	0.27	0.000
TFL→IPC→CEE	Indirect	0.16	0.09	0.23	0.000	0.10	0.24	0.000
TFL→IPC→EEE	Indirect	0.14	0.07	0.22	0.000	0.07	0.22	0.000

Note: LLCI-Lower level confidence interval, ULCI-Upper level confidence interval

TSL-Transactional leadership style, TFL-Transformational leadership style, IPC-interpersonal communication, PEE-Physical Employee Engagement, CEE-Cognitive Employee Engagement, EEE-Emotional employee engagement.

Table 4.17: Summary results of bootstrapping mediation

Mediation role of IPC on	Indirect Effect	Hypotheses
H2 TSL→ PEE	Significant	Supported
H3 TSL→CEE	Significant	Supported
H4 TSL→EEE	Significant	Supported
H5 TFL→PEE	Significant	Supported
H6 TFL→CEE	Significant	Supported
H7 TFL→EEE	Significant	Supported

Note: TSL-Transactional leadership style, TFL-Transformational leadership style, IPC-interpersonal communication, PEE-Physical Employee Engagement, CEE-Cognitive Employee Engagement, EEE-Emotional employee engagement.

4.9 Conceptual Frameworks for the study

4.9.1 Conceptual Framework before analysis

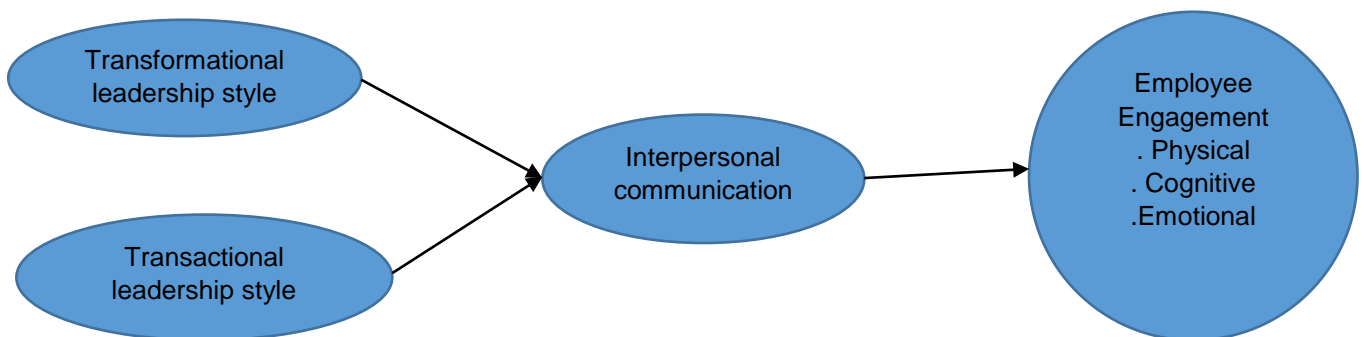


Figure 4.3: Conceptual Model before hypotheses

4.9.2 Conceptual Framework after analysis

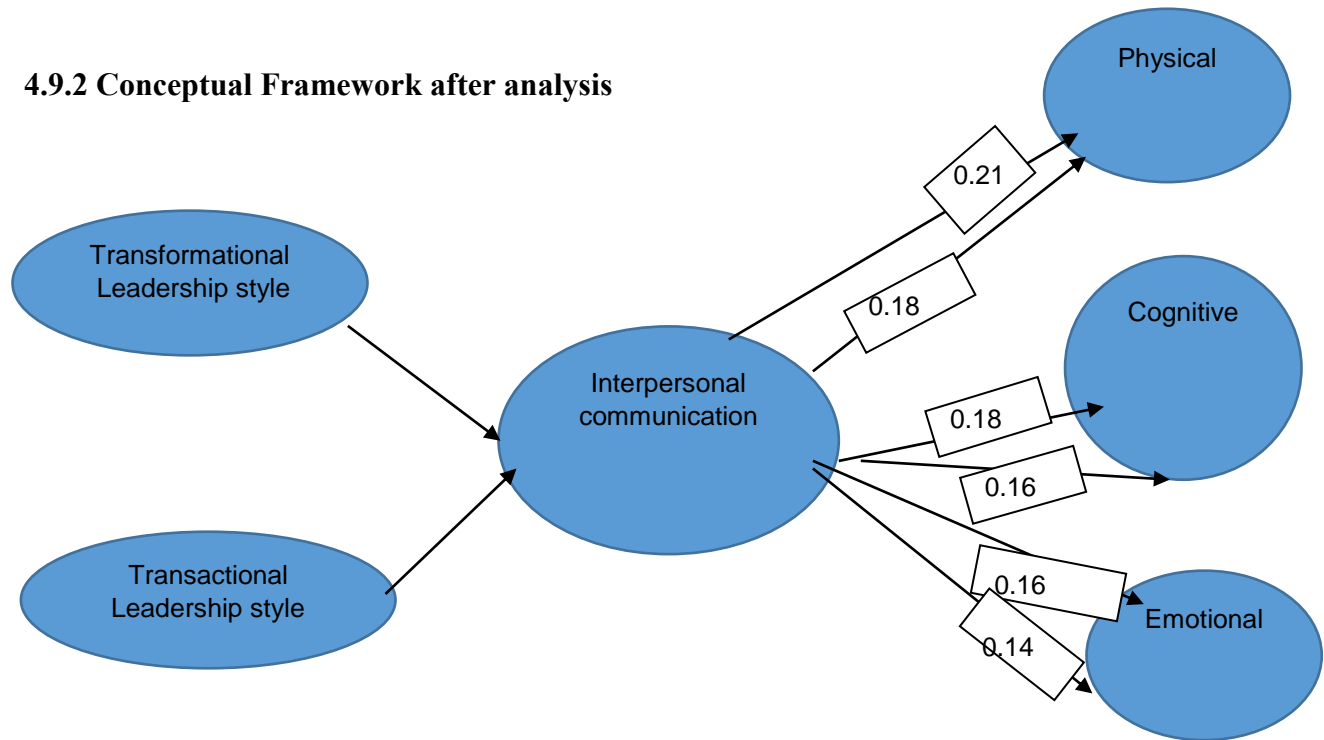


Figure 4.4: Final Conceptual Framework

4.10 Discussion of Findings

The first research question is to determine the extent to which women leadership styles help to engage subordinates in the health sector of Ghana and the first hypothesis to answer this question looks at the relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement. Result from the study shows that there is a significant relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement (β value 0.354, p -value =0.00). This supports previous studies which found that leadership styles have a significant relationship with employee engagement (Cheng, Chang, Kuo & Cheung, 2014; Hansen et al., 2014; Papalexandris & Galanaki, 2009; Xu & Thomas, 2011; Zhang et al, 2014a, Zhabg et al., 2014b). The relationship between female leadership styles and subordinates' engagement is significant because leaders create the supporting environment for their employees to be engaged in their work. According to Bates (2004), the role of the direct supervisor is regarded as significant in driving engagement (Bates, 2004).

For example, when an immediate supervisor provides opportunities for development and plays her supervisory roles and give some form of autonomy to employees, the employees feel obliged to repay leaders with higher levels of organisational commitment, citizenship behaviours (Bhal, 2006), innovation (Basu & Green, 1997; Scott & Bruce, 1998), competency (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), and trust (Bauer & Green, 1996). Another way for individuals to reciprocate is through engagement where they approach their work with greater vigour, dedication and absorption (Saks, 2006).

The second research question looks at whether interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transactional leadership styles and the three dimensions of employee engagement (i.e. physical, emotional and cognitive). The second, third and fourth hypotheses found a significant relationship with interpersonal communication between transactional leadership styles and physical, emotional and cognitive employee engagement.

The transactional leadership style has been associated with the antecedents of limited communication, low trust and integrity, boring job, low effective and supportive direct supervisors, low career advancement opportunities, low contribution to organizational success and low supportive colleagues/team members, all of which predict low employee engagement (Zhang et al., 2014b). However, this study found a significant relationship of transactional leadership style of women on the physical, emotional and cognitive engagement of their subordinates through interpersonal communication. This shows how important interpersonal communication is to the engagement of subordinates in the health sector.

Men and Hung-Baesecke (2015), confirmed the importance of interpersonal communication by revealing in their study that the interpersonal factor in employee communication shows strong positive influence on employee better engaged. When leaders with transactional qualities

communicates with their subordinates on their work activities, the employees will be engaged. This is because high need for clarity (through communication) according to Zhang et al (2014b), is associated with transactional leadership style than others (e.g. visionary and organic leadership styles) and the high need of clarity made the employee to be cognitively engaged. This means that when the roles of the health worker is clarified, when feedback on performance is given and the health worker under the transactional leadership style of a woman is made to participate in decision making, the employee will be engaged in the work.

When the female supervisor under transactional leadership style uses interpersonal communication, the health worker becomes fully present (thus physical engagement) on his/her roles at the workplace whether alone or in a team. Aside the worker being physically engaged, they become cognitively engaged by being attentive and focused and also become emotionally engaged, when they become connected to their work and others. That is the employee physically brings the hands, emotionally bring the heart and cognitively bring the head (Ashforth & Humphrey, 2005) when coming to work. In other words, when the employee is engaged, the employee brings the full being to work.

The last research question looks at whether interpersonal communication will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership styles and the three dimensions of employee engagement (i.e. physical, emotional and cognitive). The fifth, sixth and seven hypotheses sees a significant relationship of interpersonal communication on transformational leadership style and employee engagement. Therefore, the view that interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between a female supervisor using the transformational leadership style and the three dimensions of employee engagement were supported.

When supervisors engage in high interpersonal relationship (in the form of leader-member exchange) with their subordinates, they provide job resource (in the form of interpersonal communication). Subordinates then reciprocate the interpersonal relationship from their leaders with engagement (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005).

The transformational leadership style is noted for effective communication which builds trust in members, such leaders also support their members and provide appropriate feedback (Jahansoozi, 2006; Rawlin, 2008). Communication in the hospitals, in the clinic and the polyclinics is used to give orders, assign tasks, provide instructions and directions, inform employees of job procedures and policies, point out problems that need attention, and offer feedback on employees' past performance (Robbins et al. 2010; Greenberg & Baron 2008).

When the subordinates are given directions on how to go about their daily activities, they become physically present on the job, cognitively, they focused their attention on what needs to be done and they emotionally get connected on the work and offer helping hands to other colleagues in providing medical care and any other help which goes to see to the care and wellbeing of the patients. According to Beh and Loo (2012), health workers become disillusioned, stressed and disengaged from work when communication is insufficient and not timely.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The concluding chapter of the study provides a summary, conclusions and outlines the recommendations for the study. The chapter also highlights the implication for theory and directions for future research.

5.1 Summary of the study

This study examined the subordinate engagement through women leadership styles in the health sector of Ghana, using interpersonal communication as a mediating variable. The study sought to find answers to the following research questions- (a.) Does women leadership styles help to engage subordinates in the health sector of Ghana? (b.) Will interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transactional leadership style and subordinates engagement? (c.) Will interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and subordinates engagement?

In order to answer the above research questions, the study reviewed existing literature on leadership styles, employee engagement and interpersonal communication. Theories that underpinned the study was also dealt with. A conceptual model was developed from the various concepts and hypotheses were also formulated. The study adopted a quantitative study approach and the cross-sectional research design was used to collect data. Cross sectional design was used because it was suitable for estimating the prevalence of behaviour in a population (Sedgwick, 2014) at a point in time. Six health facilities were sampled in Accra- three hospitals, one clinic

and two polyclinics through the stratified sampling method. Women who played supervisory roles and their subordinates in the sampled health facilities were purposively sampled. Three hundred and fifty (350) structured questionnaires were sent out and three hundred (300) valid questionnaires were retrieved in a span of twelve weeks. Questionnaires were the main source of primary data.

Furthermore, data was analysed using the covariance based structured modelling to test the hypothesised relationship between the constructs. Regression was used to test for the first hypothesis and demographics were descriptively analysed. The analysis was performed using the Predictive Analytical or the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software version 20.0 and Analysis of moment structure (Amos) version 22.0. However, before data was analysed, preliminary analyses were performed to assess missing values, outlier and data normality.

The findings from the study answers these research questions: a.) Does women leadership styles help to engage subordinates in the health sector of Ghana? (b.) Will interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transactional leadership style and subordinates engagement? (c.) Will interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and subordinates engagement?

The findings from the study revealed that women leadership style has a significant relationship on subordinates' engagement. Also, interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transactional leadership style of women on their subordinates' physical, cognitive and emotional engagement. Interpersonal communication again mediates the relationship between transformational leadership styles of women on their subordinates' physical, cognitive and emotional engagement in the health sector of Ghana.

5.2 Conclusions

From the analysis of the data gathered from the field and the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

Leadership (transactional and transformational) styles of women influence subordinates' engagement. This is because leaders create the necessary environment for their subordinates to be better engaged in. They do this by developing constructive interaction, strong relationship and showing supportive behaviours to their subordinates. One way of interacting with their subordinates, showing strong affection and showing other supportive behaviours is through interpersonal communication.

Interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transactional leadership style of women playing supervisory roles and the subordinates' engagement. Before subordinates become engaged, they must be present physically on the job. During this stage, the employee might need directions and instructions on how the work should be performed and might also point out those problems that needs attention. Interpersonal communication which gives an instant feedback between the leader and the subordinate can make it possible for the transactional leader to provide the instruction and direction for the work. This makes the subordinates to be physically engaged where he/she has greater influence on the job.

Interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transactional leadership style of women and the cognitive engagement of their subordinates. Transactional leadership style is noted for clarifying job roles of their subordinates in order for them to perform for the exchange process to be complete. The clarifying of job roles or work expectations through communication have been noted for the cognitive engagement of subordinates.

Interpersonal communication mediates the relationship of women in supervisory positions and subordinate emotional engagement. Again, when at the initial stage of work, employees roles are clarified, they are given direction and instructions on how to perform their work and problems that arise are pointed out to the transactional leader, the subordinates becomes emotional engaged by quickly adjusting to the work, step outside the normal routine and become more productive. Therefore, when an employee achievement is recognised as part of the overall organisational achievement, the subordinate identifies with the company which makes him/her involved in the organisational activities.

The study concludes that interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transformational leadership of women and the physical subordinate's engagement. Transformational leaders transform the personal values of followers to support the vision and goals of the organisation by fostering an environment where relationships can be formed. The forming of such relationship establishes a climate of trust where employees can take initiatives and other forms of risks that helps in achieving the organisational goals. Women who use the transformational leadership style, alter their subordinates' interest, values and morale to the group vision so that subordinate can perform. By communicating an exciting vision of the future to subordinates, employees get to understand how their individual goals contribute to the overall goals of the organisation. Such employees become physically engaged on their work.

Interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and the cognitive engagement of subordinates. Interpersonal communication builds relationship between women supervisors who practice transformational leadership style and their subordinates. This supervisor-employee relationship helps the employee get more job resources from the supervisor which enhances their engagement on the job. During this relationship, the

subordinate attached meaning to their work and feel safe physically because of the job resources from the supervisor.

Interpersonal communication mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and the emotional engagement of subordinates. As the female supervisor creates a communicative environment, the subordinates create their own emotional resources such as optimism, self-efficacy and self-esteem to be engaged on the work.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the conclusions from the study, the following recommendations were outlined:

There is a growing concern that human resource management practices like communication can produce positive outcome in the health sector. Indeed, communication among workers in the various health facilities is vital as workers in the health facilities become disillusioned, stress out and disengaged from insufficient and late communication. Hence, supervisor should communicate to their employees on work instructions and directions through clear line medium of communication.

This study can assist supervisors of these health facilities to know where to focus their efforts. The use of interpersonal communication per the findings from this study, is noted to enhance subordinates' physical, cognitively and emotional engagement. Much efforts should therefore be centered on communication. The leader who communicates with the workers must ensure the subordinates understand what was communicated through the use of feedback.

Although transactional leadership style is noted for limited communication and low level of employee engagement in previous studies, this study found that, interpersonal communication indirectly mediates the relationship between transactional leadership style and engagement of

employees. Thus when supervisors who practice transactional leader style communicate more with their subordinates, it will enhance their engagement levels on the job. This can better strengthens the exchange relationship between them. Women who practice transactional leadership styles should combine the use of more interpersonal communication together with their other behaviours to get the best out from their employees.

5.4 Implication for Theory and Practice

Engagement is often described as a multi-dimensional constructs including physical, emotional and cognitive engagement (Kahn, 1990). A limited number of studies have found varying effects of the different dimensions of engagement (see Brit et al., 2001; Luring & Selmer, 2014), this study adds to the limited literature on the dimensions of employee engagement by examining how leadership style through interpersonal communication mediates the three dimensions of engagement thus physical, emotional and cognitive engagement.

Also, most studies focus on the use of the transformational leadership style (Salanova et al., 2011; Tims et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2009; Wefald et al., 2011) and how it influence employee engagement. The study contributes to literature by investigating how women transactional leadership style enhances the subordinate engagement through interpersonal communication.

5.5 Limitation of the study and Directions for future research

No study is without limitations and this often highlights the need for future research. The study is purely quantitative and the sample from the study is limited to cross-sectional design, which prevent the use of causal inferences. Method of data collection would have introduce some systematic bias like common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The study minimises this

by taking a procedural approach where participants' anonymity was assured and carrying out the study using six health institutions. Future studies can consider a longitudinal studies where mixed methods can be used to overcome the limitation of the quantitative method.

Mediation models contain causal path which is affected by the passage of time, using cross-sectional design can produce biased estimates (Aguinis, Edwards & Bradley, 2016). Future studies can overcome this by examining mediation through longitudinal data that will allow for comparing alternatives causal flow.

REFERENCES

- Abu Bhakar, H., Dilbeck, K. E., & McCroskey, J. C. (2010). Mediating role of supervisory communication practices on relations between leader–member exchange and perceived employee commitment to workgroup *Communication Monographs*, 77, 637–656.
- Abugre, J. B. (2010). Essentials of employee communication; empirical evidence for theoretical and managerial practice. Saarbrucken, Germany: Lambert GmbH & Co.
- Abugre, J. B. (2012). How managerial interaction affect employees' work output in Ghanaian organizations. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, 3(2), 204–226.
- Agarwal, U. A., Datta, S., Beard, S. B., & Bhargava, S. (2012). Linking LMX, innovative work behaviour and turnover intentions: The mediating role of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 17(3), 208-230. doi: doi:10.1108/13620431211241063.
- Aguinis, H., Edwards, J. R., & Bladley, K.L. (2016). Improving our understanding on moderation and mediation in strategic management research. *Organisational Research Methods*, 1-21.
- Aina, L. O. (2002). *Research in Information Science: An African perspective* (Vol. 23). Ibadan, Lagos: Stealing-Horden Publishers (Nig) Ltd.
- Alan, C., Mikkelson, J. A., York, & Arritola, J. (2015). Communication Competence, Leadership Behaviours, and Employee Outcomes in Supervisor-Employee Relationships *Business and Professional Communication Quarterly*

- Aldoory, L., & Toth, E. L. (2004). Leadership and Gender in Public Relations: Perceived Effectiveness of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 16*, 157-184.
- Allen, G. S., Attner, R. F., & Plunkett, W. R. (2007). *Management*, South Western Publication.
- Amaratunga, D., Baldry, D., Sarshar, M., & Newton, R. (2002). Quantitative and qualitative research in built environment: application of mixed resource approach. *Work study, 51*(1), 17-31.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modelling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological bulletin, 103*(3), 411
- Anitha, J. (2014). Determinants of employee engagement and their impact on employee performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management, 63*(3), 308-323. doi: doi:10.1108/IJPPM-01-2013-0008.
- Ariani, D.W. (2013). The relationship between employee engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour. *International Journal of Business Administration, 4*(2).
- Arnold, K. A., Turner, N., Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & McKee, M. (2007). Transformational leadership and well-being: The mediating role of meaningful work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*, 193-203.
- Aron, A., & Aron, E. N. (1999). *Statistics for psychology* (2ndEd.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Aryee, S., Walumbwa, F. O., Zhou, Q., & Hartnell, C. A. (2012). Transformational leadership, innovative behaviour, and task performance: test of mediation and moderation processes. *Human Performance, 25*(1), 1-25.

- Ashforth, B. E., & Humphrey, R. H. (1995). Emotion in the workplace: A reappraisal. *Human Relations*, 48: 97–125.
- As-Sadeq, H.A. & Khoury, G.C. (2006), Leadership styles in the Palestinian large-scale industrial enterprises. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(9), 832-849.
- Attridge, M. (2009). Measuring and managing employee work engagement: a review of the research and business literature. *Journal of Workplace Behavioural Health*, 24(4), 383-398.
- Avery, G. C. (2004). *Understanding Leadership: Paradigms and Cases*. London : Sage.
- Avolio, B. (1999). *Full Leadership Development: Building the Vital Forces in Organisation*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1991). *The Full Range Leadership Development Programmes: Basic and Advanced Manuals*. Binghamton, NY: Bass, Avolio & Associates.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire: Third edition manual and sampler set*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
- Avolio, B.J., Gardner, W.L., Walumbwa, F.O., Luthans, F., & May, D.R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders' impact follower attitudes and behaviours. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 801- 823.
- Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current Theories, Research, and Future Directions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60, 421-449.
- Awad, T. A., & Alhashemi, S. E. (2012). Assessing the effect of interpersonal communications on employees' commitment and satisfaction. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management*, 5(2), 134 – 156.

- Babbie, E. (1990). *Survey Research Methods* (2nd Ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Babcock-Roberson, M., & Strickland, O. J. (2010). The relationship between charismatic leadership, work engagement, and organisational citizenship behaviours. *The Journal of Psychology*, 144, 313-326.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1998). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, 16(1), 74-94.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands-Resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22, 309-328.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 13(3), 209-223.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2014). Job demands-resources theory In C. Cooper & P. E. Chen (Eds.), *Wellbeing: A complete Reference Guide* (pp. 37-64.). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Bakker, A. B., Hakanen, J. J., & Demerouti, E. (2006). *Job Resources Boost Work Engagement, Particularly When Job Demands are high*. [Manuscript submitted for publication].
- Bakker, A. B., Hakanen, J. J., Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou. (2007). Job resources boost work engagement, particularly when job demands are high. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99, 274-284.
- Bakker, A.B., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2009). The crossover of daily work engagement: Test of an actor-partner interdependence model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 1562-1571.
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human Resource Management*, 43, 83- 104.

- Bakker, A.B., Albrecht, S.L. & Leiter, M.P. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 20(1), 4-28.
- Bakker A. B, Demerouti E., & Ten-Brummelhuis L. L. (2012a). Work engagement, performance, and active learning: the role of conscientiousness. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80, 555–64.
- Bakker, A.B., Schaufeli, W.B., Leiter, M.P., & Taris, T.W. (2008). Work engagement: An emerging concept in occupational health psychology. *Work & Stress*, 22, 187-200.
- Bales, R. F. (1950). *Interaction Process Analysis: A Method for the Study of Small Groups*. Cambridge, Mass: Addison-Wesley.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Barge, J. K. (1994). *Leadership: Communication Skills for Organisations and Groups*. New York, NY: St Martin's Press.
- Barge, J. K., & Hirokawa, R. Y. (1989). Toward a communication competency model of group leadership. *Small Group Behaviour*, 20(2), 167-189.
- Barling, J., Slater, F., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 21(3), 157-165.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Free Press.

- Bass, B. M. (1998a). The ethics of transformational leadership. In J. Ciulla (Ed.), *Ethics: The heart of leadership* (pp. 169–192). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Bass, B. M. (1990a). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, & managerial applications* (3 Ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1990b). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organisational Dynamics*, 18, 19-31.
- Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 8, 9-32.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team, and organisational development. In R.W. Woodman & W.A. Pasmore (Eds.), *Research in organisational change and development*, 4, 231-272. Greenwich, GT: JAI Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bass, B.M., and Avolio, B.J. (1995). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*, Mind Garden, .Palo Alto CA.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). *Full Range Leadership Development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. California: Mindgarden, Palo Alto.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). *MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Redwood City: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 207–218.
- Basu, R., & Green, S. G. (1997). Leader-member exchange and transformational leadership: an empirical examination of innovative behaviours in leader-member dyads. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 27(6), 477-499.
- Bates, S. (2004). Getting engaged. *HR Magazine*, 49, 44-51.
- Bauer, T.N. & Green, S.G. (1996). Development of leader-member exchange: a longitudinal test. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 1538-1567.
- Baumruk, R. (2004). The missing link: the role of employee engagement in business success. *Workspan*, 47, 48-52.
- Baumruk, R., Gorman, J., B, Gorman, R. E., & Ingham, J. (2006). Why managers are crucial to increasing engagement. *Strategic HR Review*, 5(2), 24-27.
- Beehr, T. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. (1990). Social support and occupational stress: talking to supervisors. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour* 36(1), 61-81.
- Beh, L., & Loo, L. (2012). Job stress and coping mechanisms among nursing staff in public health services. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science*, 2(7), 131-177.
- Bellou, V. (2011). "Do women prefer a difference leadership style than men? *The Internatioal Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(13), 2818-2833.
- Benbasat I, D, G., & M, M. (1987). The Case Research Strategy in Studies of Information Systems.

- Benner, M. J., & Tushman, M. L. (2003). Exploitation, exploration and process management: The productivity dilemma revisited. *Academy of Management Review*, 28, 238-256.
- Bennett, T. M., & (2009). A study of the management leadership style preferred by IT subordinates. *Journal of Organisational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, 13(2), 1-26.
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Bentler, P. M., & Wu, E. J. C. (2005). *EQS 6.1 for Windows user's guide*. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.
- Berger, C. R., & Calabrese, R. J. (1975). Some Exploration in Initial Interaction and Beyond: Toward a Developmental Theory of Communication. *Human Communication Research*, 1, 99–112.
- Bhal, K.T. (2006). LMX-citizenship behaviour relationship: justice as a mediator. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 27(2), 106 – 117.
- Bhaskar, R. (1978). *Realist Theory of Science*. Coleshill: Wheatsheaf, Harvester.
- Bhatnagar, J. (2007). Talent management strategy of employee engagement in Indian ITES employees: Key to retention. *Employee Relations*, 29(6), 640–663.
- Bindl, U. K., & Parker, S. K. (2010). Feeling good and performing well? Psychological engagement and positive behaviours at work. In S. L. A. (Ed.), *Handbook of employee engagement: Perspectives, issues, research and practice*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Blake, R., & McCauley, A. (1991). *Leadership Dilemmas -Grid Solutions*. Houston: Gulf Publishing.

- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and Power in Social Life*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Blunch, N. (2008). *Introduction to structural equation modelling using SPSS and AMOS*: Sage.
- Blundel, R. (2004). *Effective Organisational Communication: Perspectives, Principles and Practices* (2nd Ed.). Harlow: Financial Times / Prentice Hall.
- Bolden, R., & Gosling, J. (2006). Leadership competencies: time to change the tune? *Leadership*, 2(2), 147–163.
- Bollen, K. A., & Stine, R. (1990). Direct and indirect effects: Classical and bootstrap estimates of variability. *Sociological Methodology*, 20, 115-140.
- Bono, J. E., & Judg, T. A. (2004). Personality and Transformational and Transactional Leadership: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 909-910.
- Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. (1966). Predicting organisational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 11(2), 238-263.
- Boyatzis, R. (1982). *The Competent Manager*. New York, NY: Wiley- Interscience.
- Breevaart, K., Bakker, A. B., Hetland, J., & Hetland, H. (2014). The influence of constructive and destructive leadership behaviours on follower burnout. In M. P. Leiter, A. B. Bakker & C. E. Maslach (Eds.), *Burnout at work: A psychological perspective* (pp. 102-121). New York: Psychology Press.
- Brenner, O. C., Tomkiewicz, J., & Schein, V. (1989). The relationship between sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics revisited. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 662-669.
- Britt, T. W., McKibben, E. S., Greene-Shortridge, T. M., Odle-Dusseau, H. N., & Herleman, H. A. (2012). Self-engagement moderates the mediated relationship between organizational

- constraints and organizational citizenship behaviors via rated leadership. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 8, 1830-1840.
- Brown, J. D. (2001). *Using surveys in language programs*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Brunetto, Y. & Farr-Wharton, R. (2004). Does the talk affect your decision to walk: a comparative pilot study examining the effect of communication practices on employee commitment post-managerialism. *Management Decision*, 42(3/4), 579-600.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods* (2nd Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burke, R. J., & Ng, E. S. W. (2006). The changing nature of work and organizations: Implications for human resource management *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 86 – 94.
- Burke, W. W. (2002). *Organisation change: Theory and Practice*. Thousands Oaks: Sage.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Transformational leadership; in leadership*. New York: Firrst Harper Paperback.
- Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 468-478.
- Byrne, B. M. (2001). Structural equation modelling with AMOS, EQS, and LISREL: Comparative approaches to testing for the factorial validity of a measuring instrument. *International journal of testing*, 1(1), 55-86.
- Byrne, B.M. (2010). *Structural equation modelling with AMOS*, (2nd Ed.). New York: Routledge.

- Byrne, B. M. (2013). *Structural equation modelling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. New York: Routledge.
- Cameron, G. T., & McCollum, T. (1993). Competing corporate cultures: A multi-method, cultural analysis of the role of internal communication. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 5, 217–250.
- Cantor, D. W., & Bernay, T. (1992). *Women in Power: The Secrets of Leadership*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Carroll, A. B. (2006). Trust is the key when rating great workplaces. Retrieved July, 29, from http://onlineathens.com/stories/073006/business_20060730047.shtml
- Chalofsky, N. (2003). An emerging construct of meaningful work. *Human Resource Development International*, 6(1), 69-83.
- Cheng, J.W., Chang, S.C., Kuo, J.K., & Cheung, Y.H. (2014). Ethical leadership, work engagement and voice behaviour. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 114(5), 817 – 831.
- Chen, Z.X., Tsui, A.S. & Farh, J.L. (2002). Loyalty to supervisor vs. organisational commitment: relationships to employee performance in China. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 75(3), 339-356.
- Cheney, G. (1999). *Values at work*. Ithaca, NY: ILR Press.
- Chong, M. (2007). The role of internal communication and training in infusing corporate values and delivering brand promise: Singapore Airlines' experience. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 10(3), 201-212.

- Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. (2011). Work engagement: a quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(1), 89-136.
- CIPD. (2006). How Engaged are British Employees *Annual Survey Report*: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Cleveland, J., Stockdale, M., & Murphy, K. (2000). *Women and men in organisations: Sex and gender issues at work*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Clutterbuck, D. (2005). Communication and the psychological contract. *Journal of Communication Management, 9*(4), 359 - 364.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (5th Ed.). London: Routledge.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 386–400.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P.S. (2006). *Marketing Research*. New York: McGraw–Hill.
- Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. W. (2005). Best Practices in Exploratory Factor Analysis: Four Recommendations for Getting the Most from Your Analysis. . *Practical Assessment Research and Evaluation, 10*, 1-9.
- Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: a theoretical extension and meta-analytic test *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 834-848.
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (2 Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Creswell, John. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3rd Ed.). Los Angeles: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. (2005). Social Exchange Theory. *Interdisciplinary Review*, 31(6), 814-900.
- Czarnowsky, M. (2008). *Learning's role in employee engagement: An ASTD research Study*. Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training & Development.
- Daft, R. L. (2002). *The Leadership Experience*. Orlando, Harcourt: College Publishers.
- Daft, R. L., & Lengel, R. H. (1984). Information richness: a new approach to managerial behaviour and organizational design. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. E. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organisational behaviour* (Vol. 6, pp. 191-233). Homewood, IL: JAI Press.
- Dai, Y. D., Dai, Y. Y., Chen, K. Y., & Wu, H. C. (2013). Transformational vs transactional leadership: which is better? A study on employees of international tourist hotels in Taipei City. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(5), 760 – 778.
- Darcy, T., & Kleiner, B. H. (1991). Leadership for Change in a Turbulent Environment. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 12(5), 12-16.
- Dartey-Baah, K., Amponsah-Tawiah, K., & Sekyere-Abankwa, V. (2011). "Leadership and organisational culture:Relevance in public sector organisations in Ghana". *Business and Management Review*, 1(4), 59-65.
- De Vries, R. E., Bakker-Pieper, A., & Oostenveld, W. (2010). Leadership = Communication? The Relations of Leaders' Communication Styles with Leadership Styles, Knowledge Sharing and Leadership Outcomes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 367-380.
- DeCarlo, L. T. (1997). On the meaning and use of Kurtosis. *Psychological Methods*, 2(3), 292-307.

- Demerouti, E. (1999). Burnout: Eine Folge Konkreter Arbeitsbedingungen bei Dienstleistungs- und Produktionstätigkeiten. (Burnout: A consequence of specific working conditions among human service and production tasks). Frankfurt/Main: Lang
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 499-512.
- den Hartog, D. N., van Muijen, J. J., & Koopman, P. L. (1997). Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 70*(1), 19-34.
- Densten, I. L. (2005). The relationship between visioning behaviours of leaders and follower burnout. *British Journal of Management, 16*, 105-118.
- Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioural theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(1), 7-52.
- DeVellis, R. F. (1991). *Scale Development: theory and applications (Applied Social Research Methods Series (Vol. 26))*. Newbury Park: Sage.
- DeVon, H. A., Block, M. E., Moyle-Wright, P., Ernst, D. M., Hayden, S. J., & Lazzara, D. J. (2007). A psychometric Toolbox for testing Validity and Reliability. *Journal of nursing scholarship, 39*(2), 155-164.
- Ding, L., Velicer, W. F., & Harlow, L. L. (1995). Effects of estimation methods, number indicators per factor, and improper solutions on structural equation modelling fit indices. *Structural Equation Modelling, 2*, 119-144.

- Drath, W. (2001). *The deep blue sea: Rethinking the source of leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Druskat, V. U., & Wheeler, J. V. (2003). Managing from the boundary: The effective leadership of self-managing work teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46, 435-457.
- Dulebohn, J. H., Bommer, W. H., Liden, R. C., Brouer, R. L., & Liden, G. R. (2012). A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Consequences of Leader-Member Exchange: Integrating the Past with an Eye toward the Future. *Journal of Management*, 38, 1715-1759.
- Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2005). Assessing leadership styles and organisational context. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 20(2), 105-123.
- Dunegan, K. J., Uhl-Bien, M., & Duchon, D. (2002). LMX and subordinate performance: The moderating effects of task characteristics. *Journal of business and psychology*, 17(2), 275-285.
- Dunkel-Schetter, C., & Skokan, L. A. (1990). Determinants of social support provision in personal relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships* 7(4), 437-450.
- Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45, 735-744.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57, 781-797.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and Leadership: A Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 233-256.
- Eccles, R.G. & Nohria, N. (1991). *Beyond the hype: Rediscovering the essence of management*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

- Efron, B., & Tibshirani, R. (1985). The bootstrap method for assessing statistical accuracy. *Behaviormetrika*, 17(1), 1-35.
- Eisenberg, J. M., Bowman, C. C., & Foster, N. E. (2001). Does a Healthy Health Care Workplace Produce Higher-Quality Care? *Journal of Quality Improvement*, 27, 444-457.
- Eisenberger, R., & Stinglhamber, F. (2011). *Perceived organisational support: Fostering enthusiastic and productive employees*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organisational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(1), 51-59.
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2005). From ideal to real: A longitudinal study of the role of implicit leadership theories on leader-member exchanges and employee outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 659-676.
- Erkutlu, H. (2008). The impact of transformational leadership on organisational and leadership effectiveness: the Turkish case. *The Journal of Management Development*, 27(7), 708-726.
- Etezadi-Amoli, J., & Farhoomand, A. F. (1996). A structural model of end user computing satisfaction and user performance. *Information & management*, 30(2), 65-73.
- Etzion, D. (1984). Moderating effect of social support on the stress-burnout relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(4), 615-622.
- Fairchild, A. J., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2009). A general model for testing mediation and moderation effects. *Prevention Science*, 10, 87-99.

- Fairhurst, G. (2005). Reframing “the Art of Framing”: Problems and Prospects for Leadership. *Leadership*, 1(2), 165–85.
- Fairhurst, G. T. (2001). Dualisms in leadership research. In F. M. Jablin & L. L. Putnam (Eds.), *The New Handbook of Organisational Communication. Advances in theory, research and methods* (pp. 379-439). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fairhurst, G. T. (2011). Discursive approaches to leadership. In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson & M. E. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Leadership* (pp. 495-507). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Farndale E., & Murrer I. (2015). Job resources and employee engagement: a cross-national study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(5), 610 - 626.
- Fatimah, H., Dharmawan, A., Sunarti, E., & Affandi, M.J. (2015). The influence of communication and motivation factors on employee engagement in the generation X and Y. *International Journal of Information Technology and Business Management*, 38(1).
- Fiedler, F. E. (1996). Research on leadership selection and training: One view of the future. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 241-250
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics using SPSS*. London: Sage.
- Fields, D. (2007). Determinants of Follower Perception of a Leader's Authenticity and Integrity. *European Management Journal*, 25(3), 195-206.
- Fink, A. (1995). *How to Sample in Surveys* (Vol. 6). London: Sage Publications.
- Flauto, J. (1999). Walking the talk: The relationship between leadership and communication competence. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 6(1/2), 56-97.
- Fleming, J. H., & Asplund, J. (2007). *Human Sigma*. New York, NY: Gallup.

- Frank, F. D., Finnegan, R. P., & Taylor, C. R. (2004). The race for talent: retaining and engaging workers in the 21st Century. *Human Resource Planning*, 27(3), 12-25.
- Fraser, S., & Robinson, C. (2004). Paradigms and philosophies. In: Fraser S, Lewis V, Ding S, Kellett M & Robinson C (Eds), *Doing Research with Children and Young People* (pp. 59-78). London: Sage.
- Frazier, P. A., Tix, A. P., & Barron, K. E. (2004). Testing moderator and mediator effects in counselling psychology research. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 51, 115-134.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: the broaden-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56(3), 218-226.
- Furst, S., & Cable, D. (2003). Employee resistance to organisational change: Managerial influence tactics and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(2), 453.
- Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2005). *Authentic leadership theory and practice: Origins, effects and development* San Diego: CA: Elsevier.
- Garver, M. S., & Mentzer, J. T. L. (1999). Logistics research methods: Employing structural equation modelling to test for construct validity. *Journal of Business Logistics*, 20(1), 33-57.
- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications* (8 Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J. C. (1992). Monte Carlo evaluations of goodness of fit indices for structural equation models. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 21(2), 132-160.
- Gevedon, S. (1992). Leadership behaviours of deans of top-rated schools of nursing. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 31(5), 221-224.

- Gibbons, J. (2006). *Employee engagement: A review of current research and its implications*. New York, NY: The Conference Board.
- Gibson, C. B. (1995). An investigation of gender differences in leadership across four countries. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 26(2), 225-279.
- Gilboa, S., Shirom, A., Fried, Y., & Cooper, C. L. (2008). A meta-analysis of work demand stressors and job performance: Examining main and moderating effects. *Personnel Psychology*, 61, 227–271.
- Gillham, B. (2000). *Developing a questionnaire*. London: Continuum.
- Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, 76(1), 93-102.
- Goleman, D. (1999) *Working With Emotional Intelligence*. London, UK: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal Leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional Intelligence*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Graen, G. B. (1976). Role making process within complex organizations. In M. D. E. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial Organisational Psychology* (pp. 1201-1245.). Chicago, IL: Rand-McNally.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 219-247.
- Graham JW. (2003). Adding Missing-Data-Relevant Variables to FIML-Based Structural Equation Models. *Structural Equation Modelling*, 10(1), 80–100.

- Greenberg, J., & Baron, R.A (2008). *Behaviour in Organisations* (9th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Greenglass, E. (1993). The contribution of social support to coping strategies. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 42(4), 323-340.
- Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behaviour in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 327-347.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). London: Sage.
- Guest, D. (2014). Employee engagement: a sceptical analysis. *Journal of Organisational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 1(2), 141 - 156.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through design of work: Test of a theory. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 16, 250-279.
- Hackman, M. Z., & Johnson, C. E. (2013). *Leadership: A Communication Perspective* (6 Ed.). Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.
- Hair, J., Anderson, R., Tatham, R., & Black, W. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5th Ed.). London: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th Ed.) Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J., Black, B., Babin, B., Anderson, R., & Tatham, R. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (6th Ed.) Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

- Hair, J., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L., & G., & Kuppelwieser, V. (2014). Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) An emerging tool in business research. *European Business Review*, 26(2), 106-121.
- Hakanen, J. J., Perhoniemi, R., & Toppinen-Tanner, S. (2008). Positive gain spirals at work: From job resources to work engagement, personal initiative, and work-unit innovativeness. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 73, 78-91.
- Hakanen, J. J., Schaufeli, W. B., & Ahola, K. (2008). The Job Demands-Resources model: A three-year cross-lagged study of burnout, depression, commitment, and work engagement. *Work & Stress*, 22, 224-241.
- Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Buckley, M. R. (2004). Burnout in organisational life. *Journal of Management Services*, 30, 859-879.
- Hallberg, U. E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). "Same same" but different? Can work engagement be discriminated from job involvement and organisational commitment? *European Psychologist*, 11(2), 119-127.
- Hallstein, L. (1993). Burning out: A framework. In W.B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach & T. Mareck (Eds), *the professional burnout –recent development in theory and practice*, 93-113, New York: Hemisphere.
- Hansen, A., Byrne, Z., & Kiersch, C. (2015). Is Being Authentic Being Fair? Multilevel Examination of Authentic Leadership, Justice, and Employee Outcomes *Journal of Leadership & Organisational Studies*. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 61, 5–12.
- Hansen, A., Byrne, Z., & Kiersch, C. (2014). How interpersonal leadership relates to employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(8), 953 - 972.

- Hargie, O., Tourish, D., & Wilson, N. (2002). Communication audits and effects of increased information: a follow-up study. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 39(4), 414-436.
- Harre, R., & Madden, E. H. (1975). *Causal Powers*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(4), 695-702.
- Harter, J. k., Schmidt, F. L., & Agarwal, S. (2009). Q12 meta-analysis: the relationship between engagement at work and organisational outcome. Gallup Inc.
- Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Keyes, C. L. (2002). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: a review of the Gallup studies. In C. L. Keyes & J. E. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: The Positive Person and the Good Life* (pp. 205-224). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Hayduk, L. A. (1987). *Structural equation modelling with LISREL: Essential and advances*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Heath, R. L., & Bryant, J. (2000). *Human Communication Theory and Research. Concept, Context and Challenges*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relationships*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Hemphill, J. K., & Coons, A. E. (1957). Development of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire. In R. M. S. a. A. E. C. (Eds.) (Ed.), *Leader behaviour: Its description and measurement*. Columbus, OH: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.
- Hennessey, J. T. (1998). Reinventing Government: Does leadership make a difference? *Public Administrative Review*, 58(6), 522-532.

- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K.H. (1993). *Management of Organisational Behaviour: Utilizing Human Resources, 6th ed.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hersey, P., Blanchard, K., & Johnson, D. (2000). *The Management of Organisational Behaviour.* (8 Ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Hetland, H., & Sandal, G.M., (2003). Transformational leadership in Norway: Outcome and personality correlates. *European Journal of work and organisational psychology*, 12(2), 147-170.
- Hitt, M. A., & Ireland, R. D. (2002). The essence of strategic leadership: managing human and social capital. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 9(1), 3-14.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: a new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513-524.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology*, 50(3), 337-385.
- Hoelter, D. R. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness-of-fit indices. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 11, 325-344.
- Holladay, S. J., & Coombs, W. T. (1993). Communication visions: An exploration of the role of delivery in the creation of leader charisma. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 6, 405-427.
- House, E. (1991). Realism in research. *Educational Researcher*, 20(6), 2-25.
- House, R.J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, 331-336.

- House, R. J., & Dessler, G. (1974). A path-goal theory of leadership: some posthoc and a priori tests. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. E. Hunt (Eds.), *Contingency Approaches to Leadership*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- House, R.J. (1996). Path-goal theory of leadership: lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory, *Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 323-352.
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 891-902.
- Hox, J. J., & Boeije, H. R. (2005). Data collection, Primary vrs. Secondary. *Encyclopedia of Social Measurement*.
- Hoyle, R. H., & Robinson, J. I. (2003). Mediated and moderated effects in social psychological research: Measurement, design, and analysis issues. In C. Sansone, C. Morf, & A. T. Panter (Eds.), *Handbook of methods in social psychology* (pp. 213–233). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hoyle, R. H., & Smith, G. T. (1994). Formulating clinical research hypotheses as structural models: A conceptual overview. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 62, 429-440.
- Huang, J., Baptista, J., & Galliers, R. D. (2012). Reconceptualizing rhetorical practices in organizations: The impact of social media on internal communications. *Information & Management Services*, 50(2-3), 112-124.
- Huang, X. & Van de Vliert, V. (2003). Where Intrinsic Job Satisfaction Fails to Work: National Moderators of Intrinsic Motivation. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 24(2), 159-170.

- Ilies, R., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. (2007). Leader-member exchange and citizenship behavior: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 269-277.
- In'nami, Y., & Koizumi, R. (2013). Structural Equation Modelling in Educational Research: A Primer. In M. S. Khine (Ed.), *Application of Structural Equation Modelling in Educational Research and Practice*. Perth, Australia: Curtin University.
- Jablin, F. M. (1979). Superior-subordinate communication: The state of the art. *Psychological Bulletin, 86*, 1201-1222.
- Jablin, F. M. (2001). Organisational entry, assimilation, and disengagement/entry. In F. M. Jablin & L. L. Putnam (Eds.), *The new handbook of organisational communication: Advances in theory, research, and methods* (pp. 732–818). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Jablin, F. M., Cude, R. L., House, A., Lee, J. & Roth, N. L. (1994). Communication competence in organizations: Conceptualizations and comparison across multiple levels of analysis. In L. Thayer & G. Barnett, (Eds.), *Emerging Perspectives in Organisational Communication*, (Vol. 4, pp. 114-140). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Jackson, S.E. & Schuler, R.S. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 36*(1), 16-78.
- Jacobson, D. E. (1986). Types and timing of social support. *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour, 27*, 250-264.
- Jahansoozi, J. (2006). Organisation-stakeholder relationships: Exploring trust and transparency. *Journal of Management Development, 25*, 942–955.

- Jex, S.M., Adams, G.A., Bachrach, D.G. & Sorenson, S. (2003). The impact of situational constraints, role stressors, and commitment on employee altruism. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 8(3), 171-180.
- Jin, Y. (2010). Emotional Leadership as a Key Dimension of Public Relations Leadership: National Survey of Public Relations Leaders. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 22(2), 159-181.
- Johnson, B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed Methods Research: A Research Paradigm whose Time Has Come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Johnson, P. (1976). Women and power: toward a theory of effectiveness. *Journal of Social Issues*, 32(3), 99-110.
- Johnston, M. P. (2014). Secondary Data Analysis: A Method of which the Time Has Come *Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Libraries*, 3, 619 –626.
- Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1981). Process analysis: Estimating mediation in treatment evaluations *Evaluation Review*, 5, 602-619.
- Judge, & Bono. (2002). Five-factor model of Personality and Transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 751-765.
- Judge, T. A. & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89,755 – 768.
- Kahn, R., Wolfe, D., Quinn, R., Snoek, J., & Rosenthal, R. (1964). *Organisational stress: studies in role conflict and ambiguity*. New York: Wiley.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692-724.

- Kahn, W. A. (1992). To be full there: psychological presence at work. *Human Relations*, 45, 321-348.
- Kahn, W. A. (2010). The essence of engagement. In S. L. E. Albrecht (Ed.), *Handbook of Employee Engagement: Perspectives, Issues, Research and Practice*. Edward Elgar: Cheltenham.
- Kaplan, B. & Maxwell, J.A (1994). Qualitative Research Methods for Evaluating Computer Information Systems. In J. G. Anderson, C. E. Aydin and S. J. Jay (Eds.). *Evaluating Health Care Information Systems: Methods and Applications* (pp 45-68). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Karasek, R. A. J. (1979). Job Demands, Job Decision Latitude, and Mental Strain: Implications for Job Redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 24(2), 285-308.
- Kark, R., Manor, R., & Shamir, B. (2011). Does valuing androgyny and femininity lead to a female advantage? The relationship between gender-role, transformational leadership and identification. *The Leadership Quarterly* (in press).
- Keller, T., & Dansereau, F. (1995). Leadership and empowerment: A social exchange perspective. *Human Relations*, 48, 127-146.
- Ketter, P. (2008). What's the big deal about employee engagement? *Training and Development*, 62, 44-49.
- Kim, J., & Rhee, Y. (2011). Strategic thinking about employee communication behaviour (ECB) in public relations: Testing the models of megaphoning and scouting effects in Korea. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 23, 243–268.

- Kitchen, P. J., & Daly, F. (2002). Internal communication during change management. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 7, 46-53.
- Klen, H., & Meyers, M. (1998). A set of principles for conducting and evaluating interpretive field studies in information systems.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling* (3rd Ed.). New York: Guilford Press.
- Kline, T. J. (2005). *Psychological testing: A practical approach to design and evaluation*: Sage Publications.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1988). *The Leadership Practices Inventory*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass/Pfeiffer.
- Kovjanic, Schuh, S., & Jonas, K. (2013). Transformational leadership and performance: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of basic needs satisfaction and work engagement. *Journal of Occupational & Organisational Psychology*, 86(4).
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B. S. (2003). Work groups and teams in organizations. In W. Borman, D. R. Ilgen & R. K. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 333-375). London: Wiley.
- kraemer, H. C. (1994). Special methodical problems of childhood development follow-up studies: Focus on planning. In S. C. Friedman & Hayford (Eds.), *Developmental follow-up: concepts, domain and method* (pp. 259-276). San Deigo: CA, Academic Press.
- Kram, K. E., & Cheniss, C (2001). Developing emotional competence through relationship at work. In C. Cherniss & D.E Goleman (EDs.), *the emotionally intelligent workplace*. San Fracisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Kühnel, J., Sonnentag, S., & Westman, M. (2009). Does work engagement increase after a shortrespite? The role of job involvement as a double-edged sword. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 82(3), 75-94.
- Lado, A. A., Boyd, N. G., & Wright, P. A. (1992). A competency-Based Model of Sustainable Competitive Advantage: Toward a Conceptual Integration. *Journal of Management*, 8(1), 77-91.
- Lee, H. R. (2000). *An empirical study of organisational justice as a mediator of the relationships among leader-member exchange and job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions in the lodging industry*. Doctoral Dissertation, VA Polytechnic Institute and State.
- Lee, J. (2005). Effects of leadership and leadership-member exchange on commitment. *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal* 26 (7/8), 655.
- Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(2), 123 – 133.
- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2010). *Practical research: Planning and design* (9th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Liden, R. C., Sparrowe, R. T., & Wayne, S. J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: the past and potential for the future. In G. R. E. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (Vol. 15, pp. 47-199.). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Little, R. J. A., & Rubin, D. B. (1987). *Statistical analysis with missing data*. New York: Wiley.
- Liu, H., Shah, S., & Jiang, W. (2004). On-line outlier detection and data cleaning. *Computers and Chemical Engineering*, 28, 1635–1647.

- Liu, J., Liu, X., & Zeng, X. (2011). Does transactional leadership count for team innovativeness? *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 24(3), 282-298.
- Lloyd, R. (2008). Discretionary effort and the performance domain. *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Organisational Psychology*, 1, 22-34.
- Lockwood, N. R. (2007). Leveraging employee engagement for competitive advantage. *Society for Human Resource Management Research Quarterly*, 1, 1-12.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformation and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 385-425.
- Lowenstein, M. (2006). The trust equation: Build employee relationship credibility, rapport and integrity to leverage customer advocacy, from [http:// customerthink.com/201](http://customerthink.com/201)
- Luthans, F., & Peterson, S. J. (2002). Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy. *Journal of Management Development*, 21(5), 376-387.
- Lynch, B. K. (1996). *Language programme evaluation: Theory and practice*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Lyons, T. F. (1971). Role clarity, need for clarity, satisfaction, tension, and withdrawal. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 6(1), 99-110.
- Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, 1(1), 3-30.
- Macey, W. H., Schneider, B., Barbera, K. M., & Young, S. A. (2009). *Employee Engagement: Tools for Analysis, Practice, and Competitive Advantage*. Malden, WA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). *Introduction to statistical mediation analysis*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological Methods, 7*, 83-104.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., & Williams, J. (2004). Confidence limits for the indirect effect: Distribution of the product and resampling methods. *Multivariate Behavioural Research, 39*, 99–128.
- MacLeod, D., & Clarke, N. (2009). *The MacLeod Review – Engaging for Success: Enhancing Performance through Employee Engagement*. London Crown Copyright.
- MacNealy, M. S. (1999). *Strategies for Empirical Research in Writing*. New York: Longman.
- Madlock, P., & Booth-Butterfield, M. (2008). The Effects of Coworker Relational Maintenance Strategies on Employee Outcomes *Annual Meeting of the International Communication Association* (pp. 1-35). Quebec, Canada.
- Maertz, C. P., & Griffeth, R., W. (2004). Eight Motivational Forces and Voluntary Turnover: A Theoretical Synthesis with Implications. *Journal of Management, 30*, 667–683.
- Mallinckrodt, B., Abraham, W. T., Wei, M., & Russell, D. W. (2006). Advances in testing the statistical significance of mediation effects. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 53*, 372-378.
- Mardia, K. V. (1970). Measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis with applications. *Biometrika, 57*, 519–530.
- Mark, M. M., Henry, G. T., & Julnes, G. (2000). *Evaluation: An integrated framework for understanding, guiding, and improving policies and programs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Maslach, C. (2003). Job burnout: New directions in research and intervention. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 12, 189-192.
- Maslach, C., Schaufelli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 397-422.
- Maslow, A. (1970). *Motivation and personality* (2nd Ed.). New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Mathieu, J., & Zajac, D. (1990). A review of meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment, *Psychological Bulletin*, 108 (2), 171-94.
- Mathieu, J. E., DeShon, R. P., & Bergh, D. D. (2008). Mediation inferences in organisational research; Then, now, and beyond. *Organisational Research Methods*, 11, 203-223.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2004a). Causal explanation, qualitative research, and scientific inquiry in education. *Educational Researcher* 33(2), 3-11.
- May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational & Organisational Psychology*, 77(1), 11-37.
- Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. (2005). Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 874-888.
- Mayfield, J., & Mayfield, M. (2002). Leader Communication Strategies Critical Paths to Improving Employee Commitment. *American Business Review*, 20(2), 89-94.
- McBain, R. (2007). The practice of engagement: Research into current employee engagement practice. *Strategic HR Review*, 6(6), 16-19.
- McGrath, R. G., & MacMillan, I. C. (2000). *The Entrepreneurial Mindset*. MA: Harvard Business School Press.

- McQueen, M. (2002). Language and power in profit/non-profit relationships: A grounded theory of Inter-sectorial collaboration
retrieved http://au.geocities.com/dr_meryl_mcqueen/phd/mcqueench3.htm12, 2009
- Meijman, T. F., & Mulder, G. (1998). Psychological aspects of workload. In P. J. D. Drenth & H. E. Thierry (Eds.), *Handbook of Work and Organisational Psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 5-33). New York: Psychology Press.
- Men, L. R. (2012). The effects of organisational leadership on strategic internal communication and employee outcomes *Open Access Dissertations*.
- Men, L. R. (2014). Strategic internal communication: Transformational leadership, communication channels, and employee satisfaction. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 28(2), 264-284.
- Men, L. R., & Stacks, D. W. (2012). The impact of leadership style and employee empowerment on perceived organisational reputation *Journal of Communication Management*, 17(2), 171-192.
- Men, L. R., & Tsai, W. S. (2014). Perceptual, attitudinal, and behavioural outcomes of organization–public engagement on Corporate Social Networking Sites. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 26(5), 417-435.
- Men, L. R., & Hung-Baesecke, C.F. (2015). Engaging employees in China: the impact of communication channels, organisational transparency, and authenticity Corporate Communications. *An International Journal*, 20(4).
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research and Application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11(3), 299-326.
- Miller, K. I., & Monge, P. M. (1986). Participation, satisfaction, and productivity: a meta-analytic review. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(4), 727-753.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The Nature of Managerial Work*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Mishra K, Boynton, L., & Mishra, A. (2014). Driving Employee Engagement. The expanded Role of Internal Communication. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 51(2), 183-202.
- Monge, P. R., Backman, S. G., Dillard, J. P., & Eisenburg, E. M. (1982). Communicator competence in the workplace: Model testing and scale development. *Communication Yearbook*, 5, 505-528.
- Morehouse, R. (2011). *Beginning Interpretive Inquiry: A Step by-Step Approach to Research and Evaluation*. USA: Routledge.
- Morgeson, F. P., DeRue, D.S., & Karam, E.P. (2010). Leadership in Teams: A Functional Approach to Understanding Leadership Structures and Processes. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 5-39.
- Morhart, F.M., Herzog, W. & Tomczak, T. (2009). Brand –specific leadership: turning employees into brand champions. *Journal of Marketing*, 73(5), 122-142.
- Mullins, L. (1999). *Management and organisational behaviour* (5th Ed.). England: Financial Times Pitman Publishing.
- Myers, M. D. (1997). Qualitative Research. *MIS Quarterly*, 21(2), 241 - 242.

- Ndofor, H. A., Sirmon, D. G., & He, X. (2011). Firm resources, competitive actions and performance: Investigating a mediated model with evidence from in-vitro diagnostics industry. *Strategic Management Journal of Applied Quantitative Method*, 32, 640-657.
- Newman, D. A., Joseph, D. L., & Hulin, C. L. (2010). Job attitudes and employee engagement: Considering the attitude “A-factor.” In S. A. (Ed.), *the handbook of employee engagement: Perspectives, issues, research and practice* (pp. 43-61). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Nielsen, K., Randall, R., Yarker, J., & Brenner, S. O. (2008b). The effects of transformational leadership on followers perceived work characteristics and psychological well-being: A longitudinal study. *Work & Stress*, 22, 16-32.
- Nimakoo, S. G. (2012). Linking Quality, Satisfaction and Behaviour Intentions in Ghana's Mobile Telecommunication Industry. *European journal of business and management*, 4(7).
- Nind, M., & Todd, L. (2011). Prospects for educational research. . *International journal of Research & Method in Education*, 34(1), 1-2.
- Northouse, P. G. (2001). *Leadership Theory and Practice* (2 Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership Theory: Theory and Practice* (6th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Research methods in language learning*. Eighth printing. Cambridge: CUP.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- O'Driscoll, M.P. & Beehr, T.A. (1994). Supervisor behaviours, role stressors, and uncertainty as predictors of personal outcomes for subordinates. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 15(2), 141-155.
- O'Driscoll, M. P., & Beehr, T. A. (2000). Moderating effects of perceived control and need for clarity on the relationship between role stressors and employee affective reactions. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 140(2), 151-159.
- Oshagbemi, S., & Ocholi, A. (2006). Leadership Styles and behaviours profile of managers. *Journal of Management Development*, 748-762
- Oshagbemi, T., & Grill, R. (2003). Gender differences and similarities in the leadership styles and behaviours of UK managers. *Women in Management Review*, 18(2), 228-298.
- Ozga, J. E. (1993). *Women in Educational Management*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Panaccio, A. & Vandenberghe, C. (2011). The relationships of role clarity and organization-based self-esteem to commitment to supervisors and organisations and turnover intentions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 41(6), 1455-1485.
- Papalexandris, N., & Galanaki, E. (2009). Leaderships' impact on employee engagement: differences among entrepreneurs and professional CEOs. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 30(4), 365-385.
- Parsley, A. (2006). Road map for employee engagement. *Management Services*, 10–11.
- Patiar, A., & Mia, I. (2009). Transformational leadership style, market competition and departmental performance: evidence from luxury hotels in Australia. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(2), 254–262.
- Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative Research Methods*. London: Sage.
- Pawson, R., & Tilley, N. (1997). *Realistic Evaluation*. London: Sage.

- Pearce, T. (2003). *Leading Out Loud, Inspiring Change through Authentic Communication*. In D. S. Pottruck (Ed.). California, USA: Jossey Bass.
- Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. (2006). Transformational Leadership and Job Behaviour: The Mediating Role of Core Job Characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 327 – 340.
- Pillai, R., Schreishem, C. A., & Williams, E. A. (1999). Fairness perceptions and trust as mediators for transformational leadership and transactional leadership: A two-sample study. *Journal of Management*, 25, 897–933.
- Pinsonneault, A., & Kraemer, K. L. (1997). Middle management downsizing: an empirical investigation of the impact of information technology. *Management Science*, 43(5), 659-679.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviours and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organisational citizenship behaviour. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107-142.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 513-563.
- Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B. & Bommer, W.H. (1996). Transformational leadership behaviours and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, organizational citizenship behaviours. *Journal of Management*, 22(2), 259-298.

- Poole, M. S. (2011). Communication. In S. E. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organisational Psychology* (pp. 249-270). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Pounder, J.S., & Coleman, M. (2002). Women – better leaders than men? In general and educational management it still all depends, *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 23 (13), 122 – 133.
- Pounsford, M. (2007). Using storytelling, conversation and coaching to engage. *Strategic Communication Management*, 11(3), 32-35.
- Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. A. (1989). The good manager: Did androgyny fare better in the 1980s? *Group and Organisation Studies*, 14(2), 216-233.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behaviour Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers*, 36, 717-731.
- Priola, V. (2004). Gender and feminine identities – women as managers in a UK academic institution. *Women in Management Review*, 19(8), 421-430.
- Pugh, D., & Dietz, J. (2008). Employee Engagement at the organisational level of analysis. *Industrial and organisation psychology*, 1(1), 44-47.
- Quirke, B. (2008). *Making the connections: Using internal communication to turn strategy into action*. Burlington, VT: Gower.
- Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2004). Dimensions of transformational leadership: Conceptual and empirical extensions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(3), 329-354.

- Rawlins, B. (2006). *Give the emperor a mirror: Toward developing a stakeholder measurement of organisational transparency*. Paper presented at the Educators Academy, Public Relations Society of America International Conference, Salt Lake City, UT.
- Rawlins, B. (2008). Measuring the relationship between organisational transparency and employee trust. *Public Relations Journal*, 2, 1–21.
- Raykov, T., & Marcoulides, G. A. (2006). *A first course in structural equation modelling* (2nd Ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Redding, W. C. (1972). *Communication within the organisation: An interpretive review of theory and research*. New York: Industrial Communication Council.
- Resick, C. J., Baltes, B. B., & Shantz, C. W. (2007). Person-organization fit and work-related attitudes and decisions: Examining interactive effects with job fit and conscientiousness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1446-1455.
- Restubog, S. L. D., Bordia, P., & Tang, R. L. (2006). Effects of psychological contract breach on performance of IT employees: The mediating role of affective commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 79(2), 299–306.
- Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: the contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 825-836.
- Rich, B. L., LePine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 617-635.
- Richman, A. (2006). Everyone wants an engaged workforce how can you create it? *Workspan*, 49, 36-39.

- Richmond, V.P., & McCroskey, J.C. (2000). The impact of supervisor and subordinate immediacy on rational and organisational outcomes. *Communication Monographs*, 67(1), 85-95.
- Rigg, C., & Sparrow, J. (1994). Gender, Diversity and Working Styles. *Women in Management Review*, 9(1), 9-16.
- Rizzo, J. R., House, R.J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organisations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15, 150-163.
- Robbins, S. P., & Hunsaker, P. L. (2003). *Training in Interpersonal Skills: Tips for Managing People at Work* (3rd Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2009). *Organisational Behaviour* (13 Ed.). United States of America: Prentice Hall.
- Robbins, S. P., Coulter, M., & Vohra, N. (2010). *Management*. India: Dorling Kindersley, Pvt. Ltd.
- Robinson, D., Perryman, S., & Hayday, S. (2004). *The Drivers of Employee Engagement*. Brighton: Institute for Employment Studies.
- Robison, J. (2012). Boosting engagement at Stryker. *Gallup Management Journal*.
- Rogers, E. M., & Rogers, A. R. (1976). *Communication in organisations*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Rosener, J. (1990). Ways women lead. *Harvard Business Review*, 68, 119-125.
- Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46, 655-684.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1998). Why workers still identify with organizations. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 19, 217-233.

- Rousseau, D., & Greller, M. (1994). Human resource practices: administrative contract makers. *Human Resource Management, 33*(3), 385-401.
- Rowe, W. G. (2001). Creating wealth in organisations: The role of strategic leadership. *Academy of Management Executive, 15*, 81-94.
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*, 600-618.
- Salanova, M., Llorente, L., Chamber, M.J & Martinez, I.M (2011). Linking transformational leadership to nurses' extra-role performance: The mediating role of self-efficacy and work engagement. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 67*, 2256-2266.
- Salomon, G. (1991). Transcending the qualitative-quantitative debate: The analytic and systemic approaches to educational research. *Educational Researcher, 20*(6), 10-18.
- Sarti D. (2014). Leadership styles to engage employees: evidence from human service organizations in Italy. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 26*(3/4), 202 – 216.
- Sarwar, S., & Abugre, J. (2013). Does provision of feedback increase work engagement and reduce cynicism among employees? *The Business & Management Review, 3*(2).
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). *Research Methods for Business Students* (4th Ed.). Essex: Prentice Hall.
- Sayer, A. L. S. (2000). *Realism and social science*. London: Sage.
- Selmer, J. & Luring, J. (2014). Unhappy Expatriates at Work: Subjective Ill-Being and Work Outcomes, *European Journal of International Management, 8*(6), 579-599.
- Settoon, R.P., Bennett, N. & Liden, R.C. (1996). Social exchange in organisations: perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, employee reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(3), 219-227.

- Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (1994). Leader-Member Exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. *Academy of Management Review, 37*, 1588-1602.
- Scandura, T. A., Graen, G. B., & Novak, M. A. (1986). When managers decide not to decide autocratically: An investigation of leader-member exchange and decision influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 579-584.
- Schaufeli, W. (2015). Engaging leadership in the job demands-resources model *Career Development International, 20*.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 25*(3), 293-315.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Enzmann, D. (1998). *The Burnout Companion to study and practice: A critical Analysis*. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Taris, T. W. (2013). A critical review of the Job Demands-Resources Model: Implications for improving work and health. In G. Bauer & O. E. Hammig (Eds.), *Bridging Occupational, Organisational and Public Health*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & van Rhenen, W. (2009). How changes in job demands and resources predict burnout, work engagement, and sickness absenteeism. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 30*, 893-917.
- Schaufeli, W.B. & Salanova, M. (2007). Work engagement: An emerging psychological concept and its implications for organizations. In S.W. Gilliland, D.D. Steiner & D.P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Research in social issues in management: Managing social and ethical issues in organisations*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishers.

- Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A confirmative analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3, 71-92.
- Schein, V. E. (1975). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 340–344.
- Schein, V. E. (1994). Managerial sex typing: A persistent and pervasive barrier to women's opportunities. In M. Davidson & R. B. (Eds.) (Eds.), *Women in management* (pp. 41–52). London: Paul Chapman.
- Schneider, B., Macey, W. H., & Barbera, K. M. (2009). Driving customer satisfaction and financial success through employee engagement. *People and Strategy*, 32(2), 23-27.
- Schreiber, J. B., Nora, A., Stage, F. K., Barlow, E. A., & King, J. (2006). Reporting structural equation modelling and confirmatory factor analysis results: A review. *The Journal of educational research*, 99(6), 323-338.
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modelling* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Schyns, B., & Day, D. (2010). Critique and review of leader–member exchange theory: Issues of agreement, consensus, and excellence. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 19, 1-29. doi: 10.1080/13594320903024922
- Schyns, P. G., Petro, L., & Smith, M. L. (2007). Dynamics of visual information integration in the brain to categorize facial expressions. *Current Biology*, 17, 1580–1585.
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the Philosophical Underpinnings of Research: Relating Ontology and Epistemology to the Methodology and Methods of the Scientific, Interpretive, and Critical Research Paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9).

- Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1998). Following the leader in R&D: The joint effect of subordinate problem-solving style and leader-member relations on innovative behaviour. *Engineering Management, IEEE Transaction on*, 45(1), 3-10.
- Sedgwick, P. (2014). Cross sectional studies: advantages and disadvantages. *BMJ*, <http://www.bmg.com.permission>.
- Seijts, G., Crim, D., & (2006). What engages employees the Most or The 10 C's of employee engagement. *Ivey Business Journal*.
- Seltzer, J., & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership: Beyond initiation and consideration. *Journal of Management*, 16(4), 693-703.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept-based theory. *Organisation Science*, 577 – 594.
- Shantz, A., Alfes, K., & Arevshatian, L. (2016). HRM in healthcare: the role of work engagement. *Personnel Review*, 45(2), 274-295.
- Sharma, N., & Kamalanabhan, J. T. (2012). Internal corporate communication and its impact on internal branding: Perception of Indian public sector employees, Corporate Communications. *An International Journal*, 17(3), 300 - 322.
- Shaw, K. (2005). An engagement strategy process for communicators. *Strategic Communication Management*, 9(3), 26-29.
- Shaw, K., & Bastock, A. (2005). *Employee Engagement: How to Build a High-Performance Workforce*. London: Melcrum Publishing.
- Sheikh, A., Newman, A., & Azzeh, S. (2013). Transformtional leadership and job involvement in the Middle East: the mediating role of individually held cultural values. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3412-341

- Sherony, K. M., & Green, S. G. (2002). Coworker Exchange: Relationships between Co-workers, Leader-Member Exchange, and Work Attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 542-548.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 7*, 422-445.
- Shuck, B., & Herd, A. M. (2012). Employee engagement and leadership: Exploring the convergence of two frameworks and implications for leadership development in HRD. . *Human Resources Management Review, 11*, 156-181.
- Shuck, M. B., & Wollard, K. (2010). Employee engagement & HRD: A seminal review of the foundations. *Human Resource Development Review, 9*(1), 89-110.
- Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*. London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi: Sage.
- Sivo, S. A., Fan, X. T., Witta, E. L., & Willse, J. T. (2006). The Search for 'Optimal' Cutoff Properties: Fit Index Criteria in Structural Equation Modelling. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 74*(3), 267-289.
- Soane, E. (2014). Leadership and employee engagement. In C. Truss, R. Delbridge, K. Alfes, A. Shantz & E. E. Soane (Eds.), *Employee Engagement in Theory and Practice* (pp. 149-162). London: Routledge.
- Sobh, R., & Perry, C. (2006). Research design and data analysis in realism research. *European Journal of Marketing, 40*(11/12), 1194-1209.
- Sonnentag, S. (2003). Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behaviour: A new look at the interface between non-work and work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 518-528.

- Sparrowe, R. T., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Process and structure in leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(2), 522-552.
- Spector, P. E. (1986). Perceived control by employees: A meta-analysis of studies concerning autonomy and participation at work. *Human Relations*, 39, 1005-1016.
- Spreitzer, G. M. T. (2007). *Taking stock: A review of more than twenty years of research on empowerment at work. The handbook of organisational behaviour*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stackman, R. W., & Pinder, C. C. (1999). Context and sex effects on personal work networks. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 16(1), 39-64.
- Stinglhamber, F. & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Favorable job conditions and perceived support: the role of organizations and supervisors. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34 (7), 1470-1493.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of the literature*, New York: Free Press.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25, 35-71.
- Swaminathan, J., & Ananth, A. (2009). *Impact of demographic factors on employee engagement: A study with reference to vasan publications private limited*, Chennai: Vasan Publication.
- Syrett, M., & Hogg, C. (1992). *Frontiers of leadership: An essential reader*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Tabachnik, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (4th Ed.). Pearson: Needham Heights, MA.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2006). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th Ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

- Tannenbaum, R., & Schmidt, W. H. (1973). *How to choose a leadership pattern*. Boston: Harvard Business Review, Harvard Business School.
- Tansky, J. W., & Cohen, D. J. (2001). The relationship between organisations; support, employee development, and organisational commitment: an empirical study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12(3), 285-300.
- Teas, R. K., Wacker, J. G., & Hughes, R. E. (1979). A path analysis of causes and consequences of salesmen's perceptions of role clarity. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 6(3), 335-369.
- Teece, D. J., Pisano, G., & Shuen, A. (1997). Dynamic Capabilities and Strategic Management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 18(7), 509–533.
- Tengblad, S. (2006). Is there a 'new managerial work'? A comparison with Henry Mintzberg's classic study 30 years later. *Journal of Management Studies*, 43(7), 1437-1461.
- Teo, T., Tsai, L. T., & Yang, C. C. (2013). Applying Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) in Educational Research: An introduction. In M. S. Khine (Ed.), *Application of Structural Equation Modelling in Educational Research and Practice*. Rottendam, Netherlands: Sense Publication.
- Teven, J. J. (2007). Effects of supervisor social influence, nonverbal immediacy and biological sex on subordinates' perceptions of job satisfaction, liking and supervisor credibility. *Communication Quarterly*, 55, 155-177.
- Thomas, R. M. (2003). *Blending Qualitative and Quantitative: Research methods in theses and dissertations*. California: Sage.
- Thomas, G.L., Zolin, R., & Herman, J.L. (2009). The central role of communication in developing trust and its effect on employees' involvement. *International Journal of Business communication*, 48(2), 287-310.

- Tichy, N. M., & DeVanna, M. A. (1990). *The transformational leader* (2 Ed.). New York: John Wiley.
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2011). Do transformational leaders enhance their followers' daily work engagement? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(1), 121-131.
- Tourish, D., & Jackson, B. (2008). Guest editorial: communication and leadership: an open invitation to engage. *Leadership*, 4(3), 219-225.
- Towers P. (2003). Working Today: Understanding What Drives Employee Engagement. The 2003 Towers Perrin Talent Report. Retrieved 15 June 2011, from <http://www.towersperrin.com>.
- Townsend, J., Phillips, J. S., & Elkins, T. J. (2000). Employee retaliation: The neglected consequence of poor leader-member exchange relations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(4), 457-463.
- Tracey, J. B., & Hinkin, T. R. (1998). Transformational leadership or effective managerial practices? *Group and Organisation Management*, 23(3), 220-236.
- Trinidad, C., & Normore, A. H. (2005). Leadership and gender: a dangerous liaison? *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 26(7/8), 574-590.
- Trochim, W. M. K. (2001). *The Research Methods Knowledge Base*. Cincinnati: Atomic Dog.
- Truss, C., Soane, E., Edwards, C., Wisdom, K., Croll, A., & Burnett, J. (2006). *Working Life: Employee Attitudes and Engagement*. London: CIPD.
- Tuckey, M. R., Bakker, A. B., & Dollard, M. F. (2012). Empowering leaders optimize working conditions for engagement: A multilevel study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17, 15–27. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0025942>.

- Tymon Jr, W. G., Stumpf, S. A., & Smith, R. R. (2011). Manager support predicts turnover of professionals in India. *Career Development International*, 16, 293 – 312.
- Ullman, J. B. (2006). Structural Equation Modelling: Reviewing the Basics and Moving Forward. *Journal of personality assessment*, 87(1), 35–50.
- Ulrich, D. (1997). *Human resource champions*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Van den Broeck, A., De Cuyper, N., De Witte, H., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2010). Not all job demands are equal: Differentiating job hindrances and job challenges in the Job Demands-Resources model. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 19(6), 735 — 759.
- van Vugt, M., Jepson, S. F., Hart, C. M., & de Cremer, D. (2004). Autocratic leadership in social dilemmas: A threat to group stability. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 40, 1-13.
- Vazirani, N. (2005). *Employee engagement*: SIES College of Management Studies.
- Veld, M., Paauwe, J., & Boselie, P. (2010). HRM and strategic climates in hospitals: does the message come across at the ward level? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 20(4), 339-356.
- Vera, D., & Crosan, M. (2004). Strategic leadership and organisational learning. *Academy of Management Review*, 29(2), 222-240.
- Vinje, H.F. & Mittelmark, M.B. (2007). *Job engagement's paradoxical role in nurse burnout*. *Nursing Health Sciences*, 9(2), 107-111.
- Volmer, J., Niessen, C., Spurk, D., Linz, A., & Abele, E. A. (2011). Reciprocal Relationships between Leader–Member Exchange (LMX) and Job Satisfaction: A Cross-Lagged Analysis. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*.

- Wagner, R., & Harter, J. K. (2006). *The great elements of managing*. . Washington, DC: Gallup Organisation.
- Wallace, L., & Trinkka, J. (2009). Leadership and employee engagement. *Public Management, 91*(5), 10-13.
- Walumba, F. O., & Lawler, J. J. (2003). Building effective organisations: Transformational leadership, collectivist orientation, work-related attitudes and withdrawal behaviour in Three Emerging Economies. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*, 1083-1101.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management, 34*(1), 89-126.
- Wefald, A. J., & Downey, R.G. (2009a). Job engagement in organizations: fad, fashion, or folderol. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 30* (1), 141-145.
- Wefald, A. J., Reichard, R. J., & Serrano, S. A. (2011). Fitting engagement into a nomological network: The relationship of engagement to leadership and personality. *Leadership & Organisational Studies, 18*. 522-537.
- Weisinger, H. (1998). *Emotional Intelligence at Work*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Welch, M. (2011). The evolution of the employee engagement concept: communication implications. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, (16)* 4, 328 – 346.
- Welch, M., & Jackson, P. R. (2007). Rethinking internal communication: a stakeholder approach. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 12*(2), 177-198.
- Wellins, R., Bernthal, P., & Phelps, M. (2006). *Employee engagement: The key to realizing competitive advantage*. Pittsburgh: PA Development Dimension International.

- Whetten, D. A., & Cameron, K. S. (2002). *Developing Management Skills*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- White, C., Vanc, A., & Stafford, G. (2010). Internal Communication, Information Satisfaction, and Sense of Community: The Effect of Personal Influence. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 22(1), 65-84.
- Whitener, E. M. (2001). Do high commitment human resource practices affect employee commitment? A cross level analysis using hierarchical linear modelling. *Journal of Management*, 27(5), 515-535.
- Wiley, J.W., Kowske, B.J. and Herman, A.E. (2010), *Developing and validating a global model of employee engagement*, in Albrecht, S.L. (Ed.), *Handbook of Employee Engagement: Perspectives, Issues, Research and Practice*, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham.
- Williams, F. (1989). *The New Communication* (2nd Ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Williams, G.J., Baxter, R.A., He, H.X., Hawkins, S. & Gu, L. (2002). *A comparative study of RNN for outlier detection in data mining*, IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM'02), Maebashi City, Japan.
- Willis, J. W. (2007). *Foundations of qualitative research: interpretive and critical approaches*. London: Sage.
- Wilson, L. J. (1994). The return of Gemeinschaft: A theory of public relations and corporate community relations as relationship building. In A. F. Alkhafaji (Ed.), *Business research yearbook: Global business perspectives* (pp. 135-141). Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Wongsaroj, R., Krairit, D., & Khang, D. B. (2013). IT outsourcing and impacts in Thailand's financial institutions. *Information Development*.

- Wood, R. E., Goodman, J. S., Beckmann, N., & Cook, A. (2008). Mediation testing in management research: A review and proposals. *Organisational Research Methods, 11*, 270-295.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Heuven, E., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Working in the sky: a diary study on work engagement among flight attendants. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 13*(4), 345-356.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2007). The role of personal resources in the job demand-resource model, *International Journal of stress management, 14*(2), 121-141.
- Xu, J., & Thomas, H. C. (2011). How can leaders achieve high employee engagement? *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal, 32*(4), 399 – 416.
- Yamaguchi, I., (2005). Interpersonal Communication Tactics and Procedural Justice for Uncertainty Management of Japanese Workers, *Journal of Business Communication 42*(2), 168-194.
- Yammarino, F. J., Spangler, W. D., & Bass, B. M. (1993). Transformational leadership and performance: A longitudinal investigation. *Leadership Quarterly, 4*, 81–102.
- Yammarino, F. S., Dubinsky, A. J., Comer, L. B., & Jolson, M. A. (1997). Women and transformational and contingent reward leadership: a multiple-level-of-analysis perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*, 205-222.
- Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods*. London: SAGE Publication.
- Young, B. S., Worchel, S., & Woehr, D. J. (1998). Organisational commitment among public service employees. *Public Personnel Management, 27*(3), 339-348.

- Yrle, A. C., Hartman, S., & Galle, W. P. (2002). An investigation of relationships between communication style and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Communication Management, 6*(3), 257 - 268.
- Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organisations*. (5th Ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice-Hall.
- Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in organisations* (4 Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in organisations* (6 Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson-Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G., Gordam, A., & Taber, T. (2002). A hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behaviour: Integrating a half-century of behaviour research. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies, 9*, 15-32.
- Zhang, T., Avery, G.C., Bergsteiner, H., & More, E. (2014a). The relationship between leadership paradigms and employee engagement. *Journal of Global Responsibility, 5*(1) 4-21.
- Zhang, T., Avery, G. C., Bergsteiner, H., & More, E. (2014b). Do follower characteristics moderate leadership and employee engagement? *Journal of Global Responsibility, 5*(2), 269 -288.
- Zhang, Z., Jia, M., & Gu, L. (2012). Transformational leadership in crisis situation: evidence from the People's Republic of China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 23*(19), 4085-4109.
- Zhu, W., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2009). Moderating role of follower characteristics with transformational leadership and follower work engagement. *Group and Organization Management, 34*, 590-619.

Zhu, W., Chew, I. K. H., & Spangler, W. D. (2005). CEO transformational leadership and organisational outcomes: The mediating role of human-capital-enhancing human resource management. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 39-52.

APPENDICES:

Appendix A: Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA BUSINESS SCHOOL, LEGON

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am an Mphil student from the above institution and the department of Organisational and Human Resource Management undertaking a research on the topic ‘**enhancing daily employee engagement of subordinates through women leadership styles in the health sector of Ghana: the mediating role of interpersonal communication**’. This information will be used strictly for research purposes and will also be treated with high confidentiality (names are not required). The researcher will be grateful if you contribute to this study by completing the questionnaire as honestly as possible by ticking (√) appropriately.

Thank You.

Section A: Leadership Styles

Instruction: Judge how frequently each statement fits the supervisor you are describing.

Use the following rating scale by ticking (√) appropriately

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently, if not always
1	2	3	4	5

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
.						
1.	My supervisor instills pride in me for being associated with her.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	She goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My supervisor acts in ways that builds my respect.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	She displays a sense of power and confidence at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My supervisor talks about her most important values and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	My supervisor specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	My supervisor considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	My supervisor emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	She re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5

10.	My supervisor seeks differing perspectives when solving problems with me.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	My supervisor gets me to look at problems from many different angles.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	She suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	My supervisor spends time teaching and coaching me.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	My supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	My supervisor discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	My supervisor makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My supervisor expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	My supervisor focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	My supervisor concentrates her full attention on me in dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	My supervisor keeps track of all mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	My supervisor directs my attention toward failures to meet standards.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	My supervisor fails to interfere until problems become serious.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	My supervisor takes action when something wrong happens at work.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	My supervisor shows that she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	1	2	3	4	5
32.	My supervisor demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	My supervisor gets me to do more than I expect to do.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	My supervisor heightens my desire to succeed.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	My supervisor increases my willingness to try harder.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	My supervisor is effective in meeting my job-related needs.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	My supervisor is effective in meeting organizational requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	My supervisor works with me in a satisfactory way.	1	2	3	4	5

Section B: Employee Engagement

Instruction: The following 18 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job.

If you have had this feeling, indicate how you feel it by ticking (√) appropriately using the below scale.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
--------------------------------------	-----------------------------	----------------------------	--------------------------	-----------------------------------

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1.	I work with intensity on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I exert my full effort to my job.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I devote a lot of energy to my job.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I try my hardest to perform well on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I strive as hard as I can to complete my job.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I exert a lot of energy on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am enthusiastic about my job	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I feel energetic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am interested in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am proud of my job.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I feel positive about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I am excited about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	At work, my mind is focused on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	At work, I concentrate on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	At work, I am absorbed in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job.	1	2	3	4	5

Section C: Interpersonal Communication

Instruction: Think about how often your immediate supervisor engages in the described behaviour. For each item, select the number that best represents the behaviour that your immediate supervisor is most likely to exhibit.

Indicate the behaviour by ticking (√) appropriately using the below scale.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

No	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1.	My supervisor is approachable.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	My supervisor helps make my job more pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My supervisor treats all the workers as his/her equal.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Clear planned goals/objectives exist through my supervisor for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I know exactly what is expected of me in my job through information given by my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I know how my performance is going to be evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I feel certain about the level of authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I know what my responsibilities are when performing my duties on a job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	My superior/boss often gives me feedback on how well I am performing on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am praised/recognition by my supervisor for performing well on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I can greatly influence the decisions of my immediate supervisor regarding things in my job over which I am concerned.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	My superior often asks my opinion when a problem comes up that involves my job.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I feel that it is easy to get my job improvement ideas across to my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
14.	My supervisor generally says the right thing at the right time.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	My supervisor communicate actively with employees.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	My supervisor show concern for employees' personal well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	My supervisor provides a plan for how work need to be carry out.	1	2	3	4	5

Section D: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Instruction: Indicate by ticking (√) appropriately

1. Gender of respondents

1. Male ()
2. Female ()

2. Age of the respondents
 1. 18-24 years ()
 2. 25-31 years ()
 3. 32-38 years ()
 4. 39-45 years ()
 5. 46-52 years ()
 6. 53 and above years ()

3. How long have you been working with your immediate supervisor? (Please state).....

4. What is the rank/position of your immediate supervisor? (Please state).....

Thank you once again for your opinions and views.

Appendix B: Assessment of Outliers**Assessment of outliers**

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
118	39.557	.000	.001
68	38.159	.000	.000
38	29.972	.000	.000
214	26.355	.001	.000
207	25.160	.001	.000
227	21.378	.006	.012
100	21.006	.007	.006
243	20.425	.009	.006
149	20.118	.010	.003
7	19.710	.011	.003
40	19.613	.012	.001
213	19.553	.012	.000
176	19.550	.012	.000
93	19.103	.014	.000
277	18.535	.018	.000
114	17.923	.022	.001
94	17.747	.023	.001
286	17.601	.024	.001
5	17.547	.025	.000
136	16.901	.031	.001
151	16.817	.032	.001
148	16.813	.032	.000
98	16.510	.036	.001
198	16.053	.042	.002
95	15.485	.050	.010
276	15.313	.053	.011
237	15.287	.054	.007
196	15.008	.059	.012
121	14.903	.061	.010
77	14.817	.063	.008
170	14.605	.067	.012
140	14.518	.069	.010
56	14.464	.070	.008
278	14.323	.074	.009
280	14.157	.078	.011
127	14.145	.078	.007
281	14.018	.081	.008
190	13.760	.088	.016

Appendix C: Items for Confirmatory Analysis**Table 4.3 Items used to measure leadership style, employee engagement and Interpersonal communication**

	STATEMENTS	Code	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	My supervisor goes beyond her self-interest for the good of the group	TFL1	3.69	1.07
2	She specifies the important of having a strong sense of purpose	TFL2	3.73	1.01
3	My supervisor gets me to look at problems from different angles	TFL3	3.59	1.10
4	My supervisor helps me to develop my strengths	TFL4	3.65	1.15
5	My supervisor talks optimistically about the future	TFL5	3.51	1.12
6	She makes it clear what one can expect to receive when goals are achieved	TSL1	3.44	1.11
7	She expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	TSL2	3.78	1.14
8	She concentrates her full attention on me in dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures	TSL3	3.45	1.21
9	My supervisor keeps track of all mistakes	TSL4	3.42	1.89
10	She takes action when something wrong happens at work	TSL5	3.87	1.03
11	My supervisor demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking actions	TSL6	2.21	1.34
12	I work with intensity on my job	PEE1	4.15	0.81
13	I exert my full effort to my job.	PEE2	4.25	0.81
14	I devote a lot of energy to my job.	PEE3	4.28	0.77
15	I try my hardest to perform well on my job.	PEE4	4.43	0.77
16	I strive as hard as I can to complete my job	PEE5	4.30	0.79
17	I exert a lot of energy on my job	PEE6	4.24	0.82
18	I am enthusiastic about my job	EEE1	4.29	0.81
19	I feel energetic about my job.	EEE2	4.13	0.81
20	I am interested in my job.	EEE3	4.36	0.82
21	I am proud of my job.	EEE4	4.44	0.81
22	I feel positive about my job.	EEE5	4.41	0.78
23	I am excited about my job.	EEE6	4.28	0.85
24	At work, my mind is focused on my job	CEE1	4.29	0.85
25	At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job	CEE2	4.36	0.80
26	At work, I concentrate on my job	CEE3	4.37	0.76
27	At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job	CEE4	4.36	0.78
28	At work, I am absorbed in my job	CEE5	4.20	0.77
29	At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job.	CEE6	4.39	0.71
30	My supervisor is approachable	IPC1	4.13	0.93
31	Through information given, I know what is expected of me at work	IPC2	4.08	0.88
32	My supervisor gives me feedback on my performance	IPC3	3.74	1.03
33	I am praised by my supervisor for performing well	IPC4	3.69	1.06

34	She asks my opinion when a problem comes up that involves my job	IPC5	3.66	1.01
35	My supervisor communicate actively with employees	IPC6	3.97	0.90